



**LANDSCAPES
FOR 1 BILLION
PEOPLE**

Facilitation for Integrated Landscape Management

Hand-out for participants

Assignments, checklists, theory, and illustrations

Version May 2024



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INTRODUCTION

All around the world, communities are facing critical challenges to their well-being, economies and nature because of degradation of their land, watersheds, forests, biodiversity and climate disruption. Communities feel the impacts and increased conflict from rising food insecurity, infectious disease, water scarcity, business risks, extreme weather events and reduced farm productivity.

From fighting deforestation and climate change to building economic opportunities and better working conditions for rural people, the Rainforest Alliance and 1000 Landscapes initiative are working to solve urgent environmental and social challenges.

To ensure that millions of people around the globe are equipped to take the necessary sustainability measures and are supported to make systemic changes, 1000 Landscapes and Rainforest Alliance rely on a global network of professionals to deliver effective trainings and workshops. To which you belong!

To truly deliver impactful trainings and workshops, a facilitator needs to be equipped with an extensive toolbox of training and facilitation skills. Impactful sessions are interactive and participatory by design, using innovative methods that draw on the knowledge and experience of the participants, rather than passive style teaching and lectures. This training helps facilitators to make a measurable difference for adult learners. It prepares facilitators with the necessary skills to later implement sessions on any topic. Therewith, it is the backbone of the capacity strengthening program of the 1000 Landscapes Initiative and the Rainforest Alliance Knowledge Sharing Unit.

While this training is primarily about in-person facilitation of learning processes of adults, many of the principles can also be applied in workshops, farmer field schools, meetings and online training. And although the context for this training is set by rural development and landscape initiatives, these skills have been proved to work in any adult learning environment and will therefore be of life-long value to the participants of this training.

This document supports the face-to-face training on Facilitation for Integrated Landscape Management and includes all assignments, checklists, and theories that are dealt with during the training. Your feedback is essential for us because we would like to ensure that this training represents the richness of experience from trainers and facilitators all around the globe.

Lastly, I would like to thank the co-authors of this manual: Louelle Seelmann, Daniel Uosukainen, Paul Schep, Matteo Tarasco, Valerie van Straaten, and Zina Burgers.

I wish you a great learning experience!

René Pieneman,
Senior Manager Knowledge Sharing Rainforest Alliance

THE PROGRAM

This training is a five-day face-to-face training for trainers, Landscape Facilitators or weavers, Associate Trainers, and Technical Assistants who deliver and contextualize face-to-face trainings or workshops.



Structure of hand-out

This hand-out is structured as follows. This chapter deals with the learning objectives and provides an indicative high-level agenda. Then, the role of the trainer is defined, followed by an explanation of the roles in the training. Subsequently, the assignments and checklists are provided that are dealt with during the training, followed by the supporting theories.

What will you have learned by the end of this training?

By the end of this training you are able to:

1. Set competencies on knowledge, skills and attitude and design learning objectives to bridge gaps in competencies.
2. Distinguish Kolb's learning styles and demonstrate flexibility in the implementation to assure that each participant is able to learn.
3. Differentiate 10 participatory training methods and experience at least 5 of them in live demonstrations.
4. Reach the objectives of a session with the concepts of supporting exercise and final exercise.
5. Demonstrate the use of the motivation slide during your training.
6. Deliver content during your training in a fluid and understandable manner.
7. Manage group dynamics and learn to deal with resistance to create a safe and inclusive learning climate.
8. Give and receive constructive feedback to build learner motivation.
9. Create rapport with your participants, read body language and establish credibility.
10. Identify the needs and characteristics of participants and adapt your training design accordingly.
11. Respond effectively to questions during your training.
12. Explore communication model theories and apply at least 1 NLP technique.
13. Describe how the theory of pain and pleasure explains why people do the things that they do.
14. Evaluate their own facilitation skills.

Landscape facilitators specifically are able at the end of the training to:

15. Identify their own biases and stake in the landscape.
16. Reflect on their non-neutral role as landscape facilitator.
17. Identify where their Landscape Partnership is in the ILM process, using the concept of breath design.

ILLUSTRATION 01: HIGH-LEVEL AGENDA

AGENDA DAY 1	
	Learning styles
	Training effectiveness
	Competencies
	Learning objectives & Bloom
	Training versus Workshops
	Stages of learning
	Principles of Pain and Pleasure
	Start of your training
	Global design
AGENDA DAY 2	
	Participatory Training and Workshop Methods
	Learning in steps
	Clear instructions
	Levels of feedback
	M&E and profile of a trainer and Landscape Facilitator
	Workshop flow design
AGENDA DAY 3	
	Metaphor
	Safe and inclusive learning spaces
	Group dynamics and dealing with resistance
	Preparation for demonstration
AGENDA DAY 4	
	Dealing with questions
	Communication model
	Demonstrations
AGENDA DAY 5	
	Stages of group development (optional)
	ADDIE model (optional)
	Demonstrations

The role of the trainers

1. Communicate in an easy and understandable language.
1. Manage their internal emotional states in stressful situations.
2. Build and maintain long-term rapport and trust with stakeholders.
3. Identify and respond empathetically to the emotions, needs, motivations, concerns and perspectives of stakeholders by using techniques like deep listening.
4. Establish credibility among the stakeholders.
5. Respond effectively to questions.
6. Manage expectations of stakeholders by being transparent about feasible outcomes and by co-creating the process.
7. Create a safe learning and collaboration climate by enabling constructive group dynamics, taking power dynamics into account.
8. Create an inclusive space in which all different perspectives from all different stakeholders are welcome, including voices that are often not heard.
9. Apply participatory design principles when contextualizing a session, including learning styles, attention spans and realistic timeframes.
10. Identify the specific needs and characteristics of their stakeholders and adapt a session design accordingly.
11. Deliver content during a session in a fluid manner and without missing information or essential activities.
12. Engage and motivate participants during the session.
13. Reach the objectives of a session, while being open and flexible for emerging needs of stakeholders.
14. Assess the participants' competency level before, during and after a session.
15. Give effective feedback to participants to enable their learning process.
16. Manage time effectively during a session.
17. Prepare the session in a timely manner, including inviting all the relevant stakeholders, logistics of the venue, dividing tasks and roles with a co-facilitator and preparing materials.
18. Evaluate their own facilitation skills and seek possibilities to improve them continuously.
19. Develop their own authentic facilitation style.
20. Practice what they preach by being a role model.

Additionally the role of Landscape Facilitators

1. Co-create a long-term ILM process with stakeholders.
2. Facilitate a session with another facilitator with whom they build on each other's strengths.
3. Identify their own values, biases, interests, motivations and stake in the landscape and reflect on how this influences their non-neutral role as landscape facilitator.
4. Put themselves in service of the greater good.
5. Make stakeholders aware of power dynamics.

Roles in the training

(Lead) Trainer

The competent person responsible for delivering an effective training in line with 1000L's Training & Learning approach.

Co-trainer

A co-trainer is a person responsible for one or multiple subjects in a training. The (lead) trainer remains responsible for the acceptable level of learning of all topics dealt with in the training.

Coach

A coach is a mentor that supports the learning process of a group of participants. A coach, who is often a co-trainer, is the point of entry for participants for asking questions, before, during and after the training. A condition for being a coach is the successful completion of the Training Methodologies training and being competent in managing final demonstrations by roleplay with observers. A coach is preferably not the manager or a direct colleague of the participant.

Buddy

A buddy is a participant that supports the learning process of another participant. These pairs are assigned by the trainer and are preferably people that can observe each other on site during a face-2-face training. During training they monitor the completion of assignments and check each other's understanding by asking questions. One buddy set can exist of 3 people in case there is an odd number of participants.

Participant

A person who participates in a training and is targeted for specific learning objectives, also called a 'learner'.

Observer

A role assigned to a person to observe the process and provide objective feedback after its completion. Observers normally do not participate in the training, however, during this training participants can act as observers during the demonstrations that are part of the activity of "Roleplay with observers". Observers should not observe in the final demonstration of a participant.

COLLECTION OF ASSIGNMENTS

Find here all assignments we work on in preparation, during, and after the training.

ASSIGNMENT 01: YOUR TRAINING AS THE STARTING POINT

During the Training Methodologies training you will work on the design of one of your own face-to-face trainings and improve it. By answering the questions below you will describe your training. This assignment is part of the preparations before the face-to-face training takes place.

Your trainer will contact you once you have answered the questions and submitted them. Keep in mind that this is not 'just' an assignment, because during the last day of the Training Methodologies training, you will demonstrate a small part of the training you will describe here. For the final demonstration, you are given 30-45 minutes. Therefore, choose one subject that fits into this timeframe. If you have any questions, please contact your trainer.

- Please indicate below which part or subject of your training you would like to demonstrate.
- In addition to submitting this assignment to your trainer, make sure to print or write down the answers to these questions since you will need them during the training.

1. Name of trainer (your name):
2. Title of training:
3. What would you want to achieve with this training?
4. Who are the participants of the training (farmers, community leaders, government officials , auditors, ...)?
5. Are the participants aware they lack knowledge/skills? Are they motivated to learn?
6. What is the length of your training (minimum 1 training day)?
7. What is/are the subject(s) in your training?
8. Which subject will you demonstrate (time indication is 30-45 minutes)

ASSIGNMENT 02: INVENTORY OF EXPECTATIONS

1. What do you want to learn during this training that improves your professional practice?
2. How do you know that what you have learned will improve your professional practice?
3. What do you expect of your trainer(s) in this training?

4. How can other participants of this training encourage your learning?
Do you have any suggestions for this training?

ASSIGNMENT 03: LEARNING STYLES

The following questionnaire has been adapted from Honey and Mumford; The Manual of Learning Styles¹. This questionnaire is designed to find out your preferred learning style. Over the years you have probably developed learning 'habits' that help you benefit more from some experiences than from others. Since you are probably unaware of this, this questionnaire will help you pinpoint your learning preferences.

- Read the questionnaire below
- If you agree more than you disagree with the statement, put a circle around the statement number.
- If you disagree more than you agree, do nothing.
- There are no right or wrong answers.
- The accuracy of the results depends on how honest you can be.
- Once you have finished, score your answers following the instructions below the questionnaire and see your result

Questionnaire

1. I have strong beliefs about what is right and wrong, good and bad.
2. I often act without considering the possible consequences.
3. I tend to solve problems using a step-by-step approach.
4. I believe that formal procedures and policies restrict people.
5. I have a reputation for saying what I think, simply and directly.
6. I often find that actions based on feelings are as sound as those based on careful thought and analysis.
7. I like the sort of work where I have time for thorough preparation and implementation.
8. I regularly question people about their basic assumptions.
9. What matters most is whether something works in practice.
10. I actively seek out new experiences.
11. When I hear about a new idea or approach I immediately start working out how to apply it in practice.
12. I am keen on self-discipline such as watching my diet, taking regular exercise, sticking to a fixed routine, etc.
13. I take pride in doing a thorough job.
14. I get on best with logical, analytical people and less well with spontaneous 'irrational' people.
15. I take care over the interpretation of data available to me and avoid jumping to conclusions.
16. I like to reach a decision carefully after weighing up many alternatives.
17. I'm attracted more to novel, unusual ideas than to practical ones.
18. I don't like disorganized things and prefer to fit things into a coherent pattern.
19. I accept and stick to laid down procedures and policies so long as I regard them as an efficient way of getting the job done.
20. I like to relate my actions to a general principle.
21. In discussions, I like to get straight to the point.
22. I tend to have distant, rather formal relationships with people at work.
23. I thrive on the challenge of tackling something new and different.
24. I enjoy fun-loving, spontaneous people.
25. I pay careful attention to detail before coming to a conclusion.
26. I find it difficult to produce ideas on impulse.
27. I believe in coming to the point immediately.
28. I am careful not to jump to conclusions too quickly.
29. I prefer to have as many sources of information as possible – the more data to think over the better.
30. People who don't take things seriously enough usually irritate me.

¹ Honey & Mumford, 1982

31. I listen to other people's points of view before putting my own forward.
32. I tend to be open about how I'm feeling.
33. In discussions, I enjoy watching the maneuverings of the other participants.
34. I prefer to respond to events on a spontaneous, flexible basis rather than plan things out in advance.
35. I tend to be attracted to techniques such as network analysis, flow charts, branching programs, contingency planning etc.
36. It worries me if I have to rush out a piece of work to meet a tight deadline.
37. I tend to judge people's ideas on their practical merits.
38. Quiet, thoughtful people tend to make me feel uneasy.
39. I often get irritated by people who want to rush things.
40. It is more important to enjoy the present moment than to think about the past or future.
41. I think that decisions based on a thorough analysis of all the information are sounder than those based on intuition.
42. I tend to be a perfectionist.
43. In discussions, I usually produce lots of spontaneous ideas.
44. In meetings, I put forward practical realistic ideas.
45. More often than not, rules are there to be broken.
46. I prefer to stand back from a situation and consider all the perspectives.
47. I can often see inconsistencies and weaknesses in other people's arguments.
48. On balance, I talk more than I listen.
49. I can often see better, more practical ways to get things done.
50. I think written reports should be short and to the point.
51. I believe that rational, logical thinking should win the day.
52. I tend to discuss specific things with people rather than engaging in social discussion.
53. I like people who approach things realistically rather than theoretically.
54. In discussions, I get impatient with irrelevancies and digressions.
55. If I have a report to write I tend to produce lots of drafts before settling on the final version.
56. I am keen to try things out to see if they work in practice.
57. I am keen to reach answers via a logical approach.
58. I enjoy being the one that talks a lot.
59. In discussions, I often find I am a realist, keeping people to the point and avoiding wild speculations.
60. I like to ponder many alternatives before making up my mind.
61. In discussions with people I often find I am the most dispassionate and objective.
62. In discussions, I'm more likely to adopt a 'low profile' than to take the lead and do most of the talking.
63. I like to be able to relate current actions to a longer-term bigger picture.
64. When things go wrong I am happy to shrug it off and 'put it down to experience'.
65. I tend to reject wild, spontaneous ideas as being impractical.
66. It's best to think carefully before taking action.
67. On balance, I do the listening rather than the talking.
68. I tend to be tough on people who find it difficult to adopt a logical approach.
69. Most times I believe the end justifies the means.
70. I don't mind hurting people's feelings so long as the job gets done.
71. I find the formality of having specific objectives and plans stifling.
72. I'm usually one of the people who puts life into a party.
73. I do whatever is effective to get the job done.
74. I quickly get bored with methodical, detailed work.
75. I am keen on exploring the basic assumptions, principles and theories that justify things and events.
76. I'm always interested to find out what people think.
77. I like meetings to be run on methodical lines, sticking to a laid down agenda, etc.
78. I keep away from subjective or ambiguous topics.
79. I enjoy the drama and excitement of a crisis situation.
80. People often find me insensitive to their feelings.

Scoring your questionnaire

- You score one point for each statement that you encircled.

- Simply indicate on the list below which statements were encircled. You can do this by drawing a circle around the statement number.
- Below the matrix count the number of circles for each column. Each column reflects a learning style.
- Can you guess which column is: - Concrete experience (Activist), - Reflective observation (Reflector), - Abstract conceptualization (Theorist), - Active experiment (Pragmatist)?

	Statement number			
	2	7	1	5
	4	13	3	9
	6	15	8	11
	10	16	12	19
	17	25	14	21
	23	28	18	27
	24	29	20	35
	32	31	22	37
	34	33	26	44
	38	36	30	49
	40	39	42	50
	43	41	47	53
	45	46	51	54
	48	52	57	56
	58	55	61	59
	64	60	63	65
	71	62	68	69
	72	66	75	70
	74	67	77	73
	79	76	78	80
Your score				
Learning Style				

ASSIGNMENT 04: WHEN A SESSION FAIL

In this assignment we will explore why sessions may fail in reaching its purpose and draw lessons on how to avoid this happening in your session.

- Read the following text which is adapted from an article published in 2018 in Coffee and Cocoa International magazine² and explores training in the coffee sector.
- Identify lessons learned for improvements and write these down on separate sticky notes.

Note that this example focuses on farmer training specifically, but that the lessons learned are also applicable on training and workshops with more diverse participants.

Training can be a powerful instrument to foster change. It is probably the single most common developmental intervention in the world of agriculture. But as COSA's Carlos de los Rios and Daniele Giovannucci argue, evidence is mounting that all too often it doesn't meet its objectives

That training programs don't meet their objectives might seem surprising to many in the coffee and cocoa sectors, but just as surprising is the fact that even organizations with international reputations are not immune from delivering or funding ineffective training.

So, if training is not as effective as we thought, then why do so many programs keep financing it and how can we improve it?

COSA used data and observations to review the effect of trainings conducted by an array of well-known international and national organizations in coffee regions of Ethiopia, Guatemala, Kenya, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Peru, and found some approaches that tend to work but others that are less likely to be effective. What makes the difference?

Why things go wrong

We rely on training, in part, because in many areas of human endeavor, a lot of training really does work. In basic industrial settings, for example, most workers respond well to training to begin operating in a factory assembly line. So, it seems a logical leap to apply that to other endeavors. But farming is very different: cultural factors have a large influence; farmers are more heterogeneous than we often assume; their personal calculation of costs and benefits can be complex considering age, weather, family condition, and price trends; and it takes months or years to see results. Such factors offer insights for how to do better, but they also begin to reveal the flaws in the rationale of much of what is offered as training.

When farmers are asked their opinion of a training program, they tend to report positively. Indeed, there is a lot of good training available. The fundamental problem is that all too often the training that is given is not what a farmer actually needs, or it is not provided in a way they can readily adopt it.

We often fail to understand what motivates a farmer's calculus. We might assume, for example, that they value greater income or productivity above all other things. By listening we often learn that many other factors affect decisions. Thus, a farmer might conceptually understand from their training that a certain way to prune or a better fertilizer can potentially improve their yields by, say, 20 per cent but they may instead determine that investing in a child's schooling or using the time to earn immediate cash for labor on a neighboring farm could be a better and more secure choice.

There are also cultural considerations, such as farmers having cultivated the crops they grow in a particular way for many years. While working with the government of Yemen, we discovered in one region a common practice of killing earthworms (strangely called 'soil dragons') that never responded to training because farmers did not trust educated trainers telling them they play an invaluable role in healthy soil. Hence, even an apparently logical training may not get adopted. And that is a critical point: only adoption matters. Counting how many farmers

² de los Rios & Giovannucci, 2018:

https://thecosa.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/Farmers-fail-to-benefit-if-training-fails-to-hit-the-spot_Coffee-And-Cocoa-International_2018-Dec-20.pdf

participate in training is useless without measuring adoption. If results matter, then outcomes such as higher yield, lower harvest costs, and healthier trees or even impacts such as improved income also need to be looked at to determine the return on investment or return on the training investment.

ASSIGNMENT 05: COMPETENCIES AND GAPS

- Write down the competencies for your participants addressed in your training.
- Write down the gaps between current and desirable behavior.
- After filling in the table below, reflect on whether all these are competencies relevant for all participants? If not, does this mean you need to differentiate your training?

Competency	Gap

ASSIGNMENT 06: YOUR LEARNING OBJECTIVES

An effective training design targets a gap in Knowledge, Skills and/or Attitudes.

- For one target group only, identify the type for each competency (Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes).
- Then, describe your learning objectives below based on Bloom's Taxonomy (Checklist 01: Bloom's taxonomy).
- From your learning objectives, choose 2 objectives and write them down on 2 sticky notes (do not write down Knowledge, Skills, or Attitudes on the sticky note).

Learning Objectives
1.
2.
3.
4.

ASSIGNMENT 07: START OF YOUR TRAINING

Design an introduction of a training subject with the motivation slide (Illustration 10: Motivation Slide). This is one of the ingredients you will demonstrate on day 4 or 5.

- Design the start or subject of your training with a length of approximately 5 minutes.
- As a reference use Checklist 04: the start of your training/subjects.
- Apply the rules of pain, but not trust.
- Demonstrate your design to your buddy and give each other feedback.

ASSIGNMENT 08: GLOBAL DESIGN

Discuss with your group the right order of training subjects for a good training design.

- You are going to decide on a good training design from the perspective of the participant, identifying what would be most interesting and engaging.
- The training subjects are A, B, C and D and are experienced as following from the perspective of the participant:
 - A = Very interesting
 - B = Interesting
 - C = Occasionally interesting
 - D = Barely interesting
- Assign a spokesman who gives an explanation of the sequence.

ASSIGNMENT 09: REORDER THE SUBJECTS IN YOUR TRAINING

Follow the instructions below to complete this assignment:

- Decide which subject in your training (not just your demonstration) is A and which one is B.
- Reorder the subjects in your training design.

ASSIGNMENT 10: YOUR LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Please note, this exercise is optional. It is meant to help you to reflect and get the most from this training experience.

- At the end of a training day answer any question(s) of your choice.
- After the training, revisit your answers from time to time to find out how well you are achieving your goals.

1. What do you want to do with today's learning experience?

Day 1

Day 2

Day 3

Day 4

Day 5

2. How will you know when you have achieved it?

Day 1

Day 2

Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
3. What exactly will you see, hear, and feel when you have achieved it?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
4. Getting back to where you are right now, what are you going to do to achieve it?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
5. What can other people do to help you to achieve it?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
6. What difference will achieving this make in your life?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3

Day 4
Day 5
7. How will you put it into practice every day?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
8. What difference will other people notice in you?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5
9. How will you continue to develop your skill?
Day 1
Day 2
Day 3
Day 4
Day 5

ASSIGNMENT 11: PARTICIPATORY TRAINING METHODS

Explore Participatory Training Methods and optionally also Participatory Workshop Methods

- Share with your group your experience applying and experiencing Participatory Training and Workshop Methods as a trainer, observer, and/or participant.
- Identify the advantages and disadvantages of participatory training and workshop methods in general.
- List the ones you know and identify the advantages and disadvantages of each participatory training.

