

Manual

Training of Youth workers

Using non-formal learning and interactive methods in
Youth work

Non-formal learning for employability

Project: 2014-1-BG01-KA205-001743



DreamsforLife



Бъдеще сега

Народно читалище

Table of Contents

Introduction	5
Summary	5
What is in the manual.....	6
Part 1 General concepts	8
Youth work essentials.....	8
Approaches to youth work.....	11
The youth worker: characteristics, roles, ethics.....	13
Non-formal learning - the foundation of youth work.....	15
Youth worker's competences.....	17
Part 2 Theoretical framework	19
Most influential theories of learning.....	20
The learning pyramid.....	23
Types of teaching.....	23
Holistic Teaching and Learning.....	24
Theory of Self-Directed Learning.....	28
Multiple Intelligence Theory.....	35
Social Learning Theory and Self-efficacy.....	38
Experiential learning theory.....	46
Model of Learning styles.....	52
Learning by Experience.....	57
Learning motivation.....	64
Key competences for lifelong learning.....	66
Facilitation, Coaching, Mentoring and Training: Understanding the Differences.....	69
Developmental Stages of Youth.....	75
Emotional intelligence.....	80
Counseling youth.....	81
Career guidance.....	84
Solution Focused Brief Therapy.....	87
Elements of youth work.....	91
Part 3 Practical skills	97
Assessing youth needs.....	97
Setting learning goals.....	98
Taxonomy of learning goals.....	99
Group Dynamics and Social learning.....	102
Working with groups.....	103
Communication.....	110
Active reviewing.....	121
Debriefing Experiential Learning Exercises.....	126
Six phases of debriefing.....	132
Learning methods.....	135
Assignment of Activities.....	137
Training design.....	140
Construction of the training program.....	141
Process activities.....	143
General advice on educational sessions and programme.....	145
Contacts.....	150

Compilers:

Bogdan Romanica, Romania (Dreams for life)
Ognian Gadoulov, Bulgaria (NC Future Now 2006)

Advices and Tips:

Teodor Vasilev, Bulgaria (NC Future Now 2006)

Translation and editing:

Donka Kalcheva, Bulgaria (NC Future Now 2006)
Desislava Baneva, Bulgaria (NC Future Now 2006)

Proofreading:

Adela Militaru (Dreams for Life)

Illustrations – TFX Graphic facilitation team:

Jaanika Siiraja
Victória Bedö
Kristina Bulut
Nora Schäfer
Marc Weiss

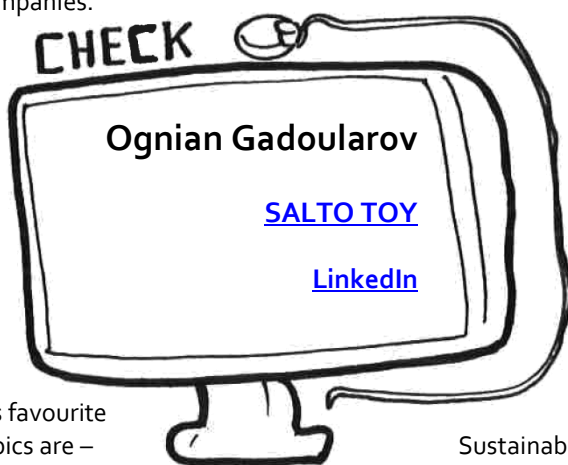
Design:

Ognian Gadoulov (NC Future Now 2006)



This manual contains a large amount of information based on the long-term experience of the authors in the field of non-formal learning (NFL) and the interactive teaching of children, youth and adults. During its composition a lot of information related to the topic was used from various sources - studies, reports and scientific publications. By combining practical experience of the team of authors with theoretical concepts this manual was created to bring together a big number of topics, many of which are often not touched upon in the field of NFL and in the youth sector. We tried not to repeat topics which are popular and available in the field of non-formal learning in youth work when selecting the topics for this guide.

Ognian Gadularov (born 1974 in Bulgaria) works as a youth worker and trainer of children, youth and adults since 2007. Specialized in the topics of - personal development, motivation, youth projects and volunteering, he is active in the fields of interactive teaching and environmental education. Certified Trainer of Trainers, he is an expert in conducting adventure programs based on the methods of experiential learning and outdoor education. Ognian is part of Bulgarian "Erasmus +" National Agency Trainers Pool and Trainers Network of Salto EuroMed. He worked as a business trainer from 2007 till 2013 focused on programs for team effectiveness, sales, presentation skills and customer service. He participated actively in the development of events related to CSR for various companies.



His favourite topics are – and Sustainability Responsible consumption, Spiritual intelligence, Training design, Anti-globalisation, Social change and Human rights.

Bogdan Romanica (born in 1986 in Romania) is a dedicated youth worker, trainer and NGO coordinator. He is active in the youth field since 2008. Since then he actively took part in a wide range of educational activities connected with outdoor and adventure education, human rights, socio-educational animation, active citizenship, personal



development, career guidance and so on. He is dedicated to the following actions: supporting young people to discover themselves, encouraging them to dream big, working with youth for personal action plans and empowering them to act according to their dreams and ideals. In 2012 Bogdan became a member of the Romanian "Youth in Action" Trainers' Pool and at the moment he is active in Erasmus+



Romanian Trainers' Network. His professional energy is divided into three areas: the NGO he founded in 2011, called Dreams for Life, the Romanian National Agency for Erasmus+ Programme and freelance work. In the last year, he has been developing in the areas of Eco-psychology and Eco-centric development.

Introduction

(Ognian Gadoularov)

The present manual is one of the tools used to enhance the impact of NFL in preparing young people for their social and professional development, as well as a tool for increasing the importance and the quality of youth work. The creation of the manual "Training of Trainers - Using NFL and Interactive Methods in Youth Work" is a training product that does not exist in countries where the youth sector and NFL are underdeveloped (such as Bulgaria and Romania - partners in the project leading to the production of such manual). The number of

training handbooks on non-formal learning is limited and insufficient because of the early stage in the development of the youth sector and of youth work in these countries. The lack of an adequate training framework (in formal education) for youth workers leads to inefficient use of the capacity of professionals working in the field. This handbook fills one of the gaps in the youth sector, namely the need for methodologies for the training of trainers capable of training youth workers.

Summary

This Manual has been developed as a result of their cooperation in the youth field, by experts from Bulgaria and Romania, in the framework of the project "Non-formal learning for employability" - 2014-1-BG01-KA205-001743, funded by the European Erasmus + Programme under Key action 2.

The Manual is part of a comprehensive *Intervention Model* in the field of competence development among young people, which will increase their competitiveness in the labour market and their social involvement and participation. The implementation of the *Intervention Model* (see *Intervention Model* included in the project materials), developed and tested within the project, is one of the main tools which led to the development of this manual. The model has the potential to achieve a real improvement in the quality and the standards of youth work and thereby to solve the challenges young people face. The quality training of youth workers in offering adequate training services to young people is the key link between the education system and youth work. The result of combining the potential of formal and non-formal education is the possibility to develop complete young people revealing their full potential who create fairer societies, bearing the future in mind.

This *Intervention Model* contains comprehensive previous experience of the organizations and experts involved in its preparation and incorporate different learning theories. The learning process for trainers, youth workers and young people is based on the principles of non-formal learning but is enriched by other concepts from interactive teaching and modern pedagogy. Such concepts included in the process are – *Multiple intelligences, Socio-cognitive learning, Experiential learning, Learning styles, Stages of development, Self-efficacy* and others. All this supportive concepts are included in this Manual "Training of Trainers – Using Non-formal Learning and Interactive Methods in Youth Work".

This model highlights youth work and non-formal learning. The concept of measures is based on a thorough survey and the findings thereof, and these measures can be adapted and applied at various levels (local - schools, community, NGOs; regional - municipality, city; national level). This allows the results of the project to be replicated and used as a real tool for the integration of youth work and non-formal learning at different levels to tackle the problems of young people.

The general framework of the *Model* developed within the project is based on the following steps:

- Analysis of areas where formal education doesn't provide practical skills which young people need in order to increase their employability or social sufficiency – study, research or observation;
- Development of training programs based on non-formal learning to provide relevant competences;

- Preparation of expert Trainers to train and support Youth workers in their direct work with young people;
- Preparing Youth workers to provide training programs to young people interested in the field;
- Support processes at each level with methodologies and guidelines concerning NFL, modern pedagogy and interactive teaching.

In order to ensure lasting effect and use of the results of this *Intervention Model* a set of materials has been created to support the process as follows:

1. **General methodology "Intervention Model"** – complete description of the process and recommendations for implementation;
2. **Methodology "Training of trainers"** – description of the learning process for the preparation of trainers to work in the youth field;
3. **Manual "Training of Trainers - Using Non-formal Learning and Interactive Methods in Youth Work"** – educational manual complementary to the above mentioned methodology;
4. **Set of Tests and Assessment Centre** – evaluation tools to be used in the implementation process of the methodology for Training of trainers;
5. **Methodology "Training of Youth workers"** – description of the learning process for preparation of youth workers to work in the youth field;
6. **Manual "Training of Youth workers - Using Non-formal Learning and Interactive Methods in Youth Work"** – educational manual complementary to the above mentioned methodology;
7. **Set of Tests and Assessment Centre** – evaluation tools to be used in the implementation process of the methodology for Training of Youth workers.

Thus, when conducting the activities set out in the General methodology, educational materials are provided. The full set of Materials is available for free access and distribution over the Internet

(<http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/projects/eplus-project-details-page/?nodeRef=workspace://SpacesStore/6bccf896-4ab5-4359-b7f9-3cee3c8a2daf>).

What is in the manual

One of the main goals of this manual is to enrich non-formal learning and the understanding of trainers about the application of modern learning approaches for the improvement of learning outcomes.

With this manual we want to deepen the knowledge about the learning process beyond the simple definitions and organizing of the training tools (or games), and bring it to the level of concepts and processes. We aim to support the establishment of training programs based on the achievement of measurable learning outcomes while supporting and taking into account individual specifics and learning needs. Also we want to emphasize the importance of group processes, emotional condition and the specific environment for the effectiveness of the training.

In order to achieve this we have selected specific information and sources that meet the above-mentioned goals. We have included concepts that are not widely known in the field of youth work (as well as in formal education) - *Multiple intelligences, Socio-cognitive learning, Learning styles, Stages of development, Self-efficacy* and others. On the other hand we are not focused on the collection and publication of activities, games and tools, because we believe that there is a sufficient number of similar published collections, as well as online libraries. The few activities included in the Manual relate strictly to the information included in it and have been selected to demonstrate how the theory can be applied in practice.

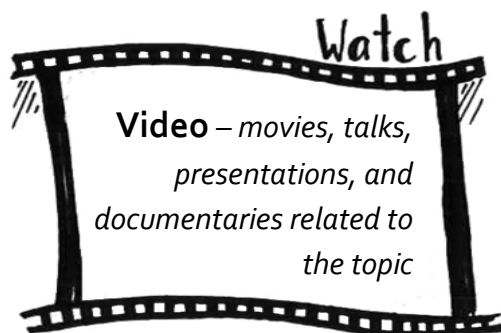
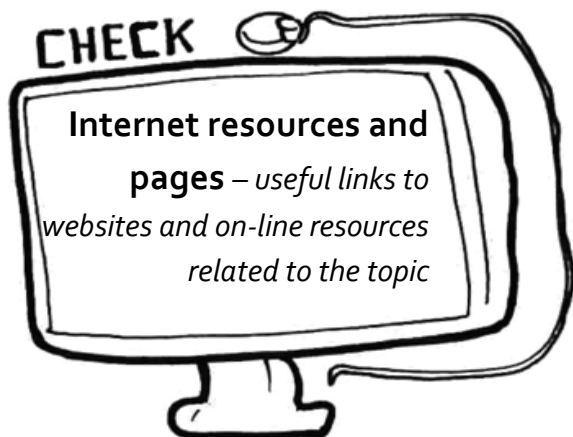
The thematic part of the manual is divided into three main parts:

Part 1 - Basic concepts – where we address the general principles related to youth work, NFL and the ethics of the trainer

Part 2 - Theoretical framework - which outlines the basic theoretical concepts associated with learning, interactive methods and the development of competencies

Part 3 - Practical skills - where we have selected specific tools and methods for the application of theories and concepts when designing and the conducting training programs.

We tried to prepare this manual to be as suitable as possible for people with different levels of experience in the field of NFL and to adapt it so that it can be used by people with different learning and perceptive styles. For this purpose we have included many links to additional online-based materials, resources and video. We have selected suitable quotes for inspiration and reflective questions for self-evaluation. At various stages in the Manual, the reader will find callouts giving additional information, an opportunity to upgrade the knowledge on the topic, assess the level of knowledge or receive some information in a different way:



So enjoy it and use the knowledge for good causes!

Creator’s team

Part 1 General concepts

School has a curriculum, life not.

Youth work is a broad term covering a broad scope of activities of a social, cultural, educational or political nature by, with and for young people. Increasingly, such activities also include sport and services for young people. Youth work belongs to the area of "out-of-school" education, as well as specific leisure time activities managed by professional or voluntary youth workers and youth leaders. Youth work is organized in different ways (by youth led organizations, organizations for youth, informal groups or through youth services and public authorities). It is delivered in different forms and settings (e.g. open-access, group-based, programme-based, outreach and detached) and is given shape at local, regional, national and European level.

3239th EDUCATION, YOUTH, CULTURE and SPORT Council meeting Brussels, 16-17 May 2013

Youth work essentials

Youth work has a very broad understanding, according to the different socio-cultural factors that create each national context. In exploring its meanings and characteristics we have to use a global perspective as well as a specific close look. The conditions of youth work are influenced by the history of the country, the educational system, the economic capacity, the civil society and all the other aspects that influence the life of youth and those that work with them. So in the next sections we will explore the meanings and characteristics of youth work and of those involved in this phenomenon.

(Bogdan Romanică)

Here you can find some basic information about what youth work is, about its main characteristics and approaches, as well as about how it links up with society and public policy.

What is youth work?

Youth work is commonly understood as a tool for personal development, social integration and active citizenship of young people. Youth work is a 'keyword' for all kinds of activities with, for and by young people of social, cultural, educational or political nature. It belongs to the domain of 'out-of-school' education, most commonly referred to as either non-formal or informal learning. The main objective of youth work is to create opportunities for young people to shape their own future.

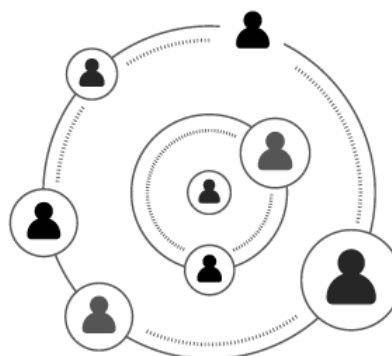
The range of themes that youth work covers is just as diverse as the types of people and organizations involved. Political activism, street work, sports activities, social enterprises and leisure-time activities can all be termed 'youth work'.

WHAT IS YOUTH WORK FOR?

ENABLING
young people to do the things they want to do together and individually

Providing young people with opportunities to **EMANCIPATE** and gain autonomy

Providing young people with healthy and safe opportunities for leisure that they can **ENJOY**



EMPOWERING
young people to change things they think need to be changed in their immediate surroundings and society

Helping young people to **ENGAGE** with power and policy

Providing young people with relevant and engaging non-formal **EDUCATION** opportunities that improve their competencies

Youth work characteristics

Youth work usually has the following characteristics

- **Value-driven:** youth work tries to serve the higher purposes of inclusion and social cohesion
- **Youth-centric:** youth work serves key needs and aspirations of youth, identified by young people themselves
- **Voluntary:** youth work is not obligatory, and relies on the voluntary participation of young people
- **Developmental:** youth work aims at the personal, social and ethical development of young people
- **Self-reflective and critical:** youth work tries to make sure it is doing its best to live up to its mission
- **Relational:** youth work seeks authentic communication with young people and to contribute to sustaining viable communities.

My name is Xavier. I volunteer in a local organisation and I carry out leisure-time activities with adolescents.

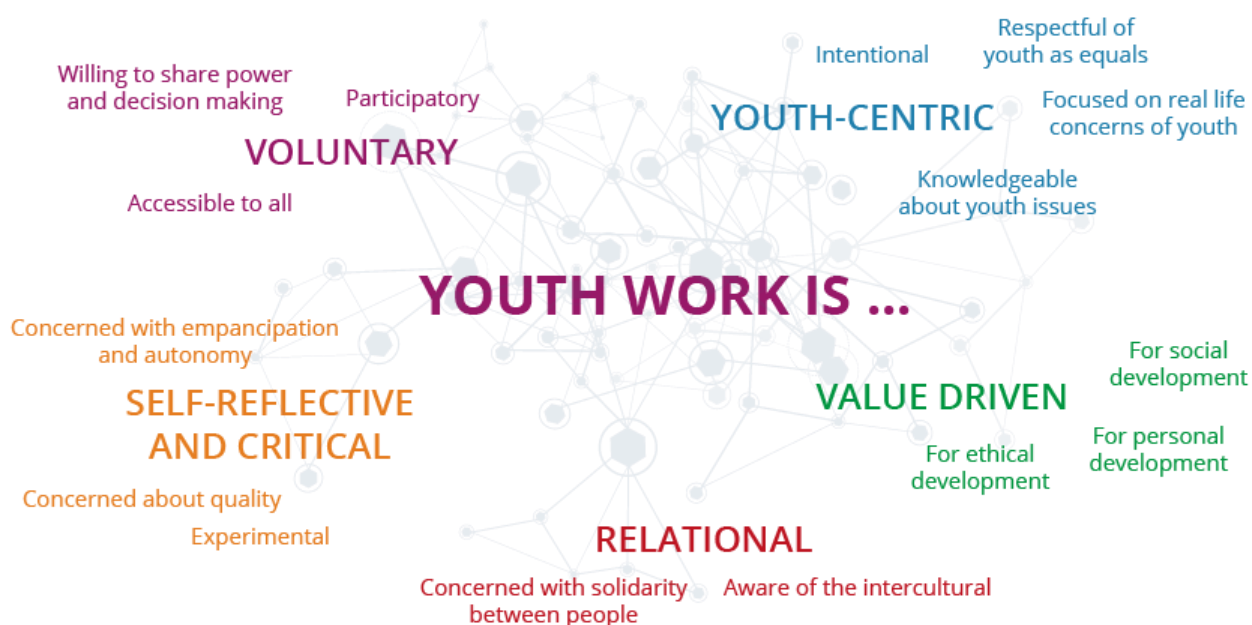


My name is Anna. I am a youth work development officer in a national youth organisation that works with young people from rural areas. I run projects for supporting the social entrepreneurship of young people.

My name is Milosz. I am a youth worker in a socio-cultural community centre in an urban suburb of a large, formerly industrial town. The kids who come to the centre come from disadvantaged backgrounds – they have issues with education, drugs and violence, and the community centre is pretty much the only non-school based activity available to them. We also work with the social services of the municipality.



My name is Satu. I am a youth worker based in a local youth centre run by our municipality. Over the last 2 years, we have been providing young people with online youth work activities: we advise them, chat with them or even offer psychological support online.



Youth work is diverse around Europe

Youth work around Europe is conducted by a large number of different institutions and organizations and by many different people, individually and in teams. It is very diverse, taking many different forms. Some countries have long traditions of professional youth work (qualified staff working with young people through local and national authority-funded programs and institutions). Other countries have long-established voluntary youth work structures (activities provided by voluntary organizations). Yet other countries have established youth work as part of social welfare provision, with youth work practices being put to the service of employability, social inclusion and social assistance. And, in some countries youth work takes place without the existence of a recognized "profession" of youth work, and the people doing youth work are volunteer leaders.

Ask yourself

Check your work:

- What kind of youth work do you practice?
- Can you identify these features in your youth work? Which ones are most important for you?
- What are the aims of your youth work?



Youth work and youth policies

Youth work is also about the place of young people and their concerns in society and the public sphere. It is also about influencing society, politics and power relations, especially if these position young people at a disadvantage, marginalize them or exclude them.

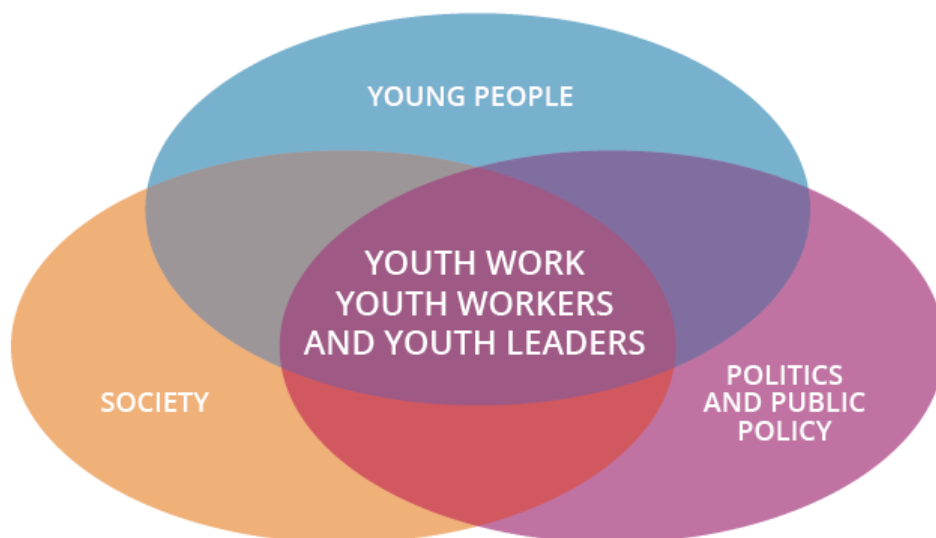
Ask yourself

Check the realities:

- How do the realities of the young people you work with influence your work?
- How do you find out about the needs and concerns of young people?
- In what ways do politics and policy influence the way you do your work?
- How do you see your role in relation to the wider political and social context youth work takes place in?