ASSIGNMENT 12: MATCH TRAINING METHODS

Fill in the table following the instructions below.

- Read the chapter Participatory Training Methods.
- In the table below, identify the matching learning objective (knowledge, skills, attitude) and learning style (concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, active experiment) with a "X".
- There are no exclusively right answers: multiple answers can be correct.

Training Method	Objective type			Learning style			
	k	S	A	Ce	RO	AC	AE
Field trip							
Brainstorm							
Role play							
Case study							
Exercises							
Discussion							
Demonstration							
Q&A							
Buzz group							
Simulation							
Lecture							
Presentation							

ASSIGNMENT 13: DESIGN A PARTICIPATORY TRAINING EXERCISE

Practice your skills on designing a participatory training exercise for your demonstration.

- Design a participatory training exercise with a length of 5-10 minutes for the training subject you will demonstrate.
- The purpose of the participatory exercise is for your participants to get familiar with the content/theory.
- Exchange the design with your buddy, and give each other feedback.
- Adjust your design based on the feedback.

ASSIGNMENT 14: DESIGN A FINAL EXERCISE

In the final exercise, all elements of your training come together. Through this assignment, you will start with its design.

- Design a final exercise and apply Checklist 09: Final exercise.
- Exchange the design with your buddy and give each other feedback.
- Adjust your design based on the feedback.
- In one of the last two days, you will give a demonstration that includes your final exercise.

ASSIGNMENT 15: DESIGN A SCRIPT FOR YOUR TRAINING

Practice how to design a script to make the delivery of your training look natural and engaging.

- Design a script for your training using Checklist 11: Script.
- Optional: Apply the rules of global design (Checklist 05: Global design).
- Start each topic in a different learning style, and address them all for every topic.
- Limit your talk for explanation of theory and allocate time for: - recaps, - questions, - supporting exercises, - final exercise.

- Anticipate delays and have extra assignments as back-up.

ASSIGNMENT 16: DESIGN CLEAR INSTRUCTIONS

Designing clear instructions is an important facilitation skill.

- Design for your own training in 10 minutes the instructions for the final exercise and apply Checklist 12: Instruct and exercise.
- Exchange the instructions with your buddy and give each other feedback.
- Adjust your instructions based on the feedback you received.

ASSIGNMENT 17: KIRKPATRICK IN YOUR TRAINING

- Think about how the four levels of Kirkpatrick can be applied to your training.
- How would you collect information on level 1, 2, 3, and 4?

ASSIGNMENT 18: SELF-ASSESSMENT OF TRAINING METHODOLOGIES COMPETENCIES

Take the self-assessment and discuss your scores with your buddy. This assessment can also be used for assessing others.

Date of evaluation:	
Name of evaluated person:	
Name of evaluator:	

Competency	Key behavior					
Communicate effectively	1. Communicate in an easy and understandable language.					
	2. Manage their internal emotional states in stressful situations.					
	3. Build and maintain long-term rapport and trust with stakeholders.					
	4. Identify and respond empathetically to the emotions, needs, motivations, concerns and perspectives of stakeholders by using techniques like deep listening.					
	5. Establish credibility among the stakeholders.					
	6. Respond effectively to questions.					
	7. manage expectations of stakeholders by being transparent about feasible outcomes and by co-creating the process.					
Create a positive	8. Create a safe learning and collaboration climate by enabling					

learning climate	constructive group dynamics, taking power dynamics into account.					
	9. Create an inclusive space in which all different perspectives from all different stakeholders are welcome, including voices that are often not heard.					
Contextualize a session design (training or workshop)	10. Apply participatory design principles when contextualizing a session, including learning styles, attention spans and realistic timeframes.					
	11. Identify the specific needs and characteristics of their stakeholders and adapt a session design accordingly.					
(Co-)facilitate a session	12. Deliver content during a session in a fluid manner and without missing information or essential activities.					
	13. Engage and motivate participants during the session.					
	14. Reach the objectives of a session, while being open and flexible for emerging needs of stakeholders.					
	15. Assess the participants' competency level before, during and after a session.					
	16. Give effective feedback to participants to enable their learning process.					
	17. Manage time effectively during a session.					
Prepare for delivery	18. Prepare the session in a timely manner, including inviting all the relevant stakeholders, logistics of the venue, dividing tasks and roles with a co-facilitator and preparing of materials.					
Develop your role as a trainer and workshop facilitator	19. Evaluate their own facilitation skills and seek possibilities to improve them continuously.					
	20. Develop their own authentic facilitation style.					
	21. Practice what they preach by being a role model.					
Develop your role as a Landscape Facilitator	22. Identify their own values, biases, interests, motivations and stake in the landscape and reflect on how this influences their non-neutral role as landscape facilitator.					
	23. Co-create a long-term ILM process with stakeholders.					
	24. Put themselves in service of the greater good.					

	25. Make stakeholders aware of power dynamics.					
	26. Facilitate a session with another facilitator with whom they build on each other's strengths.					

ASSIGNMENT 19: METAPHOR

A metaphor is a figure of speech that describes an object or action in a way that is not literally true, but helps explain an idea or make a comparison to make it more relatable for the audience.

- Design a metaphor that can be used at the start of your training that addresses pain and trust.
- Demonstrate your metaphor to your buddy.
- As a buddy, check the steps of the checklist, take notes, and give your feedback.
- Redesign your metaphor based on the feedback.

ASSIGNMENT 20: YOUR DEMONSTRATION

In the final demonstration all content of the training comes together.

- For your final demonstration, go through the design of your training and make sure that you have enough ingredients to give a demonstration about your selected subject of 30 to 45 minutes.
- Double check with Checklist 06: Ingredients of your demonstration whether the design of your training is complete.
- Test the implementation of your design with your buddy, the buddy who observes applies Checklist 15: Observing the demonstrations.
- Based on the feedback from your buddy, adjust the design where applicable.

ASSIGNMENT 21: RAPPORT

- Discuss what rapport is, how you know when you have it and if it is possible to influence it.
- Each person of the group at least contributes one personal example of having rapport.
- Discuss what you can conclude from this.

ASSIGNMENT 22: BACKTRACKING

- Put two chairs with the back to each other and one chair in front of both chairs for the observer.
- Person A talks about an experience.
- Person B listens carefully and identifies volume, tempo, rhythm, pitch.
- Person B asks questions and matches the auditory sense.
- The observer gives feedback after a couple of minutes.
- Switch positions.
- Put the two chairs in front of each other and repeat step 2 to 6 for visual sense. (body posture, body movement, position head).
- Combine matching auditory and visual sense.

ASSIGNMENT 23: MISMATCH

- Repeat the previous assignment but now face each other and mismatch auditory sense, followed by visual sense, followed by both.

ASSIGNMENT 24: FOLLOW-UP

- Read the observations of the participants that observed your demonstration.
- Watch the video of your demonstration.
- Score your competency profile using the Assignment 18: Self-Assessment.
- Share your video with your buddy.
- Schedule a review meeting (face-to-face or online) with your buddy, get feedback on your competencies and adapt your score if applicable.
- Schedule a review meeting with the trainer that observed your demonstration, get feedback on your competencies and adapt your score if applicable.
- Incorporate action items in your personal development plan.

ASSIGNMENT 25: MIND BODY CONNECTION

- Ask your partner to sit down and think carefully about a time when they did not feel good about themselves.
- Pay attention to their body posture. Do you notice any tension in their body? How are they breathing? What are they doing with their hands?

- Break state and ask your partner to think back about a moment when they felt good and happy with the beautiful human being that they are.
- At the right moment get you partner to stand up straight, shoulders back, chin up, smile and walk powerful. (Walk together with your partner and give the example)
- What are the differences you notice?

ASSIGNMENT 26: ANCHOR - CIRCLE OF EXCELLENCE

- Think of a state of mind you would like to access, such as confidence, concentration, joy.
- Place an imaginary circle on the floor in front of you.
- Imagine that within that circle lies the resource. You might add a color that seems appropriate for the resource.
- When you are ready, and only when you are ready to fully take on the state of mind, step into the circle.
- As you cross the boundary, feel the state of mind flowing into you. When you choose a color, imagine it washing over you.
- Take a moment to allow the state of mind to settle in and then, when you are ready, step back out of the circle, leaving the state of mind behind.
- Step into and out of the circle a few times so that the boundary is clearly marked and you can feel the state of mind only within the circle.
- Now take a situation that you would like to feel differently about. When you are ready, hold the situation in your mind and step into the circle. What seems different?

ASSIGNMENT 27: CLIMB THE LOGICAL LEVELS

- Break out in pairs and use Checklist 19: Logical levels as guidance.
- Person A introduces a problem and person B identifies at what logical level the perception is of the problem.
- Person B provides insights by asking questions about the higher levels of the same problem. Person B nudges person A to find a solution at a higher logical level.
- The goal is to understand the problem at a higher logical level and gain a higher-level perspective on how to solve the problem.

COLLECTION OF CHECKLISTS

Here you find the summaries of the theories

CHECKLIST 01: BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

Learning level 1: Remembering

Can the participant remember the information?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are:- list, - find, - name, - recall, - memorize, - define, - match

Learning level 2: Understanding

Can the participant explain ideas or concepts?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are:- classify, - describe, - discuss, - explain, - identify, - locate, - recognize, - report, - select, - translate

Learning level 3: Applying

Can the participant use the information, concepts, ideas in new situations?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - demonstrate, - employ, - illustrate, - interpret, - operate, - schedule, - sketch, - solve, - use, - write

Learning level 4: Analyze

Can the participant break down the information into components?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - compare, - contrast, - criticize, - differentiate, - discriminate, - distinguish, - examine, - experiment, - question

Learning level 5: Evaluating

Can the participant judge the value of ideas, materials and methods by developing and applying standards and criteria?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - appraise, - argue, - defend, - judge, - select, - support, - value, - evaluate

Learning level 6: Creating

Can the participant create new products or point of views?

Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - assemble, - construct, - create, - design, - develop, - formulate

CHECKLIST 02: LEARNING OBJECTIVES

1. Learning objectives are brief, clear statements of what the participant should be able to do as a result of a training.
2. Only promise what you can deliver.
3. It is SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-bound).
4. Learning objectives are the cornerstones for the design of the training and can be defined for the training itself and its themes and subjects.
5. Learning objectives provide answers to the following questions;
 - I. What is the participant doing when demonstrating the knowledge, skill or attitude described in the learning objective?
 - II. What are the conditions under which the learner is expected to demonstrate?
 - III. What level of achievement is the learner expected to demonstrate?

CHECKLIST 03: PRINCIPLES OF PAIN AND PLEASURE

1. All decisions made by human beings are to avoid pain or to gain pleasure.
2. People will do much more to avoid pain than they will do to gain pleasure.
3. Perception IS reality.
4. Pain and pleasure are modulated by time.
5. Emotion trumps logic.
6. Anytime our survival response is triggered, everything that is unessential to survival goes off the radar.

CHECKLIST 04: START OF YOUR TRAINING

1. Pain: Address difficult situations for your participants
 1. Describe 2 or 3 situations as clearly as possible: *"Have you ever experienced the following situation...?"*
 2. Check if the participants recognize the situation.
 3. Ask for the resulting effect: *"How was that for you?"*
 4. Make contact with the pain.
2. Trust: What the participants will learn
 1. Answer the Key question: *"What's in it for you?"*
 2. Explain the payback of your program/subject.
 3. Be an ambassador of your program and dare to promise: *"I promise that at the end of the program you will be able to ..."*
3. Set-up: How the participants will learn
 1. Explain when which subject will be dealt with.
 2. Visualize the content of your program on a flip over.

CHECKLIST 05: A GLOBAL DESIGN

1. Choose the theory of your entire training that you want your participants to learn and cluster the theory into subjects.
2. Choose an order between the subjects. Start with the subject that is most interesting from the perspective of the participants and end with the subject that is second most interesting.
3. Estimate how much time you want to spend on each subject (theory and exercises).

CHECKLIST 06: INGREDIENTS OF YOUR DEMONSTRATION

1. Identify the target group and assess the needs of your participants.
2. Address the pain/(no)trust from the start with a captivating story.
3. Cluster subjects in the right order and share the agenda (Checklist 05).
4. Activate the 4 learning styles and put the details in the script.
5. Process the theories in the right chunk size and deliver with enthusiasm, passion, humor, and fun.
6. Prepare supporting visual materials (flipover sheet/hand-outs).
7. Ensure learning outcomes by including a supporting exercise and final exercise.
8. Apply participatory training methods.
9. Give clear instructions (Checklist 12) and track progress of participants.
10. Build learner motivation and manage group dynamics and questions.
11. Regularly check the time to see whether you are still on schedule and adjust when necessary.

CHECKLIST 07: EXPLANATION OF THEORY

1. When explaining theory, start with the why, what, how, and what if, and address the learning styles.
2. Deliver the talk with passion.
3. Minimize your talk to 5-10 minutes.
4. Prepare questions to activate thinking.

CHECKLIST 08: SUPPORTING EXERCISE

1. The objective is to chew on knowledge and gain understanding.
2. It is short (5 to 15 minutes).
3. It is simplified and contributes to the final exercise.
4. It stimulates active participation.
5. Execution is easy.
6. It is easy to validate (did you apply the checklist? Yes/No?).

CHECKLIST 09: FINAL EXERCISE

1. Start the program with the design of the final exercise.
2. Have in mind the objectives of the training. In the final exercise they all come together.
3. Prepare to evaluate your participants in the final exercise.
4. Design the content and include participatory training elements.
5. Prepare materials like hand-outs for assignments and checklists.
6. Give clear instructions.

CHECKLIST 10: CHECKLIST

1. A checklist is a clear recipe of what the practitioner must apply for a good result.
2. It is a summary of the theory, and the steps are put down in a logical order.
3. Participants must be able to apply the content of the checklist in one exercise.
4. The checklist is a reference list for observers to provide feedback.

CHECKLIST 11: SCRIPT

SCRIPT					
Time in minutes	Activity number	Activity description	Objective	Materials	Speaker notes
Day X					
Total time =					

CHECKLIST 12: INSTRUCT AN ACTIVITY

Motivate

1. Start with the objective of the activity.
2. Be enthusiastic about the activity (voice, body language).
3. Tell what you will do with the result of the activity.

Clarity

1. Explain step by step what the participants will do.
2. Support the activity with an illustration on a flip over.
3. Demonstrate the activity when the method is complicated.
4. Check with the participants whether your instructions are clear.
5. When the instructions are not clear, ask what is not clear. Explain again or ask a participant to explain.
6. Distribute the activity and give time to read it.

Logistics

1. Let the participants split up in groups.
2. Tell them at what time the activity ends.
3. Give the go-ahead.

Check

1. Visit each group within 5 minutes and check if they execute the activity correctly.
2. Support where needed.

CHECKLIST 13: METAPHORS

1. A metaphor is a word or phrase for one thing that is used to refer to another thing in order to show or suggest that they are similar. It can also be an object, activity, or idea that is used as a symbol of something else. Its purpose is to make the content more relatable for the audience or to make the audience think about the content in a different way.
2. A metaphor changes the focus of the story to some other subject, time, place or person.
3. It reduces resistance by allowing the listener to draw their own conclusions.
4. It puts the listener in a trance where they can fill in the details from their own mental map or experience. An example would be; *"Perhaps if you were in a similar situation you would have an idea what to do"*
5. It has the same structure as the problem it sets out to gain perspective on. So, if the listeners are facing a challenge and don't know how to resolve it then the subjects of the metaphor will also face a challenge.
6. The metaphor needs an outcome that will add resources to the listener; this will often be in the form of a reframe of what the situation means. For example, "they discovered that the challenge was in fact an opportunity to do things better."
7. It is preferably personal.
8. The storyteller must use his/her voice and physiology to act out the story for maximum impact.
9. If you can bring some objects to make it more visual, please do.

CHECKLIST 14: DEALING WITH RESISTANCE

Step 1: Give away authority

1. Drop your agenda. Go in listening mode. Sit down. Look at the other, feel peace in your body. Be truly interested in the other.
2. Ask questions. What do they exactly mean? Listen to the content and the context. What are the concerns?
3. Acknowledge the concern of the other. Use his or her language. "...so, you are concerned?"

Step 2: Take authority

1. Take the time to feel what you feel and say what you want. Don't use "yes-but". Use "at the same time" or "and". Start with: "*I like to say something about... is that okay?*".
2. Go in the sending mode. Breathe from your stomach, look at the other, feel the peace in your body.
3. Tell your norm "*I think it is important that...*".
4. Suggest a feasible and concrete proposal. "*I suggest that..*".
5. Keep it short and simple. Don't use words like "*a little*", "*maybe*"

Step 3: Give away authority

1. Ask if this is okay.
2. Listen really to the answer. If there is still resistance go then back to step 1 and suggest another solution or ask for another solution.
3. When you get to a mutually satisfactory agreement remove eye contact, look at the audience again and take your program up again.

1.

CHECKLIST 15: OBSERVING THE DEMONSTRATIONS

Name of demonstrator:

Name of observer:

Instructions

1. Provide your feedback about the demonstration through this checklist which consists of statements and your personal observations.
2. Observe and write your observations at the back of this checklist in readable handwriting.
 - a. Keep in mind, the scope of the final demonstration is limited to what we have discussed in this training.
 - b. List only what you see and what you hear. Not your judgements nor your own interpretations.
 - c. Be honest and constructive.
3. In the table below, tick the boxes of the elements that are applicable.
4. At the end of the demonstration share plenary:
 - a. One or more points that stood out during the demonstration.
 - b. One point that could be improved.
5. At the end of the demonstration share this sheet with the demonstrator.

Statements for providing feedback during final demonstration		✓?
Introduction (Checklist 03, 04, 06 & 13 for reference)		
1.	Did the demonstrator explain who the participants of this training are?	
2.	Are <i>pain</i> and <i>trust</i> addressed in a way that motivates you to learn from the beginning?	
3.	Are storytelling techniques used in the speech?	
4.	Did the demonstrator engage you with a captivating story including a metaphor?	
5.	Was the agenda shared with you?	
Theory (Checklist 07 & 10 for reference)		
6.	Was the checklist effective?	
7.	Was there a script?	
8.	Were all Learning Styles addressed and applied in the right order?	
9.	Was the theory explained in an understandable and fluid way?	
Exercises (Checklist 08, 09 & 12 for reference)		
10.	Was the supportive exercise effective?	
11.	Was the final exercise effective?	
12.	Were the instructions of the exercises clear?	
13.	Was the progress of the participants tracked?	
General observations (Checklist 06 for reference)		
14.	Was the demonstration given within the given time?	
15.	Were the questions handled well?	
16.	Have you experienced an inclusive learning climate?	

Name of demonstrator:

Name of observer:

Observations final demonstration

Positive observations:

Observations for improvements:

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15.	Were the questions handled well?	
16.	Have you experienced an inclusive learning climate?	

Name of demonstrator:

Name of observer:

Observations final demonstration

Positive observations:

Observations for improvements:

CHECKLIST 16: QUESTIONS

1. Anticipate questions and formulate convincing answers in advance.
2. Thank participants for their questions immediately.
3. Answer questions that ask for clarification immediately.
4. When the question is irrelevant or the answer is too long, park it and address it during the break.
5. When the answer to the question is explained in the hand-out, refer to where the answer can be found.
6. If you don't understand the question, ask to clarify or repeat it in other words.
7. Reformulate the question in your own words and check.
8. Invite participants to answer the question where possible.
9. When you don't know the answer, be honest and offer to get back to that question or refer to another person.
10. Interrupt mini-speeches: *"What exactly is the question?"*
11. Stop dominant questioners: *"Let's hear other opinions"*
12. Encourage participants to ask questions. Stay polite and don't criticize.
13. Check whether the person asking the question is satisfied with the answer.
14. Signal when time is running out: *"One last question.."*
15. At the end, invite participants to share further questions via email or Whatsapp.

CHECKLIST 17: HOW TO BUILD RAPPORT

1. Make it a practice to remember peoples' names and faces, as this shows attentiveness and an interest in who they are.
2. Relate to another person by identifying a shared experience, trait, or opinion.
3. Give your full attention to someone who is speaking. They will likely listen to you in return, which can establish a good relationship.
4. Ask follow-up questions during a conversation, this demonstrates interest in the speaker's point of view. Which eliminates uncomfortable small talk and help you get into more meaningful conversations.
5. Detect subtle, nonverbal cues (body posture, facial expression). Make comfortable eye contact, and mirror body posture, pace, volume, pitch, tone and type of words.
6. Pay attention to your nonverbal cues. Be wary of body language that signals disinterest; looking at your phone or the clock can indicate that you have no authentic interest in the person who is speaking to you.
7. Reserve judgment. Good rapport develops when someone understands that they can share their feelings and ideas without fear of judgment.

CHECKLIST 18: STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

1. Forming

1. Most team members are positive and polite.
2. Some are anxious or excited.
3. As a leader, you play a dominant role at this stage, because team members' roles and responsibilities aren't clear.

2. Storming

1. Members start to push against the boundaries established in the forming stage and have a conflict with each other.
2. Team members may challenge your authority, may feel overwhelmed by their workload, or they could be uncomfortable with the approach you're using.
3. People may experience stress.

3. Norming

1. People start to resolve their differences, appreciate colleagues' strengths, and respect your authority as a leader.

2. They are able to ask one another for help and provide constructive feedback. People develop a stronger commitment to the team goal, and you start to see good progress towards it.
3. The team may lapse back into behavior from the storming stage.

4. Performing

1. Hard work leads, without friction, to the achievement of the team's goal.
2. As a leader you can delegate much of your work, and you can concentrate on developing team members.
3. It feels easy to be part of the team at this stage

5. Adjourning

1. Many teams will reach this stage eventually. For example, project teams or trainers and trainees at the end of a training.
2. Team members who like routine, or who have developed close working relationships with colleagues, may find this stage difficult, particularly if their future now looks uncertain.

CHECKLIST 19: LOGICAL LEVELS

1. Changing something on a higher level would necessarily change things on the lower levels.
2. Changing something on a lower level could but would not necessarily affect the upper levels.
3. Levels (from high to low):
 - a. Spirituality (what for, who else)
 - b. Identity (who)
 - c. Belief (why)
 - d. Capability (how)
 - e. Behavior (what)
 - f. Environment (where, when)

CHECKLIST 20: OBJECTIVE, STYLE AND METHOD

Training Method	Objective type			Learning style			
	k	S	A	Ce	RO	AC	AE
Field trip		X	X	X			
Brainstorm	X				X		
Role play		X					X
Case study	X				X		
Exercises		X		X			
Discussion	X				X		
Demonstration		X					X
Q&A	X					X	
Buzz group	X				X		
Simulation		X					X
Lecture	X					X	
Presentation	X					X	

CHECKLIST 21: INDIVIDUAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Depending on your context you can decide to ask your participants about the characteristics listed below. You know your context best, so it is up to your own judgment to decide which questions are relevant and appropriate to ask. For example, if you know that there is a tension between certain ethnic groups in your landscape, it might be relevant to ask people to which group they belong and to adjust your session accordingly.

1. Name
2. Age
3. Gender
4. Town, village, city or municipality
5. Language(s)
6. Access to computer or mobile phone
7. Access to stable internet and electricity
8. Literacy level
9. Profession
10. Religion
11. Ethnicity
12. Motivation to learn or to participate in your session
13. Expectations of the outcomes of the session
14. Prior knowledge, skills and attitudes
15. Learning style preference
16. Other people like infants or elderly they need to take care of during your session
17. Preferred ways of communicating outside the session such as text, WhatsApp, email or phone call.
18. Time availability
19. Availability of commuting to the sessions' location

CHECKLIST 22: INTRODUCTION OF YOUR SESSION

1. **Grab attention.** Grab the attention of participants by addressing their pain and pleasure, for example through a metaphor.
2. **Definition and relevance.** Give a short definition of the main topic of your session and explain the relevance.
3. **Program.** Give an overview of the program of the session, verbally and visually.
4. **Introduction people.** Ask people to introduce themselves shortly using a check-in question.
5. **Rules and roles.** Discuss as a group how you want to collaborate.
 - a. Ask which rules are needed to ensure everyone can participate and feels safe participating.
 - b. Discuss each rule shortly to ensure understanding and ask for consensus from the group
 - c. Write the rule down on a flip over.
 - d. After the list is complete, ask the participants if they accept the rules. Explain that you can go back to those rules and adjust them, whenever you need.
 - e. Explain what kind of role you take today as a trainer or facilitator and what the role of the participants is.
6. **Practicalities.** Notify participants about other practicalities like lunchtime, rules in the space, where to go to the toilet, etc.
7. **Questions.** Ask if there are any urgent questions before moving on.
8. **Activate prior knowledge.** make the participants ready to learn. There are many ways of doing this, one way is:
 - a. Ask the participants to write down individually why the topic of the session is important to them and what they want to learn more about today.
 - b. Let the participants discuss their answers in pairs.
 - c. Collect their answers plenary and write them down on a flip over per question.

- d. Explain which topics you will cover in your session and which you won't. This is a way of managing their expectations.
- e. Hang the flip overs on the wall. You can use them at the end of the session to check if you met their expectations.

CHECKLIST 23: END OF YOUR SESSION

1. **Questions.** Address open questions.
2. **Reflect.** Reflect on what participants learned during the session. This can happen individually, in buzz groups and/or plenary.
3. **Recap.** Summarize the most important learnings.
4. **Next steps.** Show what will happen after this session.
5. **Additional resources.** Give extra resources and materials to dive deeper into the topic if relevant.
6. **Feedback.** Gather feedback on this session and your performance as trainer or facilitator.
7. **Check-out.** Ask a check-out question.
8. **Wrap-up.** Close the session by for example doing an energizer and thanking the participants.

COLLECTION OF THEORY

CHAPTER 1. LEARNING STYLES

Addressing different learning styles in your training will contribute to better uptake of learnings by your participants. This chapter dives into the four learning styles of Kolb and how they can contribute to more impactful trainings.

Imagine that you buy a new smartphone and it comes with a 100 page manual of extensive instructions. What do you do?

Will you play a little with the device and discover the functionalities by yourself?

Do you browse through the table of content of the manual and look for essential functionalities and then try them out?

Do you recognize similarities with your old phone and will start from there?

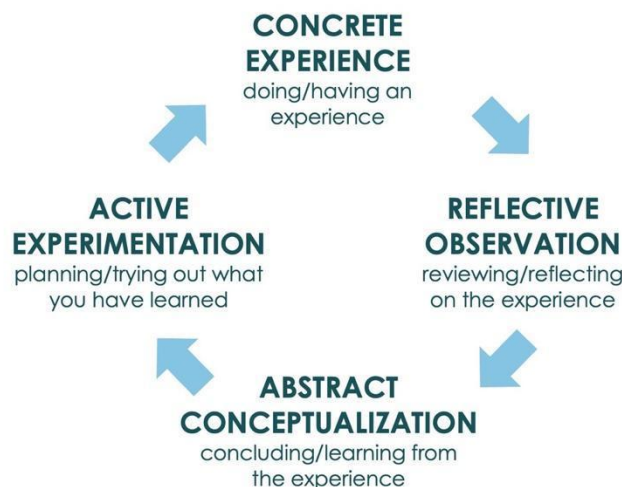
Or do you first read the entire manual, word by word?

Each strategy will most probably help you learn the most important functionalities, but never all of them. This is because most of us can be a little bit lazy in daily life. We stop learning as soon as we think we know enough. The ones that immediately start playing with the device will never read the whole manual, and the ones that read the entire manual will never try out all the functionalities on the phone. However, in a training setting, we force people to acquire 100% knowledge. We do this by applying Kolb's experiential learning cycle, also referred to as the learning styles of Kolb.

Learning styles of Kolb

The learning styles of David Kolb are widely used in training and follow a cycle of four stages of experiential learning. Experiential learning is the process of making sense of a direct experience. It models the way people learn in a real-life situation, outside a classroom, and without a trainer. It shows that people naturally apply different learning styles to understand something fully. Kolb also found out that people have a preferred learning style. Moreover, the learning cycle shows that to gain genuine knowledge from experience, it is required that the learner takes part in all four stages of the experiential learning cycle. The four learning styles Kolb identified are called *Concrete Experience*, *Reflective Observation*, *Abstract Conceptualization*, and *Active Experimentation* and are shown in the illustration below.

ILLUSTRATION 02: LEARNING STYLES KOLB



Let me explain Kolb's four learning styles through a real-life example. Often, learning starts with a satisfactory or dissatisfactory experience (*Concrete Experience*). This could be a meeting that

went well or negative feedback from a participant on a training. This is often followed by a reflection (*Reflective Observation*). On your way home, you ask yourself, what happened? What could you have done differently? Maybe you conclude that you should have dealt differently with the resistance in the group. But how? You decide to read a book about group dynamics, explore the theory (*Abstract Conceptualization*), and pick two tips that you want to experiment with the next time (*Active Experimentation*). When you apply the tips, you experience that they were successful (*Concrete Experience*).

Learning styles in detail

A good training set-up addresses all four learning styles and ensures that each participant can learn in their preferred learning style. Please keep in mind that each learning style has its unique super powers for specific situations and that we are not limited to one learning style for all situations in our lives. We adapt ourselves to situations, and different situations ask for different strategies. When you work in science, it is likely that you are interested in theories. However, when you are a firefighter, you have no time for long discussions, and it is more appreciated when you instantly rescue people. Nonetheless, a scientist can also be a firefighter in their free time. Let me explain all four learning styles in detail.

1. Abstract conceptualization

Thinkers love to explore new theories and models. Thinkers like to know how the models relate to each other but not how to apply them in practice. Thinkers are triggered by reflection and observation. They are also critical and like to discuss. You see these people a lot at universities, research departments, and computer programming companies. Thinkers often must learn to be concise, to the point, and to show emotions. When you want them to do something without any explanation of the theory, they will most likely doubt the sense of it. During trainings, they can have detailed questions like "Can you recommend a book about this topic?" and "Is this always the case?".

2. Active experiment

These people like to experiment, take the essentials from the theory and then start processing the information. They like it when the learning material is closely related to their daily life. They enjoy practical techniques and like to experiment with something new. They are good at solving problems fast and coming up with practical applications. Furthermore, they are often efficient and like to work with a few helpful tips. Learning the theory is less attractive to them. They can also be a little impatient and shortsighted. A learning point for them is to not focus on only one solution. People with this learning strategy are also called 'decision-makers' and learn fast in your training. When you give them an assignment, they do it without questions and are often pretty good. The result can be a little disappointing in the real world because things do not go as fast as expected. They must learn that not everything goes as fast as they want, especially when emotions are involved. You can recognize them by listening to the questions they often ask, such as "What can I do with this information in daily life?", "Do you have a concrete example?" or "Can we hurry up?".

3. Concrete experience

The people with this learning style often learn by trial and error and are also called 'doers'. These participants often do not like long stories and abstract ideas. They do not learn rationally but more based on feelings and pragmatism. They are good in unstructured situations where they have the freedom to execute things in their way. They are often not good at explaining what they have learned and what they will learn. They are often fast in giving advice and get energy from new experiences like brainstorming or a crisis. Additionally, they often like to do extreme sports, yoga, or meditation where the brain's rational part is silent. These people are flexible and enjoy the company of other people. In trainings, they flourish when you provide them challenging assignments that require collaboration. Doers

can be recognized by hearing them say things like “Yes great, let’s do that!” “I didn’t know that yet,” or “Let’s just try and see if it works”.

Trainers who have this as a preferred learning style often enjoy when things go different than expected and nevertheless turn their training into a success. Furthermore, they tend not to prepare themselves for a training and see what happens. For trainers with this preferred learning style it is recommended to make at least a short outline of the training and have a few exercises ready.

4. Reflective observation

These participants are also called ‘dreamers’. They tend to go a lot into detail when they share a story about their own or others’ experiences. When somebody tells a story, dreamers are really interested, ask many questions, are fascinated by the answers, and do something with what has been shared with them. These people are also observers that like to reflect on experiences they had in real life. During trainings, they prefer to have some time to reflect on what they have learned. They like brainstorming and do not like time pressure. These participants support your trainings with effective discussions, good questions, and sharp observations. The risk is that they only observe others and will not participate unless they can prepare thoroughly. Therefore, a piece of advice for all dreamers is not to reflect too long and focus on how things should be done. Furthermore, it can be good to stimulate dreamers to participate without a plan to experience what happens when they do things differently. You can recognize them by listening to the questions they often ask, such as “Why do you do that in that way?”, “How do you do that?”

Effective learning by addressing all learning styles and following the cycle

As mentioned before, when you want participants of your training to learn effectively, you must ensure that participants go through all stages of the experiential learning cycle in the sequence shown in Illustration 02. Surprisingly, addressing all learning styles makes the difference between a good and a bad training. This is not only because it contributes to a better understanding of the training topics but also because it keeps all participants engaged because their preferred learning style is addressed. Furthermore, you keep participation high when you start each topic with a different learning style. When participants know exactly what to expect, they get bored and lose attention easily. Instead, try to start each topic with a different learning style; this will keep everyone attentive.

In general, addressing only one or two learning styles is common in training design. Because in practice, people have a preferred learning style, and so do trainers. When trainers are unfamiliar with the four learning styles of Kolb, it is normal that a trainer designs a training according to their own preference of learning. For example, when a trainer likes to explore through exercises, there is a big chance that (s)he will spend less time on theory. Therefore, getting familiar with applying all four learning styles in your training and learning what your preferred learning style is will help you become a better trainer.

Guidelines for learning styles

You can start a training (topic) with any learning style, however, learning is most effective when you address all four learning styles in the order of the cycle as shown in Illustration 02.

Start each training topic with a different learning style. For example, you can start with the theory, continue with doing some easy exercises, simulate a real-life experience, and finalize with reflections of the real-life experience.

When it gets dangerous

Even though everyone has a preferred learning style, be aware that labeling yourself or a participant as a specific type of learner can be dangerous. It can be dangerous because labeling can lead to addressing either yourself or participants only according to that label, while many learnings occur when you address other learning styles as well. There is a reason why people say that outside of your comfort zone is where the magic happens! Thereby the invitation to you as a trainer to challenge yourself and your participants by going all the way and include all four learning styles in your training design!

There is some discussion going on on this topic. Therefore, I collected some videos. Here you can explore different opinions and decide for yourself. Scan the QR code with your phone to go to the youtube video!



[Kolb's experiential learning cycle explained](#) (2 minutes)



[Interesting in-depth discussion about learning styles and the importance of critical self-reflection](#) (18 minutes)



[Visual and Auditory Learning - How To Teach It](#) (8 minutes)

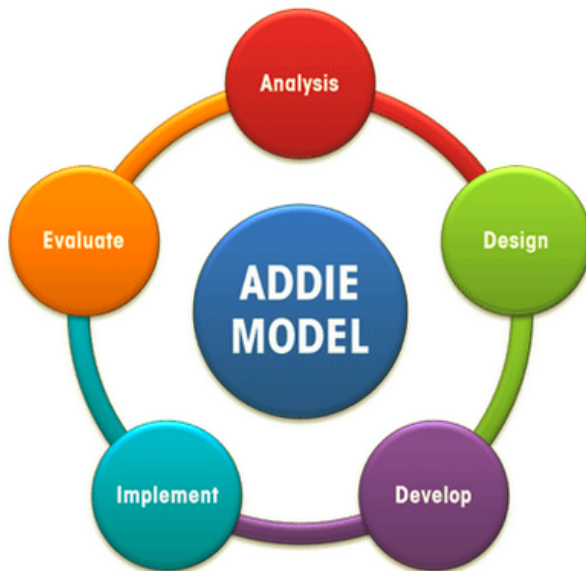
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CHAPTER 2. ADDIE MODEL

For many years now, educators and instructional designers alike have used the ADDIE Instructional Design method to design and develop educational and training programs. “ADDIE” stands for Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate. This sequence, however, does not impose a strictly linear progression through the steps. But having stages clearly defined facilitates the implementation of effective training tools.

ILLUSTRATION 03: ADDIE MODEL



2.1 ANALYZE

A good trainer or facilitator does not reason from the content; the starting point is the daily practice of the participant that they want to help improve. To create a clear picture of this daily practice, you identify specific competencies requiring training based on a gap analysis. Designing and implementing a training (or workshop for that matter) without an analysis first would be like a doctor prescribing medicines and treatment without assessing the extent of the person's illness.

What if an analysis is missing?

Without a proper analysis of the scope, the session cannot be designed and delivered effectively. Some possible negative consequences are:

- The session might focus on the wrong issues.
- The trainer might give a wrong emphasis and weight to subjects based on their biases/preferences rather than what is needed in reality, so too much time may be wasted on things that participants already know.
- Participants may not be willing to participate fully and frustrate the learning process of other participants.
- Participants may lack the support to implement the new things they learn.
- It will not be clear what the contribution of the session is to the improvement of performance, as the situation before the session is not clear.

In other words, without an adequate assessment, the session might not have the desired effect on the participants' actual performance.

How to do a needs assessment?

In order to contextualize the session design to the participants' needs, you need more information on each individual. This includes understanding their motivations, learning preferences, demographic characteristics, and more. **Checklist 20** gives an overview of the characteristics you may want to inquire about.

The easiest method is to distribute an online survey to all participants, utilizing platforms such as Google Forms. Alternatively, you can send a list of questions via email, text, WhatsApp, or even conduct personal calls or conversations with each participant.

Extra information for Landscape Facilitators

If you are a Landscape Facilitator involved in a landscape partnership or initiative, it's common that your landscape partnership has done a baseline capacity assessment to understand the capacity of the landscape as a whole. 1000 Landscapes provides a tool for this upon request, to help you identify where competency gaps exist on a landscape level.

Additionally, stakeholder mapping and analysis are often already conducted. This helps identify who's involved in the landscape, what their interests are, and any potential power dynamics or tensions between groups. This information is crucial for facilitators like yourself, as it enables you to anticipate challenges and tailor your session designs accordingly.

2.2 DESIGN

After you have determined that a training is legitimately required, your next step is to state precisely what you want the training to accomplish. You do this by writing learning objectives. This is discussed in chapter 3. When you are designing a workshop, this is the moment to define objectives or intended outcomes

2.3 DEVELOP

A good program motivates participants and enables learning. Therefore you:

- choose the relevant theory and models to reach the learning objectives
- cluster the theories into subjects
- choose an order between the subjects
- estimate how much time you want to spend on each subject
- Choose the relevant participatory training or workshop activities to apply the theory and reach the learning objectives. .

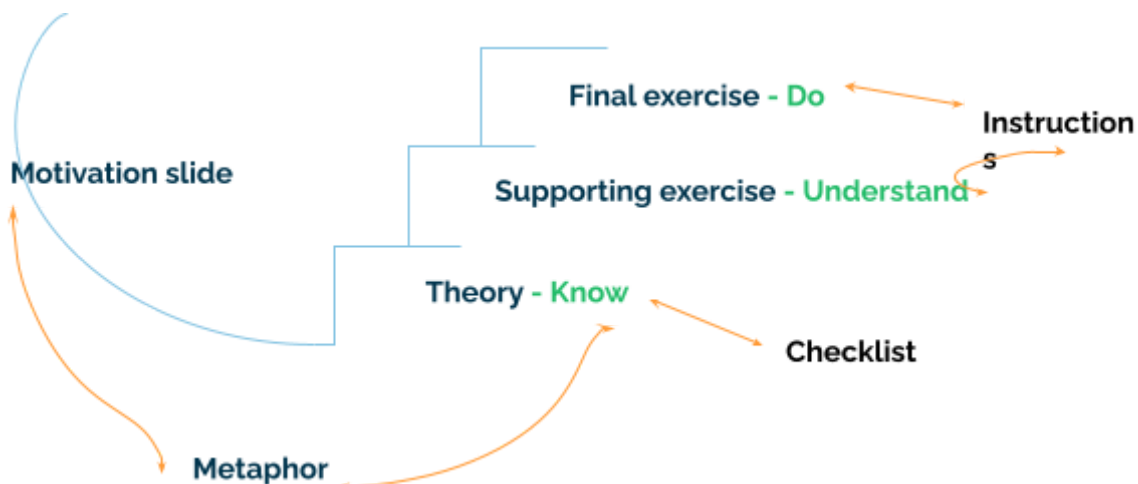
Sequencing subjects

Start your session with the subject that is the most interesting for all participants. The first challenge for a trainer is to seduce participants to learn. Before lunch, participants must feel that they learned something important so they do not feel they showed up for nothing. So, if your model describes 3 steps "of something" you do not start necessarily with step 1. You start with the most interesting subject for your participants. Relevant for situations that occur the most or cause the most negative effects. End your session with your second-best subject. This ensures that participants stay motivated because they have something to look forward to at the end of the session.

Develop in 3 steps

1. Organize the content in chunks where participants get to know new theories.
2. Understand its meaning through practice with supportive exercises.
3. And finally let them experience the related subjects through a final exercise.

ILLUSTRATION 04: YOUR DEMONSTRATION VISUALIZED



2.3.1 Final exercise

The final exercise is the core exercise that captures the content of the related subjects that you deal with. It is the ultimate transition from training to practice. Start the design of your program with the final exercise and make sure that the case connects close to the actual situation.

2.3.2 Supporting exercises

After you developed the final exercise, you can start building the supporting exercises where participants can chew on the theory and gain knowledge and understanding. Do not overestimate your participants and assume that your explanation of the theory will result in a perfect execution of the final exercise. Supporting exercises are a bridge between theory and the final exercise. It is short, relatively easy to execute, and activates participants.

Tips for supporting exercises

People learn from their mistakes. Set up your supporting exercise where participants make mistakes, let them get conscious of it and then let them experience a good execution of the exercise. Afterward you can reflect together. Choose for pitfalls that participants encounter in daily life.

2.3.3 Theory

When you prepare your explanation of the theory, do not only focus on the "what" they will learn. Also answer the question "why", "how", "what if". The sequence depends on the preferred learning style. Thinkers like models and are interested in "what". Dreamers like to ask questions and start learning from "why?". Decision makers, the fast learners, are interested in "how" they can apply the theory. And the Doer, that learns by trial and error, starts learning when you start with a concrete example. They are interested in "what if...happens?" The best way is to address these questions for every theory subject in your program.

Tips for theory

Participants like to experience a **sense of urgency**. The passion of a trainer gives life to theory. That is why people prefer a less perfect talk that is delivered with passion to a perfect speech that is read from paper.

A good explanation takes maximum 15 minutes. Much longer, participants can not concentrate. And even within these 15 minutes you should give participants a chance to chew on your theory and activate their thinking. You can do this by asking questions and facilitate discussions. It is recommended that you design a few questions in advance that stimulate the thinking of your participants.

Limit the number of subjects. Many trainers overload their program. In particular when you have less experience it is difficult to select. It is better to put items in cold storage then to promise an agenda that you can not deliver.

Design a script for your program and work out the following details: - start time, - length, - end time, - content, - objective, - method, - materials.

Assemble a program that suits you. When you have fun in the delivery of your program it motivates your participants.

2.3.4 Checklist

Sometimes you will see that participants are very busy but not busy with the exercise that you have asked them to do. They will start the experiment and give feedback based on other experiments, and as result, their learning experience gets fuzzy. This can also be a good learning experience, but this way your training develops more like a guided intervision. When you want more structure in the learning experience, you can translate the theory into a checklist. Checklists:

1. Give focus to the participant of an exercise, and as a result they will be more willing to receive feedback.
2. Give focus for the observers. Their feedback will be targeted to the essential subjects.
3. Enable that participants can practice on their own when they split up into sub-groups.