Source: Council of Europe "Youth work essentials" -

<http://www.coe.int/en/web/youth-portfolio/youth-work-essentials>



Approaches to youth work

The specific nature of youth work activities is not necessarily the key to understanding what is youth work; engaging young people in organizing a sports and games summer camp can serve the same aims as having them run a cinema youth club throughout a year. Nevertheless, youth work activities can be grouped into some broad categories:

- Awareness raising and campaigning;
- Information and counseling;
- International development and civic volunteering;
- Leisure-based courses and activities;
- Project activities (self-organized);
- Street work and outreach work.

These activities can be in many different fields ranging from culture and arts, crafts, environment, cultural and historical heritage, sports, through to aspects such as politics, citizenship, human rights and issues around health, safety or crime.

Source: Working with young people: the value of youth work in the European Union - http://ec.europa.eu/youth/library/study/youth-work-report_en.pdf

Due to the diversity of socio-economic factors that determine the conditions of youth work, there are different ways of working with young people. Most important approaches are presented below.

Community youth work

Community youth workers provide community-based activities for young people in a variety of settings throughout local communities, including places of worship, nonprofit organizations and government agencies.

Centre-based youth work

This youth work is carried out at dedicated premises, which may include facilities such as drop-in coffee bars, sports facilities and advice centers. Most youth clubs fall under this fairly wide category. It is reliant on young people choosing to come to the centre, but in some cases may be linked with outreach or school-based youth work.

Faith-based youth work

This youth work is carried out from a foundation of religious morals and may be for the purpose of sharing or engendering religious views. In the Christian church the main purpose of faith-based youth work may be derived from the biblical commandment to "love your neighbor". In many faith-based situations, the main agenda or purpose of youth work is aligned with the spiritual goals of the religion, or the perceived progress of a young person toward these goals. In Northern Ireland, 64% of youth work is faith-based.

Detached youth work

In its purest form, detached youth work is a form of street-based youth work provision, which operates without the use of a centre and takes place where young people "are at" both geographically and developmentally. It is often confused with outreach work, because of the similar principles (i.e. making contact on the streets with those "hard to reach" or "unattached" young people). Detached work is seen as more than trying to encourage young people to utilize existing provision (which is the often used definition of Outreach work) and is used as a method of delivering informal and social education and is concerned with addressing whatever needs are presented to or perceived by the youth worker.

Outreach youth work

Similar to detached youth work, outreach is a form of youth work that takes place on young people's own territory and is a method of work that supports and compliments new and existing centre/project based youth work. Primarily used to inform young people of services that exist in their locality and to encourage them to use such services, Outreach can also seek to identify, through consultation with young people, any gaps that exist in services aimed at meeting their needs. As opposed to Detached Youth Work, Outreach is seen as an extension to centre-based work, Outreach work takes place when workers who are usually centre-based go onto the streets with an agenda of their own to pursue, usually to encourage young people to attend their club.

School-based work

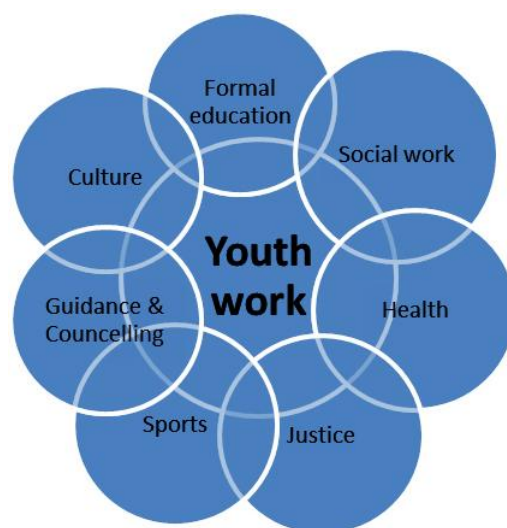
This form of youth work is carried out in schools and is provided directly for the pupils, often by an organization external from the school. It may include lessons, assemblies, after-school clubs, one to one mentoring etc. There may be a link with other non-school youth activities.

Organized youth associations

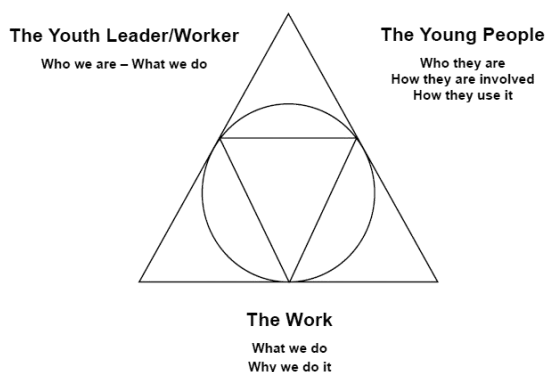
These are the cornerstone of youth work in many countries, with such associations and their activities being based on young people's own involvement and organization. They may range from the very local entity up to pan-European youth organizations such as the European Youth Forum. They adopt multiple roles, with the roles depending on their funding, including the level of state support as well as their involvement in the delivery of services and project-based opportunities. Many youth associations are also involved in lobbying and driving forward the youth work or the youth political agenda. Many deliver international youth work and provide young people from different countries, ethnic backgrounds and cultures with opportunities to meet each other and to widen their cultural knowledge and enhance their personal skills (i.e. interaction, communication and understanding).

Source: Youth work - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Youth_work#Approaches_to_youth_work

Where does youth work stop and another type of activity begin? This is not an easy question to answer and trying to identify the exact limits between youth work and other activities might be somewhat sterile. There will always be youth work activities falling in-between two or more areas. In reality, the porosity of youth work is possibly a key strength of this field of work. Youth work is both a distinctive practice and a method that can be used in other contexts, which makes it sometimes difficult to identify as such.



As noted above, some theories consider that what characterizes youth work is not so much the nature of the activity, but rather the focus on the young person and the context, setting or method. In order to be purposeful in our work, we need to understand that there are three main component parts to youth work (represented by the base triangle).



We need to be equally aware of all three areas in order to be effective. These areas are interconnected (represented by the circle). While young people are a part of the groundwork, they are also at the centre of how we do our work (represented by the inner triangle). In thinking about the model, how does it fit into your reality?

The youth leader/worker	Young people	The work
What brings you and your colleagues to contribute to youth work? What kinds of experience and competences do each of you use in your youth work? Why are you involved? How do you organize your work together?	How well do you know the young people you work with? What is their background? Where do they come from? What are their interests? Why do they participate?	What types of activities do you organize with young people? Are they more project-based, or do you have a more long-term approach? To what extent do young people participate in taking decisions and organizing activities? How do you evaluate what you do?

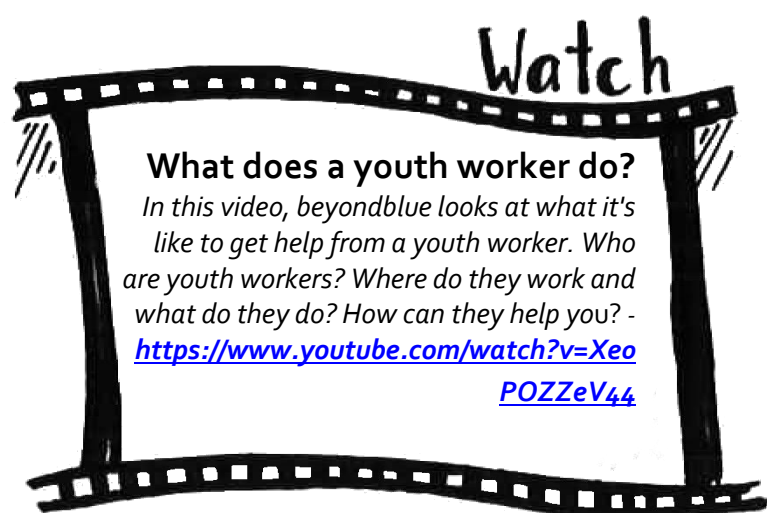
We emphasize working with and for the benefit of individuals AND looking more widely at society and youth policy. This means looking at how our youth work is part of a broader picture of youth policy and research - including young people, governments, youth NGO's and youth services.

Source: European Portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers - https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/youth/Resources/Portfolio/Portfolio_en.asp

The youth worker: characteristics, roles, ethics

As we could see in the previous section, youth work is a domain of vast diversity. Although at the core of this system are the youth, the actors that are involved in working with them have different roles. Even one youth worker can be in different positions and roles while being part of the same youth organization and working with the same youth for longer periods of time. The destination of a youth worker is clear, to enhance the personal development, social integration and active citizenship of young people. The same thing should apply for the manner of reaching the destination. So, a code of conduct and certain ethics are required for creating high quality youth work.

(Bogdan Romanică)



Ethical Conduct in Youth Work

Ethics is generally regarded as being about the norms of behavior that people follow, regarding what is good or bad, right or wrong. Usually ethical issues are about matters of human (and animal) wellbeing or welfare.

Ethics in the context of professional practice is about:

- Developing the ability of practitioners to see the ethical dimensions of problems, to reflect on issues, to take difficult decisions and to be able to justify these decisions; and
- Acting with integrity according to one's responsibilities and duties (this may entail behaving in accordance with professional principles, guidelines or agency rules).

The behavior of everyone involved in youth work and youth services – political and managerial leaders, managers, trustees, employees, volunteers and participants – must be of a standard that makes it the basis of:

- The effective delivery of services;
- Modeling appropriate behavior to young people;
- Trust between workers and young people;
- Trust between organizations and services and parents and young people;
- A willingness of various parties to commit resources; and
- A belief in the capacity of youth work to help young people themselves learn to make moral decisions and take effective action.

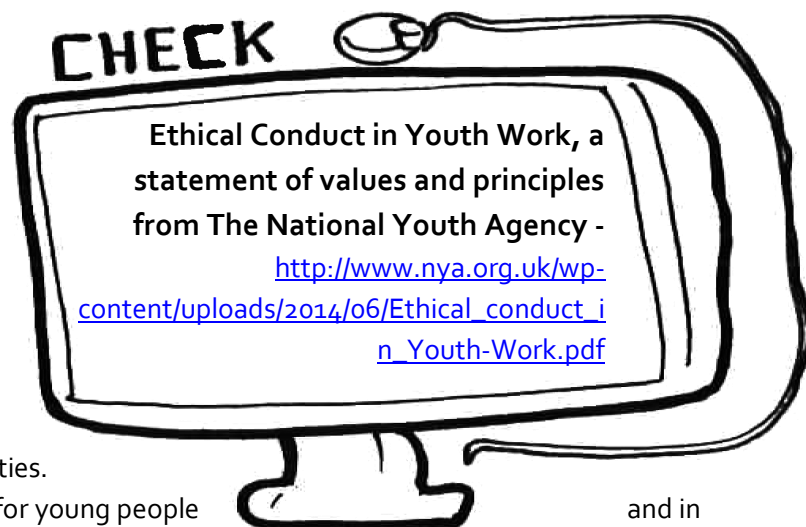
This requires that all those involved should be capable of appropriate thinking about ethics in practical situations

Summary of the statement of principles of ethical conduct for youth work

Ethical principles

Youth workers have a commitment to:

1. Treat young people with respect, valuing each individual and avoiding negative discrimination.
2. Respect and promote young people's rights to make their own decisions and choices, unless the welfare or legitimate interests of themselves or others are seriously threatened.
3. Promote and ensure the welfare and safety of young people, while permitting them to learn through undertaking challenging educational activities.
4. Contribute towards the promotion of social justice for young people society generally, through encouraging respect for difference and challenging discrimination.



and in
diversity and

Professional principles

Youth workers have a commitment to:

1. Recognize the boundaries between personal and professional life and be aware of the need to balance a caring and supportive relationship with young people with appropriate professional distance.
2. Recognize the need to be accountable to young people, their parents or guardians, colleagues, funders, wider society and others with a relevant interest in the work, and that these accountabilities may be in conflict.
3. Develop and maintain the required skills and competence to do the job.
4. Work for conditions in employing agencies where these principles are discussed, evaluated and upheld.

Source: Ethical Conduct in Youth Work - http://www.nya.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/Ethical_conduct_in_Youth-Work.pdf

Non-formal learning - the foundation of youth work

Youth work often has a strong educational purpose or dimension. Typically, the education or learning that takes place in youth work is 'non-formal' – not 'formal' and not 'informal'. Youth work and non-formal education have many characteristics in common. Nevertheless, they are not the same.

Formal learning

Learning typically provided by an education or training institution, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and leading to certification. Formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective.

Non-formal learning

Learning which takes place through planned activities (in terms of learning objectives, learning time) where some form of learning support is present (e.g. learner-teacher relationships); it may cover programmes to impart work skills, adult literacy and basic education for early school leavers; very common cases of non-formal learning include in-company training, through which companies update and improve the skills of their workers such as ICT skills, structured on-line learning (e.g. by making use of open educational resources), and courses organized by civil society organizations for their members, their target group or the general public (Ibid.).

Informal learning

Learning resulting from daily activities related to work, family or leisure which is not organized or structured in terms of objectives, time or learning support; it may be unintentional from the learner's perspective; examples of learning outcomes acquired through informal learning are: skills acquired through life and work experiences, project management skills, ICT skills acquired at work, languages learned, intercultural skills acquired during a stay in another country, ICT skills acquired outside work, skills acquired through volunteering, cultural activities, sports, youth work and through activities at home e.g. taking care of a child (Council Recommendation 2012/C 398/01).

Source: Glossary, (European Commission: Erasmus+ Programme) - http://ec.europa.eu/education/ects/users-guide/glossary_en.htm

Features of non-formal learning in the youth sector:

Common elements in existing definitions of non-formal learning

- purposive learning;
- diverse contexts;
- different and lighter organization of provision and delivery;
- alternative/complementary teaching and learning styles;
- less developed recognition of outcomes and quality;

Essential features of non-formal learning

- balanced co-existence and interaction between cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning;
- linking individual and social learning, partnership-oriented solidarity and symmetrical teaching/learning relations;
- participatory and learner-centered;
- holistic and process-oriented;
- close to real life concerns, experiential and oriented to learning by doing, using intercultural exchanges and encounters as learning devices;
- voluntary and (ideally) open-access;
- aims above all to convey and practice the values and skills of democratic life;

Non-formal teaching/training and learning methods

- communication-based methods: interaction, dialogue, mediation;
- activity-based methods: experience, practice, experimentation;
- socially-focused methods: partnership, teamwork, networking;
- self-directed methods: creativity, discovery, responsibility.

Source: Council of Europe Symposium on Non-Formal Education: Report (2001) -

https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/youth/Source/Resources/PR_material/2012_Compndium_Non-Formal_Education_text_en.pdf

Conclusions:

In brief...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learning takes place outside the structures of the formal education system and differs from this in the way it is organized and the type of recognition this learning confers; • learning is intentional and voluntary; • learning aims above all to convey and practice the values and skills of democratic life.
Methodological features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • balanced co-existence and interaction between cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning; • linking individual and social learning • partnership oriented solidarity and symmetrical teaching/learning relations; • participatory and learner-centered approaches; • close to real life concerns, experimental and oriented to learning by doing, using intercultural exchanges and encounters as learning devices.
Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values linked to personal development: autonomy; critical thinking; openness and curiosity; creativity. • Values linked to social development: communication; participation and democratic citizenship; solidarity and social justice; responsibility; transformative power of conflict. • Ethical values: human rights; respect for others; intercultural learning and dialogue; peace/non-violence; gender equality; inter-generational dialogue.
Non-formal educators ...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use participatory methods; • use diversity as a positive learning tool; • make critically reflective links between the concrete and the abstract, in order both to facilitate the learning process and continuously to improve their quality; • have knowledge about young people's lives and cultures in Europe.

Source: Notes on the Types of education: formal, informal, non-formal (Gauri Dushi) -

<http://www.preservearticles.com/2012010920241/notes-on-the-types-of-education-formal-informal-non-formal.html>

Youth worker's competences

In the last 20 years, youth work has been part of an intensive internationalization. Due to the transnational programmes, such as Erasmus+ of European Commission (and the previous Youth and Youth in Action) and those offered by Council of Europe, the youth work became an international arena. On this arena, ideas, practices, partnerships, perspectives have developed at a very high rate and this lead to an increase of innovation and quality in the youth domain. Thus bridges between the countries with a long history and experience and those who were in the beginning of the journey have been created. In order to enact sustainable development at international level, a common vision was needed, as well as tools in order to continue the sustainable development of the youth sector. One such initiative is The European Portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers.

(Bogdan Romanică)

The European Portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers is an initiative of the Council of Europe in cooperation with experts and partners such as the European Commission and the European Youth Forum. It provides youth leaders and youth workers in Europe, volunteers or professionals, with a tool which can help them identify, assess and describe their competencies based on European quality standards.

In using this portfolio, youth leaders and youth workers will not only contribute to the recognition of their experience and skills but also to efforts to increase the recognition of youth work and non-formal education and learning.

Using this Portfolio will engage you **to look into your head, at your hands and into your heart**, and to document what you think you need to learn or work on to deliver a good quality youth work experience to the young people you work with.

The Portfolio competence framework

The Portfolio looks at those things which **youth work usually or most commonly does**.

We call these **functions of youth work**.

From these functions of youth work, the Portfolio tries to better understand what youth workers should be able to do; in other words, the competences youth workers need to have in order to perform youth work. The competences that one needs to have in order to do youth work.

Together, the identified functions and competences make up what we call the **Portfolio competence framework**.

1. Function: To empower young people

The youth leader/worker is able to:

1. enable young people to participate through developing collective action and learning;
2. involve young people in the planning, delivery and evaluation of activities;
3. enable young people to work towards their goals;
4. help the development of confidence, knowledge, critical thinking, skills and understanding of young people;
5. get in touch with young people on an emotional level;
6. widen their awareness of the concepts of power and change.

Tips & Tricks



Use the Portfolio

The Portfolio is a tool for assessing youth work competence and for planning how to develop it. This process is very important, because youth workers are bound to be lifelong learners and youth work itself is a field constantly under development. Start using the Portfolio in order to see how to apply this framework to your practice!

<http://www.coe.int/en/web/youth-portfolio/online-portfolio>

2. Function: To develop relevant learning opportunities

The youth leader/worker is able to:

1. target individuals and groups;
2. provide young people with appropriate guidance and feedback;
3. take advantage of spontaneous learning and development opportunities in everyday situations;
4. identify any special learning needs;
5. use a range of educational methods and techniques;
6. stimulate the creativity of young people.

3. Function: To accompany young people in their intercultural learning process

The youth leader/worker is able to:

1. facilitate young people's recognition of their cultural background, values and behaviour;
2. promote active tolerance and interaction with people from other cultures at home and abroad;
3. work creatively with conflict towards peaceful solutions;
4. assist young people to define their place in a changing world.

4. Function: To contribute to organizational and youth policy development

The youth leader/worker is able to:

1. find resources and manage them;
2. manage others and work effectively in teams;
3. work for change and development within organizations;
4. cooperate with others to shape youth policy.

5. Function: To use evaluative practice

The youth leader/worker is able to:

1. plan and apply a range of participative methods of evaluation;
2. use appropriate information technology tools when necessary;
3. demonstrate skills in report writing and presentation for a variety of audiences;
4. research and use results to influence practice.

Source: European Portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers, Council of Europe -

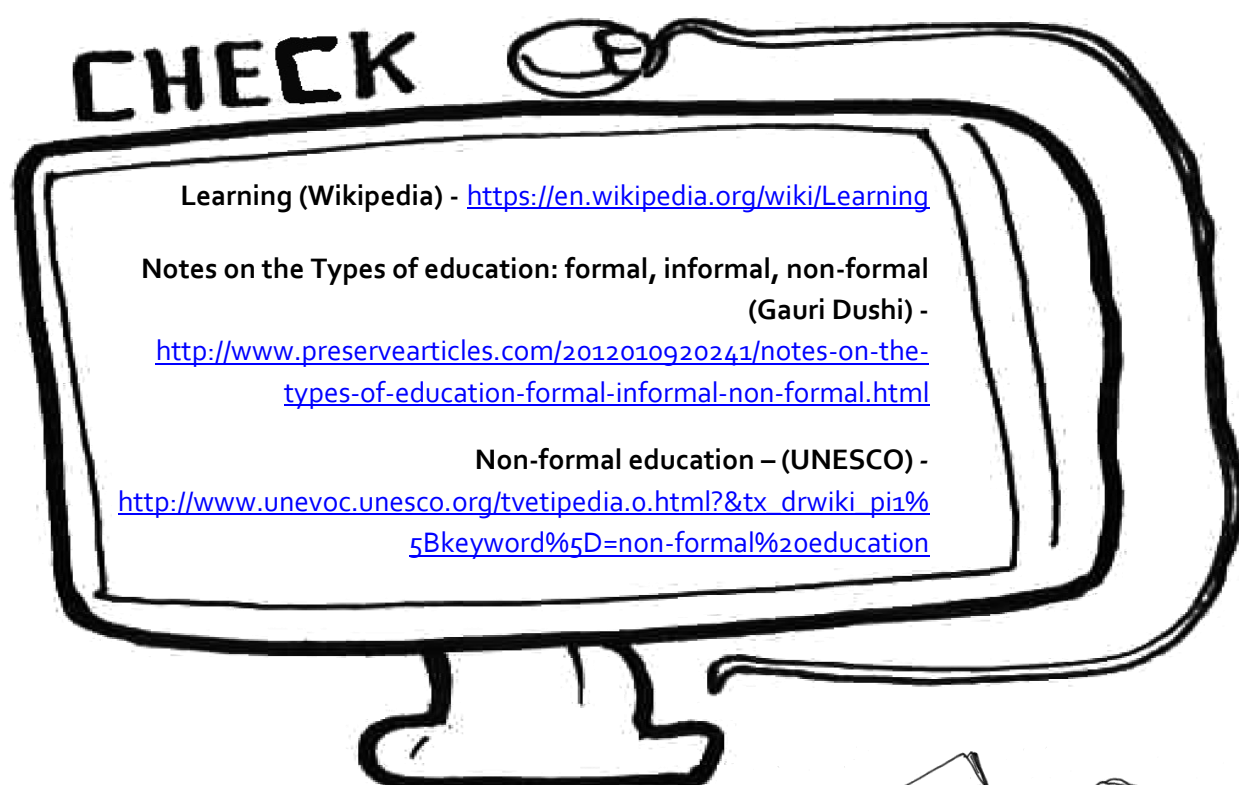
https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/youth/Source/Resources/Portfolio/Portfolio_en.pdf

Part 2 Theoretical framework

Change is the end result of true learning

Learning theories are conceptual frameworks describing how information is absorbed, processed, and retained during learning. Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in how understanding, or a world view, is acquired or changed and knowledge and skills retained.

Wikipedia

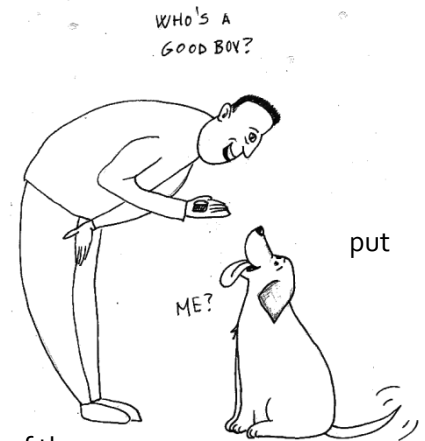


Most influential theories of learning

Learning is defined as a process that brings together personal and environmental experiences and influences for acquiring, enriching or modifying one's knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, behaviour and world views. Learning theories develop hypotheses that describe how this process takes place. The scientific study of learning started in earnest at the dawn of the 20th century. The major concepts and theories of learning include behaviourist theories, cognitive psychology, constructivism, social constructivism, experiential learning, multiple intelligence, and situated learning theory and community of practice.

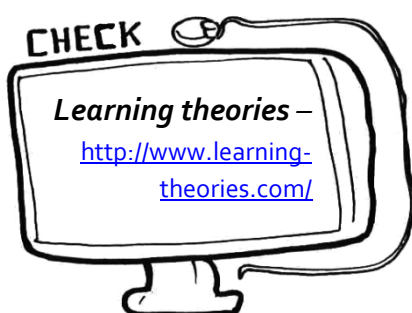
Behaviourism

The behaviourist perspectives of learning originated in the early 1900s, and became dominant in early 20th century. The basic idea of behaviourism is that learning consists of a change in behaviour due to the acquisition, reinforcement and application of associations between stimuli from the environment and observable responses of the individual. Behaviourists are interested in measurable changes in behaviour. Thorndike, one major behaviourist theorist, forward that (1) a response to a stimulus is reinforced when followed by a positive rewarding effect, and (2) a response to a stimulus becomes stronger by exercise and repetition. This view of learning is akin to the "drill-and-practice" programmes. Skinner, another influential behaviourist, proposed his variant of behaviourism called "operant conditioning". In his view, rewarding the right parts of the more complex behaviour reinforces it, and encourages its recurrence. Therefore, reinforcers control the occurrence of the desired partial behaviours. Learning is understood as the step-by-step or successive approximation of the intended partial behaviours through the use of reward and punishment. The best known application of Skinner's theory is "programmed instruction" whereby the right sequence of the partial behaviours to be learned is specified by elaborated task analysis.



Cognitive psychology

Cognitive psychology was initiated in the late 1950s, and contributed to the move away from behaviourism. People are no longer viewed as collections of responses to external stimuli, as understood by behaviourists, but information processors. Cognitive psychology paid attention to complex mental phenomena, ignored by behaviourists, and was influenced by the emergence of the computer as an information-processing device, which became analogous to the human mind. In cognitive psychology, learning is understood as the acquisition of knowledge: the learner is an information-processor who absorbs information, undertakes cognitive operations on it, and stocks it in memory. Therefore, its preferred methods of instruction are lecturing and reading textbooks; and, at its most extreme, the learner is a passive recipient of knowledge by the teacher.



Constructivism

Constructivism emerged in the 1970s and 1980s, giving rise to the idea that learners are not passive recipients of information, but that they actively construct their knowledge in interaction with the environment and through the reorganization of their mental structures. Learners are therefore viewed as sense-makers, not simply recording given information but interpreting it. This view of learning led to the shift from the "knowledge-acquisition" to "knowledge-construction" metaphor. The growing evidence in support of the

constructive nature of learning was also in line with and backed by the earlier work of influential theorists such as Jean Piaget and Jerome Bruner. While there are different versions of constructivism, what is found in common is the learner-centred approach whereby the teacher becomes a cognitive guide of learner's learning and not a knowledge transmitter.



Social learning theory

A well-known social learning theory has been developed by Albert Bandura, who works within both cognitive and behavioural frameworks that embrace attention, memory and motivation. His theory of learning suggests that people learn within a social context, and that learning is facilitated through concepts such as modelling, observational learning and imitation. Bandura put forward "reciprocal determinism" that holds the view that a person's behaviour, environment and personal qualities all reciprocally influence each others. He

argues that children learn from observing others as well as from "model" behaviour, which are processes involving attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. The importance of positive role modelling on learning is well documented.

Socio-constructivism

In the late 20th century, the constructivist view of learning was further changed by the rise of the perspective of "situated cognition and learning" that emphasized the significant role of context, particularly social interaction. Criticism against the information-processing constructivist approach to cognition and learning became stronger as the pioneer work of Vygotsky as well as anthropological and ethnographic research by scholars like Rogoff and Lave came to the fore and gathered support. The essence of this criticism was that the information-processing constructivism saw cognition and learning as processes occurring within the mind in isolation from the surrounding and interaction with it. Knowledge was considered as self-sufficient and independent of the contexts in which it finds itself. In the new view, cognition and learning are understood as interactions between the individual and a situation; knowledge is considered as situated and is a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is formed and utilized. This gave way to a new metaphor for learning as "participation" and "social negotiation".

Experiential learning

Experiential learning theories build on social and constructivist theories of learning, but situate experience at the core of the learning process. They aim to understand the manners in which experiences – whether first or second hand – motivate learners and promote their learning. Therefore, learning is about meaningful experiences – in everyday life – that lead to a change in an individual's knowledge and behaviours. Carl Rogers is an influential proponent of these theories, suggesting that experiential learning is "self-initiated learning" as people have a natural inclination to learn; and that they learn when they are fully involved in the learning process. Rogers put forward the following insight: (1) "learning can only be facilitated: we cannot teach another person directly", (2) "learners become more rigid under threat", (3) "significant learning occurs in an environment where threat to the learner is reduced to a minimum", (4) "learning is most likely to occur and to last when it is self-initiated" (Office of Learning and Teaching, 2005, p. 9). He supports a dynamic, continuous process of change where new learning results in and affects learning environments. This dynamic process of change is often considered in literatures on organizational learning.

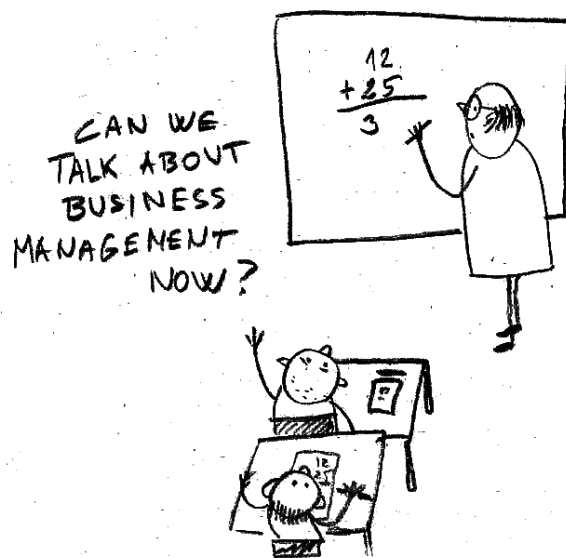


Multiple intelligences

Challenging the assumption in many of the learning theories that learning is a universal human process that all individuals experience according to the same principles, Howard Gardner elaborated his theory of 'multiple intelligences' in 1983. His theory also challenges the understanding of intelligence as dominated by a single general ability. Gardner argues that every person's level of intelligence actually consists of many distinct "intelligences". These intelligences include: (1) logical-mathematical, (2) linguistic, (3) spatial, (4) musical, (5) bodily-kinesthetic, (6) interpersonal, (7) intrapersonal, (8) naturalistic, and (9) existential. Although his work is speculative, his theory is appreciated by teachers in broadening their conceptual framework beyond the traditional confines of skilling, curriculum and testing. The recognition of multiple intelligences, for Gardner, is a means to achieving educational goals rather than an educational goal in and of itself.

Situated learning theory and community of practice

"Situated learning theory" and "community of practice" draw many of the ideas of the learning theories considered above. They are developed by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger. Situated learning theory recognizes that there is no learning which is not situated, and emphasizes the relational and negotiated character of knowledge and learning as well as the engaged nature of learning activity for the individuals involved. According to the theory, it is within communities that learning occurs most effectively. Interactions taking place within a community of practice – e.g. cooperation, problem solving, building trust, understanding and relations – have the potential to foster community social capital that enhances the community members' wellbeing. Thomas Sergiovanni reinforces the idea that learning is most effective when it takes place in communities. He argues that academic and social outcomes will improve only when classrooms become learning communities, and teaching becomes learner-centered. Communities of practice are of course not confined to schools but cover other settings such as workplace and organizations.



21st century learning or skills

Exploration of 21st century learning or skills has emerged from the concern about transforming the goals and daily practice of learning to meet the new demands of the 21st century, which is characterized as knowledge- and technologically driven. The current discussion about 21st century skills leads classrooms and other learning environments to encourage the development of core subject knowledge as well as new media literacies, critical and systems thinking, interpersonal and self-directional skills. For example, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) defines the following as key: core subjects (e.g. English, math, geography, history, civics) and 21st century themes (global awareness, civic literacy, health literacy, environmental literacy, financial, business and entrepreneurial literacy); learning and

innovation skills (creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, communication and collaboration); information, media and technology skills (e.g. ICT literacy, media literacy); and life and career skills (flexibility and adaptability, initiative and self-direction, social and cross-cultural skills, productivity and accountability, leadership and responsibility). One main learning method that supports the learning of such skills and knowledge is group learning or thematic projects, which involves an inquiry-based collaborative work that addresses real-world issues and questions.

Source: *The Office of Learning and Teaching, 2004. Melbourne: Department of Education and Training; OECD, 2010. Nature of Learning, Paris: Author - <http://www.p21.org/> - <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/strengthening-education-systems/quality-framework/technical-notes/influential-theories-of-learning/>*

The learning pyramid

As you can see from this pyramid, according to the ways of learning, we tend to remember a certain percentage of information and in particular:

We remember 10% of what we read - by reading the text

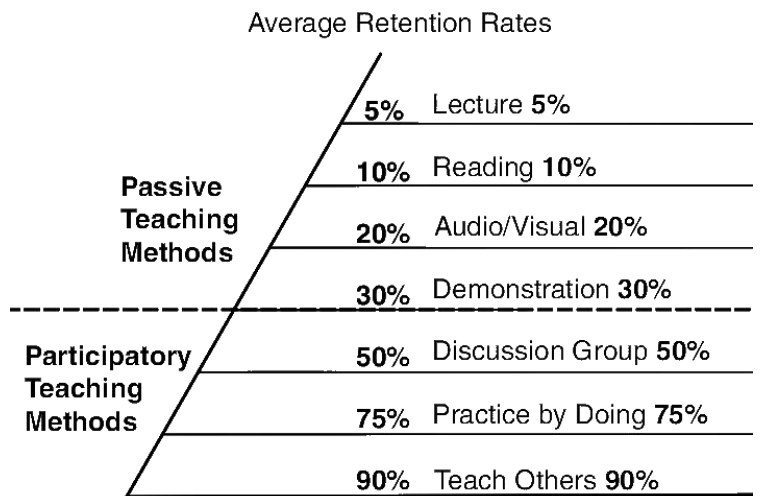
We remember 20% of what we hear and see - by listening to words and viewing images

We remember 30% of what we see - by watching a demonstration

We remember 50% of what we see and discuss - by watching a demonstration and discussion

We remember 75% of what we do - by practicing

We remember 90% of what we teach – by teaching others



Adapted from National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine

Source: National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine; model from Edgar Dayl (1946, 1969)

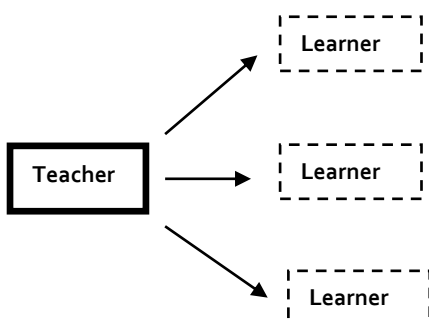
Practical application of the learning pyramid

The model clearly shows the difference between passive and active learning. Better memorization and understanding of things happen in the case of active learning, while through passive learning we still memorize and understand but with big "losses".

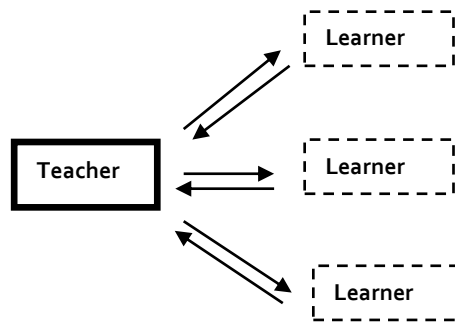
There are **various ways of learning**. Hence, there is real potential for people to learn successfully in more than one or two ways.

Types of teaching

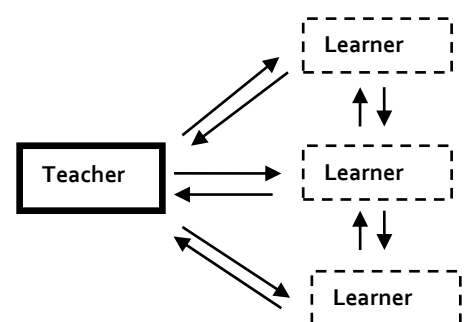
Passive



Active



Interactive



Arrows in these graphs indicate the direction of the flow of information between teacher and students during the learning process.

We underrate our brain and our intelligence... We are all capable of huge and unsuspected learning accomplishments without effort.

Frank Smith, Insult to Intelligence

Whole-brain learning

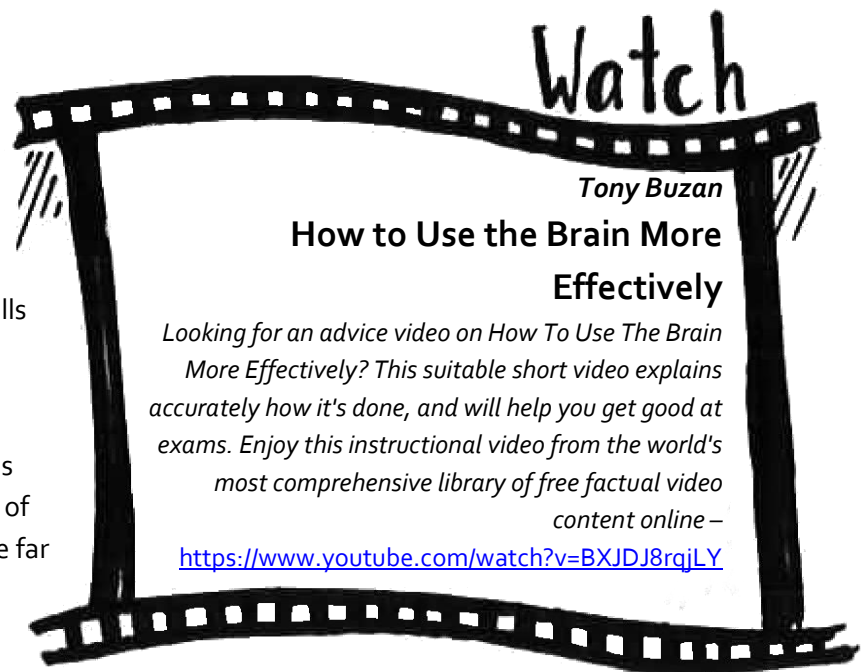
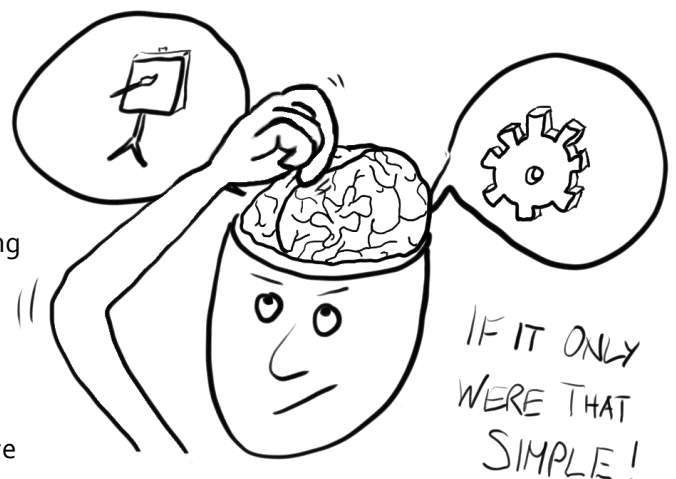
It is commonly thought that the left and right hemispheres of the brain have different functions. The left hemisphere is used for analytical operations, written and spoken language, and logical processes. The right hemisphere is involved in visualization, synthesis, and creativity. Some people have skills which indicate that they operate with one hemisphere more than the other.

Although more recent brain imaging techniques have shown that the notion of a differentiation of brain functions into left and right halves may be far too simplistic, it is still clear that formal education systems have tended to emphasize a rather narrow range of the brain's capabilities.

Whole-brain learning uses techniques that integrate the synthetic and imaginative brain skills with the analytical and language skills. Simple strategies can make better use of the whole brain and can dramatically improve learning and performance skills.

An understanding of how the brain works most effectively has led to a number of "brain-based" learning principles:

- The brain is a parallel processor - it is always doing many things at once;
- Learning engages the entire physiology - everything that affects physiological functioning affects the capacity to learn;
- The search for meaning is automatic - the search for meaning cannot be stopped, only channeled and focused;
- The search for meaning takes place by "patterning" - the brain is designed to perceive and generate patterns, and resists having meaningless patterns imposed on it;
- Emotions are critical and at the heart of patterning - what we learn is influenced and organized by emotions and mind-sets;



- The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously - the left and right hemispheres are inextricably interactive;
- Learning involves both focused attention and peripheral perception - the brain responds to the entire sensory context including subtle signals not consciously noticed;
- Learning always involves conscious and unconscious processes - we learn much more than we ever consciously understand;
- We have at least two different ways of organizing memory - a spatial memory system that allows for instant memory of experiences; and a set of systems for rote learning of facts and skills isolated from experience;
- We understand and remember best when facts and skills are embedded in natural, spatial memory - spatial memory is generally best invoked through experiential learning;
- The brain downshifts under perceived threats and learns optimally when appropriately challenged - learning occurs best in an atmosphere that is low in threat and high in challenge;
- Each brain is unique - learning actually changes the structure of the brain (from Caine et al. Mindshifts).

Cooperative learning

In cooperative learning students work with each other to accomplish a shared or common goal. The goal is reached through interdependence among all group members rather than working alone. Each member is responsible for the outcome of the shared goal.