Elements of a good checklist

- It is a bridge between theory and practice.
- It describes clearly what participants have to do to create success.
- In a checklist, the steps are put down in a logical order.
- Participants must be able to apply the content of the checklist in one exercise.

Activities with a checklist

1. Put the checklist on a flip-over and explain it step by step before the activity starts.
2. Distribute a handout of the checklist and tell observers that they will give feedback on the execution of the checklist.
3. After the exercise, let the practitioners blow off steam. "How was it?"
4. Ask observers, "which steps of the checklist went well?", "which steps did not go well?".

2.3.5 The Start of your program

Would it not be great if all the participants of your session hang on to every word you say? If they asked good questions and immediately started doing your exercises? Unfortunately, this is not always the case. Sometimes you feel that your participants are a little unmotivated and do

other things than they are supposed to. Of course, it will help when a trainer has much energy and varies in training or workshop methods, but these are all external drivers. Much more effective is when participants are internally motivated to learn. And you can make this happen by addressing the concept of pain and trust from the beginning of the session

Pain, when a participant of the session is conscious of a bad (personal) experience. And trust when they believe that they can learn and improve through your session and from you as a facilitator.

For example, a participant in a "presentation-techniques-training" is much more motivated when they recently gave a presentation that did not work so well. They know they can do better and can learn it through your training.

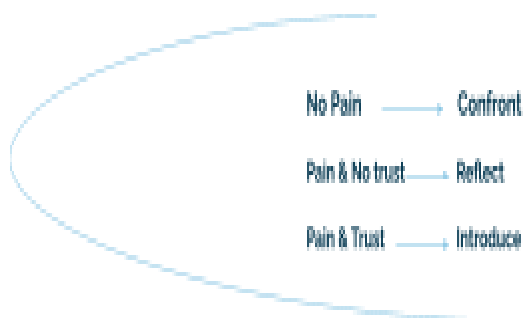
2.3.6 Motivation slide

As a trainer, you can let your participants experience pain and trust with the "motivation slide". This is a theory with 3 levels, and each level has a different approach to start at the training. The higher you are on the slide, the more effort you must make to motivate.

1. When participants have pain and trust, it is more than enough to introduce your topic.
2. When participants have pain but no trust, then they think they can not change anything about their situation, and \or they don't trust that they can learn from you as a trainer.
3. When participants experience no pain, they experience no problem. Then you provoke the pain with a confronting start.

To work with the motivation slide, you must ensure that pain and trust are applicable. You can check this with a situation analysis, an intake, the inventory of expectations, and your experience with other groups. With the motivation slide, you select a start that suits the motivation of the group. Which can be different per topic. When you are not sure at what level your participants are, then start high on the scale.

ILLUSTRATION 05: MOTIVATION SLIDE



1. Pain and trust

As a trainer, you do not need to do that much to motivate this group. Participants have shared difficult situations, and they trust you that you will help to improve. The only thing you have to do is bring the group in contact with that pain. And you do that with an introduction where you mobilize latent pain.

2. Pain, No trust

These participants experience a problem, but they do not believe they can influence the situation. They think your session will not help. In a sales training, the first thing you do as a trainer is to diagnose if your participants lose sales because: a) they have a terrible sales pitch or b) the customers think the price is too high. You have already done this in the situation analysis and the intake. You are sure that participants can influence their situation. And all you have to do now is get the participants' opinions clear and facilitate a discussion. Then they will

see different perspectives, which creates space for a new approach. This is called reflection.

3. No pain

When you have people in your session that think that they do not have to learn anything, you have a case of No pain. These participants are not aware of something they do wrong. It is up to you as a trainer to move the participant from "unconsciously incompetent" to "consciously incompetent" as shown in the illustration below. You can do this by confronting the participant with a daily situation where they fail. You simulate a case where the practitioner experiences (in a safe set up) that they are not so perfect.

ILLUSTRATION 06: 4 STAGES OF LEARNING



Tip for motivation of complete beginners

A training is often more effective when participants have some experience. They know what they need to learn and they are motivated because they know what they can gain from the training. Yet, often you will find beginners in your training. They do not know what they will do in future and they do not have concrete learning objectives. They will say "I do like to learn, but what exactly". In this case start your program with a confronting start.

2.4 IMPLEMENTATION

You have now designed all the parts of your session and you are almost ready to implement the session.

If you are working with an existing session design you can skip the Design and Develop steps. For you, implementation is about contextualization. You know your participants and their context best so it's up to you to adapt the existing design to meet their needs. Based on your needs assessment you can decide to adjust some activities, theories or timing.

Contextualize in 5 steps

1. Select the relevant theories, information and models you want to address.
2. Select the relevant participatory methods. There are always multiple ways of reaching a learning objective. There might be activity options to choose from in the existing design, or you might have an alternative from your own experience.
3. Select the relevant examples and cases. Existing designs might offer some options, so choose the one that looks the most like your context. That way the example relates more to the participants and is more powerful. You can also find your own example or cases.
4. Decide how much time to schedule for each part. An existing design comes with an indication of how long each activity takes, but based on your needs assessment you can anticipate which theories might need more or less time, and which activities might take longer or shorter.
5. Plan your energizers, breaks and buffer time at the beginning. The common time for a break or the type of energizers are different across cultures. However, we advise to have at least a 10-15 minute break every 1.5 hours.
6. Adjust the hand-out, visuals and checklists if needed.
7. Develop the start of your program. An existing design might have an introduction designed for you, but to really motivate your participants, you need to adjust it to their needs, pains and pleasures. More about that in the section below.

Once the session design is finished and contextualized. It is time to go through the script a couple of times, test activities, practice your speech, and adjust scheduled times. Collect the materials and handouts, instruct co-trainers or co-facilitators and make arrangements for accommodation and location. Do not forget to manage the expectations. You can do this in advance with personal intakes with each participant. In addition, you can start the training by collecting the expectations plenary. At the training location, test the equipment, and prepare illustrations and the agenda. Make sure that you are ready and fully prepared before participants drop in. Open the doors 30 minutes in advance of the training and put all your energy into welcoming each participant and making them feel welcome.

Tip for implementation

Make sure the implementation of the training should be in line with the learning objectives and your script. And at the same time monitor progress and be flexible within your limits. Consider to start with a pre-test and conclude with a post-test. You could ask participants to produce an individual action plan for post-training action.

Follow up

Here are some ways to follow up after the session:

- It is important as a learner to repeat and as a trainer to facilitate that repetition. Send people regular reminders by email in the days and weeks following the training, including tips, quizzes, and short articles.

- Take photographs of people during the session and the visual aids they make and send them out or post them on a website as reminders.
- Use social media. Set up a Facebook page, a LinkedIn group, and a WhatsApp group for participants so they can report progress and share ideas.
- Get people to make short video clips on the session, maybe just sharing one key point at the end, then make these available later.
- Get people to pair up and report to commit to reporting to each other after the session to check progress and support each other.
- Create short audio clips or podcasts which people can access later or get them to create their own.
- Have a webinar so people can get together and ask questions and report back.
- Arrange a follow-up session to provide supplementary lessons.

2.5 EVALUATION

The Kirkpatrick Model is probably the best-known model for analyzing and evaluating the results of training and educational programs. It is based on four levels of criteria. Level 1 measures how participants react to the training (e.g., satisfaction). Level 2 Analyzes if they truly understood the training (e.g., increase in knowledge, skills or experience). Level 3 looks at if they are utilizing what they learned at work (e.g., change in behavior), and Level 4 Determines if it had a positive impact on the business/organization.

Level 1: Evaluation – Reaction

The objective for this level is to evaluate if the participant enjoyed their experience and if they found the materials helpful. Examples of resources and techniques are:

- Feedback form that can be graded, including comment fields
- Personal interviews
- Verbal feedback from participants, and the participant's manager.
- Post-training program questionnaires.
- Likes on promotion pages on social media and other platforms.

Level 2: Evaluation – Learning

Level 2 focuses on measuring what your trainees have and haven't learned. It also measures what participants of your training think they'll be able to do differently as a result, how confident they are that they can do it, and how motivated they are to make changes. This demonstrates how training has developed their skills, knowledge, attitudes, confidence, and commitment. Examples of resources and techniques are:

- Examination, printed or electronic.
- Demonstrations and oral exam
- A post-test in combination with a pre-test
- Self-assessment and peer-assessment
- Observations by trainers
- Interviews

Level 3: Evaluation – Behavior

This level analyzes the differences in the participant's behavior at work after completing the training. For most people, this level offers the most accurate evaluation of a training's usefulness. Testing at this level is challenging. Imagine that you are assessing your team members after a training session. You can see little change, and you conclude that they learned nothing and that the training was ineffective. It is possible, however, that they actually learned a lot but that the organizational or team culture obstructs behavioral change. Perhaps

existing processes mean that there is little scope to apply new ways of working. Examples of resources and techniques are:

- Observations and interviews.
- Examinations (incorporated within the management system at the participant's workplace).
- Surveys to evaluate significant change, importance of change, and how long this change will last.
- 360-degree feedback.

Level 4: Evaluation – Results

Commonly regarded as the primary goal of the program, level four determines the overall success of the session by measuring outcomes such as lowered spending, higher returns on investments, improved quality, fewer accidents, more efficient production times, and higher quantities. From a business standpoint, the factors above are the main reason for the model. Figuring out whether or not the program can be linked to these results is hard to determine accurately. Results may come from environmental changes, economical, and/or political changes. Impact studies on certification programs might prove some causality.

ILLUSTRATION 07: EVALUATING RESULTS WITH KIRKPATRICK



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CHAPTER 3. COMPETENCIES, LEARNING OBJECTIVES, AND BLOOM

This chapter supports you in describing what your participants will have learned after they have completed your training by diving into the topics of competencies and learning objectives. At the same time, defining these helps you decide what should be included in your training design to allow participants to become competent in a specific domain.

3.1 COMPETENCIES

Competencies are measurable standards of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that determine the desired performance and behaviors for a specific role at a particular level. Competencies may be acquired through education, training, and experience. Gaps in competencies drive the demand for learning and are directly linked to educational objectives.

3.2 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

A learning objective is a brief, clear statement of what the participant should be able to do as a result of a training, and it only promises what the training can deliver. Furthermore, it is SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-bound). Learning objectives are the cornerstones for the training design and can be defined for the training itself and its themes and subjects. Learning objectives provide answers to the following questions:

- What is the participant of the training doing when demonstrating the achievement of the knowledge, skill, or attitude described in the learning objective?
- What are the conditions under which the learner is expected to demonstrate?
- What level of achievement is the learner expected to demonstrate?

Examples of learning objectives are:

- At the end of the session, participants will be able to identify and apply six different participatory training methods.
- After a five-day training, the participants will be able to implement IPM practices in line with government policies.

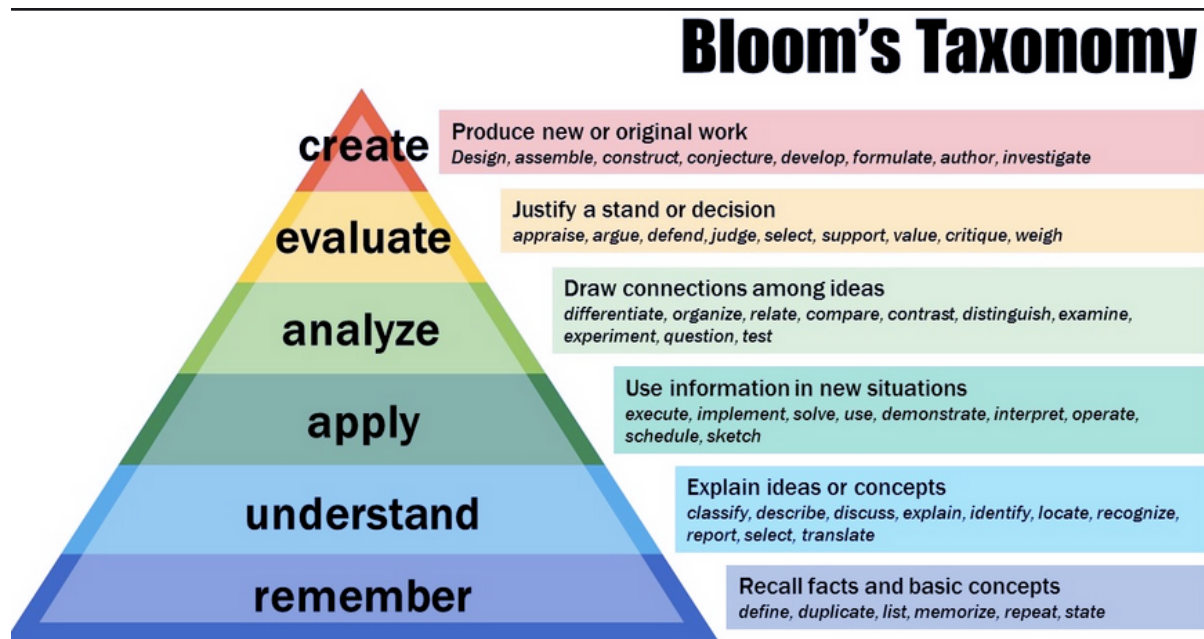
Write the objectives from the participant's perspective and prevent defining teacher-centered objectives such as "Participants have practiced with X" and "Method y has been explained".

3.3 BLOOM'S TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Benjamin Samuel Bloom was an American educational psychologist who contributed to the classification of educational objectives and the theory of mastery learning. Bloom's Taxonomy underpins the classical 'Knowledge, Skills, Attitude' structure of learning method and evaluation. Aside from the even simpler Kirkpatrick learning evaluation model, Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Domains remains the most widely used system of its kind in education particularly, and also industry and corporate training.

Bloom's taxonomy supports describing learning objectives that, when achieved, lead to competence. The illustration below and the text underneath explain Bloom's taxonomy and can provide inspiration to describe the learning objectives of your training.

ILLUSTRATION 08: BLOOM'S TAXONOMY



Learning level 1: Remembering

Can the participant remember the information?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are:- "What happened after...?", - "How many...?", - "What is...?", - "Which one...?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are:- list, - find, - name, - recall, - memorize, - define, - match.

Learning level 2: Understanding

Can the participant explain ideas or concepts?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are: - "Can you give an example...?", - "What seems likely...?", - "Which statement supports...?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are:- classify, - describe, - discuss, - explain, - identify, - locate, - recognize, - report, - select, - translate

Learning level 3: Applying

Can the participant use the information, concepts, and ideas in new situations?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are: - "How would you explain...?", - "Can you write in your own words...?", - "Clarify why...?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - demonstrate, - employ, - illustrate, - interpret, - operate, - schedule, - sketch, - solve, - use, - write

Learning level 4: Analyze

Can the participant break down the information into components?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are: - "Why do you think...?", - "What conclusions can you draw?", - "What ideas justify?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - compare, - contrast, - criticize, - differentiate, - discriminate, - distinguish, - examine, - experiment, - question

Learning level 5: Evaluating

Can the participant judge the value of ideas, materials, and methods by developing and applying standards and criteria?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are: - "What can happen if...?", - "Can you predict an outcome...?", - "Can you invent...?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - appraise, - argue, - defend, - judge, - select, - support, - value, - evaluate

Learning level 6: Creating

Can the participant create new products or points of view?

- Questions that you ask to test this level are: - "What is your opinion of...?", - "How can you determine...?"
- Verbs that you can use in formulating the objectives are: - assemble, - construct, - create, - design, - develop, - formulate

References

- Lorin W. Anderson (Author), David R. Krathwohl (Author), Peter W. Airasian (Author), Kathleen A. Cruikshank (Author), and 4 more: A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Abridged Edition.

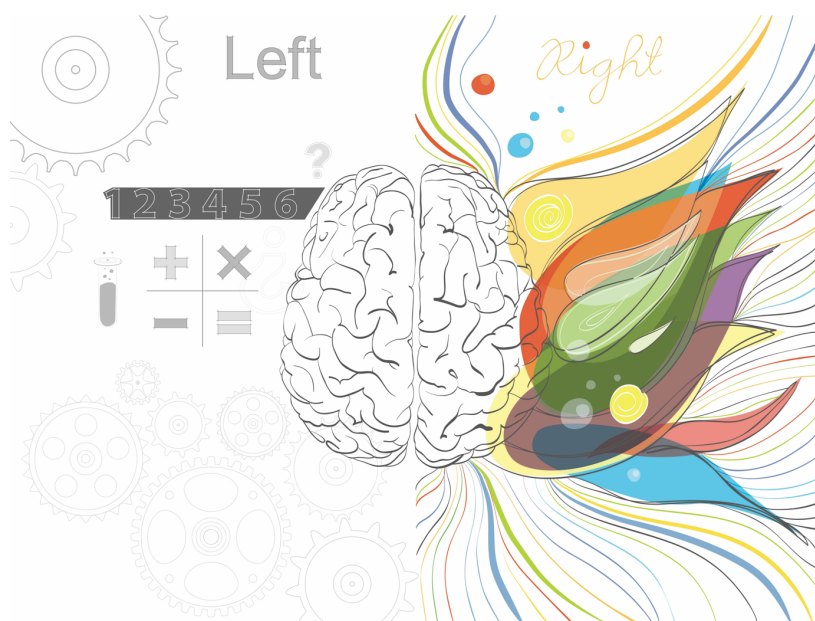
CHAPTER 4. NLP TECHNIQUES

Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) is an approach to communication, personal development and psychotherapy created by Richard Bandler and John Grinder in California, United States in the 1970s. Its creators claim a connection between the neurological processes ("neuro"), language ("linguistic"), and behavioral patterns learned through experience ("programming") and that these can be changed to achieve specific goals in life. It involves dozens of techniques derived from different disciplines, which you can use in your session.

4.1 NLP COMMUNICATION MODEL

The NLP communication model explains how we process the information from outside and what we do with it internally. In NLP, it is believed that "The map is not the territory", which means that the internal representations that we make about an external event are not necessarily a factual representation of that event. This is because through the unique way in which we all process information, we make our own unique "Internal Representation" of an event that includes a combination of internal pictures, sounds, dialogues, feelings, tastes, and smells. The Internal Representation of the event then combines with the physiological condition of your body to create a state (happy, sad, motivated, etc).

ILLUSTRATION 09: BRAIN



Components of the NLP Communication Model

In other words, the external event comes in through various sensory input channels and is filtered and managed by our brain. As we collect the perception of the event, we delete, distort, and generalize the information according to the following processes that filter our perception.

Deletion

The deletion occurs when we selectively pay attention to certain aspects of our experience, and in addition to that, we overlook or omit others. Without deletion, we would be faced with too much information to process, and we would be overwhelmed most of the time.

Distortion

Distortion occurs when we misrepresent reality by making shifts in our experience of sensory data. In Indian philosophy, there is a well-known story of distortion in the rope versus snake analogy. A man walking along the road sees what he believes to be a snake and yells "SNAKE!." However, when he comes closer, he is relieved when he discovers that he only saw a piece of rope.

Distortion is an essential component of the NLP Communication Model and can be used to motivate ourselves. Motivation can happen when we misrepresent, change, or falsify the information that has come into our neurology. The information has been changed by one of our filtering systems.

Generalization

Finally comes generalization, which means that we draw general conclusions based on one or two experiences. Do you know someone who had one experience and subsequently formed an opinion about all similar experiences? This has to do with the capacity of the brain to process information. Usually, the conscious mind can only handle seven (plus or minus 2) pieces of information at any given time. When you provide more information, the brain quickly gets overloaded. Therefore, we tend to oversimplify, make decisions, and set attitudes based on insufficient information simply because the brain cannot process more. Generalization is very common in the world today, and everybody does it.

Of course, we all know people who can process only a bit of information before they are overloaded and people who can process a lot of information. How about you?

Try this: Can you name more than 7 products in a given product category, say cigarettes? Most people will be able to call 2, maybe 3 products in a low-interest category and usually no more than 9 in a high-interest category. There is a reason for this.

If we did not actively delete information all the time, we would end up with too much information coming in. You may have even heard psychologists say that if we were simultaneously aware of all of the sensory information that was coming in, we would go crazy. That is why we filter the information.

Filters

At its best, generalization is one of the ways that we learn—- taking the information we have and drawing broad conclusions about the meaning of those conclusions. So, the question is, when two people have the same stimulus, why do they not have the same response? The answer is, that we delete, distort, and generalize the information from the outside that comes in from our senses based on one of five filters. The filters of the NLP Communication Model are Meta Programs, Belief Systems, Values, Decisions, and Memories.

1. Meta-Programs

The first of these NLP filters is Meta Programs. Knowing someone's Meta Programs can help you clearly and closely predict people's states, and therefore predict their actions and behaviors. Meta Programs are clearly outlined in Tad James' book "Time Line Therapy and the Basis of Personality, a critical point about Meta Programs". They are not good or bad; they are just the way someone handles information.

2. Values

The following filter in NLP is Values. Values are essentially an evaluation filter. They are how we decide whether our actions are good or bad, right or wrong and how we feel about our actions. Values are arranged in a hierarchy, with the most important one typically being at the top and the lesser ones below that. Each of us has a different model of the world, and our Values are the result of our model of the world. When we communicate with ourselves or someone else, and our model of the world conflicts with our values or someone else's values, then there will be a conflict. Values are what people typically move toward or away from (see Meta Programs).

They are our attractions or repulsions in life. They are a deep, unconscious belief system about what's important, and Values can change with context too. You probably have specific values about what you want in a relationship and what you want in a business. Your values about what you want in one and in the other may be different. And actually, if they are not, it is possible that you may have trouble with both. Since values are context-related, they may also be state-related.

3. Beliefs

The following filter is Beliefs. Beliefs are generalizations about how the world is. Beliefs are the assumptions that we have about how the world is that either create or deny personal power to us. So, Beliefs are essentially our on/off switch. In the process of working with someone's Beliefs, it is important to discover what Beliefs they have that cause them to do what they do. We also want to find out the disabling beliefs, the ones that do not allow them to do what they want to do.