Putting groups together in a room does not mean cooperative learning is taking place. In order to have effective cooperative learning each group member must:

- contribute while also depending on others to accomplish a **shared goal or task**;
- praise, encourage, support or **assist others**;
- take **responsibility** for their own learning and contribution as well as group achievement;
- develop **leadership**, decision-making, trust-building and **communication skills**;
- **reflect** on group effectiveness and think of **ways to improve** group work.

Cooperative learning can produce greater learners achievement than traditional learning methodologies. Learners who work individually often compete against others to gain praise or other forms of rewards and reinforcements. The success of these individuals can mean failures for others. There are more winners in a cooperative team because all members reap from the success of an achievement.

One of the essential elements of cooperative learning is the development of social skills. Learners learn to take risks and are praised for their contribution. They are able to see points of view other than their own. Such benefits contribute to the overall satisfaction of learning. Learners work with others who may have different learning skills, cultural background, attitudes, and personalities. These differences force them to deal with conflicts and enrich learning.

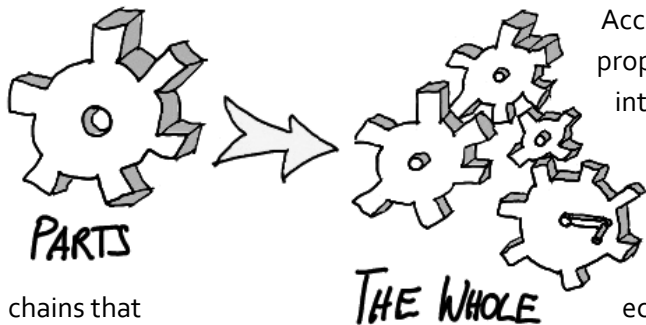
Reference - Gibbs, J. Tribes - A New Way of Learning Together. Centre Source Publications, 1994

Knowledge of whole systems

Earlier this century ecologists who focused on the study of animal and plant communities observed networks of relationships - the web of life. They found a new way of thinking - thinking in terms of relationships, connectedness and context - SYSTEMS THINKING.

Systems thinking involves several shifts from mechanistic, reductionist thinking:

Shift from the parts to the whole



chains that

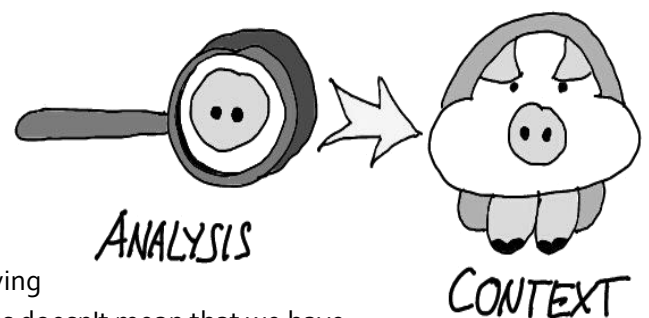
networks, and there are cycles within those networks, which are feedback loops. All these are properties that can only be understood if you observe the whole ecosystem. If you split it into a number of species and make a list of those, you will never discover that there are these cyclical patterns that interconnect them.

According to the systems view a living system has essential properties which none of the parts have. They arise from the interactions and relationships between the parts. These properties are destroyed when the system is dissected, either physically or theoretically, into isolated elements. For example, energy and matter move in cycles through an ecosystem; all substances are continually recycled. The food ecologists originally talked about are really food webs. They are

Shift from analysis to context:

The shift from the parts to the whole is not easy because we have all been conditioned by our upbringing, our education, to think in terms of parts. The whole enterprise of Western philosophical thought has been mechanistic and reductionist, concentrating on the parts.

The great shock of twentieth century science has been that living systems cannot be understood by this method of analysis. This doesn't mean that we have to give up analysis. It's still very useful in many ways, but it is limited.



In the systems approach, the properties of the parts can be understood only from the organization of the whole. In order to understand something, you don't take it apart; you put it into a larger context.

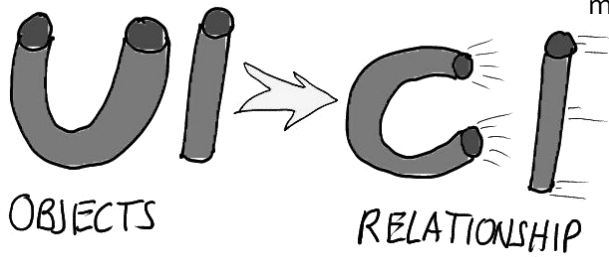
Only then will you understand, for example, why a bird has certain colors. If you know something about evolution, you will know how these colors originated and evolved. You will understand the properties within the context of the environment of this animal and within its evolutionary context.

So, system thinking is 'contextual', and this is the opposite of analytical thinking. Analysis means taking something apart in order to understand it; systems thinking means putting it into the context of a larger whole.

Shift from objects to relationships:

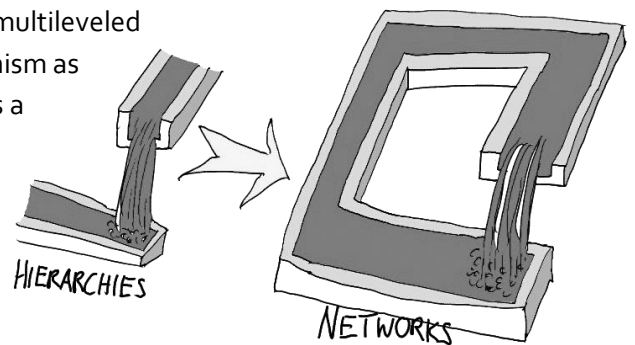
In the 1920s physicists discovered that ultimately there are no parts. What we call a 'part' is merely a pattern in an inseparable web of relationships. It is of course very useful to define parts, but this definition is often arbitrary and approximate and needs to be flexible.

Therefore, the shift from the parts to the whole can also be seen as a shift from objects to relationships. In the mechanistic view, the world is seen as a collection of objects, and the relationships between them are secondary. In the systems view, we realize that the objects themselves - the organisms in an ecosystem or the people in a community - are networks of relationships, embedded in larger networks. For the systems thinker, the relationships are primary, the objects are secondary.



Shift from hierarchies to networks:

A striking property of living systems is their tendency to form multileveled structures of systems within systems. Let's take our own organism as an example. At the smallest level we have cells, and each cell is a living system. These cells combine to form tissues, the tissues form organs. The whole organism is a network of all these relationships. Then the organism as a whole exists within societal relationships, within social systems, and within ecosystems.

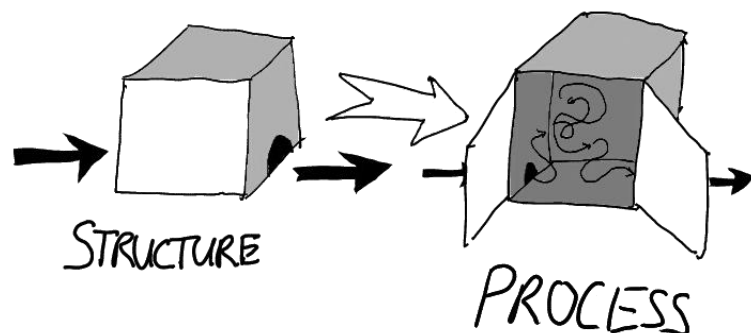


At each level, we have systems that are integrated wholes while at the same time being parts of larger wholes. Throughout the living world, we find living systems within other living systems.

Since the early days of ecology, these multileveled arrangements have been called hierarchies, a misleading term derived from human hierarchies with a fairly rigid structure of domination and control - quite unlike the multileveled order found in nature.

Since living systems at all levels are networks, we must visualize the web of life as living systems (networks) interacting in network fashion with other systems (networks).

In other words, the web of life consists of networks within networks.



Shift from structure to process:

All the systems concepts discussed so far can be seen as different aspects of one great strand of systemic thinking, which we may call contextual thinking. Contextual thinking means thinking in terms of connectedness, context and relationships. There is another strand in systems thinking that is of equal importance. This second strand is process

thinking. In the mechanistic framework of Cartesian science, there are fundamental structures, and then there are forces and mechanisms through which these interact, thus giving rise to processes.

In systems science every structure is seen as the manifestation of underlying processes. Structure and process always go together; they are two sides of the same coin. Systems thinking is always process thinking.

Reference - Capra, F: *From the Parts to the Whole*, in *The Education Network Australian Education Network*, Winter 1995

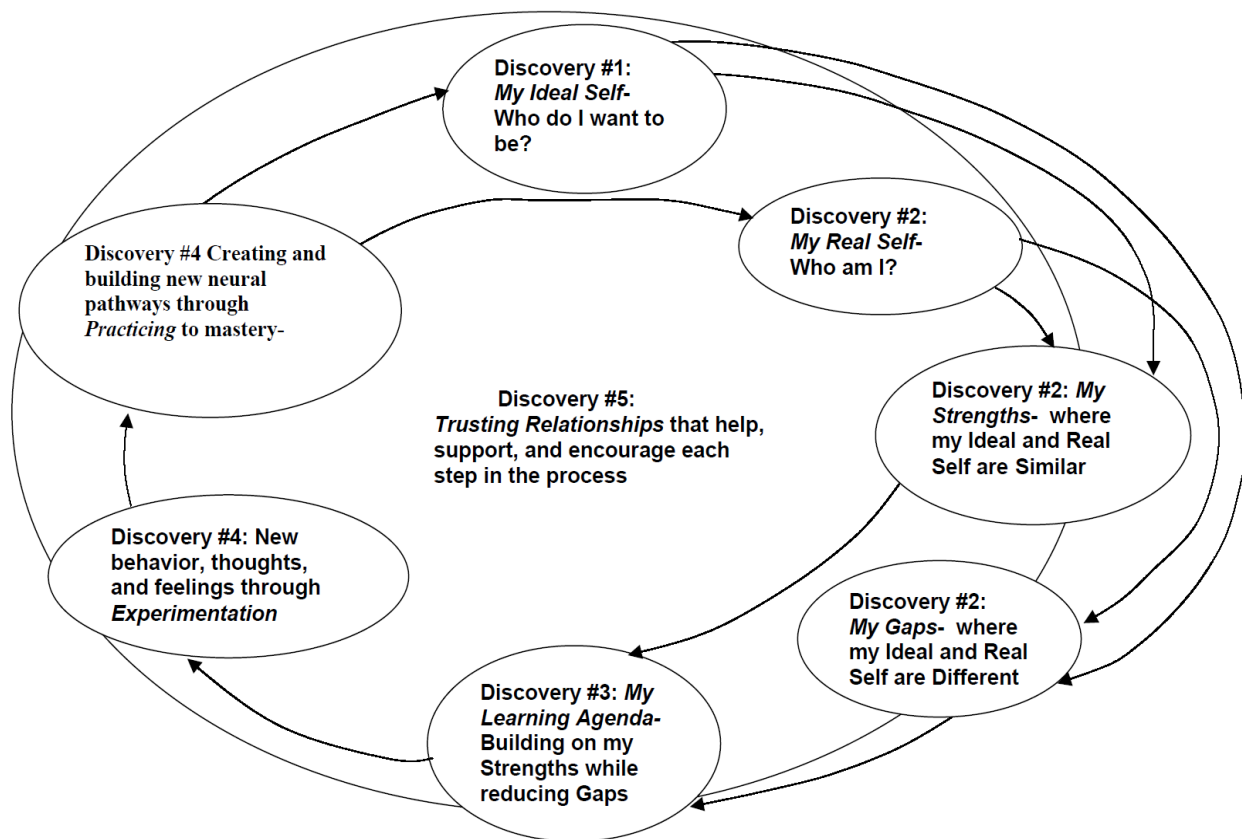
Adapted from - *Holistic Education Network of Tasmania, Australia* - <http://www.hent.org/intro3.htm>

Self-directed learning - In its broadest meaning, 'self-directed learning' describes a process by which individuals take the initiative, with or without the assistance of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identify human and material resources for learning, choosing and implement appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes.

M. Knowles, *Principles of Androgogy*, 1972

Theory of Self-Directed Learning

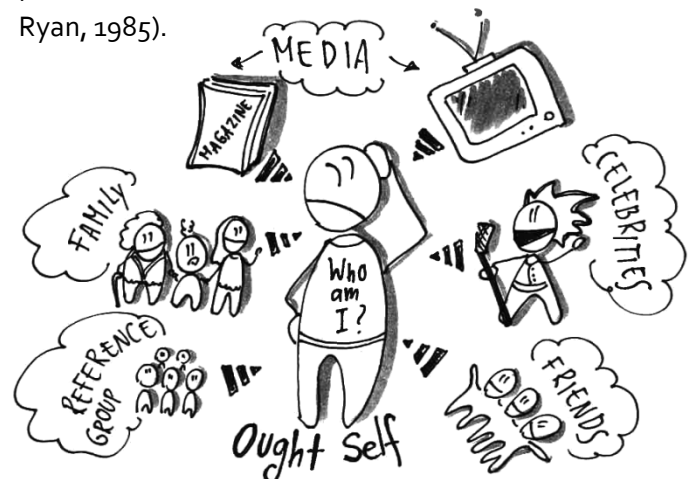
(Richard E. Boyatzis)



The First Discontinuity: Catching Your Dreams, Engaging Your Passion

The first discontinuity and potential starting point for the process of self-directed learning is the discovery of who you want to be. Our Ideal Self is an image of the person we want to be. It emerges from our ego ideal, dreams, and aspirations, The last twenty years has revealed literature supporting the power of positive imaging or visioning in sports psychology, appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider, 1990), meditation and biofeedback research, and other psycho-physiological research. It is believed that the potency of focusing one's thoughts on the desired end state of condition is driven by the emotional components of the brain (Goleman, 1995). The Ideal Self is a reflection of the person's intrinsic drives. Numerous studies have shown that intrinsic motives have more enduring impact on a

person's behaviour than extrinsic motives (Deci and Ryan, 1985).



Our aspirations, dreams, and desired states are shaped by our values, philosophy (Boyatzis, Murphy, and Wheeler, 2000), life and career stages (Boyatzis and

Kolb, 1999), motives (McClelland, 1985), role models, and other factors. This research indicates that we can access and engage deep emotional commitment and psychic energy if we engage our passions and conceptually catch our dreams in our Ideal Self-image.

It is an anomaly that we know the importance of consideration of the Ideal Self, and yet often, when engaged in a change or learning process we skip over the clear formulation or articulation of our Ideal Self image. If a parent, spouse, boss, or teacher, tells us something that should be different, they are giving us *their* version of our Ideal Self. They are telling us about the person *they* want us to be. The extent to which we believe or accept this image determines that extent to which it becomes part of our Ideal Self. Our reluctance to accept others' expectations or wishes for us to change is one of many reasons why we may not live up to others' expectations or wishes, and not change or learn according to their agenda! In current psychology, others' version of what our Ideal Self should be is referred to as the "Ought Self."

The Second Discontinuity: Am I a Boiling Frog?

The awareness of the current self, the person that others see and with whom they interact, is elusive. For normal reasons, the human psyche protects itself from the automatic "intake" and conscious realization of all information about ourselves. These ego-defence mechanisms serve to protect us. They also conspire to delude us into an image of who we are that feeds on itself, becomes self-perpetuating, and eventually may become dysfunctional (Goleman, 1985).

The "boiling frog syndrome" applies here. It is said that if one drops a frog into a pot of boiling water, it will jump out with an instinctive defence mechanism. But if you place a frog in a pot of cool water and gradually increase the temperature, the frog will sit in the water until it is boiled to death. These slow adjustments to changes are acceptable, but the same change made dramatically is not tolerated.

The greatest challenge to an accurate current self-image (i.e., seeing yourself as others see you and consistent with other internal states, beliefs, emotions, and so forth) is the boiling frog syndrome. Several

We may be victims of the expectations of others and the seductive power of popularized images from the media, celebrities, and our reference groups. In his book, *The Hungry Spirit: Beyond Capitalism, A Quest for Purpose in the Modern World* (1997), Charles Handy describes the difficulty of determining his ideal. "I spent the early part of my life trying hard to be someone else. At school I wanted to be a great athlete, at university an admired socialite, afterwards a businessman and, later, the head of a great institution. It did not take me long to discover that I was not destined to be successful in any of these guises, but that did not prevent me from trying, and being perpetually disappointed with myself. The problem was that in trying to be someone else I neglected to concentrate on the person I could be. That idea was too frightening to contemplate at the time. I was happier going along with the conventions of the time, measuring success in terms of money and position, climbing ladders which others placed in my way, collecting things and contacts rather than giving expression to my own beliefs and personality. (pg. 86)" In this way, we allow ourselves to be anesthetized to our dreams and lose sight of our deeply felt Ideal Self.

factors contribute to it. First, people around you may not let you see a change. They may not give you feedback or information about how they see it. Also, they may be victims of the boiling frog syndrome themselves, as they adjust their perception on a daily basis. For example, when seeing a friend's child after two years, you may gasp as to how fast they have grown. Meanwhile, the parent is only aware of the child's growth when they have to buy new shoes, clothes, or a sudden change in the child's hormonal balance leading to previously unlikely behaviour.



Second, enablers, those forgiving the change, frightened of it, or who do not care, may allow it to pass unnoticed. Our relationships and interpersonal context mediate and interpret cues from the environment. They help us interpret what things mean. You ask a friend, "Am I getting fat?" To which she responds, "No, you look great!" Whether this is reassuring to the listener or not, it is confusing and may not be providing feedback to the question asked. Of course, if she had said, "No, it is just the spread of age or normal effects of gravity" you may not have more useful information either.

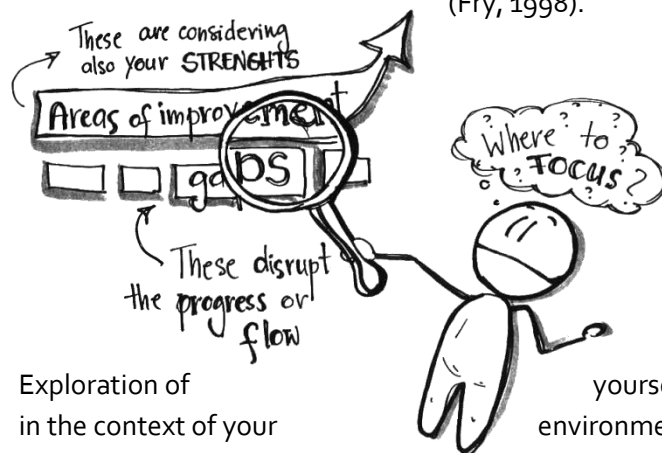
In counselling sessions with effective CEOs and Managing Directors of not-for-profits, I have often been surprised by their lack of seeing themselves as leaders. Others may see them as leaders. Sometimes humility blocks this perception. Sometimes, it is the interpersonal or cultural context. On the planet Krypton, Superman was just another citizen without "supernatural" power. This lack of admitting that which is obvious to others to yourself can also occur when you have prolonged spiritual blackouts, losing sight of your core values and your philosophy.

Some organizational cultures will, as mentioned earlier, encourage a preoccupation with the "gaps." Some individuals have philosophies, or value orientations, that push them to focus on areas of improvement (i.e., a Pragmatic Value Orientation or philosophy, Boyatzis et. al., 2000, or a dominant underlying motive of the Need for Achievement, McClelland, 1985). Some individuals have such a low level of self-confidence or self-esteem that they assume they are unworthy and distrust positive feedback and focus on negative issues and the gaps.

For a person to truly consider changing a part of himself or herself, you must have a sense of what you value and want to keep. Likewise, to consider what you want to preserve about yourself involves admitting aspects of yourself that you wish to change or adapt in some manner. Awareness of these two and exploring them exist in the context of each other.

All too often, people explore growth or development by focusing on the "gaps" or deficiencies. Organizational training programs and managers conducting annual "reviews" often commit the same mistake. There is an assumption that we can "leave well enough alone" and get to the areas that need work. It is no wonder that many of these programs or procedures intended to help

a person develop result in the individual feeling battered, beleaguered and bruised, not helped, encouraged, motivated, or guided. The gaps may get your attention because they disrupt progress or flow (Fry, 1998).



Exploration of yourself in the context of your environment (How am I fitting into this setting? How am I doing in the view of others? Am I part of this group or organization or family?) and examination of your Real Self in the context of your Ideal Self both involve comparative and evaluative judgments. A comprehensive view includes both strengths and weaknesses. That is, to contemplate change, one must contemplate stability. To identify and commit to changing parts of yourself you must identify those parts you want to keep and possibly enhance. In this way, adaptation does not imply or require "death" but evolution of the self.

There are four major "learning points" from the first two discontinuities in the self-directed learning process:

- 1) Engage your passion and create your dreams; and
- 2) Know thyself!
- 3) Identify or articulate both your strengths (those aspects of yourself you want to preserve) and your gaps or discrepancies of your Real and Ideal Selves (those aspects of yourself you want to adapt or change); and
- 4) Keep your attention on both characteristics, forces or factors—do not let one become the preoccupation!

All of these learning points can be achieved by finding and using multiple sources for feedback about your Ideal Self, Real Self, Strengths, and Gaps.

The sources of insight into your Real Self can include systematically collecting information from others, such as 360 degree feedback currently considered fashionable in organizations. Other sources of insight into your Real Self, Strengths and Gaps may come from behavioural feedback through videotaped or

audiotaped interactions, such as collected in assessment centres. Various psychological tests can help you determine or make explicit inner aspects of your Real Self, such as values, philosophy, traits, motives, and such.

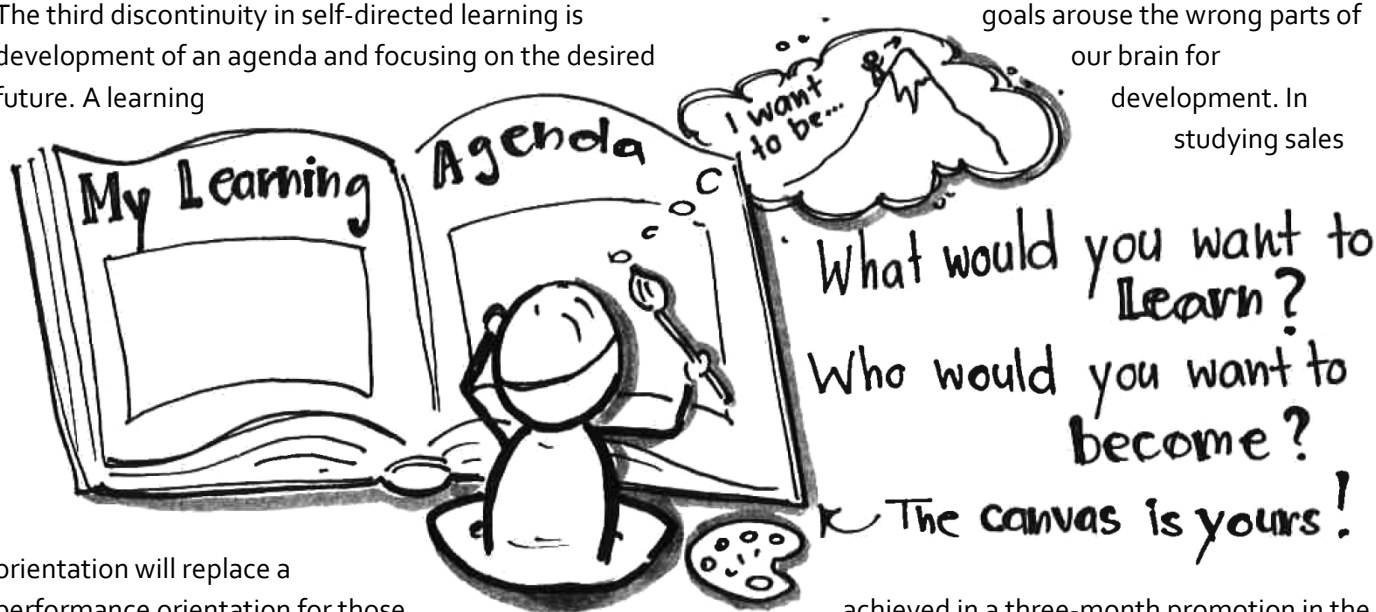
Sources for insight into your Ideal Self are more personal and more elusive than those for the Real Self. Various exercises and tests can help by making explicit various dreams or aspirations you have for the future. Talking with close friends or mentors can help. Allowing

yourself to think about your desired future, not merely your prediction of your most likely future is the biggest obstacle. These conversations and explorations must take place in psychologically safe surroundings. Often, the implicit norms of one's immediate social groups and work groups do not allow nor encourage such discussion. In this case, you may want to search for groups who are considering changing their lives in an academic program, career development workshop, or personal growth experience.

The Third Discontinuity: Mindfulness through a Learning Agenda

The third discontinuity in self-directed learning is development of an agenda and focusing on the desired future. A learning

goals arouse the wrong parts of our brain for development. In studying sales



orientation will replace a performance orientation for those organizations that thrive in the coming decades. While performance at work or happiness in life may be the eventual consequence of our efforts, a learning agenda focuses on development. Individuals with a learning agenda are more adaptive and oriented toward development. In one study, a learning agenda resulted in dramatically better presentations, whereas a performance agenda resulted in people becoming defensive, not wanting to fail or not wanting to look bad, and did not result in increased performance (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999). A learning orientation arouses a positive belief in one's capability and the hope of improvement. A learning agenda helps a person focus on what they want to become. This results in people setting personal standards of performance, rather than "normative" standards that merely mimic what others have done (Beaubien and Payne, 1999). Meanwhile, a performance orientation evokes anxiety and doubts about whether or not we can change (Chen et al, 2000). A performance agenda focuses on success, producing proof of our capability, and getting praise. Performance

achieved in a three-month promotion in the medical supply distribution business, a learning goal orientation predicted sales volume, a performance goal orientation did not.

As part of one of the longitudinal studies at the Weatherhead School of Management, Leonard (1996) showed that MBAs who set goals desiring to change on certain competencies, changed significantly on those competencies as compared to other MBAs. Previous goal setting literature had shown how goals affected certain changes on specific competencies (Locke and Latham, 1990), but had not established evidence of behavioural change on a comprehensive set of competencies that constitute emotional intelligence.

The major learning point from this section crucial in self-directed learning is: *Create your own, personal learning agenda!*

Others cannot tell you how you should change—they may tell you but it will not help you engage in the change process. Parents, teachers, spouses, bosses, and

sometimes even your children will try to impose goals for change or learning. People only learn what they want to learn!

The late 1960's and early 1970's were witness to a widespread program in organizations called Management by Objectives. It was so popular that it spread to other arenas-- you could find books and workshops on Learning by Objectives, Teaching by Objectives, and so on and so forth. In all of these programs, there was one and only one approach to goal setting and planning taught. It specified development of behavioural specific, observable, time-phased, and challenging goals (i.e., involved moderate risk). Unfortunately, the one-size fits all approach lacked a credible alternative until McCaskey (1974) suggested that some people plan by "domain and direction setting." Later, as part of the Weatherhead longitudinal studies, McKee (1991) studied how MBA graduates planned personal improvement. She discovered four different styles of planning: objectives-oriented planning; domain and direction planning; task (or activity) oriented planning; and "present-oriented"

The Fourth Discontinuity: Metamorphosis

The fourth discontinuity and potential start of self-directed learning is to experiment and practice desired changes. Acting on the plan and toward the goals involves numerous activities. These are often made in the context of experimenting with new behaviour. Typically following a period of experimentation, the person practices the new behaviours in actual settings within which they wish to use them, such as at work or at home. During this part of the process, self-directed change and learning begins to look like a "continuous improvement" process.

To develop or learn new behaviour, the person must find ways to learn more from current, or on-going experiences. That is, the experimentation and practice does not always require attending "courses" or a new activity. It may involve trying something different in a current setting, reflecting on what occurs, and experimenting further in this setting. Sometimes, this part of the process requires finding and using opportunities to learn and change. People may not even think they have changed until they have tried new behaviour in a work or "real world" setting. Rhee (1997) studied full-time MBA students in one of the Weatherhead cadres over a two-year period. He

planning. The latter appeared as an existential orientation to one's involvement in developmental activities, and could be considered a non-planning style.

A major threat to effective goal setting and planning is that people are already busy and cannot add anything else to their lives. In such cases, the only success with self-directed change and learning occurs if people can determine what to say "no" to and stop some current activities in their lives to make room for new activities.

Another potential challenge or threat is the development of a plan that calls for a person to engage in activities different than their preferred learning style or learning flexibility (Kolb, 1984; Boyatzis, 1994). In such cases, a person commits to activities, or action steps in a plan that require a learning style which is not their preference or not within their flexibility. When this occurs, a person becomes demotivated and often stops the activities, or becomes impatient and decides that the goals are not worth the effort.

interviewed, tested, and video and audio-taped them about every six to eight weeks. Even though he found evidence of significant improvements on numerous interpersonal abilities by the end of the second semester of their program, the MBA students did not perceive that they had changed or improved on these abilities until after they returned from their summer internships.

Dreyfus (1990) studied managers of scientists and engineers who were considered superior performers. Once she documented that they used considerably more of certain abilities than their less effective counterparts, she pursued how they developed some of those abilities. One of the distinguishing abilities was Group Management, also called Team Building. She found that many of these middle-aged managers had first experimented with team building skills in high school and college, in sports, clubs, and living groups. Later, when they became "bench scientists and engineers" working on problems in relative isolation, they still pursued use and practicing of this ability in activities outside of work. They practiced team building and group management in social and community

organizations, such as 4-H Clubs, and professional associations in planning conferences and such.

The experimentation and practice are most effective when they occur in conditions in which the person feels safe (Kolb and Boyatzis, 1970b). This sense of

The Fifth Discontinuity: Relationships that Enable Us to Learn

Our relationships are an essential part of our environment. The most crucial relationships are often a part of groups that have particular importance to us. These relationships and groups give us a sense of identity, guide us as to what is appropriate and "good" behaviour, and provide feedback on our behaviour. In sociology, they are called reference groups. These relationships create a "context" within which we interpret our progress on desired changes, the utility of new learning, and even contribute significant input to formulation of the Ideal (Kram, 1996). In this sense, our relationships are mediators, moderators, interpreters, sources of feedback, sources of support and permission of change and learning! They may also be the most important source of protection from relapses or returning to our earlier forms of behaviour. Wheeler (1999) analyzed the extent to which the MBA graduates worked on their goals in multiple "life spheres" (i.e., work, family, recreational groups, etc.). In a two-year follow-up study of two of the graduating classes of part-time MBA students, she found those who worked on their goals and plans in multiple sets of relationships improved the most and more than those working on goals in only one setting, such as work or within one relationship.

In a study of the impact of the year-long executive development program for doctors, lawyers, professors, engineers, and other professionals mentioned earlier, Ballou et. al. (1999) found that participants gained self-confidence during the program. Even at the beginning of the program, others would say these participants were very high in self-confidence. It was a curious finding! The best explanation came from follow-up questions to the graduates of the program. They explained the evident increase in Self-confidence as an increase in the confidence to change. Their existing reference groups (i.e., family, groups at work, professional groups, community groups) all had an investment in them staying the same, meanwhile the

psychological safety creates an atmosphere in which the person can try new behaviour, perceptions, and thoughts with relatively less risk of shame, embarrassment, or serious consequences of failure.

person wanted to change. The Professional Fellows Program allowed them to develop a new reference group that encouraged change!

Based on social identity, reference group, and now relational theories, our relationships both mediate and moderate our sense of who we are and who we want to be. We develop or elaborate our Ideal Self from these contexts. We label and interpret our Real Self from these contexts. We interpret and value Strengths (i.e., aspects considered our core that we wish to preserve) from these contexts. We interpret and value Gaps (i.e., aspects considered weaknesses or things we wish to change) from these contexts.

The major learning points from the fourth and fifth discontinuities critical in self-directed learning process are:

1. Experiment and practice and try to learn more from your experiences!
2. Find settings in which you feel psychologically safe within which to experiment and practice! And
3. Develop and use your relationships as part of your change and learning process!



Signposts on the Path to Change and Learning

In guiding yourself or others through the self-directed learning process, the learning points can be used as signposts, or benchmarks. If you do not feel that you have addressed the learning point, do not bother attempting to move forward. The process needs to slow down and either wait for the person to reach the learning point, or try another way to help the person. Please remember, people do not gain these discoveries or experience the epiphany of the discontinuity in a smooth manner. One person may take minutes to achieve a breakthrough of one discovery, and yet another discovery may take several days, weeks, months, or even years.

The signposts on the path to self-direct learning are:

- 1) *Has the person engaged their passion and dreams? Can they describe the person they want to be, the life and work they want to have in the future? Can they describe their Ideal Self?*
- 2) *Does the person know himself or herself? Do they have a sense of their Real Self?*
- 3) *Can the person articulate both their strengths (those aspects he/she wants to preserve) and gaps or discrepancies between their Real and Ideal Selves (those aspects he/she wants to adapt or change)?*
- 4) *Has the person help their attention on both Strengths and Gaps— not letting one become the preoccupation?*
- 5) *Does the person have their own personal learning agenda? IS it really their own? Can the elements of the plan fit into the structure of their life and work? Do the actions fit with their learning style and flexibility?*
- 6) *Is the person experimenting and practicing new habits and actions? Is the person using their learning plan to learn more from their experiences?*
- 7) *Has the person found settings in which to experiment and practice in which he/she feels psychologically safe?*
- 8) *Is the person developing and utilizing his/her relationships as part of their learning process? Do they have coaches, mentors, friends, and others with whom they can discuss progress on their learning agenda? Do they have relationships with whom they can explore each their new behaviour, habits, new Ideal Self, new Real Self, new strengths and gaps as the process unfolds?*
- 9) *Are they helping others engage in a self-directed learning process?*

Concluding Thought

Our future may not be entirely within our control, but most of what we become is within our power to create. Hopefully, the self-directed learning process described in this chapter can provide a roadmap and guidance for how to increase the effectiveness of your change and learning efforts. As a concluding thought, I offer a few lines from the 1835 John Anster translation of Goethe's *Faustus: A Dramatic Mystery*. In the Prologue to the Theater, he says:

***"What you can do, or dream you can, begin it,
Boldness has genius, power and magic in it!"***

Extract from: Unleashing the Power of Self-Directed Learning. Richard E. Boyatzis, PhD, May 28, 2001 (full text can be found on Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, www.eiconsortium.org)

Multiple Intelligence Theory

(According to Howard Gardner)

Every parent dreams of a successful realization of their children and every teacher strives to convey their experience to their students so that they become independent, successful and excel in what they do.

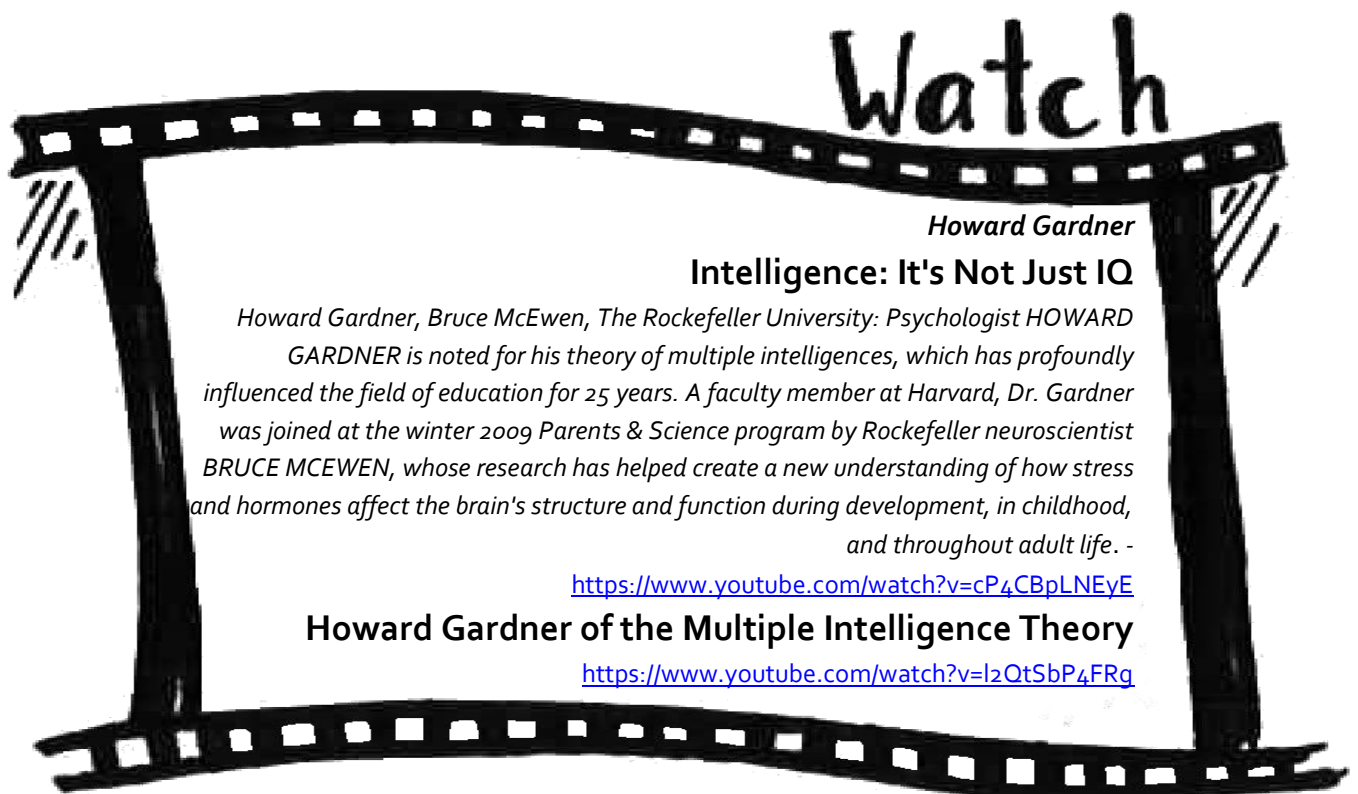
For this to happen, however, we need to teach, develop and grow our children, taking into account their individual characteristics like: temperament, interests, natural talents and not least the type of intelligence. It is necessary to observe children, to analyze the observations and to understand what their strengths are.

People acquire knowledge in different ways and everyone has their own unique mental abilities and talents. We in the role of teachers or parents must comply with this.

In his book "Theory of Multiple Intelligence" (1983) the American psychologist Howard Gardner refutes the traditional understanding of the psychometric intelligence. According to him, there is no single intelligence that is able to be measured by standard IQ tests. Rather, there are multiple intelligences, which are independent of one another. According to the author all human beings possess all types of intelligence, but to varying degrees.

Gardner originally stated seven types of intelligences and later on added two more:

Linguistic - includes the ability to operate with words verbally (storytellers, speakers, politicians) as well as in writing (poets, writers, playwrights, journalists, editors). The established nowadays pedagogical practice requires above all the development of this type of intelligence. At school students listen, write, read and speak. Children who belong to this type from an early age love order, they are systematic and feel better with rules and structure and are able to think logically. They love to listen, learn at early age to speak, write and read properly. They have good memory, so they remember easily and with pleasure. They don't feel embarrassed in front of audience and willingly recite verses. They easily learn foreign languages and the best way to train them is through stories – for the youngest fairy tales and for the youths - stories, debates and discussions.



Logical-mathematical - this is the ability to operate with numbers (mathematicians, accountants, statisticians) and think rationally (scientists, computer programmers, logicians). This intelligence is also actively presented in school curricula.

If your child has this kind of intelligence, you will quickly notice that it loves above all accuracy, is amazingly organized, has abstract thinking and likes maths. Such children from an early age show interested in computers and easily do logical experiments to solve problems. They also deal successfully with physics and chemistry - subjects that require precision, logic and develop a special mindset. To attract their interest, you have to give them various tasks and to use visualised charts and tables, to offer them various experiments and mathematical games.

Musical - this is the ability to perceive and evaluate music (musical critic), to create and transform (composer) and to perform (actor, singer). One, who has developed musical intelligence, easily remembers melodies and is able to reproduce them. Such people are also very receptive to rhythm.

In children, this is manifested by their interest in the sounds. They are sensitive to sound tones, rhythm and tempo and perceive music very emotionally. Even from an early age they are able to understand complex musical forms. They are very emotional and have developed intuition, so in the learning process of this type of children is better to use their favorite music. Also pay attention to the rhythm of your speech. Good understanding and retention depend not only on what you say, but also on how exactly your words sound.

Body - kinaesthetic - It includes the ability to use one's body to express themselves, to communicate feelings and emotions through movement (athlete, dancer, actor) to use their hands to transform various objects (craftsman, sculptor, engineer, surgeon). Such people are very skilful and quick in their actions.

Children with this type of intelligence are characterized by good coordination - they have very accurate control of their body and feel the rhythm very well. They have quick reactions, well developed body reactions and quickly learn handling objects and tools. After all, such children love to act, to move, they are in a hurry to touch everything and best not through visualizations but by touching and even tasting. They remain indifferent to the pictures and visual images, and perceive the world through tactile sensations so they remember what they have done, not what they have heard or read. They learn better when they act and play with objects while listening to information. They quickly switch their attention as a result of which appear concentration problems that parents often take for laziness, forgetfulness and unwillingness to focus. It would be better for the children to receive the information by means of movements (as in rap), to use visual models that can be touched and played with. These children need frequent breaks during which to play, jog or do some exercise.

Visual - spatial – this is the gift to perceive the world visually and to analyze this information (hunter, scout, guide), as well as to transform space (architect, artist, inventor, interior designer). People with this type of intelligence are receptive to colors, shapes, lines and relationships between objects in space. They can graphically express their ideas.

If you notice that the child thinks in pictures, creates visual images, remembers better, precisely with the help of pictures, then it is typical for this type of intelligence. Such children often use metaphors in their stories, easily read maps, tables and charts and are sensitive to the colors and shapes of the surrounding objects. They show interest in the visual arts, so to stimulate their interest is better to use illustrations of the studied material. Thanks to visual images children will more easily consolidate their knowledge and will remember what is otherwise difficult to perceive through logic

Interpersonal - the ability to detect moods, motivations, intentions and emotions of other people. This is also the ability to communicate, i.e. exchange information with other people in verbal and nonverbal way by sign language, music and speech (salespeople, politicians, managers, teachers, social workers). Children of this type of intelligence can talk and negotiate from an early age, and love being among people. When they grow up, they acquire the ability to recognize other people's thoughts and planning, thus they often begin to manipulate people. Such children have many friends, show activity among people and prefer to mediate in disputes and conflicts.