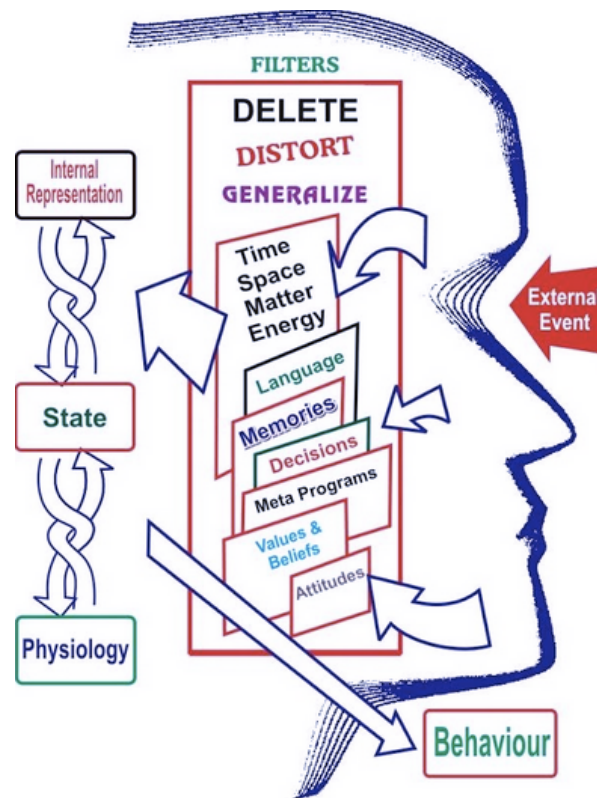
4. Memories

The fourth filter is our Memory. Many psychologists say that the present plays a small part in our behavior. They believe that as we get older, our reactions in the present are more and more just reactions to "gestalts" (collections of memories organized in a certain way) of Memories. Among many other therapies, Time Line Therapy® aims to make changes in our memories for a positive result.

5. Decisions

The fifth filter is the Decisions that we have made in the past. Decisions may create new beliefs or may affect our perceptions through time. The problem with many decisions is that they were made either unconsciously or at a very early age and we have forgotten why we have made them. However, because these decisions are wired in our nervous system as a pattern influencing our behavior. Therefore, in a context that might ask for a different decision, we tend to slip into the pattern.

ILLUSTRATION 10: NLP COMMUNICATION MODEL



These five filters will determine how we internally represent an event that is occurring now, and is illustrated in the illustration above. It is our internal representation that puts us in a certain state and creates certain physiology. The state in which we find ourselves will determine our behavior, and the NLP Communication Model will determine how we process all the information from the outside world.

4.2 BODY LANGUAGE

The majority of face-to-face communication is made up of the speakers' body language. From research that Albert Mehrabian undertook in 1971 we can conclude that communication, on a face-to-face basis, is thought to consist of three separate elements:

- Words (what is said)
- Tone of voice (how we say the words)
- Body Language

All three of these elements can be conveyed simultaneously to express an overall message. Often, the tone of voice and body language are combined to become the most potent form of communication. However, body language is thought to be one of the most 'telling' modes of communication.

Through his research, Mehrabian also proved that the three elements were not of equal importance proportionally. He claimed that in face-to-face communication, the majority of what is put across is portrayed through nonverbal communication (tone of voice and body language) and only a small portion is communicated through words. Therefore, through face-to-face communication, nonverbal communication becomes the most powerful mode of communication when conveying feelings or attitudes.

For instance, imagine that a man and a woman have a blind date. The man asks the woman if she is enjoying herself. The woman isn't enjoying herself but wants to be polite, so she says "yes, I'm having a really nice time". The literal meaning of the words she uses conveys that she is enjoying herself. However, the tone of voice she uses in conjunction with the words may

betray the words she is speaking. Her closed, awkward body language may also express that she is not enjoying herself. So the two non-verbal communication elements may give away the fact that she is not having a very good time, despite what she is saying. However, it's worth noting that Mehrabian has since noted "...Unless a communicator is talking about their feelings or attitudes, these equations are not applicable". He does not imply that the words we say are of relatively minor importance. Instead, non-verbal communication is mostly important when the words we say conflict with our body language or tone of voice.

4.3 REPRESENTATIONAL SYSTEMS

Representational Systems (also known as sensory modalities and abbreviated by VAKOG) is a model from neuro-linguistic programming that considers how the human mind processes and stores information. The central idea of this model is that experience is represented in the brain in sensorial terms.

According to Bandler and Grinder, our chosen words, phrases, and sentences indicate our referencing of each representational system. So, for example, the words "black", "clear", "spiral" and "image" reference the visual representation system. Similarly, the words "tinkling", "silent", "squeal" and "blast" reference the auditory representation system. Bandler and Grinder also propose that metaphorical or figurative language indicates a reference to a representational system that is literal. For example, the comment "I see what you're saying" is taken to indicate a visual representation.

The most highly valued

Bandler and Grinder claim that each person has a "most highly valued" representational system. They are more able to vividly create an experience (in their mind) in terms of that "most highly valued" representational system. Because of that, each person tends to use that representational system more often than the others; there are more distinctions available in that representation system than the others. For example, a person who most highly values their visual representation system can easily and vividly visualize things and tends to do so in preference to creating or recreating an experience in terms of the other representational systems.

According to NLP, the mental processing of events and memories can be treated as if performed by the five senses for many practical purposes. For example, Einstein credited his discovery of special relativity to a mental visualization strategy of "sitting on the end of a ray of light", and many people as part of decision-making talk to themselves in their heads. How this is done and the effectiveness of the mental strategy employed is stated by NLP to play a critical part in the way cognitive processing takes place. This observation led to the concept of a preferred representational system and distinguished in classification between visual, auditory, and kinesthetic stereotypes. This idea was later discredited and dropped within NLP in the early 1980s, in favor of the understanding that most people use all of their senses (whether consciously or unconsciously) and that while one system may seem to dominate, this is often contextualized – globally, there is a balance that dynamically varies according to circumstance and mood.

NLP asserts that for most circumstances and most people, three of the five sensory-based modes seem to dominate in mental processing:

- Visual thoughts - sight, mental imagery, spatial awareness
- Auditory (or linguistic) thoughts - sound, speech, dialog, white noise
- Kinesthetic sense - feelings in the body, temperature, pressure, and emotions

The other two senses, gustatory (taste) and olfactory (smell), which are closely associated, seem to be less significant in general mental processing and are often considered jointly. For this reason, one often sees the term VAK in NLP reference texts to signify these three primary representational systems and the term VAKOG if the author wishes to include all senses, including taste/smell.

Representational systems are also relevant because some tasks are better performed within one representational system than by another. For example, in education, spelling is better learned by children who have unconsciously used a visualization strategy than an unconscious

strategy of phonetically "sounding out". When taught to visualize, previously poor spellers can indeed be taught to improve.

RECOGNIZING THE TYPE OF MENTAL MAPS	
 Visual	see, look, bright, clear, picture, foggy, view, clear, focused, dawn, reveal, illuminate, imagine, hazy, an eyeful, short-sighted, sight for sore eyes, take a peek, tunnel vision, bird's eye view, naked eye, paint a picture
 Auditory	hear, tell, sound, resonate, listen, silence, deaf, squeak, hush, roar, melody, make music, harmonize, tune in/out, rings a bell, quiet as a mouse, voiced an opinion, clear as a bell, give me your ear, loud and clear, purrs like a kitten, on another note
 Kinesthetic	grasp, feel, hard, unfeeling, concrete, scrape, solid, touch, get hold of, catch on, tap into, heated argument, pull some strings, sharp as a tack, smooth operator, make contact, throw out, firm foundation, get a handle on, get in touch with, hand in hand, hang in there

4.4 RAPPORT AND MATCHING

Rapport is the ability to relate to others in a way that creates trust and understanding. It is the ability to see the other's point of view and get them to understand yours. You don't have to agree with their point of view or even like it. It makes any form of communication easier. Successful interactions depend primarily on our ability to establish and maintain rapport. Surprisingly, we make most business decisions based on rapport rather than technical merit. People are more likely to buy from, agree with, or support someone they can relate with. NLP rapport techniques are pretty subtle but extremely powerful in their implications and effects. Dictionaries define rapport as a relationship marked by harmony, conformity, accord, or affinity. It supports agreement, alignment, likeness, or similarity.

Emphasizing similarities

There are two ways to see other people. You can choose to emphasize the differences or the similarities between you. You can always find things you have in common with someone, even if it is just being human. Likewise, there will always be differences between you and another. Even clones would have different experiences. If you emphasize the differences, you will find it hard to establish rapport. By emphasizing commonalities, resistance will generally disappear, and cooperation will improve. With practice, it becomes easy to find what we share with other people and focus on it.

Matching

NLP rapport is established and maintained by pacing. By definition, this is the process of moving as the other person moves. Pacing or matching the other person's behavior comes across as acceptance. It is about reducing the differences between yourself and others at an unconscious level. You can pace or match many different aspects of behavior. Of course, if the other person is aware you match their behavior, it becomes mimicry. Obvious attempts to "copy" people will break rapport. Successful pacing is at an unconscious level. When rapport is established, you can influence the other person's behavior. If you want to know if you have rapport, you can make a movement and determine whether they follow you. For instance, you might scratch your nose and see if the other person does the same.

What you can match

Matching is something we all do naturally in some contexts. Watch what happens when someone talks to a small child. They might crouch down to the child's height, speak more slowly (or excitedly). Romantic couples in restaurants often engage in a dance, leaning and smiling in mirror postures.

1. Body postures

You can adjust your whole body, half body, or part of your body to match the other. Matching typical poses that the other person offers with their head and shoulders is useful. If the body posture is unusual, matching can seem disrespectful. Subtlety is vital.

2. Breathing

You can match the rate of a person's breathing, where they are breathing (chest, abdomen, or stomach), or how deep they breathe. This is not a good technique if the person has difficulty breathing, as you may feel similar symptoms. However, you can calm someone down by breathing slower and deeper when connecting with them.

3. Voice

Matching the pace, volume, pitch, tone, and type of words can be a little tricky to learn but is worth it. Try watching a TV program in a foreign language to notice these auditory processing distinctions. You do not have to try to match all these aspects. Choose one. If a person is talking slowly, slow down. If they speak softly, drop your volume.

4. Beliefs and values

Authentically trying to understand another person's beliefs and values without judgment can create very deep rapport. Once again, you do not have to agree with them or change your own values; the goal is to understand.

5. Language patterns

Matching language patterns is a favorite NLP rapport technique used by sales and marketing people. By using the same words to describe things and processes, the person feels understood.

Listen for their powerful words. We have often learned to paraphrase what someone says rather than to use the same words. We call it active listening. This is a mistake when it comes to NLP rapport. We attach particular words to corresponding experiences. If someone says she wants to be confident and you talk about her capability, you can miss the rapport boat.

4.5 MODELING

Modeling is the process of recreating excellence. We can model any human behavior by mastering the beliefs, physiology, and thought processes that underlie the skill or behavior. It is about achieving an outcome by studying how someone else goes about it.

Richard Bandler and John Grinder modeled the strategies of Virginia Satir; they were trying to achieve what many others before them had attempted. They wanted to duplicate her extraordinary results in family therapy. What Bandler and Grinder did differently was finding the thinking strategies she was using, rather than merely copying behaviors. The biggest problem with interviewing experts is that skills are usually unconscious. We can not explain how we walk, talk or write. What makes you a successful parent or golfer? The expert's theories explain their success. These theories can include irrelevant habits and superstitions such as sportsmen and their lucky socks.

John Grinder on Modeling

Modeling involves transferring what experts think they know and what they unconsciously know. It involves being able to produce the outcome and transferring the behavior to others. The use of modeling does not just involve extraordinary skills. For example, you could model how someone keeps her desk clean. We can use the same fundamental questions to

determine how someone gives an excellent presentation or session. There are three phases to modeling.

1. Observing the model

This involves fully imagining yourself in someone else's reality by using what NLP calls a second position shift. The focus is on "what" the person does (behavior and physiology), "how" they do it (internal thinking strategies), and "why" they do it (supporting beliefs and assumptions). We obtain the "what" from direct observation. The "how" and "why" are gained by asking questions.

2. Find the difference that makes the difference

Traditional learning adds pieces of a skill one bit at a time until we have them all. The drawback to this method is we do not know which bits are essential. By contrast, modeling which is the basis of accelerated learning, gets all the elements and then subtracts to find what is necessary. By systematically taking out elements of the model's behavior, we can discover what pieces are essential. If the process still works without that element, it is not relevant. The important questions are:

- What are the behavioral patterns of the successful person?
- How do they achieve their results?
- What did they do that is different from a person who is not successful?
- What is the difference that makes the difference?
- When you have all the pieces, you can refine and sequence the model

3. Design a method to teach the skill

Until you have all the relevant pieces of a skill and its necessary sequence, you cannot teach it effectively. Rehearsal of the natural sequence of the skill is essential. It would be yucky if you tried to make a cake by putting it in the oven before mixing the ingredients together. Yet we think we can teach separate elements of skills out of sequence and out of context and succeed.

NLP Modeling is a powerful process that can accelerate the learning of skills like training skills.



[John Grinder on Modelling](#) (5 minutes)

4.6 CHUNKING

Have you ever been stuck in a negotiation or argument and not been able to find common areas of agreement? Or needed to quickly and easily think laterally? Felt overwhelmed with an activity? Wanted to get something done, but did not feel excited about it? Chunking can help you get past these obstacles.

What is Chunking?

In NLP, 'chunking up' refers to moving to more general or abstract pieces of information. While 'chunking down' means moving to more specific or detailed information.

Chunk up

To chunk up on a piece of information, use one or more of the following questions:

- What is this an example of?
- What is this a part of?
- What is the intention?

- For what purpose?

To illustrate the concept, let us begin with a library building. Examples of chunking up from library building would be:

- Buildings (a library building is an example of buildings), or
- A city block (the library building forms part of a city block), or
- A city's library system, or
- Provides a means for people to undertake research.

If we follow the path of a city block, we can then chunk up to a city, then to a province or state, then to a country, etc.

Chunk down

To chunk down, use one or more of the following questions:

- What is an example of this?
- What is a component/part of this?
- What/who/where specifically?

Examples of chunking down or being more specific on library building are:

- A library building in the City of Ottawa, or
- A library building built in the 1950s, or
- The third floor of the library building, or
- A specific window in the library building, or
- A row of books in the library building.

How and when can you use chunking?

1. Mediation

Chunking up and down is a handy tool in negotiations or mediation. In negotiations, we often continue to explore solutions at a level of thought at which we do not agree. The key is to chunk up until you and the other person agree and then chunk back down to the details only as fast as you both maintain the agreement. Often in negotiation, we assume that the other person wants what we want, which may not be the case.

2. Finding alternatives

We are often encouraged to think horizontally. This is not always easy to do. It is if we use chunking. To think laterally, you first chunk up and then chunk down. For example, suppose you have to take a package to a particular destination, and you do not wish to use your car. To identify alternatives, first chunk up, i.e., what is driving your car an example of? One possible chunk up is a mode of transportation. Now chunking down, you can easily identify many different ways of transportation on the same logical level as a car, i.e., bicycle, horse, train, airplane, walking, etc. And you can select the mode of transportation that meets your other needs.

3. Make it doable

By chunking up and down, you can size your outcomes so that they are doable and you have excitement, motivation, and passion for achieving them.

4. Get motivated

Chunking up can be done to overcome disinterest. Why do we get bored? Often because what we are doing does not excite us. We are mired in the details. If you have an outcome and you

are not excited about it, ask yourself "What is the purpose of this outcome?" i.e. chunk up. Get a bigger perspective or the big picture. Working towards an outcome and not knowing the larger purpose can be demotivating.

5. One bite at a time

Chunking down can be done to address overwhelm. Sometimes we may feel overwhelmed. This can happen if the chunk size is too large. Here we need to chunk down and be more specific, focus more on the details, or be more realistic. When you feel overwhelmed or do not know where to start when you think of your outcome, chunk down to be more specific and identify manageable tasks.



[Find out what Tony Robbins has to say about chunking](#) (9 minutes)

4.7 ANCHORING

You can change your state of mind or mood easily using anchoring techniques. This means you can, for example, stay calm and relaxed no matter what other people are doing or how provoking they may be. You do this by anchoring states and stepping into them.

Anchoring

Anchoring is reminiscent of Pavlov's experiments with dogs. Pavlov sounded a bell as the animal was given food. The animals salivated when they saw the food. After some pairings of the bell and the food, the bell alone elicited salivation. Anchors are stimuli that call forth states of mind - thoughts and emotions. For example, touching the knuckle of the left hand could be an anchor. Some anchors are involuntary. So the smell of bread may take you back to your childhood. A tune may remind you of a particular person. A touch can bring back memories and past states. These anchors work automatically, while you may not be aware of the triggers. Establishing an anchor means producing the stimuli (the anchor) when the resourceful state is experienced so that the resourceful state is paired to the anchor. In practice this could look like touching the knuckle of the left hand when the resourceful state is experienced to pair the two events which can be activated at a later moment to return to that resourceful state. Activating or firing the anchor means producing the anchor after it has been conditioned so that the resourceful state occurs.

Automatic Unconscious Anchors

We are affected by anchors throughout our lives and consciously and unconsciously can slip into good moods or bad ones, feel motivated to do one thing or to do another, feel confident and resourceful, or the opposite. We respond to anchors, but we may not know what they are. These anchors have been built up accidentally. We often think that our mood has nothing to do with us and that our moods occur by chance.

Designer Anchors

Designer anchors are what this chapter is about. You use them to produce the state of mind or mood you need for a given situation. For example, during a training would like to give a presentation calm and relaxed, you are able to control your nerves, and you are able to enthuse your audience. First of all, we will assemble the ingredients for anchors and then give the whole procedure for establishing your designer anchors. You can use any resourceful state, but here we will use 'being calm and relaxed' as an example.

Get the state

Recall any memories in which you have experienced the required state. Recall them vividly, and recall the state. Recall any memories of being extremely calm and relaxed to get the resource for your anchor. You might remember being calm and relaxed at work, for example, or from a time when you were at home or enjoying your leisure time. To vivify the memory, use instructions as:

Recall a time when you were calm and relaxed. As you go back to that time, step into your body, and you are seeing what you see in the memory, hearing what you heard in the memory, and feeling what you feel in the memory. If you cannot recall a situation where you had the state you want to anchor in, you can get the state by imagining yourself in a situation where you had that resource.

Types of Anchors

Visual Anchors

You can use visual anchors to anchor the resourceful state. You can use external or internal anchors. For example, you could use a figure on a bracelet to anchor being calm and relaxed. The external anchor always has to be there for you to use. You may find it relaxing and calming to view a particular landscape, but it is of limited value unless you can carry it around with you. However, you can use an internal image of the landscape to anchor your resourceful feeling. Most visual designer anchors are internal. Some examples of visual anchors are:

- Symbols. For example, you could use a circle to symbolize being calm and relaxed and anchor this to your state.
- People, such as a trusted friend or mentor ... or even a person from history or current affairs.
- Various objects and landscapes can be used as anchors for being calm and relaxed. For example, you could imagine a teddy bear or a flower.

Auditory Anchors

You can use a sound as an anchor. Like the visual anchors, sounds can be internal or external. You can use an inner voice as an anchor. For example, you could anchor the phrase 'Calm and Relaxed'.

Kinesthetic Anchors

Examples of kinesthetic anchors are

- Imagining a comforting hand on your shoulder
- Making a circle with the second finger and the thumb
- Touching yourself on the hand or another unobtrusive place. You can choose a point and treat it like an acupuncture point - pressing on it to fire the required state.

You can use a combination of anchors, such as seeing a specific symbol in your mind's eye, hearing something said (calm and relaxed), and pressing your hand in a particular place.

Installing Anchors

1. Decide on the state you want to anchor. For example, being calm and relaxed.
2. Choose an anchor (or anchors) that you wish to trigger the resourceful state.
3. Recall a memory or imagine a situation where you have experienced the state.
4. Activate the anchor or anchors when the experience is vivid while you are in the desired state.
5. Release the anchors when the experience begins to fade.
6. Do something else to break the state like opening your eyes or counting down from 10 to 0.
7. Repeat the steps several times, each time making the memory more vivid. You can strengthen the anchor by establishing it at the highest point of several similar experiences.

8. Imagine a future situation where you want to experience the desired state. Fire the anchor to check that it creates a sufficiently resourced state.

Tip for anchoring

The anchor (or anchors) should be fired in exactly the same way every time you link them to the resourceful experience.

Anchor at the high point of the experience containing the resourceful state.

If you do not experience the state when you imagine a future situation, and especially if you experience anxiety, then stop applying the anchor. You will anchor the negative state!

You can strengthen the anchor by repeating the above process over several days.

If you are in a situation where you experience the desired state in reality, then you can reestablish the anchor to that situation.



[Find here a video where anchoring is explained in 2.5 minutes](#)

4.8 METAPHOR

Imagine that long ago, in a distant time at the dawn of civilization, a group of people huddled around a fire, resting from the day and warming themselves for the night. The group comprises several families, the young, the fit, and the elderly, all grouped for mutual survival in a harsh environment.

The evening meal had finished, and a man stood while the group fell silent but with excited curiosity about what the man might say. The man, who was not old by our standards but had an appearance that communicated his wisdom and authority, started to speak. He commences by taking his audience back in time to events that anchored them to deeds of courage, endurance, and sacrifice. His words entrance each listener and carry them on a journey inside themselves so that they relive each story; even if they had not been present. After the stories, the group would sleep, dream, and wake up the following day feeling renewed, refreshed, and ready to face the day.

The storyteller has a special magic that allows the listener to travel in time and space and access states and resources from their unconsciousness. Storytellers have been with us since man first learned to speak and have survived the printing press and the arrival of electronic entertainment. Today, a leader, speaker, or trainer who wishes to bypass resistance, prepare hearts and minds and facilitate lasting changes for their audience will be wise to study and practice the structure and delivery of story and metaphor.