Given joy of communicating with people, this type of child best perceives knowledge namely in the team, so do not try to keep it home with the hope that it will focus and learn lessons better. Teach them by involving them in group work, discussions, disputes and give them the opportunity to express their views. Encourage these children by giving them opportunity to take part in additional classes.

Intrapersonal – raised awareness and sensitivity about self, understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses, limiting beliefs, motivations, attitudes, desires and emotions. Such people also have high levels of self-control, self-understanding and self-esteem (psychologist, psychiatrist and philosopher). This type of intelligence is manifested through other types defined by Gardner.

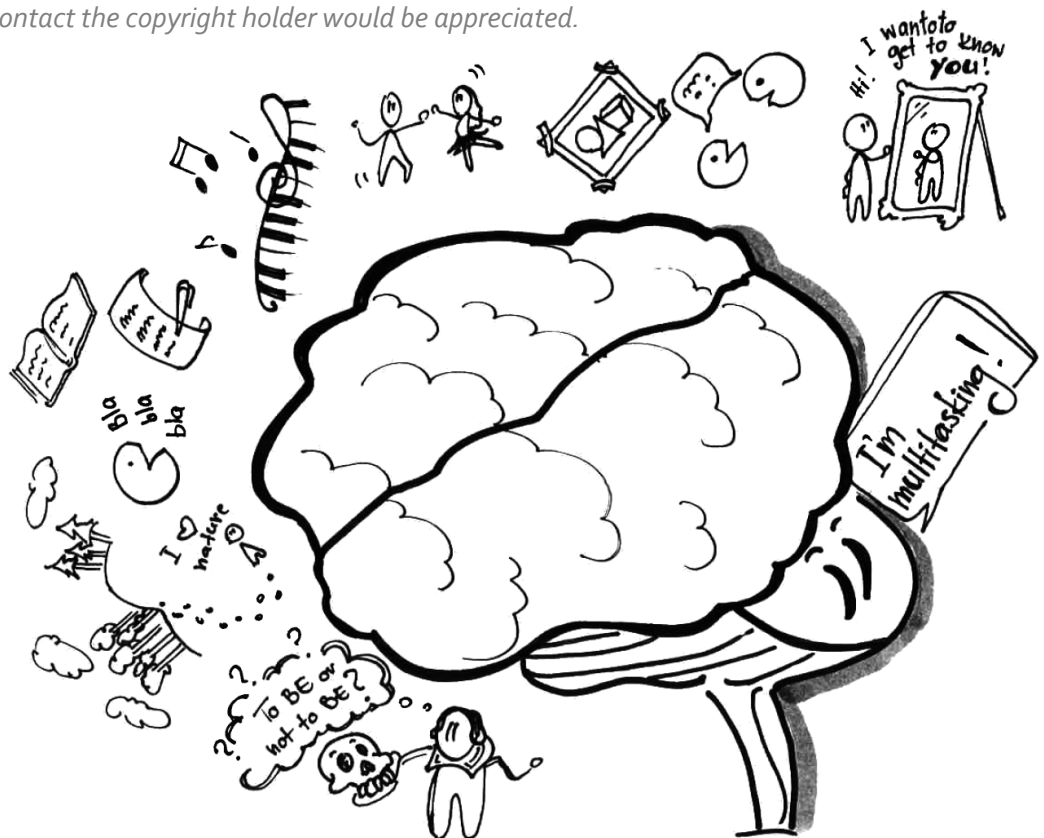
Children with this kind of intuitive intelligence are inclined to self-knowledge, even self-examination. These introverted by nature children deeply feel their strengths and weaknesses, better understand their own mental turmoil. From an early age they have their own values and purpose in life. Their actions are guided by a strong intuition, self-motivation and desire to excel. Their inner harmony is sometimes disturbed by the constant running of deep analysis of personal experiences.

Educating them you have to provide these children with the opportunity for self-organized learning process. They do not need control, they are organized enough themselves. Such children should not be forced, because that will only strengthen their resistance and their desire to close even more in themselves and this will not lead to anything good.

Naturalistic - naturalists have the ability to understand nature and to detect regularities; navigate among many living organisms (botanist, veterinarian, forester). They are also sensitive and care about certain features of the world around them (meteorologist, geologist, archaeologist). These children love to be outside and their learning process is most effective during trips, green schools and other forms where they will have the opportunity to explore things that excite them.

Existential – the ability and willingness to formulate questions about life, death, and other existential questions.

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.



Social Learning Theory and Self-efficacy

(According to Albert Bandura)

The approach to social learning of Albert Bandura complements the social learning theory of Rotter. Bandura explains the ways in which people acquire a variety of complex behaviors in a social environment. His main idea is **learning by observation**.

Basic concepts

Bandura believes that **there is a reciprocal relationship between the behavior, personality variables and variables of the environment**. People are not just driven by

internal forces, nor are they pawns in the hands of some phenomena of the environment. We are being influenced, but in turn we also exert influence. Bandura says that the vast majority of learning in humans includes modelling, observation and imitation. In fact, he argues that a huge part of human learning happens without the usual backup, which requires the principles of **operant** and **classical conditioning**. People can learn also in the absence of rewards and punishments. This does not mean that the backup is irrelevant. In fact, once the behavior is learned, backup is very important in determining whether it will appear.

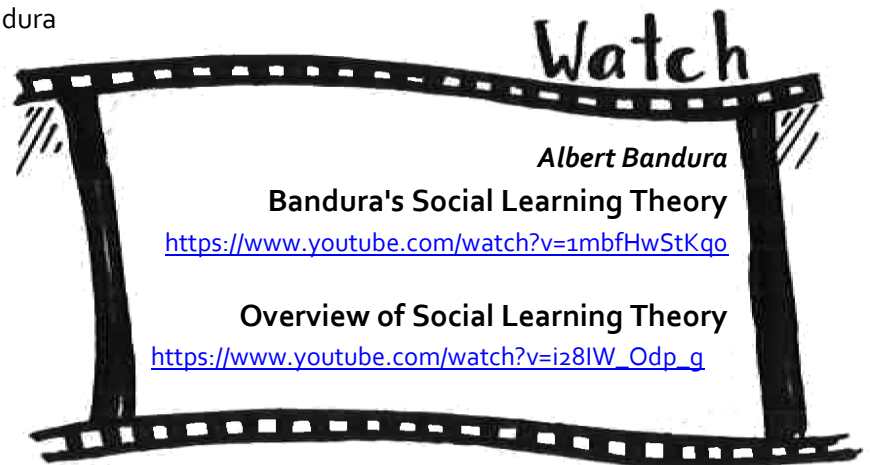
Cognitive focus

In order to explain the phenomena of learning through observation, Bandura assumes that we use symbolic representations of the events of the environment. Without such symbolic activity it is difficult to explain the extraordinary flexibility of human behavior. His thesis is that the behavioral changes that occur through both classical and instrumental conditioning and by damping and punishment are actively mediated by cognition. Critical for human behavior are also the self-regulatory processes. People regulate their behavior by imagining consequences. Thus, the relationship between the stimulus and response is influenced by these processes of self-control.

Theory

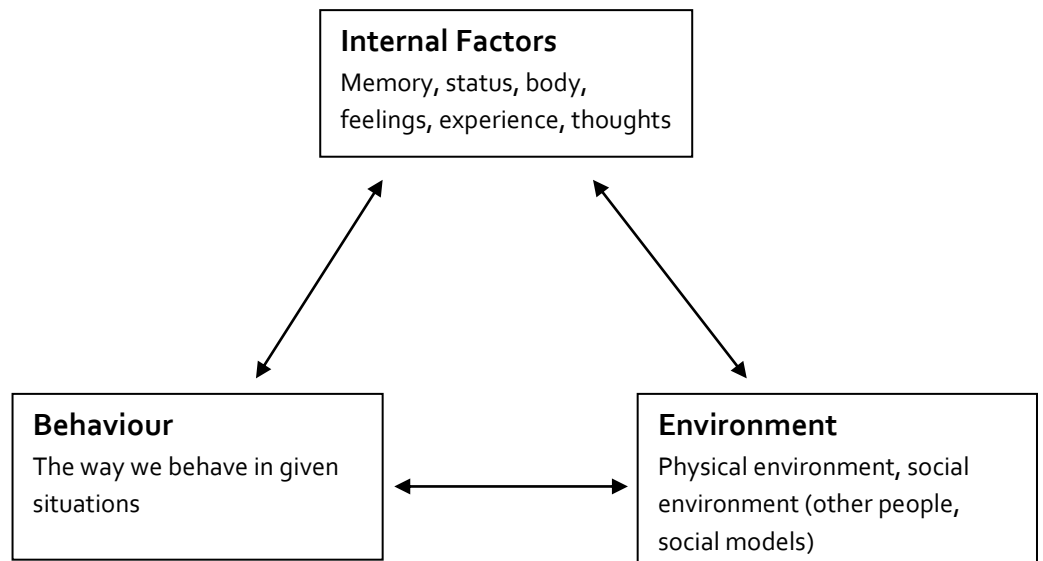
Behaviorism focuses primarily on experimental methods and on the variables that we can observe, measure and change. It avoids all that is subjective, internal, not subject to measurement – i.e. mental or spiritual. By the experimental method, the standard procedure is to amend a variable and then to measure the effect it has on other variable. Thereby, it is laying the foundations of the theory of personality, according to which environment shapes the attitude.

Bandura considers this as overly simplistic, especially in terms of the phenomenon which he observes - aggression in adolescents. He decided to add something to the formula: he agrees that environment forms the behavior, but he adds that behavior can also shape and change the environment. This is how the idea of **reciprocal determinism** was born. The behavior of the world to human and that of the human to the world are interrelated.



After a while Bandura goes even further. He began to consider personality as an interaction among three "things": environment, behavior and psychological processes. These psychological processes are embedded in our ability to build and use images in our mind and language. By the moment he introduces the idea of images, Bandura is no more a strict behaviorist and enters the field of cognitivism. In fact, he is often considered as the "father" of the cognitive movement!

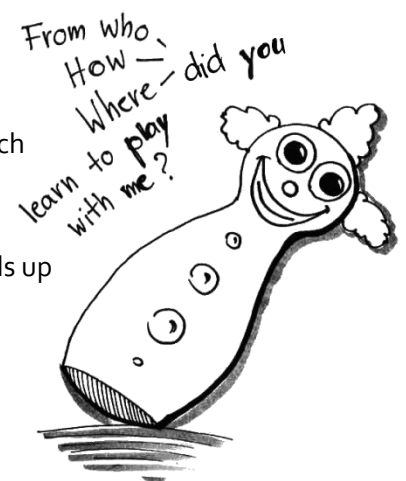
Adding images and language to the established essence, allows him to theorize much more efficiently than someone like, say, Skinner, on two things, considered by many to be the "strong hand" of the human species: learning by observation (modeling) and self-control.



Learning through observation and modeling

Among the hundreds of studies Bandura made, one group rises above the rest - research with the Bobo doll. Bandura made a film with one of his female students, young woman hitting Bobo doll. In case you do not know, Bobo doll is an inflatable doll in the shape of an egg, which has weight at the bottom, so if you hit and knock it, it stands up alone. Nowadays it can be painted with the image of Darth Vader, but in those times it was simply the Bobo-clown.

The woman from the movie was hitting the clown, screaming, kicking it, sitting on it, imposed it with his little hammer, etc., shouting various aggressive phrases. Bandura showed this film to a group of children in the kindergarten and as you might guess, a lot of them liked it. Then they let the children play. In the playroom, of course, attended several observers handed with pens and notepads, brand new Bobo doll and several small hammers.



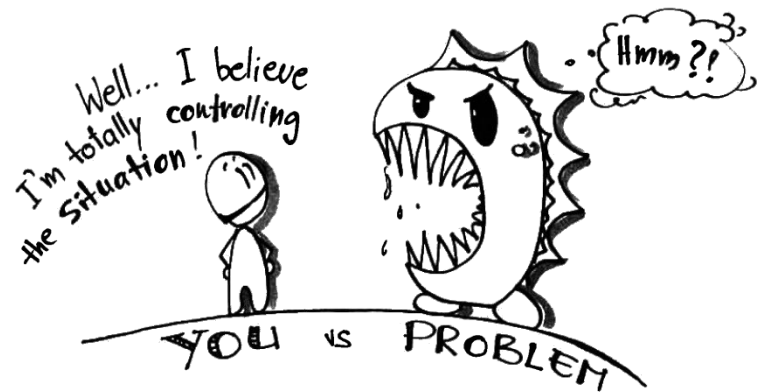
You can guess what the observers have recorded: many small children outrageously beating up the Bobo doll. They hit and kicked it, screamed at it, sat on it and imposed it with their little hammers, etc. In other words, they imitated the actions of the young lady from the movie pretty good.

This may not seem like an experiment at first, but consider: These children changed their behavior without earlier being awarded for imitating the actions of the woman in the movie! And while this story may not sound unusual for the average parent, teacher or observer of children, it does not fit particularly standard, existing at the time of behavioral learning theory. Bandura named this phenomenon "learning by observation" or "modeling" and his theory is usually called "the theory of social learning."

He makes a large number of variations of the study: the model is rewarded or punished in various ways, children are encouraged to imitate, the model changes becoming more attractive or less prestigious, etc. In response to criticism that Bobo dolls were invented to be hit, Bandura even makes a movie with a young woman hitting a real

clown. When children go to another room, they found there a real clown! Although, this was no longer a doll, they continued to beat him, kicked, tossed him with small hammers, etc.

All these options help Bandura to find out that there are some steps in the modeling process:



1. Attention. If you learn something, you have to be careful. Also, everything that mutes attention leads to reduced learning including learning by observation. For example, if you are sleepy, tired, sick, nervous or excited, you will not learn as well. The same applies if you are distracted by competing stimuli.

Some things that affect the level of attention include the characteristics of the model. If the model is colorful and dramatic, for example, we pay more attention to it. It is the same if the model is attractive, prestigious, or appears very capable. Furthermore, if the model looks similar to yourself, it is more likely that you pay more attention. These kinds of variables directed Bandura to study the effects of television on children!

2. Retention/Memory. Secondly, you should be able to retain, i.e. save what you have payed attention to. Here the images and language are highlighted: we store what we have seen the model doing in the form of mental images or verbal descriptions. After being stored this way, you can later take out an image or description, so that you replicate it with your own behavior.

3. Initiation/Motor. Up to this point you just sit and fantasize. You have to turn the images and descriptions into real action. Therefore, it is necessary to first have the ability to initiate such behavior. I can watch the Olympic figure skaters all day and still I cannot perform their jumps, because I cannot even skate! On the other hand, if I could skate, my performance would be improved after I watching better skaters than myself.

Another important aspect of initiation is that our ability to imitate improves by exercising being 'switched on'. Moreover: our skills improve even when we only imagine how we do it! Many athletes, for example, imagine in detail their actions during the race long before it begins.

4. Motivation. And even with all these factors, you would not do anything unless you are motivated to imitate, i.e. until you have a reason to do it. Bandura mentions several motives:

Previous empowerment (according to traditional behaviorism);

Promised empowerment (encouragement) - which we imagine;

Foreign empowerment - when we see or hear how other people's model was supported.

Note that those are traditionally considered as factors that "cause" learning. But according to Bandura those reasons cause not so much learning as they provoke us to demonstrate what we have learned.

Of course, negative motivation can also occur by giving you reasons not to imitate someone:

Previous punishment;

Promised punishment (threats);

Foreign punishment.

Like most traditional behaviourists Bandura also says that punishment in all its forms, is not as effective as empowerment, and in fact it has even a tendency to backfire.

Self-control

Self-control or the control over our own behavior is the other "cornerstone" of the human person. Bandura states three stages:

- 1. Self-observation** - observe oneself, our behaviour and monitor its development.
- 2. Assessment.** We compare what we see to some standard. For example, we can compare our performance to traditional standards, such as the rules of good behavior. Or we can create our own relative standards, such as: "I will read one book per week." Also we can compare with others.

3. Response to self. If you do well by comparison with the standard, you give yourself a positive response. If you perform poorly - the response is punishment. These responses to self can range from the obvious (to award yourself with ice cream or work late) to the hidden (to feel pride or shame).

A very important idea in psychology, which can be well explained by self-control, is the image of yourself (better known as self-esteem). If over the years you find out that your responses to the standards of life bring you praise or reward, you will have a pleasant image of yourself (self-esteem). If, on the other hand, you notice that you always fail in your attempts to meet the standards - you tend to punish yourself and you will have bad self-image (self-esteem).

Remember that most behaviorists generally consider empowerment as effective and punishment as problematic. The same applies for self-punishment. Bandura displayed three possible consequences of excessive self-toss:

Compensation - for example, a complex of superiority or feeling powerful;

Inactivity - apathy, boredom, depression;

Escape - acceptance of drugs and alcohol, too much watching TV, closing oneself in a world of fantasies or even the ultimate form of escapism – suicide.

These have some similarity to the unhealthy personalities Adler and Horney speak about: aggressive, obeying or avoiding type.

Bandura's recommendation to those who suffer from poor self-image comes directly from the three steps of self-control:

Relating to self-observation – know yourself!

Make sure you have an accurate picture of your own behavior;

Relating to standards - make sure your standards are not too high. Do not bet on failure from the very beginning! Standards that are too low on the other hand, are useless;

Related to the response to yourself - use rewards rather than punishments for yourself. Celebrate your victories, don't live with failures.

Tips & Tricks



Transmission of emotions

Your emotion is transmitted to the people you work with. If you feel unwell, worried or insecure, when you're in front of a group of youngsters or adults, they will sense it. So what is left for us is always being ourselves, as we are, real and alive.



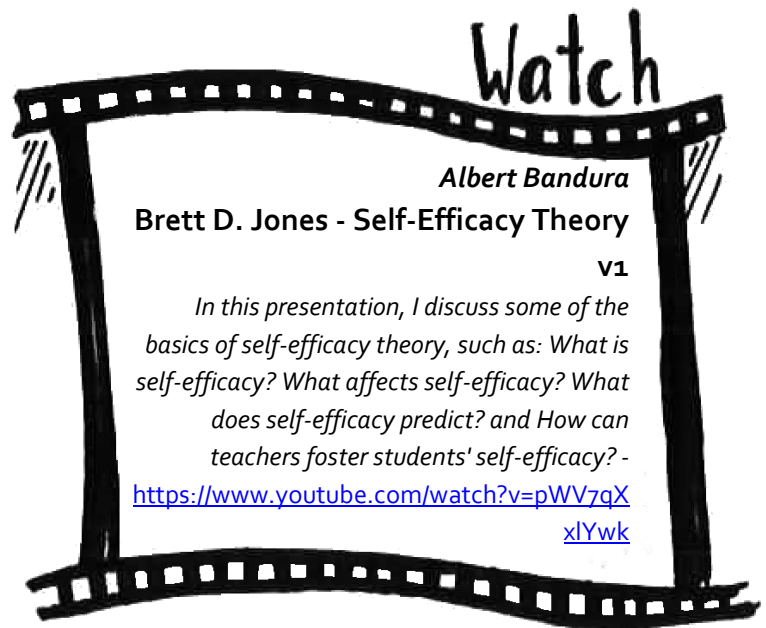
Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a concept introduced by Albert Bandura and is defined as "people's faith in their ability to achieve certain level in their actions so that it can influence events that affect their lives." Belief in self-efficacy determines how people live, think, their motives and behavior. The researchers found that - a strong sense of personal effectiveness is associated with better health, with personal well-being, higher performance and better social integration. According to A. Bandura, our sense of efficiency and agility, on the one hand is a product of social learning models of behavior of significant people in our environment. On the other, it is the social cognitive theory and the concept of "self-efficacy".

The social cognitive theory of Bandura supports the basic principles of behaviorism, but introduces the concept of cognitive processes as mediators between stimulus and response. The main difference between the views of Skinner and Bandura - two prominent representatives of the behavioral psychology is that Skinner believes that learning results from personal experience reinforcements and therefore highlights the pivotal role of empowerment schedules. According to Bandura learning is possible through empathical experience, i.e. not only by monitoring the behavior of other people, but also the consequences / reinforcements they receive afterwards. By learning through empathy and observation it is not necessary to personally experience the reinforcements.

The subjective sense of high self-efficacy is close to Rotter's concept known as internal "locus of control" as it relates to taking responsibility for the course of your own life and for a more active role in determining its direction. Bandura clearly distinguishes the two concepts. He defines self-efficacy as the inner belief in one's own ability to cope with difficult situations and make decisions quickly, results oriented and in competent manner. The concept of self-efficacy is summarized like this: "our own sense of value or self-esteem, sense of adequacy, efficiency and competence in dealing with the problems."