Neuro Linguistic Programming and Metaphor

The early developers of Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) modeled a great storyteller, the founder of modern hypnosis, Milton Erickson. Erickson's stories are ingenious, enchanting, and extraordinary examples of the art of persuasion. According to Sidney Rosen MD, a student of Erickson's, anybody who listened to Erickson was likely to experience varying levels of

hypnotic trance. In a trance, we are most open to the messages, suggestions, and influences embedded in the stories. Erickson also believed that if the listener "forgot" a story - developed amnesia for it - its effect could be even more potent. To this end, Erickson and subsequent NLP trainers would create story loops by nesting one story inside another, inside another, taking the listener deeper into a trance and increasing the chance of amnesia.

Stories and metaphors can be used to

- Create emotional states
- Cause the listener to access mental resources
- Reframe a situation
- Reduce resistance to change or new ideas
- Build rapport
- Entertain
- Break negative states

What is a Metaphor?

The word 'metaphor' comes from Meta, meaning above or about, and Phorine, which means meaning, it can also be translated as 'to transfer' or 'carry over'. When we use a metaphor, we cause the listener to go meta to meaning, creating awareness that creates choice, and choice allows change.

We "meta state" when we use metaphors by putting one thing in a hierarchy to another. The philosopher Aristotle (circa 300 BC) knew this when he said, "Metaphor is the application to one thing of the name belonging to another". The dictionary defines a metaphor as "a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another by way of suggesting a likeness or analogy between them".

The best metaphors are staring you right in the face, you are living them, and they are everywhere. It is like the fish asking "where is the water?". In fact, it is more difficult to find something that is not a metaphor.

The Construction of a Metaphor

To create a basic metaphor, use the following steps.

1. Displace the focus

It is obvious that nobody likes to be told; people want to discover the answers for themselves. Changing the story's focus from the listener to some other time, place or person reduces resistance by allowing the listener to draw their meanings.

2. Get the listener to research their unconscious

Using non-specific descriptions, your metaphor will induce trance by causing the listener to go inside and fill in the details from their mental map or experience. An example would be; "Perhaps if you were in a similar situation you would have an idea as to what to do".

3. Pace the Structure

For the metaphor to be effective, it needs to have the same structure as the problem it sets out to gain perspective on. So if the listeners are facing a challenge and do not know how to resolve it, then the subjects of the metaphor will also face a challenge. The difference is in the outcome.

4. An Outcome

The metaphor needs an outcome or resolution that will add resources to the listener. This will often be in the form of a reframing of what the situation means; for example "they discovered that the challenge was, in fact, an opportunity to do things better".

The Delivery of metaphor

- If you are not already a natural storyteller, listen to others who have the 'gift' and then practice. If you have children, read bedtime stories and then practice creating your own. If you can enthrall a child, you are well on your way.
- A metaphor must be meaningful; it needs to pace the elements of the listener's intellectual level, experience, and current situation. Good storytellers gather information about their audience and not only pace content but pace their delivery. No two audiences are the same, and so a single story may vary in length and detail depending on how it is being received.
- A metaphor is personal. People are more likely to listen to and believe a personal anecdote (which you can spice up a little).
- The storyteller must use their voice and physiology to act out the story for maximum impact.

So learning to tell stories is like learning to cook. At first, you start with a few simple ingredients, but after a few tries, you can add flavors and spices and make a meal that is both satisfying and memorable.



Do you want some creative input? [Here is a site](#) with 259 stories that you can use in your trainings.

4.9 MILTON MODEL

The Milton-Model was named after Milton Erickson by the NLP founders. The Milton Model is a broad variety of persuasive and hypnotic language patterns that move one from the specific toward the general in search of solutions that have been overlooked under one's present model or map of the world.

Milton Erickson, whose use of metaphor, oblique references, vague and permissive language, was able to effectively bypass the critical faculties of his clients and work directly on the subconscious mind. By using vague and permissive language in his suggestions, the client would feel as though they themselves could come up with solutions to their presenting problems, which was indeed the case.

Volumes have been written on the topic of Milton Erickson's language, and it is very valuable to learn. Below you can find a summary of Milton patterns that can be used in sessions:

1. Mind Read: Asserting that one knows the thoughts or feelings of another without specifying the process by which you came to know their thoughts. Example: "I know that you want to know..."
2. Lost Performative: Value judgments (which may include an unspecified comparison) where the performer of the value judgment is left out. Example: "And it's a good thing to wonder..."
3. Presupposition: The linguistic equivalent of assumptions. Example: "You are learning many things..."
4. Universal Quantifier: A set of universal words. Examples: "And everything, always..."
5. Nominalization: Process words (including verbs) that have been frozen in time by making them into nouns. Example: "...the communication"
6. Tag Question: A question added after a statement, designed to displace resistance with tacit agreement. Example: "Is it not?"
7. Comparative Deletion (Unspecified Comparison): Where the comparison is made and it is not specified as to what or whom it was made. Example: "And it's more or less the right thing."

8. Pacing Current Experience: Where the client's verifiable, external experience is described in a way, which is undeniable. Example: "You are sitting here, listening to me, looking at me, (etc.)..."
9. Double Bind: Where the client is given two choices (both of which are preferable or desired) separated by an "or". Example: "I don't know whether you'll come to realize it earlier or later..."
10. Utilization: Remember to utilize all that happens or is said. Example: Client says: "I am not sold. Response: "That's right you are not sold, yet, because you haven't asked the one question that will have you totally and completely sold."

Putting it all together

"I know that you are wondering... and it's a good thing to wonder... because... that means... you are learning many things... and all the things, all the things... that you can learn... provide you with new insights and new understandings. And you can, can you not? One can, you know. And it's more or less the right thing. You are sitting here, listening to me, looking at me, and that means that your unconscious mind is also here, and can hear what I say. And since that is the case, you are probably learning about this and already know more at an unconscious level than you think you do, and it's not right for me to tell him, learn this or learn that, let him learn in any way he wants, in any order. Do you feel this... This is something you understand!?"

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CHAPTER 5. GROUP DYNAMICS

Managing group dynamics and overcoming resistance in a session is an important skill for a facilitator. This chapter dives into the stages of group development, how to deal with resistance, and how to deal with questions.

5.1 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Forming a team takes time, and members often go through recognizable stages as they change from being a collection of strangers to a united group with common goals. Bruce Tuckman's "Forming, Storming, Norming, and Performing" model describes these stages. You can help your new team become effective more quickly when you understand it.

1. Forming

During this stage, most team members are positive and polite. Some are anxious, as they have not fully understood what work the team will do. Others are simply excited about the task ahead. As a leader, you play a dominant role at this stage because team members' roles and responsibilities are not clear yet. This stage can last for some time, as people start to work together and make an effort to get to know their new colleagues.

2. Storming

Next, the team moves into the storming phase, where people start to push against the boundaries established in the forming stage. This is the stage where many teams fail. Storming often starts when there is a conflict between team members' natural working styles. People may work in different ways. Different working styles may lead to unforeseen problems due to frustration.

Storming can also happen in other situations. For example, team members may challenge your authority or jockey for position as their roles are clarified. Or, if you have not defined clearly how the team will work, people may feel overwhelmed by their workload, or they could be uncomfortable with the approach you are using.

Some may question the worth of the team's goal, and they may resist taking on tasks. Team members who stick with the task at hand may experience stress, particularly when they do not have the support of established processes or strong relationships with their colleagues.

3. Norming

Gradually, the team moves into the "norming" stage. This is when people start to resolve their differences, appreciate colleagues' strengths, and respect your authority as a leader.

Now that your team members know one another better, they may socialize together, and they are able to ask one another for help and provide constructive feedback. People develop a more substantial commitment to the team goal, and you start to see good progress towards it. There is often a prolonged overlap between storming and norming because, as new tasks come up, the team may lapse back into behavior from the storming stage.

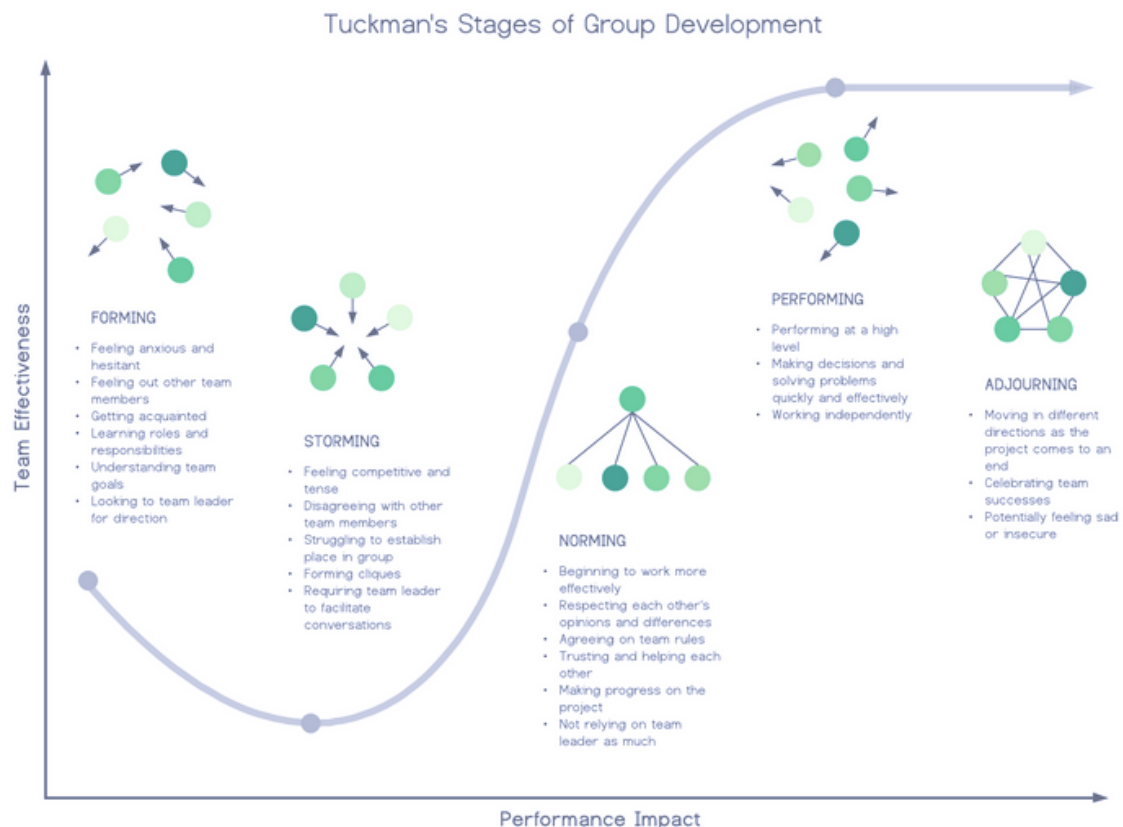
4. Performing

The team reaches the performing stage, where hard work leads, often without friction, to achieving the team's goal. The structures and processes that you have set up support this well. As a leader, you can delegate much of your work and concentrate on developing team members. It feels easy to be part of the team at this stage, and people who join or leave won't disrupt their performance.

5. Adjourning

Many teams will reach this stage eventually. For example, project teams exist for only a fixed period, and even permanent teams may be disbanded through organizational restructuring. Team members who like routine, or who have developed close working relationships with colleagues, may find this stage difficult, particularly if their future now looks uncertain.

ILLUSTRATION 11: STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT



5.2 DEALING WITH RESISTANCE

Overcoming resistance in your session is an important skill, which can make or break the success of your session and your confidence as a trainer. In for instance trainings to introduce a new tool, you may find there will be lots of reasons why some participants may find that it cannot be implemented, anything from "that does not apply to us", to "If organization X would match their policies more with our realities we would not have to do x y z." Your job as a trainer is to maximize your message, overcome resistance when it arises, and make sure the session does not get stuck on people's resistance so that one or two people do not take the whole group down with them.

So what are our tips?

Tip for dealing with questions

Managing questions in the right way increases the impact of your training. However, often, trainers are afraid of questions, and they fall into a defensive, suspicious position when questions are raised. They forget one simple truth: your audience is NOT your enemy!

First, start with preventing resistance by preparing the session well and setting up the session effectively. By applying the methods you have learned in this training, you will already be able to prevent and mitigate much resistance. Application of the techniques will help you establish your credibility right from the start of the session. You will always work more effectively with the group if they trust that the session will benefit them right from the start. For this, the principles of pain and trust will be beneficial with the starting techniques linked to that. These will be dealt with in chapter 11.

But what do you do when you are faced with resistance during your session? Being in front of a group can be lonely. It is beneficial to bear in mind that resistance is often proportionate to

feelings of loss. For organizations to thrive, they often need change, but we tend to need stability as human beings. This creates a dynamic tension that a session or team meeting can trigger. When you ask someone to do something different, and their response is resistance to that, you can ask yourself, "what do they feel they are losing?"

Imagine a training where a new tool or system is being implemented, and one or two people are very vocal in their resistance to the changes. They are probably the very people who know the current system inside out; if people wanted help, they went to them. So by implementing a new system, they will be losing their purpose and, to some extent, their position in the organization.

So how do you deal with such cases of resistance?

Tips for dealing with resistance

Create space and listen! Overcoming resistance is much easier if you create space for the resistance. When you allow participants to blow off steam, they can feel respected in their resistance. Listen actively to what people say, and understand where the resistance is coming from.

Acknowledge. Summarizing back your understanding of what someone has just said is a key skill during training. It buys you thinking time and it also demonstrates you have been listening.

Overcome resistance. As a trainer, we may face some resistance to the content. You may want to try saying a variation on this example: "If I could find a way to demonstrate to you the reasons why this is important would you give it a go?". It is very difficult to say no to that in a group of people. This will only work if you have established your credibility and built a good rapport with the group. Another example is "Can I challenge the adventurer in you to try this out and decide for yourself whether this works for you?".

Weigh up the pros and cons. An analysis of pros and cons can be a really useful tool when overcoming resistance, listing on one side of the flipchart all the reasons why certain changes should be implemented, and on the other side the reasons why not. You can of course also involve other participants.

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CHAPTER 6. ENERGIZERS, ICEBREAKERS, TEAM-BUILDING ACTIVITIES AND BREAKS

Maintaining and raising energy during an activity is a valuable skill that can be used beyond the training setting. This chapter deals with energizers, icebreakers, and team-building activities. Whether it is a small gathering at a colleague's home or a large training seminar, we all want to feel comfortable and feel that we have established some commonality with the group we find ourselves in. By creating a warm, friendly, and personal learning environment, people will not only participate more, but they will also learn more! Effective use of icebreakers and energizers often makes a difference between success and failure in a session. Employing suitable openers, warm-ups, in-session games, and after-lunch activities can result in an upheaval in participants' moods, attitudes, and even mindsets about the importance of the session itself.

Of course, a good session does not rely only on a couple of energizers to uplift the energy during the session program here and there. A good session includes variety, fun, and dynamics in almost every activity of the program, providing enough inspiration and energy. Some of the energizers, team-building activities, and icebreakers can, in fact, be incorporated into and used as proper learning tools on the topic of the session as well. When planning and choosing these activities, it is very important that you:

- Know your audience well and choose according to cultural and personal preferences.
- Do not take too much time for this. The optimum length is between 5 and 30 minutes max.
- Involve everyone.
- Encourage trust, cooperation, respect, and appreciation of other group members.

Icebreakers

What is an icebreaker? The term "icebreaker" comes from "break the ice", that in turn comes from special ships called "icebreakers" that are designed to break up ice in arctic regions. And just as these ships make it easier for other ships to travel, an icebreaker helps to clear the way for learning to occur by making the learners more comfortable and encouraging interaction between participants. Specifically, an icebreaker is an activity designed to help people get to know each other and usually involves sharing names and additional background information. Icebreakers can be used to:

- Help participants relax and ease into a meeting, workshop or training.
- Help participants learn each other's names and personal/professional information.
- Introducing a topic.

When participants meet for the first time, start with an icebreaker that helps everyone learn names and personal/professional information. If you are facilitating more than one session, choose a few icebreakers - you can use one to get people chatting and exchanging personal information, another to help memorize or review names, and another at a stretch break. Sometimes when a group meets for a workshop on a specific topic, participants already know each other well. In these situations, use an icebreaker that leads into the content of the gathering.

A topic lead-in can play several functions:

- Generate interest in the topic of the session.
- Activate participants' prior knowledge of the subject.
- Help the facilitator and participants to identify individual learning needs and goals.
- Encourage the sharing of information and resources.
- Surface resistance to discussion or learning.

Topic lead-in questions can be answered collectively or individually. Use topic lead-ins liberally: it is appropriate to use them in each session.

Team-building activities

A team-building activity is designed to help groups form bonds and become a team. Team building activities differ from icebreakers. The group members already know each other or

have learned each other's names and perhaps some personal information, and the focus is on making the group more cohesive. Team building activities help group members get to know each other better, practice different communication styles, make group decisions, solve problems, work with people they wouldn't ordinarily, test leadership skills, and laugh together.

Energizers

Energizers are quick, fun activities to liven up a group. They are particularly useful after a meal, when groups may be getting sluggish, or late in the day when energy is waning, and motivation is decreasing.

There are two types of energizers:

Tips for energizers

Try to use energizers frequently during a workshop or training, whenever people look sleepy or tired or to create a natural break between activities.

Try to choose games that are appropriate for the local context, for example, thinking carefully about games that involve touch, particularly of different body parts.

Try to select games in which everyone can participate and be sensitive to the needs and circumstances of the group. For example, some of these games may exclude people with disabilities, such as difficulty walking or hearing, or people with different levels of comfort with literacy.

Try to ensure the safety of the group, particularly with games that involve running. For example, try to make sure that there is enough space and that the floor is clear.

Try not to use only competitive games but also include ones that encourage team building.

Try to avoid energizers going on for too long. Keep them short and move on to the next planned activity when everyone has had a chance to move about and wake up!

- Mental energizers work more on people's mental energy (like a puzzle or a mind-provoking story). They must be used after parts of the session that have not been mentally demanding when participants have not been challenged enough or are losing interest, for instance, during the final days of an intensive training program when physical energy is low.
- Physical energizers must be used after a lecture full of new information when participants are mentally tired. It has been proven that engaging them in a physically demanding activity helps bring participants into another state of mind. It enables them to reset their learning modus and makes them more able to absorb new information. Energizers can also be used for a recap, create action plans at the end of a session, create a nice closure of the whole session, etc.



For inspiration, [this document includes](#) 100 energizers!

Breaks

A break is a moment for participants to detach from the session, relax, go to the bathroom and ideally there are drinks, snacks and lunch available. A break allows them to regain energy and participate in your session again with more focus.

During the break you can turn on some music to mark break time. When the music stops, it's time to start the session again. A break can range from 5 to 60 minutes. It depends on your cultural context what is an appropriate break or lunchtime. However, try to schedule a break at least every 1.5 hours as attention will definitely drop by then.

CHAPTER 7. PARTICIPATORY TRAINING METHODS

When designing the training sessions, one of the critical components to decide about is which methods you will use. There are many methods and selecting the most appropriate ones can substantially affect learning effectiveness. A general distinction can be made between trainer-centered and learner-centered training methods. Sometimes, as a trainer, you should take the lead and take your learners by the hand. At other moments, it can be effective to put the learner in the center and empower them to take the lead through, for instance, collaborative learning. Participatory training methods can be seen as a learner-centered approach.

Choosing an appropriate method may depend on several factors such as:

1. The phase of the Experiential Learning Cycle: Experiencing, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, or Application.
2. Whether the focus of the learning objectives is on knowledge, skills, or attitude?
3. The required level of participation: is the session more trainer or learner-centered?
4. Cultural and gender aspects: what methods are acceptable in terms of culture and gender equality?
5. The participants' level of understanding.
6. The group size.
7. The skills and preferences of the trainer.
8. The available time.
9. The available training facilities: space, materials, equipment, audio-visuals.

What are participatory training methods?

Participatory training methods refer to a variety of methods that aim to empower beneficiaries of an intervention through their own involvement in achieving more equitable development. Participatory training methods are not new and became part of the broader discussion on effective development efforts in the 1960s as a counter-reaction to the top-down interventions that have failed to substantially address poverty and hunger. Since then, participatory training methods have been applied and developed in many different forms by different actors in different contexts and have in addition to that, different meanings for different people. Therefore, participation can be seen as a spectrum ranging from 'full participation', where the learners decide the agenda based on their needs to 'light participation', where only one participatory method is included in a training, such as a discussion. Farmer Field School is an example initiated in the 1980s in Indonesia and the Philippines, where the concept of participation has evolved and gained prominence as an effective method to train farmers.

This chapter discusses the following Participatory Training Methods:

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Field trip | 6. Demonstration |
| 2. Brainstorm | 7. Q&A |
| 3. Role Playing | 8. Buzz group |
| 4. Case study | 9. Simulation |
| 5. Group discussion | 10. Lecture and presentation |

And then continues with the following Participatory Workshop Methods:

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------|
| 11. Jigsaw | 14. Rules and roles |
| 12. World café | 15. Visualization |
| 13. 1-2-4-all | 16. Parking Lot |

1. FIELD TRIP

A field trip is a training method that provides a dynamic environment near or within the scenes of real action for learners to be a part of. It is a training method in which opportunities are provided to the learners to visit organizations, worksites, communities, villages, etc. Field trips are often followed up by reflective and theoretical learning.

Main Uses

- To establish familiarity with or provide exposure to work culture, work practices, work conditions, constraints, etc.
- To ensure the practicality of new ideas. This, in turn, can generate thoughts on the various aspects to be considered for the implementation of these ideas. These ideas could be useful to both the trainees and the host organizations.
- To secure first-hand information from experienced people about the job, community, organization, etc.
- To manage uncertainties and preconceived opinions.

Advantages

- Ground realities of the learning environment increase trust in the learning tremendously and are very effective.
- Can contribute equally towards learning by trainees and the host organization.
- Learner involvement is high.

Disadvantages

- High demand for the trainer for planning and preparation.
- If not done properly, logistics and arrangements can hamper the achievement of desired objectives.
- There are many dependencies on external factors, including host organizations, weather, etc.
- Uncertainty is high.
- Expensive as compared to other methods.

2. BRAINSTORM

This is a technique used for finding solutions using stimulating ideas. For a brainstorm, a group of people with or without prior knowledge about the subject meets and contributes with suggestions or ideas that strike them, no matter how fantastic or impossible they may sound. During brainstorming, all suggestions are encouraged, and criticism or ranking is not allowed at this stage, although contributors are later invited to explain their ideas. Brainstorming requires follow-up activities focused on analyzing and evaluating ideas. Brainstorming can be used both in workshops and training.

Main Uses

- Most helpful during the planning/initial phase of an activity.
- When a group cannot decide what to do, brainstorming can be used to initiate the "idea sharing" process.
- To stimulate creativity, especially when a "fresh approach" is needed.
- Problem-solving method
- Consolidating previous learning

Advantages

- All ideas are heard, and no one is ignored.
- All ideas are initially accepted as valid and having equal importance.

- Lots of ideas are gathered, and patterns may begin to emerge
- Uses participants' experience and ideas

Disadvantages

- Sometimes the dynamics are difficult to manage for a facilitator.
- Some learners may not participate.
- The actual value of the brainstorming process occurs only during a follow-up activity when all the ideas are honestly evaluated to assess feasibility.
- Many spontaneous ideas are collected, and there is the possibility of missing a reasonable (probably simple) solution.
- The recorder during the brainstorming session must be careful not to misinterpret or impose a bias on any of the proposed ideas.

3. ROLE PLAYING

This is a technique in which participants are presented with a situation they are required to explore by acting out the roles of those represented in the situation. Roleplay is valuable where participants share a similar experience, which is difficult to recall because of its emotional nature. Roleplaying is different from stage drama because the lines (scripts) are not predetermined. The players create their dialogue in real-time, and as the scenario unfolds, they interact to develop an outcome. Roleplaying can be used in both training and workshops.

Main Uses

- Roleplaying is effective when the topic involves person-to-person communication and interaction.
- Roleplaying can allow everyone to participate.
- The overall mood of a training session can be improved by the excitement that roleplaying provides.

Advantages

- Through roleplay, it becomes easier to discuss complex social issues in a non threatening environment in a short period.
- Participants can "feel a new viewpoint" through dynamic roleplaying.
- The group listens better and learns more because they see and hear the subject matter as it is acted out.
- It focuses on problems that are real.

Disadvantages

- Roleplaying requires careful selection of the situations to be effective.
- High facilitation skills are required to ensure a safe role-playing environment.
- Roll out depends much on the participation and imagination of the players. There is a possibility of the roleplay becoming entertainment which limits learning.
- Roles must be carefully instructed.

Roleplay in practice

There are two wrong assumptions that are often put into practice in 'traditional roleplay'.

1. 'When people know what they do wrong and understand how to do it differently, they will do it differently.' Many people find it difficult to translate theory to practice. Therefore, ending a role play with a few tips is not enough. You should build it into 2 rounds: round 1 for discovering pitfalls and round 2 for targeted practice.

2. 'A good debriefing of the exercise motivates participants to do it better in practice.' The main focus of a traditional debrief is on what needs to improve. As a result, participants have the feeling they failed, and they get insecure. When you want your participants to do it differently next time, you must facilitate that they become self-confident. You do this by ending the exercise with an experience of success.

Taking these considerations into account your roleplay will have a much more significant impact.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRADITIONAL ROLEPLAY AND ADVANCED ROLEPLAY		
	TRADITIONAL ROLEPLAY	ADVANCED ROLEPLAY
Objective	The facilitator wants to give a total overview of what went good and wrong.	- The facilitator wants to give insight into the most important things that went wrong and well. - The facilitator wants participants to practice new behavior and experience success.
First round	The facilitator lets the participants complete the whole exercise to get a total picture.	The facilitator stops the exercise as soon as pitfalls are clear (often already within 3 minutes).
Debrief	The facilitator makes an inventory of everything that went good and wrong, where the main focus is on the bad moments.	- The facilitator makes an inventory of the most important things that went wrong and well. - The facilitator selects the most important thing that went wrong and asks for tips.
Second round		The facilitator helps the participant to apply the tip.
Closure	The facilitator summarizes the most important insights of what did and did not work.	The facilitator harvests the new behavior and its effect.

4. CASE STUDY

This is a training technique in which an actual situation or a series of events is presented to learners to analyze and consider possible solutions to the problems identified. Their findings can be compared subsequently with what occurred.

Main Uses

- Helpful when real-life situations can be used as examples to highlight the training topic(s) being covered.
- In situations when multiple viewpoints must be considered and evaluated.
- For problem-solving, developing analytical skills, and gaining confidence in decision-making.

Advantages

- Provide concrete subjects for discussion.
- Stimulates teamwork.
- Learners are forced to make a decision and defend it.
- Participants' experiences can be brought into use.

Disadvantages

- It can be time-consuming to produce good cases.
- It can cause difficulties validating when there is no quantifiable solution.
- A close relationship to 'real-life' may be challenging to achieve
- The case study scenario must be carefully worded to avoid bias or imply that one position is stronger than the other.
- Although the outcome of a case study analysis forces each individual to draw a conclusion and make a decision, it is not necessary to reach a consensus (i.e. it is not a mock trial), and participants should be reminded that it is a training exercise.

5. GROUP DISCUSSION

When a facilitator guides an open conversation (an organized exchange of ideas or viewpoints) on a selected topic, this is called a discussion. A formal discussion (sometimes called a panel) follows a set procedure to keep the discussion on track and allows everyone to express their opinion. Group discussions can be used in both training and workshop.

Main Use

- For problem-solving exercises.
- For forming attitudes.
- For stimulating interest and constructive thought.
- To help stimulate ideas as members of a group.
- Discussions are most effective when a trained (experienced) leader controls the overall process in an organized manner.
- Discussions are appropriate if only a few major (simple) topics are being covered and when it is acceptable to have several outcomes (i.e., it is not necessary to reach a consensus or derive a single conclusion).

Advantages

- Participant activity can be high.
- Interest can be quickly triggered.
- Discussions allow multiple views and opinions to be expressed.

- Discussions provide an informal atmosphere and allow everyone to express and listen to opinions that are presented with equal weight.

Disadvantages

- Time-consuming to obtain relevant results.
- To run well, learners must know or have informed opinions about the topic.
- Discussions can be dominated by a strong member of the group unless the leader controls the overall process to ensure everyone is given equal time and the same level of respect.
- Formal discussions require a well-defined purpose or objective and a reasonable time limit

6. DEMONSTRATION

A demonstration is a training method which is the performance of an activity by one or more of the learners. During a demonstration, the learners are encouraged to ask questions and request assistance as they try to do the task by themselves.

Main Uses

- The demonstration method is effective when teaching skills.
- Demonstrations are appropriate when there is plenty of time for interaction because practice is necessary to master most skills.
- Demonstrations are best for small groups or when adequate staff is available to work with a large group.

Advantages

- Demonstrations provide a hands-on experience (hear, see, do).
- Participants have plenty of interaction with trainers, and everyone is allowed to progress at their own pace as they master the skill.

Disadvantages

- Demonstrations require a lot of preparation, time, materials, and patience.
- The time allotted for demonstrations must be flexible.
- It is important to ensure that each participant has an opportunity to master the skill being taught.

7. Q&A

Questions & Answers (Q&A) is a training method in which an expert provides specific knowledge by responding to direct questions from a group. Q&A sessions are often conducted as informal events in which the speaker provides candid responses (e.g. a press conference).

Main uses

- Q&A sessions are usually most effective when held near the end of a training because participants are best prepared to ask questions.
- In situations when an expert is available and willing to participate, a Q&A session can promote an open exchange of information.

Advantages

- Provide immediate responses from experts.
- Allow interaction with experts that might otherwise be inaccessible.

Disadvantages

- In a Q&A session, the expert has no control over the content, topic, or focus of questions.
- The Q&A session must be carefully controlled to allow everyone to ask questions, while also preventing anyone from dominating the session.

8. BUZZ GROUP

Buzz Groups are a method for quickly and efficiently gathering feedback on a topic or responding to a specific question during a plenary session. Without moving from their seats, participants form mini-clusters of two or three people and engage in free discussion – or 'buzz' – for a few minutes on a given question. Buzz Groups provide a welcome change of pace for participants, helping to enliven your session. Buzz groups can be used in both training and workshops.

Main uses

- When there are too many people to hold a brainstorming session, dividing into smaller buzz groups is a good method for collecting ideas.
- Buzz groups can help teams discover solutions by themselves without the need for external assistance.
- When individuals are reluctant to participate in extensive open discussions, smaller buzz groups may encourage them to share ideas.

Advantages

- It can be assembled quickly and on short notice.
- All members of a buzz group participate.
- Buzz groups tend to move teams towards consensus building and encourage team spirit.

Disadvantages

- Buzz groups can quickly get off track.
- Buzz groups can produce "pooled ignorance", invalid assumptions, and cannot be relied upon to reach sound conclusions.
- To be most effective, buzz groups should have experienced leaders.

9. SIMULATION

A simulation is a training method that recreates an event that could actually happen. Examples are farmer field schools or demonstration plots. The idea is that participants experience a situation. The original meaning of the method is derived from the case used to train aircraft pilots. Since real-life training is too risky, any error during learning would prove fatal. Realistic conditions of air and pressure are created inside a simulator cockpit, and in this simulation, the pilot learns how to fly. In the case of farmer field schools, different farming practices are applied to show the results without having an impact on the real-life situation of the farmer. For example, the wrong pesticide is applied to show its consequences.

Main uses

- Simulations can be effective when you want to demonstrate as close as possible to real-life results. This can be more effective than demonstrations when people underestimate the consequences of action because a simulation reveals the complete picture in its complexity.
- The simulation method is appropriate for disaster, rescue, or other crisis management training exercises.

Advantages

- It allows an exploration of real-life situations, social processes, and behaviors in a relatively non-threatening situation.
- It allows for the study of very complex social processes.
- The learners' pace entirely controls it.
- Simulations are an intense form of experiential learning.

Disadvantages

- It requires that participants cooperate and internalize the roles. Mismatch of roles may lead to poor performances by the learners.
- It is a complex method and requires an experienced and skilled adult educator to conduct it.
- Simulations require lots of careful planning, materials, and preparation.
- Simulations require practice and adjustment to eliminate the possibility of actual injury or safety hazards.
- A realistic simulation is often expensive and should be followed up with additional training to remedy any problems identified during the event.

10. LECTURE AND PRESENTATION (NON-PARTICIPATORY)

When one person conveys information to a group by talking to them, with or without the use of visual aids, this is called a lecture. A formal lecture does not allow participation by the audience, and there is little or no interaction (or feedback) between the speaker and listeners. A presentation is similar to a lecture. However, the audience has greater involvement and interaction with the speaker. During a presentation the audience is often allowed to briefly interrupt the speaker with questions, comments, or short discussions. Both are trainer-centered.

Main uses

- A lecture is suitable for large groups where interaction is not practical.
- Lectures are appropriate when the material has little relevance to personal experiences (e.g. technical theory).
- When a speaker is a recognized expert in a field of study, lectures are used because the audience is primarily there to hear what is being said.
- A presentation is suitable when the material is less technical or familiar to the audience, but still contains new concepts or ideas.
- A presentation is appropriate when time constraints are not critical, and the atmosphere is less formal.
- Presentations are often used for small to moderate size groups where the objective is to exchange information.

Advantages

- Lectures allow experts to share information with large groups.
- The material in a lecture is consistent, and listeners are not distracted by comments or questions from the audience.
- A presentation is less formal and allows the audience to ask relevant questions and become fully engaged in the learning process.

Disadvantages

- The lecturer cannot ensure the audience correctly received their message unless a separate discussion is used for follow-up.

- The overall depth of learning will often be relatively low because there is limited interaction.
- The successful transfer of information depends entirely on the lecturer's skills (essentially, it is one-way communication). The speaker must have a vast knowledge of the subject matter and be willing and able to answer questions "off the cuff."
- The speaker of a presentation must be able to control the audience so that questions and comments do not sidetrack the entire presentation.
- The speaker must also carefully monitor the time and pace of a talk during the presentation.

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PARTICIPATORY WORKSHOP METHODS

When designing or contextualizing a workshop it is very important to select the right workshop methods. When you know the objective or intended outcome of the workshop, now you want to select the right method to get there. Choosing an appropriate method depends on several factors such as:

1. The intended outcome of the session
2. How collaborative the process can be. Is there a group outcome or does everyone produce something individually?
3. Cultural and gender aspects: what methods are acceptable in terms of culture and gender equality?
4. The participants' level of understanding and literacy levels.
5. The group size.
6. The skills and preferences of the facilitator.
7. The available time.
8. The available facilities: space, materials, equipment, audio-visuals.

11. JIGSAW

In a jigsaw activity participants are divided into smaller groups, each focusing on a specific aspect of a larger topic or problem. Each group becomes an expert on their assigned subtopic. Then, participants from different groups are reorganized into new groups that include one member from each original group. In these new groups, participants share their expertise and piece together the information from their respective subtopics to gain a comprehensive understanding of the larger topic or problem. Alternatively, every group presents their output to the whole group. You can use a jigsaw in both workshops and training.

Main uses

- Knowledge or experience sharing
- Problem solving

Advantages

- It is a great way of harvesting ideas on different subtopics at the same time, without having everyone go through every subtopic.
- It ensures that every participant has a role to play, regardless of their prior knowledge or expertise.
- It encourages communication and knowledge-sharing among participants

Disadvantages

- It can be time-consuming, especially in large groups, as it involves dividing participants into smaller groups, conducting discussion, and then regrouping them.

- Coordinating the logistics of dividing participants into groups, ensuring each group has access to necessary resources, and managing transitions between groups can be challenging.
- The success of the jigsaw activity heavily relies on the dynamics within each group, including communication skills, cooperation, and willingness to share knowledge.

12. WORLD cAFÉ

World Café is a simple yet powerful workshop method, originated by Juanita Brown, for enabling meaningful conversations driven by participants. Facilitators create a cafe-style space and provide simple guidelines. The conversation topics are either chosen by the participants or prepared by the facilitator. Each topic gets a dedicated table, and participants choose a topic they are interested in and go to the table to talk about it with other participants. A table host harvests their conversation on a flip over. Whenever a participant wants, they go to another table to talk about another topic. Alternatively, you can work with rounds with dedicated times.

Main uses

- To gather input, inspiration and opinions from a variety of stakeholders.
- To discuss multiple (complex) questions at the same time
- When you want to discuss multiple questions that are not relevant for all participants, as they can choose themselves on which questions they want to work.

Advantages

- You can gather a lot of input on multiple questions. This is especially helpful if you don't have time to address all the questions one by one.
- Participants can choose on which questions they work, so they are not bothered with questions that are not relevant for them.
- Everyone gets the chance to share their opinion.

Disadvantages

- It takes some time to do it properly.
- You are depending on the moderation skills of the table hosts.
- It is more difficult to see if some individuals are disengaged as they can walk around without contributing to any table.

How to do it

1. **Choose questions or topics** for each table or define them together with your participants. Depending on your group size you can have 3-6 topics.
2. **Set up** different standing tables (preferred) or tables with chairs. Every table needs a big sheet of paper, some markers or pens. Make sure there is enough space for participants to move around the tables comfortably.
3. **Form groups:** Invite participants to go to the table with the topic they are interested in talking about. Assign one table host per table.
4. **Start the conversation:** Encourage participants to engage in open and respectful conversations, allowing everyone at the table to share their thoughts and opinions on the assigned topic. Emphasize active listening and encourage participants to build on each other's ideas.
5. **Rotate and exchange ideas:** Whenever someone feels 'done' with the conversation, they can move to another table to join the discussion there. Only the table host stays with the table the whole time. When new people join a table, the table host gives a short recap of what has been said already. Encourage participants to bring their ideas and insights from the previous table to the new discussion. Encourage them to capture key points on paper or sticky notes.
6. **Harvest the insights:** Bring the whole group back together for a closing session. The table hosts share the key insights, ideas, and themes that emerged from the discussions.

13. 1-2-4-ALL

The 1-2-4-All method is a structured approach to group discussion and idea generation. You can use it in both training and workshop. Here's how it works:

- **1:** Participants start individually, reflecting or brainstorming on a given question or topic. This takes 1 to 5 minutes.
- **2:** Next, participants pair up with another person, sharing their thoughts and ideas with each other. This step encourages deeper exploration and refinement of ideas through discussion. This takes 2 to 5 minutes.
- **4:** Each pair joins another pair, forming groups of four. In these larger groups, participants share and synthesize the ideas discussed in pairs, identifying common themes or insights. This takes 4 to 10 minutes.
- **ALL:** Finally, the entire group reconvenes, and representatives from each group share the key insights or ideas that emerged from their discussions. This step allows for collective learning and the consolidation of diverse perspectives.

Main uses

- Reflection at the end of an activity or session, using reflective questions.
- The activation of prior knowledge at the beginning of an activity or session. You can ask the question what they already know about the topic or why they think it is important.
- Learning what a group thinks or feels about a certain topic
- Decision making

Advantages

- It allows everyone to first think for themselves and share it with a few others before sharing it with the full group.
- It usually makes people feel safer to share their opinion because they don't have to share it with the full group immediately
- Everyone is activated versus asking a question plenary where only a few actually think about your question.
- As a facilitator you get a better overview of what the group as a whole thinks or feels about a certain topic. When asking a question in plenary, you often only hear the voices of the loudest ones.
- The method can be relatively time-efficient, as it allows for parallel processing of ideas in smaller groups before consolidating insights at the whole-group level.
- The method is adaptable to various group sizes, topics, and settings, making it suitable for a wide range of contexts.

Disadvantages

- Depending on the size of the group and the complexity of the topic, the method can be time-consuming, especially when progressing through multiple stages of individual reflection, paired discussion, and group synthesis.
- The effectiveness of the method relies heavily on the dynamics within the groups, including communication skills, openness to diverse perspectives, and willingness to collaborate, which may vary from group to group.
- Particularly in larger groups, participants may feel overwhelmed by the volume of ideas generated or the diversity of perspectives, making it challenging to synthesize and prioritize key insights.

14. RULES AND ROLES

At the beginning of a workshop or training, setting rules and roles involves establishing guidelines for behavior and assigning responsibilities to participants. This activity typically includes:

Establishing Rules: Facilitators and participants collaboratively define ground rules or guidelines to ensure a productive and respectful environment during the session. This may include guidelines for communication, participation, confidentiality, and respectful behavior.

Assigning Roles: Participants are assigned specific roles or responsibilities to ensure the smooth functioning of the session. This could include roles such as timekeeper, note-taker, facilitator's assistant, discussion leader, or group spokesperson.

Main uses

- At the beginning of a session to create a safe collaboration environment.

Advantages

- Participants understand expectations, feel empowered to contribute, and are better equipped to engage actively in the session
- It fosters a sense of ownership and accountability among participants, leading to a more effective and enjoyable workshop experience.

Disadvantages

- You need to make time for it. It can take anywhere between 5 and 20 minutes.
- Participants may resist certain rules or roles, leading to disagreement or conflict. This can disrupt the workshop dynamics and create tension among participants.
- Despite setting rules and roles, participants may not always adhere to them, particularly if they are not fully committed or invested in the session. To avoid this, you can hang the rules and roles in the space and refer back to them when needed.

15. VISUALIZING

When words are not enough or if we need some creativity, visualization can be a great workshop activity to change the dynamics. The idea is to draw or create something 3D (with DIY materials) that represents the problem or topic of the session. After the visualization is done, the creation itself becomes the start of a new conversation.

For example, it can be as simple as asking the participants to draw their landscape in 20 years from now, either individually or in small groups. After 5-10 minutes, everyone shares what they made and why they made it in pairs or with the full group.

A more structured approach can be:

1. Make groups of 3 to 6 people.
2. Ask a question to each group such as: what does diversity mean?
3. Every group draws their answer on a paper without using letters or numbers.
4. 2 groups pair up. Group A is the talkers, group B is the listeners. Group A shows their drawing and does not explain anything. Group B looks at the drawing of group A and tells what they see and how they interpret it. Group A listens and writes down the key words they hear. Optionally, you can help the listeners by giving them specific clues to listen for.
5. The groups switch roles.
6. The groups discuss what they heard and try to answer the question together based on the keywords they wrote down.

Main uses

- Understanding issues from multiple and new perspectives
- Creating a shared vision
- To break a static dynamic of a session

Advantages

- Through visualization we use a more creative part of our brain which allows us to come up with novel ideas and solutions.

- Visualizing allows the participants to see the issue from different perspectives.
- Drawing provides a universal language that transcends verbal communication barriers, making it easier for participants to convey their thoughts and ideas, particularly when you have illiterate participants or people speaking different languages.
- Visual information is often easier to remember than text alone, leading to improved retention of workshop content and concepts.
- Drawings serve as tangible artifacts of workshop activities, providing a visual record of discussions, ideas, and insights that can be referred back to and shared with others.

Disadvantages

- Some participants might not feel comfortable drawing or building something because they believe they are not creative.
- When building a 3D structure, you need to prepare some materials in advance.
- Participants may become overly focused on the aesthetic quality of their drawings rather than the content or message they are trying to convey.
- Drawing activities may not be accessible to individuals with certain disabilities or impairments, such as visual or motor disabilities, potentially excluding them from fully participating in the workshop.

16. PARKING LOT

A parking lot flip-over is a place to temporarily park ideas or questions that come up but aren't part of the main discussion. Participants write these down on a board, sticky note or paper. Later, the facilitator goes back to these items to address them if there's time.