People with high self-efficacy believe that they are able to cope with the difficulties and perceive them as challenges. Such features demonstrate also people with high personal sustainability. It is possible that the belief



of personal self-efficacy can support the personal sustainability as personality traits. The same personal characteristics observed in people with high measures of self-efficacy are associated with high measures of personal sustainability – e.g. full dedication to work and family, professional dedication, higher stress resistance, higher goals and greater perseverance in overcoming difficulties and failures.

High personal effectiveness raises high expectations for success, high confidence in one's own abilities and achievements, faith in the ability to control life events. Bandura's research proved that the belief of high self-efficacy is associated with a number of positive effects:

- getting high grades;
- setting higher personal goals;
- achieve greater success at work;
- better somatic and mental health.

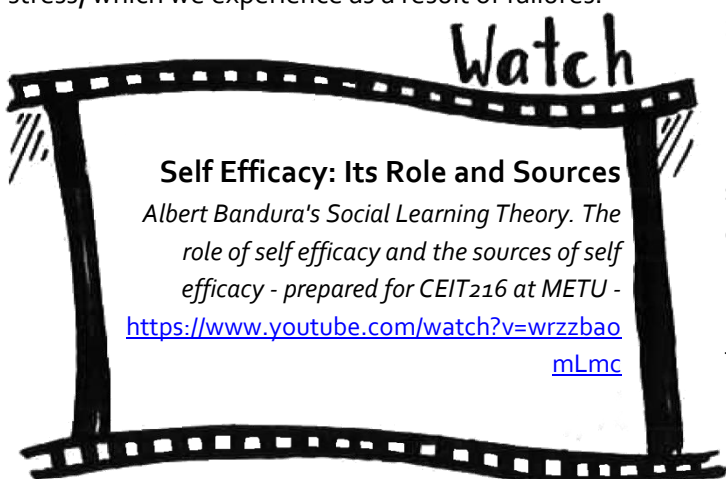
Self-efficacy affects human development and adaptation. It affects the level of human aspirations, strong commitment to achieving the objectives, the quality of analytical thinking, motivation and perseverance in overcoming difficulties and defeats, the processes of causal attribution in success or failure, endurance by unhappiness or distress, vulnerability to stress and depression. The most important feature of people with subjective feeling of low self-efficacy is the lack of faith in their own powers and abilities to deal with difficult and problematic situations. Usually they prefer to give up, even if they encounter little difficulties or problems. They are reluctant to pursue their goals

consistently and hardly believe they have any control over your life and their achievements. Such people prefer to avoid situations that increase internal mental tension, because they relate everything to expectations of failure or poor performance.

Bandura focuses on mediating cognitive processes that guide the behavior of each person. The behavior is motivated by and based on the assessment of the individuals for their own self-efficacy, their mental models and beliefs and their expectations. Bandura distinguishes two types of expectations, which are "conceptualized as beliefs acting as part of the cognitive motivational initiative supporting behavioral engagement":

- expectations related to the results of operations;
- expectations based on the assessment of the individual's own abilities to behave in a way that would lead to the desired results.

Expectations are involved in cognitive motivational processes - if both the expected (related to the effectiveness of one's own behavior and related to outcomes) are high, then motivation and the likelihood of an individual to engage in the execution of a task or behavior will also be high. The main contribution of Bandura is the assumption that behavioral reactions are not so strongly conditioned by real reinforcements as by the expected ones - mental images of the future performance, i.e. by the cognitive processes as mediating variables between environmental stimuli and responses of the individual. The expectation of successful positive result is highly motivating. Self-efficacy is the basis for deciding whether to commit to a task (depending on whether perceive it as a challenge or a threat), what efforts we are willing to lay down, whether we will be persistent or we will give up at the first failures. It influences the level of emotional stress, which we experience as a result of failures.



Assessment precedes motivation, which together with expectations defines our behavior or behavioral strategy. Expectations of low or poor performance generate anxiety. High anxiety would rather motivate the individual to avoid behaviors, which could threaten self-esteem and self-assessment. Escape is one of the possible coping strategies (strategies for coping with stress and anxiety). There is also an alternative coping strategy – resistance or struggle with threatening stimuli and situations, which require certain skills.

The regulatory function of self-efficacy on the overall performance of the individual is explained by the impact of our own effectiveness on four basic psychological processes - cognitive, affective, motivational and selective. Self-efficacy has significant influence of on the cognitive processes, especially on thinking and goal setting. High self-efficacy and belief in one's own abilities leads to the election of tasks with higher difficulty – i.e. setting higher goals. Low self-directed thinking develops a hypothetical, imaginary scenarios related to failure. Usually, in these scenarios the focus of attention is personal ineffectiveness, weaknesses and supposed events that would impede achievement. Belief in the attainability of objectives helps to develop scenarios which include more successful ways of action. High self-efficacy improves analytical thinking, while low self-efficacy focuses on the irrational thinking that prevents proper planning and implementation of actions.

According to Bandura, even when there are well-developed skills, perceptions of low self-efficacy would prevent these skills to be applied successfully. Self-efficacy affects the processes of learning and decision making. It modifies cognitive processes: the processes of analysis of the factors that have led to certain outcomes and the processes of analysis of the expected and foreseeable consequences of our actions. Subjective feeling of high self-efficacy and confidence in our own abilities will encourage efforts and commitment even in the presence of ever-increasing obstacles or constantly increasing pressure to rising social requirements. Tackling ambiguities and contradictions in the information received not only requires good skills in cognitive information processing, but also persistence. The source of persistence is the feeling of high self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy strongly influences the motivational regulation of behavior through the influence of self-

efficacy beliefs in the processes of causal attribution. One is inclined to choose and realize those behaviors which are expected to bring high performance and one believes that they can be achieved through one's own efforts and abilities. Beliefs about self-efficacy affect the level of motivation. Highly motivated people are able to put more effort and be persistent in achieving their goals in a long term. According to Bandura, in case of failure it is normal for a person to experience doubt but highly self-confident individuals very quickly reach the full recovery of high levels of self-efficacy. People who do not believe in their abilities, tend at first encountered obstacles to give up their aspirations. Hence, by failure they recover their confidence slowly and with difficulty.

The influence of the self-efficacy beliefs affects the regulation of affective processes - low self-efficacy and inability to control situations of threat generate high levels of anxiety and internal tensions.

Selective processes are also regulated by beliefs about personal effectiveness. People make choices related to their profession, activities and social environment, as they believe that they have the necessary coping skills. People who believe in self, choose more difficult tasks and are tied to the chosen goals. They are focused on the task and not on their own performance; do not give up at the first difficulty, demonstrate perseverance and persistence in reaching goals. Through the exercise of choices based on the views of self-efficiency, we participate in such situations and activities in which we could demonstrate and even develop our abilities.

Bandura defines self-efficacy as a driving force of personality, which is typical for all people. People are not passively reacting to environmental influences, i. e. it is not that environment controls behavior through incentives that trigger certain reactions but there is room for personal choice based on self-reflection. People are active rather than reactive creatures. The assessment – based on the reflection on behavior, depends on the motivation for the continuation or modification of certain behavior. Reflexive reasoning can compare previous and current results of operations or past performance of the same behavioral strategy. Reflection can be in the direction of considering more successful strategies that are within the capabilities of

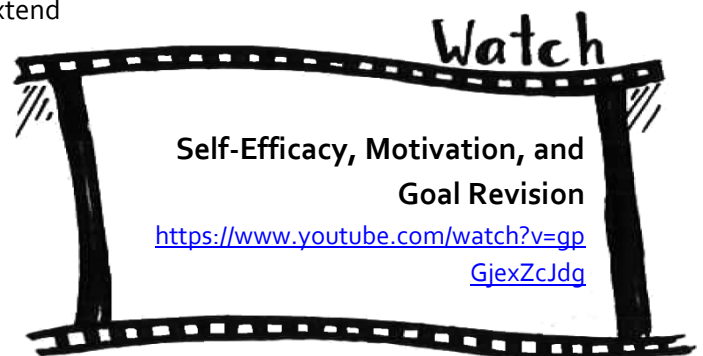
Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.

the individual and that could lead to the desired results in the future. To build one's self-efficacy, a person receives information from four main sources (ways to increase self-efficacy):

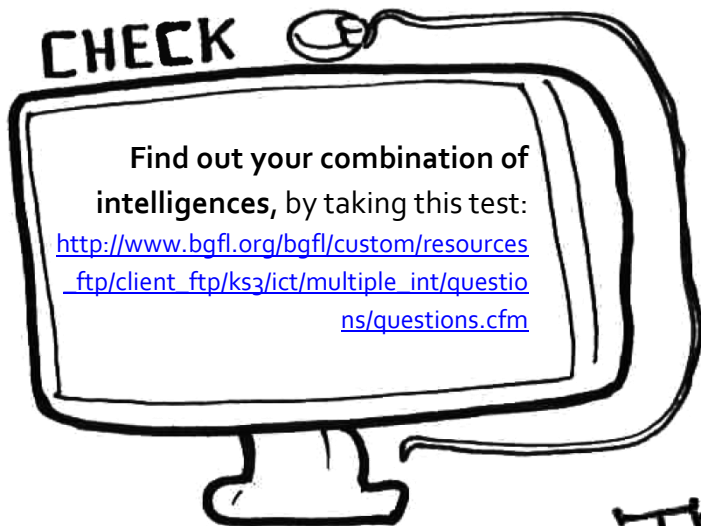
- information based on past performance; (progressive experiences)
- information obtained through observation of people who are perceived as role models; (social models)
- internal persuasion towards stubbornness on doing certain effort; (verbal persuasion)
- psychological state of the individual - the presence of anxiety that will aggravate the use of cognitive skills and course of cognitive processes. (emotional and physiological states)

Important for the formation of one's assessment of their effectiveness is the process of reflection on the results achieved. Also essential is the establishment of successful strategies for action and reporting of failed actions that will drop out of the behavioral repertoire. Neither high self-efficacy nor inner confidence can be expected without a process of reflection about the relationship between actions and their consequences. High self-confidence leads to high motivation and vice versa: the low estimate of self-efficacy is due to low self-confidence and low motivation.

According to Bandura, one's sense of self-efficacy is related to the evaluation of the ability to perform a certain action or behavior which leads to the desired results, but always in a specific situation. Efficiency is not common judgment or predisposition. General applicability (generality) as an attribute of self-efficacy was introduced by Bandura and registers to what extend



expectations in one situation can be expanded and transferred to other similar ones.



Tips & Tricks

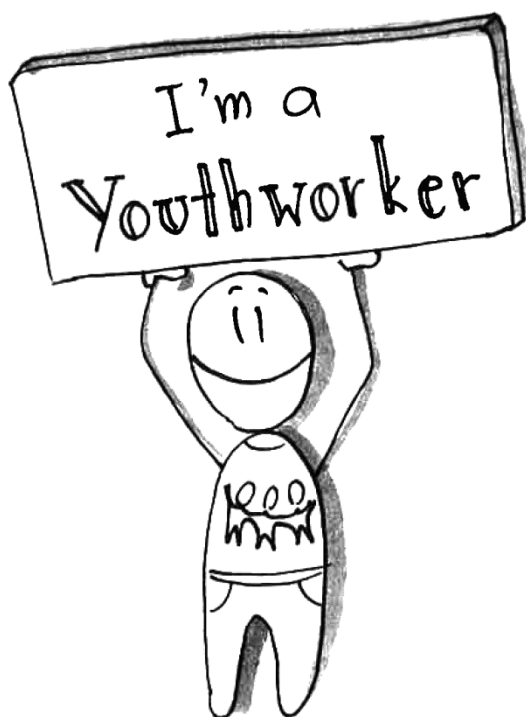


Empowering young people

This theory is a very practical and effective instrument to empower young people. It may take some time until you see the first results and changes in them.

You should:

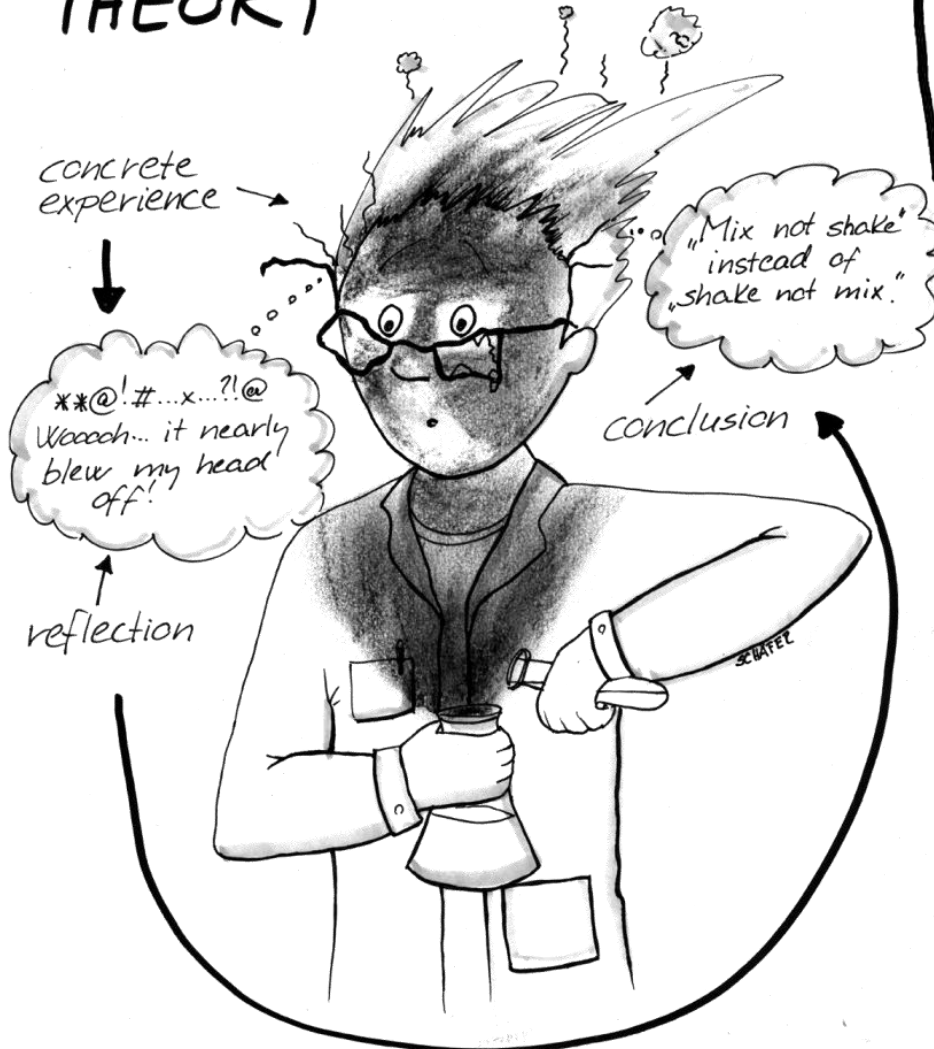
- Tell them often that they are doing great, that they have improved;
- Indicate specific things they are doing better;
- Create learning experiences which can be accomplish and create a sense of personal victory;
- Do all these in an authentic manner, being warm and honest to the youth.



Experiential learning theory

(According to David Kolb)

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY



Tips & Tricks

In experiential learning, the instructor guides rather than directs the learning process where students are naturally interested in learning.

Tips & Tricks

Although learning content is important, learning from the process is at the heart of experiential learning.

Tips & Tricks

The instructor and student may experience success, failure, adventure, risk taking and uncertainty, because the outcomes of the experience cannot totally be predicted.

CHECK

Experiential Learning

Northern Illinois University, Faculty Development and Instructional Design Center -

[http://www.niu.edu/facdev/resources/guide/strategies/experiential learning.pdf](http://www.niu.edu/facdev/resources/guide/strategies/experiential%20learning.pdf)

Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience

David Kolb

David Kolb publishes his model of learning styles in 1984 after years of preparation, research, and development. Apart from the learning styles model the study also includes the Theory of Experiential Learning. In his publications, mostly in the book "Experiential learning: experience as the source of learning and development" Kolb praises the earlier work on experiential learning of Rogers, Jung, Paige (1900). Today Kolb's Learning Styles' Model (MLS) and the Theory of Experiential Learning (TEL) are recognized by academicians, teachers, managers and trainers as the most essential and founding achievement in the field and as a fundamental concept for understanding and explaining the human behavior during learning and when helping the others to learn.

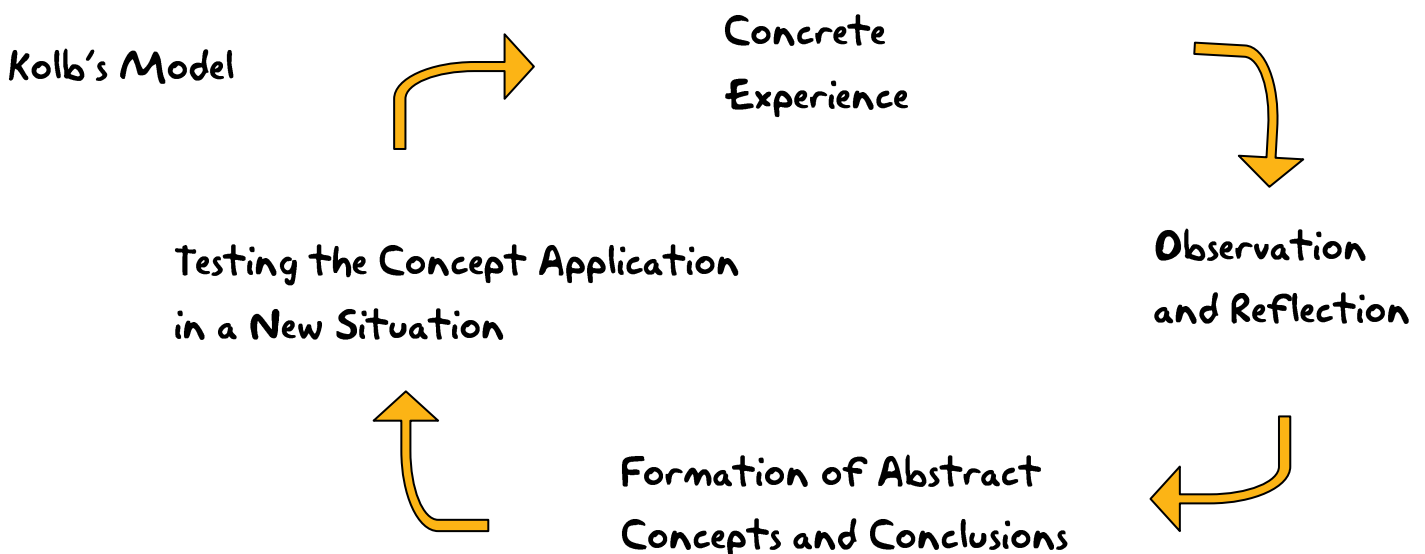
Kolb sets the learning cycle as a main principle in his TEL. The cycle consists of 4 stages:

1. Concrete experience
2. Reflective observation
3. Forming abstract concepts
4. Testing the application of the concept in new situation

The explanation goes like this:

The concrete or direct experiences provide materials for observation and thought. These observations and thoughts lead to realization and formation of abstract concepts. The abstract concepts on their turn can be actively used in new environment and by thus create experiences.

- ☉ In the most ideal case the student faces all stages – of experience, of reflection, of consideration and of application.
- ☉ The learning cycle can start at any of the stages
- ☉ The cycle can be open (a continuous spiral)



The Learning cycle in terms of the process and the facilitator

Concrete Experience

Description

The participants gather information and acquire specific type of experience. The experience is always related to playing games and having fun.

Techniques and Instruments

- Individual and group activities (can be carried out individually, in couples, in a group of three people, small groups, between different group formations or bigger groups)
- Interpersonal interaction
- Almost every activity related to the self-evaluation of the leader
- Creation of products and modules
- Problem solving
- Information sharing
- Giving and receiving of feedback
- Case solving
- Role plays

Purpose

To have a shared experience, to develop a common database to be used during the next stages.

The model is based on inductive learning. That means that a discovery (no matter what happens during a given activity, or if it is expected or not) becomes a base for critical analysis and the participants can acquire knowledge by random discoveries.

Warning!

- The facilitator has to be careful not to generate an excessive amount of information or an environment which will impede the discussion of the results.
- If the process stops after this stage that means that the training is left at fortuity and the facilitator is not capable of achieving the learning goals that were set.

Observation and Reflection

Observation

Description

The participants already have individual and shared experience from a certain activity and discuss what they saw and felt during the event (on cognitive, emotional and behavioral level).

Techniques and Instruments

- Video recording of the events during the first stage (to facilitate the transition from the initial stage, for a latter discussion)
- Sharing in small group and generating information of what the participants felt and saw
- Reflection of the experience of all participants from the big groups on a flipchart
- Use of free associations on various subjects related to the activity from the first stage
- Working in couples questioning each other about the first stage (What? How?)

- Evaluation of productivity, contentment, level of trust, communication, leadership
- Structured interview of the participants about their experience during the activity
- Structured and free-style discussions

Meaning

The personal experience of each participant becomes available to the whole group.

Warning!