Advantages

- It helps keep the workshop on track while still acknowledging everyone's input.
- Minimizes disruptions during the session by providing a designated space for off-topic items.
- Participants are more likely to contribute ideas or questions knowing they will be acknowledged and addressed, even if not immediately.

Disadvantages

- Participants may feel disengaged if their contributions are consistently deferred to the parking lot without being addressed in a timely manner.
- Depending on the length of the workshop and the number of items in the parking lot, there may not be enough time to address all items thoroughly.

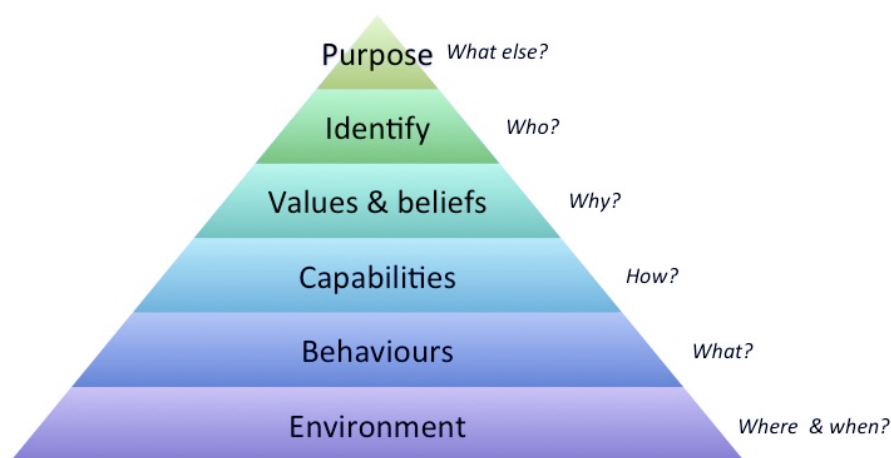
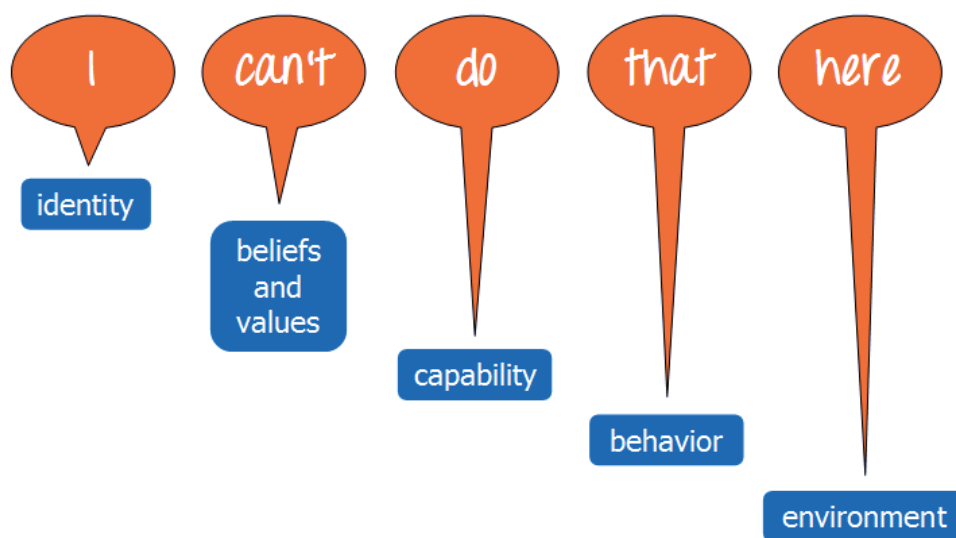
CHAPTER 8. LOGICAL LEVELS

The six logical levels of Robert Dilts and Gregory Bateson are often used in NLP to explain why some changes are much easier to achieve than others. The logical levels explain that the ability to change relates to the level at which you are trying to make a change. This chapter explains in detail each logical level.

The six logical levels provide a helpful structure for looking at what is happening in any individual, group, or organization in a certain situation. It is a great analytical tool for exploring how and why we do what we do, and it provides a method of uncovering the root cause of a situation. Furthermore, it shows that to engender change, you need to alter thinking or perspective at a higher logical level. The effect of each level is to organize and direct the information on the level below it. Changing something on a higher level would necessarily change things on the lower levels; changing something on a lower level could but would not necessarily affect the upper levels.

Let me first explain the levels in detail, from low to high, before explaining further what this means when you want to change a situation or behavior.

ILLUSTRATION 12: LOGICAL LEVELS



Environment (where, when)

The environment level involves the specific external conditions in which our behavior takes place. The emphasis is on explaining what happened, with whom, how, and where. At this level, the cause of what happened is often placed outside oneself but because of the environment.

When you talk from this level, a lot of energy goes into explaining how something came about. This includes complaining.

Behavior (what)

Behavior is made up of the specific actions or reactions taken within the environment. When you explain from level, the emphasis is on what you think and what influences you. Behavior also includes reflections about the influence on a situation.

Capability (how)

Capabilities guide and give direction to behavioral actions through a mental map, plan, or strategy. By analyzing your own influence, actions arise that you would have liked to have done differently, but which did not belong to your repertoire yet. Your capabilities direct your behavior. Here we are dealing with a plan or strategy that forms the basis for the behavioral actions to get a better grip on the situation and on yourself.

Belief (why)

Beliefs and values provide the reinforcement that support or constrain capabilities. At this level, you consider the motives behind behavior: the underlying beliefs and values. Beliefs are often expressed in a pattern that appears in different situations. Limiting beliefs can stand in the way of the use of existing capabilities.

Identity (who)

Identity factors determine overall purpose and shape beliefs and values through our sense of self. At this level, personal quests for meaning are explored such as the quest for a higher purpose or mission. Why do I feel so washed out here, what is worth the trouble for me, what makes me blossom, what challenges me and what is my passion? This level is often questioned when one's constructed identity causes conflict in daily life during periods of excessive tensions or feeling of burn-out.

Spirituality (what for, who else)

Spirituality is beyond the individual and is about being part of a larger system. This level can also be referred to as the wisdom level and the connection to the greater whole. How people see themselves in the greater whole has a profound influence on how they behave. This level often calls for attention in the event of a (life) crisis.

Logical levels and coaching

The level at which a person experiences their problem can be recognized from the way in which they tell a story and ask questions. When someone remains stuck at a certain thinking level a problem may seem completely unsolvable. As a coach you can change someone's perspective by asking questions from a higher logical level. The ability to learn can be encouraged by adapting to the relevant level or by challenging the person to think at a higher level.

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CHAPTER 9. PRINCIPLES OF PAIN AND PLEASURE

The principles of pain and pleasure explain why people behave in a certain way. Knowing these and applying them in your session can be highly effective in motivating people towards behavioral change.

According to Sigmund Freud, all decisions made by human beings are to avoid pain or gain pleasure. Understanding the six rules of pain and pleasure will give you a deeper understanding of what motivates people to act a certain way. However, factors like time, emotion, logic and survival versus desire also contribute to the equation and provide a complex formula that shapes behavior. The following six rules explain in detail how these relate to one another.

Principle 1: All decisions made by human beings are to avoid pain and gain pleasure

When it comes to motivation and why people do the things they do, it comes down to the simple science of pain versus pleasure. In its simplest form, all decisions that human beings make are to either gain pleasure or to avoid pain. Any act can be broken down this way. Why would someone brush their teeth? Why would someone spend precious time dressing up before going out? Why would someone go to the gym every day? These actions can be sliced down to an individual trying to attain pleasure and/or avoid the pain that an action is going to bring. It is all pain and pleasure.

Principle 2: People will do much more to avoid pain than they will to gain pleasure!

As it turns out, while human beings want to both avoid pain and gain pleasure, they will do more for one than the other. Avoiding immediate pain is much more motivating than achieving immediate satisfaction. If a lion is running after you versus a suitcase full of money in front of you, which would motivate the average human to act quickly? Avoiding immediate pain wins over gaining immediate pleasure every time. Studies have repeatedly demonstrated that people will do much more to prevent short-term pain than they will to gain short-term pleasure.

Principle 3: Perception IS reality!

The perception of pain and pleasure, not actual pain and pleasure, drives people. At first, this concept might seem a bit strange, but a quick inspection makes it seem rather obvious. Since we do not know for sure what the future will hold, our brain, specifically the prefrontal cortex within the frontal lobe of our brain, is constantly making projections about the future. It is this perception of future pain and pleasure that drives our actions. Unfortunately, it turns out that our perceptions are often very flawed, especially when it comes to things that are a bit more complex than running away from a predator or falling from heights.

Principle 4: Pain and pleasure are modulated by time

Not only are we trying to avoid what we perceive to be painful and get what we perceive to be pleasurable, but timing also matters. We are focused on avoiding immediate pain and trying to attain immediate pleasure. The closer something is to this moment, the more pain or pleasure we attach to it. Therefore, pain tomorrow is not as powerful of a force as pain today. Pain in a decade is absolutely far less motivating (or demotivating) than the pain a week from now. This is precisely why most human beings have difficulty saving money, even though you can receive interest by delaying spending. As time goes on, our perception of pain and pleasure changes. Every decision you make results in at least one or more of the following: short-term pain, long-term pain, short-term pleasure, or long-term pleasure. Short-term always wins over long-term unless there is a substantial amount of pain or pleasure associated with the long-term avoidance of pain or gain of pleasure involved. Pain, or the level of perceived pleasure, decreases with time.

Principle 5: Emotion trumps ratio

When deciding based on gaining pleasure or avoiding pain there is also an emotional and rational element to it. How many times have you thought about ice cream and had it even though you knew rationally that you should not have had it? We have all been there. Rationally, it would help if you had not had the ice cream, but you want the ice cream emotionally. What wins? Intellect or emotions? Emotions often weigh twice as much as ratio. The pain or pleasure connotations related to our emotions are much stronger because they are wired in the primitive part of our brain that tells us to act rather than to think ahead. This also explains the modulation of pain and pleasure by time. When something is going to happen now, it is much more likely to trigger an emotional response than something that is going to happen in decades.

Principle 6: Survival versus desire in the pain & pleasure principle

Each time our survival response is triggered, everything else essentially shuts down. This concept can be explained by thinking that pain and pleasure can be further broken down into hard-wired things for survival and things that are mere desires. This means that when something triggers a survival response, such as running away from a predator, it will override just about every other desire at that moment. When most people hear this principle, they assume that the survival instinct is naturally going to be the one that is trying to avoid pain, but that is not always the case. Desires that are addictions, such as the desire to consume sugar or other addictive foods, is the perfect example of something hard-wired. If you love cookies and someone puts a cookie in front of you, you are instinctually driven to eat the cookie. Now, many times, we can use enough ratio and future pain to stop ourselves, but over 50% of the US population loses that battle several times per day! You are hard-wired to eat sugar to stay alive, and while processed foods are only 100 years old, our genetics are over 100,000 years old! From a survival perspective, the more calories, the better. Your brain thinks eating the cookie means survival and not eating it means death!

Putting pain and pleasure principles together

The pain and pleasure principles are much more complex than one would think. Many people know that we are motivated to avoid pain and to gain pleasure. However, factors like time, emotion, logic, and survival versus desire provide a complex formula that shapes behavior.

1. We want to avoid pain and gain pleasure.
2. What we want more is to avoid pain, even if we will not get pleasure
3. But we do not know what is going to cause pain or pleasure, so we must rely on what we perceive to be painful or pleasurable.
4. Then the clock takes over, and we focus on now rather than later, and immediate pain or pleasure becomes magnified.
5. If emotion enters the equation for any reason, that element gets much more magnified, regardless of the type or cause.
6. Finally, if anything triggers our survival response, all else goes out the window because we are hard-wired to survive.

Putting the pain and pleasure principle to use in your life

Everyone has specific formulas for what works for them. How can you use these rules to influence and motivate yourself to do what you want and need to do? Use the principles of pain and pleasure to your advantage. Think about what works for you. Knowing that your brain is present moment, come up with ways of making future pain seem more real now.

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CHAPTER 10. SCIENCE OF LEARNING

When we learn something, whether it is riding a bike, learning a language, playing chess, we're changing how our brain is wired on a deep level.

Science has shown us that the brain is incredibly plastic and changes continuously during our lives. While certain things, especially language, are more easily learned by children than adults, we have plenty of evidence that even older adults have real transformations in their neurocircuit.

But how does that really work? Well, in order to perform any kind of task, we have to activate various portions of our brain.

Our brains coordinate a complex set of actions involving motor function, visual and audio processing, verbal language skills, and more. At first, the new skill might feel stiff and awkward. But as we practice, it gets smoother and feels more natural and comfortable. What practice is actually doing, is helping the brain optimize for this set of coordinated activities, through a process called myelination.

How nerve signals work

Neurons are the basic cellular building blocks of the brain. A neuron is made up of:

- Dendrites, which receives signals from other neurons;
- The cell body, which processes those signals; and
- The axon, a long "cable" that reaches out and interacts with other neurons' dendrites.

When different parts of the brain communicate and coordinate with each other, they send nerve impulses, which are electrical charges that travel down the axon of a neuron, eventually reaching the next neuron in the chain. Imagine a row of dominoes stacked closely together: when a neuron fires, it's like knocking down the first domino in a long chain. This process repeats from neuron to neuron, until the nerve signals reach their destination. These firings happen at incredibly fast speeds.

How myelination affects nerve impulses

We sometimes refer to our brains as "gray matter" because from the outside, the brain looks mostly gray. But there is also a lot of "white matter" that fills nearly 50% of our brains. That white stuff is myelin, a fatty tissue that covers much of the long axons that extend out of our neurons. Scientists have found that myelination increases the speed and strength of the nerve impulses by forcing the electrical charge to jump across the myelin sheath to the next open spot on the axon.

Increased neural activity causes the growth of myelin

Ok, so how do we get myelin onto our nerve axons? Myelination happens naturally, much of it during childhood. Kids are like myelin generating machines, soaking up information about the world and themselves. As we get older, we can continue to generate more myelin onto our axons, but it happens at a slower rate and requires more effort. When we practice, whether by writing or hitting jump shots on the basketball court, we trigger a pattern of electrical signals through our neurons. Over time, that triggers the myelination of axons, which increases the speed and strength of the signal.

Myelinated neurons perform better

How do we know myelin improves performance? We can tell for sure that it increases the speed and strength of the nerve impulse-which seems helpful for learning, but not conclusive. One compelling piece of evidence comes from brain scans of expert musicians. There's been a

lot of research done on how musician brains differ from the brains of ordinary people. One specific study used a particular brain scan called Diffusion MRI, which gives us information about tissues and fibers inside the scan region. The study suggested that the estimated amount of practice an expert piano player did in childhood and adolescence was correlated with the white matter density in regions of the brain related to finger motor skills, visual and auditory processing centers, and others. Most significantly, there was a direct correlation between how many hours they practiced and how dense their white/myelin matter was.

Practice makes myelin, so practice carefully

Understanding the role of myelin means not only understanding why quantity of practice is important to improving your skill but also the quality of practice. Practicing with a focus on quality is equally important. "Perfect practice makes perfect." If we practice poorly and don't correct our mistakes, we will myelinate the axons, increasing the speed and strength of those signals-which does us no good.

The takeaway: practicing skills over time causes those neural pathways to work better in unison via myelination. To improve your performance, you need to practice frequently, and get lots of feedback so you practice correctly.

References

- We Are Our Brains A Neurobiography of the Brain, from the Womb to Alzheimer's, Dick Swaab

CHAPTER 11. GENDER AWARENESS IN SESSIONS

While organizing sessions, facilitators might forget to take into account the different needs and situations of the different genders. This can lead to the situation where certain genders, usually women, are not or not actively participating in sessions, resulting in a limited impact. Organizing sessions in a gender sensitive way implies thoughtful consideration of the different needs and situations of the different genders, and the incorporation of inclusive practices to ensure those differences are addressed.

What is gender sensitivity?

According to glossary of standard: "Gender norms, roles, and relations are considered, and actions are taken on the basis of that understanding to address gender inequality and men's and women's specific needs, transform harmful gender norms, roles, and relations and promote changes in power relationships between women and men"

Gender sensitive session entails an understanding of existing gender relations and the obstacles to some women's and men's active participation in the training process (due to caste, class, ethnicity, religion, age, disability, sexual orientation). It addresses these obstacles by proposing content that addresses different participants' interests and needs, and by adopting training and facilitation methods that enhance participation of the poor and disadvantaged people.

Why is gender sensitivity crucial for facilitators and trainers?

Inclusive Learning Environment

Gender sensitivity contributes to creating an inclusive learning environment where all participants, independent of their gender, feel respected and valued and where their needs and situation are taken into account. Participants will learn according to their needs, will be able to actively participate and will have the feeling they are taken into consideration, belonging to the group in that way encouraging open communication.

Acknowledgment of Diversity

Learners come from diverse backgrounds, and gender is one aspect of this diversity. A gender-sensitive facilitator acknowledges and respects these differences, recognizing that individuals may have unique experiences, perspectives, needs, situations and learning styles based on their gender identity. By being attuned to gender-related factors, trainers can include and engage learners more effectively, creating a positive and supportive atmosphere.

Avoidance of Stereotypes and Bias

Gender-sensitive trainers are aware of their own gender bias and actively avoid reinforcing stereotypes or biases related to gender. They ensure that examples, language, and scenarios used in training materials, exercises and the training process are free from gender-based assumptions, promoting fairness and equity.

Improved Communication

Understanding gender dynamics helps facilitators communicate more effectively. This includes being aware of potential communication barriers, adapting verbal and nonverbal language to be inclusive, and facilitating respectful dialogue among participants.

Tailored Content

Gender sensitivity allows facilitators to tailor content to address the unique needs and challenges that individuals of different genders may face. This customization ensures that sessions are relevant and applicable to all participants.

Addressing Gender-Specific Issues

Some topics covered in sessions may touch on gender-specific issues, such as diversity and inclusion, workplace dynamics, or leadership styles. A gender-sensitive facilitator navigates these discussions with sensitivity and awareness, fostering a safe space for learning.

Legal and Ethical Considerations

Being gender-sensitive ensures compliance with Rainforest Alliance's standard and promotes an environment that follows ethical guidelines.

References

- [Women 2030 Gender sensitive training](#)
- [Guidelines gender sensitive training](#)

Some practical tips to apply in your session

- Do not invade privacy in large workshops, but rather address sensitive topics with key informants.
- Consider dedicating one facilitator to taking care of the infants of participants. You can bring markers, coloring sheets, toys). That way women who need to take care of children, can bring them along.
- Women, men and young people may have different time availability and different schedules must be set. Consider that occupations are different in the mornings, afternoon, weekends and holidays.
- Make invitations explicitly indicating men and women, or you and your wife, etc.
- Make specific women's worktables. During the session.
- Always ask questions that tend to collect information with a gender and intergenerational focus.

CHAPTER 12. WORKSHOP VERSUS TRAINING

What is a workshop

A workshop is a collaborative and interactive session where people come together to share knowledge and experiences. There is an intended outcome, such as 'creating a shared vision for our landscape' which the group wants to reach. In workshops participants engage in hands-on activities as they are typically focused on problem-solving. Workshops rely on active participation and collaboration. They can vary in duration and format, ranging from short, intensive sessions to longer, more in-depth programs.

Workshop versus training

People often get confused between training and workshops. Although these two terms may look similar, there are a number of differences.

1. Trainings are designed with specific learning objectives to bridge a gap in a competency. And competencies are measurable standards of knowledge, skills and attitudes.
2. Workshops are designed with 'objectives' or 'intended outcomes' to create a (shared) output.
- 3.
4. Workshops are often more focused on collaboration than training is.
5. In a workshop sharing in depth material with participants is rare, while participants of a training often get their own set of training material (printouts, books, etc.).

Roles and responsibilities in training

1. Client

The client is the person who gives the assignment, allocates time and budget and identifies the key participants, who will attend the training to enhance capabilities and gives the mandate to allocate time and budget.

2. (Lead) Trainer

The person who is responsible to maximize learning results and meet learning objectives effectively in training.

3. Co-trainer

A co-trainer is a person responsible for one or multiple activities in a training. The (lead) trainer remains ultimate responsible

4. Coach

A coach is a mentor that supports the learning process of a group of participants. A coach, who is often a co-trainer, is the point of entry for participants to ask questions, before, during and after the training.

5. Buddy

A buddy is a participant that supports the learning process of another participant. These pairs are assigned by the trainer and are preferably people that can observe each other on site during a face-2-face training. During training they monitor the completion of assignments and check each other's understanding by asking questions. One buddy set can exist of 3 people in case there is an odd number of participants.

6. Participant

A person who participates in a training and is targeted for specific learning objectives, is also called a 'learner'.

7. Observer

A role assigned to a person to observe the process and provide objective feedback after its completion. Observers normally do not participate in activities and should not frustrate the learning process,

Roles and responsibilities in workshop

1. Client

The client is the person who gives the assignment, allocates time and budget and identifies the key participants, who are required to achieve a successful and effective conclusion of the workshop and who approves the agenda.

2. Facilitator

The person who is responsible for maximizing results and meeting objectives effectively. It often requires specific preparations with stakeholders on the agenda and the design.

3. Co-facilitator

A co-facilitator is a person responsible for one or multiple activities in the workshop. The (lead) facilitator remains ultimately responsible.

4. Content expert

The content expert represents a topic and is considered an authority in that topic. (They steer the agenda and the objectives of a part of the session and often take an active role leading the discussion in that part of the session.

5. Participant

A person who participates in the workshop, who often represents a stakeholder group and who brings specific skills and knowledge to the process of deriving a workshop conclusion. They will be empowered to comment and to decide on points of order that are raised throughout the workshop.

6. Observer

A role assigned to a person to observe the process and provide objective feedback after its completion. Observers normally do not participate in activities and should not frustrate the process.