The participants have to be kept within the topic of sharing observations and reactions. The facilitator has to be attentive and prevent them from jumping to the Reflection stage or straight to the Summary phase (the deduction of principles on the grounds of what has already happened).

Reflection

Description

This is the so called group dynamics sub-stage of the cycle and can be seen as the most important step in the experiential training. The reflection is a systematic research of the shared experiences of the participants. During the process they reconstruct the models and the interactions from the information sharing activity carried out at the Observation phase. The participants have to answer the question "What actually happened?" in relation to the group dynamics processes and not in relation to the actual meaning of the event.

Techniques and Instruments

- Feedback focused on the roles of the participants and their influence during the activity at the first stage
- Observation of the process by statements, panel discussions
- Thematic discussions in search of repetitive topics in the trainees' statements
- Questionnaires developed for the purpose
- Research of data that was gathered on the previous sub-stage
- Use of key words for direction of discussion

Warning!

- In order to successfully continue to the next step the facilitator has to carefully plan how the information will be processed. "Non-saying" of the things or information which remains unprocessed will prevent the participants from further learning or at least will distract them.
- This stage has to be completely closed before the next one as the feeling (the understanding) of the group dynamics in the activity is crucial for the learning process and the understanding of human relationships out of the training. The participants often try to pass on to the next stage with unprocessed contents.
- After the Reflection sub-stage is closed the participants are ready (and have to be encouraged) to abandon the contents of the group dynamics processes and to focus on the knowledge gathered. This is the moment when the willingness to learn comes to the surface. The next question which has to be answered is: "So what?"

Formation of Abstract Concepts and Conclusions

Description

The participants research the previously gathered knowledge in an artificial learning environment and try to transfer it to the real world. They examine situations in their personal and professional life which are similar to the ones experienced during the training. The task is to extract some general principles or rules from the previous stage which can be applied in real life.

Techniques and Instruments

- Individual analyses (written and oral) such as: "I have learned..."; "I am starting to learn..."; "I have learned again..."
- Writing and declaration of statements of what is true and applicable in real world
- Completion of sentences: "The effectiveness of the situational leadership depends on...."
- Focusing on the process of summarizing key concepts such as leadership, communication, feelings, etc. through discussion
- Development of products which visualize the conclusions
- At this stage the facilitator can present theoretical material in the form of a lecture to add to the learning. This technique gives a learning framework of what was created inductively and to some extent aims to check the realistic orientation of the process. The information introduced by the facilitator has to be directly related to the conclusions made by the participants. The risk of using this technique is that if the external information is not internalized (without sense of ownership) it can encourage the dependency of the participants from the facilitator as a source of knowledge and can lead to a decrease of their dedication during the final stage. The last is a common phenomenon during the deductive process.

Purpose

The structured experience becomes useful in practice.

Warning!

- In fact this stage aims to transfer in practice what was learnt during the structured experience. If this process is omitted or varnished the learning will look artificial and be inapplicable in practice.
- The facilitator has to stay objective about the knowledge gathered, noting only the reactions of the participants to the conclusions which seem contradictory or incomplete.
- If the purpose of the stage is omitted or remains unclear to the participants it is very likely that the knowledge will be superficial.
- The conclusion phase has to be completed before opening a discussion for the changes needed because often the participants are impatient about the final stage of the training cycle.

Testing the Concept Application in a New Situation

Description

This last step of the cycle of experiential learning is the reason for which the structured experience was created. The main question here is: "Now what?" The facilitator helps the participants to apply the generalizations in actual situations in which they get included. The possibility that the knowledge gets perceived and intern-analyzed can be reduced by ignoring the discussion. Particular attention should be paid in examining the ways in which the individual (or the group) will use the knowledge generated during the structured experience in order for them to plan more effective behavior.

Techniques and Instruments

- Consulting in groups of two or three people
- Helping each other during the problematic situation in real life and application of the conclusions
- Goal setting - development of applications about desired criteria such as performance at work, realism, observation
- Small groups - discussion of the specific conclusions about what can be achieved more effectively
- Practical sessions – role plays related to practicing the "new behavior" in real situations
- The experience shows that the participants are more eager to apply the change or the new knowledge if they already shared it with others. The sharing of the acquired knowledge encourages the others to experiment with their own behavior.

Something else:

- It is important to mention that all of the time we speak about a learning cycle which means that the application of the knowledge leads to new experience that is examined inductively.
- In fact the structured experience contributes to the use of the daily experience as a source of information for the conscious studying of the human relationships. Such education is part of our daily life as we never stop studying.
- The main goal of the training is the transfer of the knowledge gathered from training programs to situations at the working place or from a training situation to our personal and professional daily life.
- The achievement of the experiential learning is that it creates a sense of belonging to what was learnt by the development of all steps of the learning cycle. The applications of the model underline the necessity of adequate planning and enough time secured for every stage of the cycle.

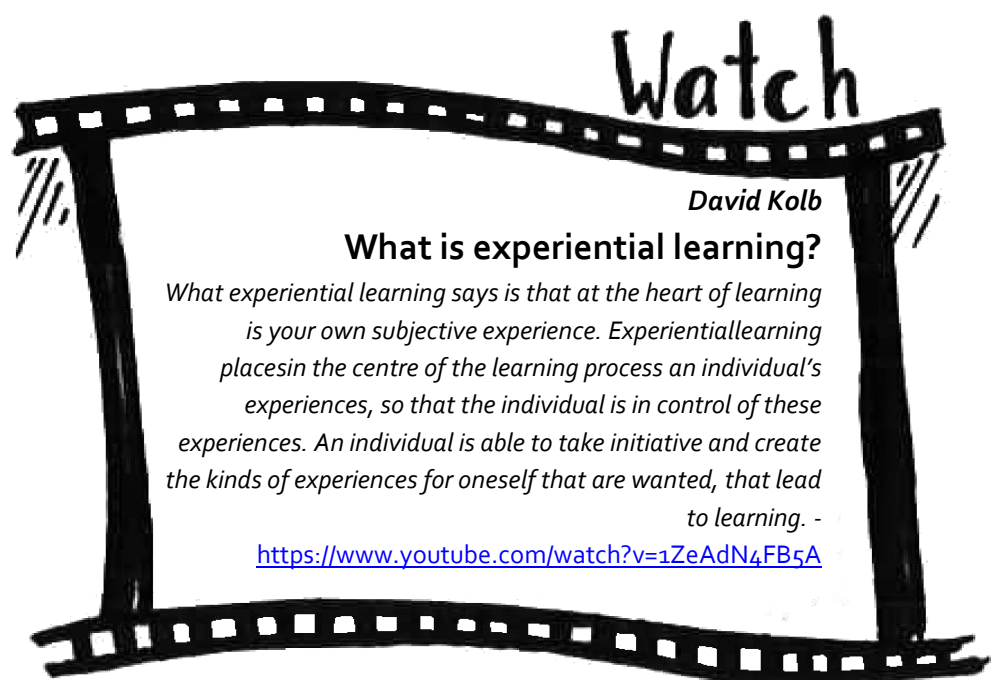
The experience from applying the model shows several problematic situations:

- A threat exists that the participants focus on only one of the stages because they feel that the changed behavior is threatening (risk-related) or emotionally demanding.
- Some participants may have indulgent or mocking behavior because they do not see how the training relates to the problems in their personal or professional life.
- Due to various reasons (time and money economy, lack of experience of the facilitator, etc.) in some trainings the participants can be tempted to discover and spend most of the time (during the early stages of the model) and the last three stages get limited to 30 minutes or less. In reality in the most cases when long-term changes cannot be registered in the behavior of the trainees the problem does not lie within them but in the design of the training.
- Part of the participants complete their training filled with good intentions but soon they go back to their old ways of behavior.

Analogy:

A cat once laid down on a hot stove. It got burnt and never repeated the same mistake but it also never laid down on a cold stove because it did not gather all the knowledge from the concrete experience. So the experiential learning gives us the chance to be a bit smarter than the cat.

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated



General Description

In order to understand the basics of Kolb Learning Model, imagine that you bought a new software product. One of the options to get to know it is to sit in front of the computer immediately trying to figure out how it works through trials and mistakes. Gradually, in the learning process you will figure out some general rules and relationships which together with the knowledge gathered previously will help you to get familiar with the software and can be further applied in new areas. This is one of the options.

Another possibility is to dedicate yourself to the Help menus and from there to form skills and understanding of its use.

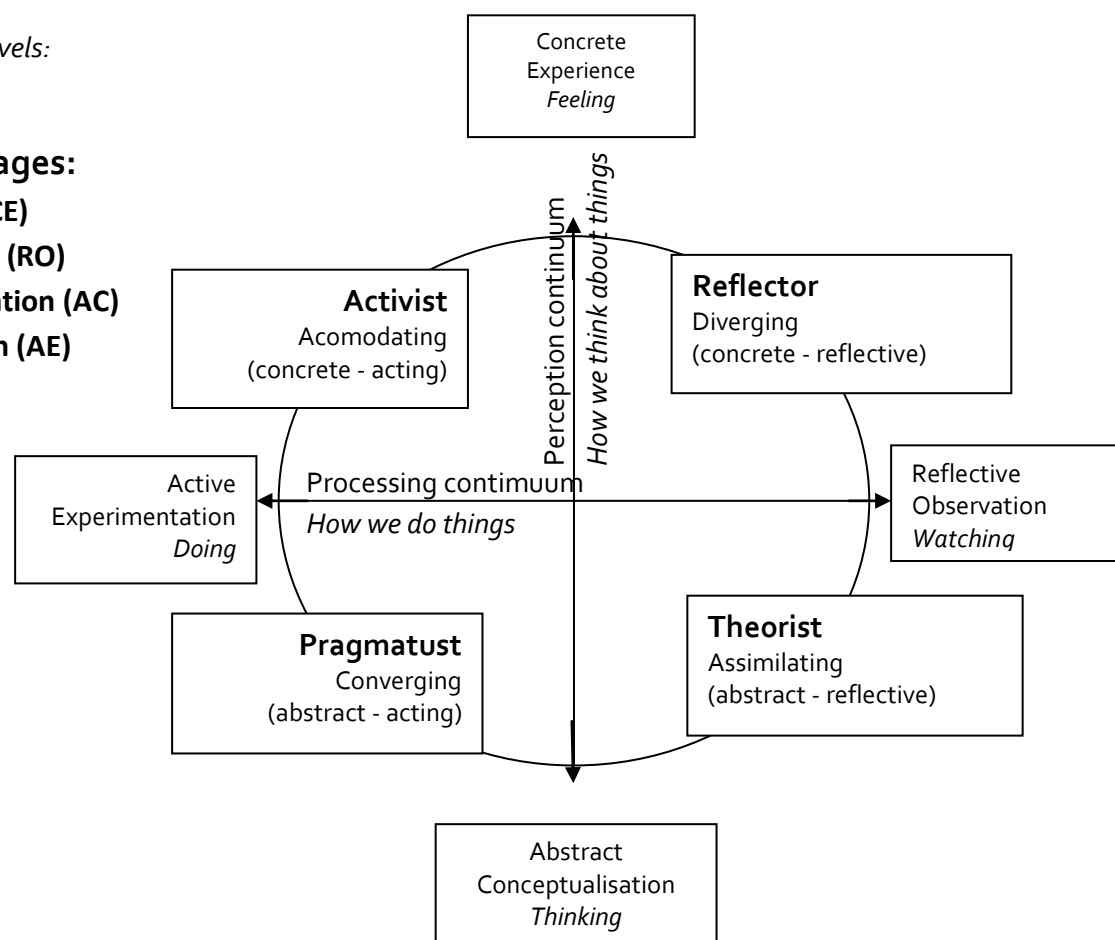
It is also possible that you sit together with a colleague who knows how to use the program and learn from him.

All methods follow the Kolb model but each one of them reflects the learning style and preferences of the person who is trying to learn how the software works.

Kolb's model works on two levels:

Level 1 – cycle of 4 stages:

1. Concrete Experience (CE)
2. Reflective Observation (RO)
3. Abstract Conceptualization (AC)
4. Active Experimentation (AE)



Level 2 – four learning styles (each represented by a combination of two consecutive stages):

1. Diverging (CE/RO)
2. Assimilating (RO/AC)
3. Converging (AC/AE)
4. Accommodating (AE/CE)

Learning Styles

Kolb explains that different people naturally prefer certain learning styles. The factors which determine this preference are various. In his Theory of Experiential Learning (TEL) Kolb defines three stages in human's development and reveals the aspiration towards coordination, successful integration and improvement of the four different learning styles in the process of experience gathering and our development. The development stages are:

- 1. Acquisition** – from birth to adolescence – development of general abilities and cognitive structures
- 2. Specialization** – school education, early job and personal experience from the maturity phase – development of specific learning styles, formed by social, educational and organizational experience
- 3. Integration** - from the middle point of the career until the end of the life – expression of non-dominant learning style at work and in personal life

No matter what are the influences for **choosing a style**, the preference towards a learning style is a combination between two pairs of variables or two different choices that we make.

- 1. Concrete experience (CE)/ I feel – Abstract Conceptualization (AC) / I think**
- 2. Active experimentation (AE)/ I do – Reflective Observation (RO) / I observe**

Kolb calls those variables "Processing Continuum" (how we complete the task) and "Perception Continuum" (our emotional reaction, how we think or feel about the task).

These learning styles are a combination of: "Influential experience" (I do or I observe) and "Transforming experience" (I feel or I think).

Kolb puts OR in the definition because he considers that we cannot do both at the same time. When we persistently try to do the two at the same time a conflict emerges which can be solved by facing a learning situation. We decide inside of us whether we want to do or to observe, to think or to feel.

The results from this (which helps us during all our lives) is a preference towards certain learning styles as shown 2X2 in the Graph. In other words we choose the whether **to reach for the task or the experience**.

Concrete experience – by experiencing something concrete, tangible, which bears a sense of quality

Abstract conceptualization – by finding new information by thinking, analysis, planning.

At the same time we choose how **to emotionally transform** the experience in something meaningful and useful:

Observation and reflection – through the observation of how the others involved manage the situation, and reflection of what is going on

Active experimentation – by "throwing ourselves in the deep" and facing the situation

Example

A person with a dominating learning style **I do**, stronger than **I observe** in relation to the task and **I feel**, stronger than **I think** in relation to the experience will have an adaptive learning style.

Definitions and Descriptions

Knowing your personal (and others) learning styles helps to direct the learning towards a preferred method. To some extent everyone needs some stimulus from the different learning styles but it is important to find out those that are the most suitable for a certain situation or preferences.

This style is 'hands-on', and relies on intuition rather than logic. These people use other people's analysis, and prefer to take a practical, experiential approach. They are attracted to new challenges and experiences, and to carrying out plans. This style is useful for roles which require action and initiative. People with an accommodating learning style will tend to work with deadlines for task completion setting goals and actively working for their completion using various methods.

(do and feel – AE CE)

Accommodating

These people are able to look at things from different perspectives. They are sensitive. They prefer to watch rather than do, tending to gather information and use imagination to solve problems. They are best at viewing concrete situations from several different viewpoints.

Kolb called this style '**diverging**' because these people perform better in situations that require ideas-generation (brainstorming). People with a diverging learning style have broad cultural interests and like to gather information. They are interested in people, tend to be imaginative and emotional, and tend to be strong in the arts. They prefer to work in groups, to listen with an open mind and to receive personal feedback.

(feel and observe – CE RO)

Diverging

Converging

(think and do – AC AE)

People with a converging learning style can solve problems and will use their learning to find solutions to practical issues. They are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories. They prefer technical tasks, and are less concerned with people and interpersonal aspects. They like to experiment with new ideas, to simulate, and to work with practical applications.

Assimilating

(observe and think – RO AC)

The Assimilating learning preference is for a concise, logical approach. These people require good clear explanation rather than practical opportunity. They excel at understanding wide-ranging information and organizing it in a clear logical format.

People with an assimilating learning style are less focused on people and more interested in ideas and abstract concepts. They are more attracted to logically sound theories than approaches based on practical value.

In learning situations, people with this style prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through.

Some Truths

Most people clearly demonstrate specific and clear preferences to a certain learning style. The ability to use or switch from one style to another is neither easy nor natural for most people. That means that people who have clear preferences towards a certain style will learn much more effectively if the process is oriented according to their preferences.

(Example: the people who prefer accomodating style are easily frustrated if they have to read lots of instructions and rules and when they are incapable to start their practical experience as soon as possible.)

- Learning is a continuous process. It never ends (...everything that we learn we already know...);
- The direction of learning is dependant of the individual needs of the learner and his/her objectives;
- Given the importance of individual needs and goals, learning styles are highly individualized in the sense of direction and process.

Types of People According to Their Learning Style Preferences

Reflector

The thinkers like to stay away from the experience, to think it out, and observe it from various perspectives. They gather first-hand information and information from the others and prefer to analyze it in depth before they reach a conclusion. What matters for them is the comprehensive collection and analysis of the information so they prefer to postpone the conclusion for as late as possible. Their philosophy is "Be careful". Their actions are part of a more general picture which includes the past and the present together with the observations of the others and their own.

Advantages

- Attentive
- Diligent and methodical
- Profound
- Good listeners of the others and good receivers of information
- Rarely rush towards making conclusions

Disadvantages

- Inclined to stay away from direct participation
- Slow decision-makers
- Inclined to be too attentive and not to take too many risks
- Not insistent – they are not often available for talking

Learning tools: magazines, brainstorming.

Saying: I want to think about it

Trainer's tool: Lectures

Trainer's approach: Has to secure expert interpretations; the performance is evaluated by external criteria

Theorist

Theoreticians adapt and integrate their observations in complicated but logically-sound theories. They think about issues in a vertical, logical, step-by-step process. They transform radically different facts in harmonious theories. They are apt to professionalism and do not settle down until the issue is cleared and organized in a rational scheme. They love to analyze and synthesize. They are keen on thinking based on prerequisites, principles, theories, models and systems. Their philosophy praises the rationale and the logic: "If it is logical then it is good". The questions they often ask are: "Does this have a meaning", "How does this relate to that?", "What are the prerequisites for...?" They are unprejudiced, analytical, devoted to the rational objectivity and not to the subjectivity and doubtful things. Their approach towards problems is consistently logical.

Advantages

- Logical "vertical" thinkers
- Rational and objective
- Good in asking research questions
- Disciplined approach

Disadvantages

- Limited in their "side" thinking
- Low tolerance towards insecurity, unpredictability and ambiguity
- Intolerant towards everything subjective and intuitive
- Too many "has to, it is necessary, etc."

Learning tools: lectures, newspapers, analogies

Saying: How this relates to that?

Trainer's tool: case studies, reading of theories, thinking on their own

Trainer's approach: there is almost nothing out of the set of tools which can be recommended

Pragmatist

Pragmatists are keen on trying ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work in practice. They look for new ideas and use every opportunity to try them. They are people who will come back from a management training full of ideas that they want to apply in practice. They love to get to know things rapidly and act fast and with confidence on ideas that attract them. They are impatient during discussions that are full of long thoughts or are with an open end. They are exceptionally practical, well-grounded, problems-solvers who take practical decisions. They approach the problems and the new opportunities as a challenge. Their philosophy is "There is always a better way" and "If it works then it is good".

Advantages

- Try things in practice
- Practical, well-grounded, realists
- In business – go directly towards the aim
- Technically oriented

Disadvantages

- Inclination to reject everything which does not have obvious application
- Not interested enough in theories and general principles
- Inclination to hold on to the first solution of the problem
- Impatient during reflection
- Task-oriented and not people-oriented

Learning tools: labs, observations, field-work

Saying: How can I use this in practice?

Trainer's tool: feedback, activities that require skills

Trainer's approach: to help, to be an assistant of a self-directing, autonomous learner

Activist

The activists give themselves fully to new experiences without thinking. They enjoy "here and now" and are happy when dominated by firsthand experiences. They are open-minded, not skeptical and this makes them enthusiastic about everything new. Their philosophy is "One day I will try it all". They are prone to first act and then to think about the consequences. Their days are full of activities. They approach problems through brainstorming. Right after the thrill of an activity has passed they engage themselves in finding a new one. They are inclined to live for the challenge and get bored by things that require time and repetition. They are communicative, constantly involved in relationships with others and by this they are trying to attract all activities towards themselves.

Advantages

- Flexible and open
- Love to act
- Love to face new situations
- Optimists for everything new, open to changes

Disadvantages

- Ability to act immediately without thinking
- Often undertake ill-grounded risks
- Inclination of making too many things independently and appropriate the attention for themselves
- Rush into something without preliminary preparation
- Get bored by consolidation of experience

Learning tools: simulations, case studies

Saying: What's new? I am ready to play.

Trainer's tool: Problem solving games, small group discussions, feedback, homework

Trainer's approach: The trainer has to serve as a model of a professional, to leave the trainee to define their own criteria for the applicability of the material

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.

**You cannot teach anybody anything.
You can only help him find it within himself.**

Galileo Galilei

Experiential learning is a philosophy of education, developed in the late nineteenth century. It is currently applied in many different areas such as training in nature, organizational development, student practices and training in specific areas and activities. The essence of Experiential learning is summarized by the philosopher John Dewey, who says that "events exist even without our intervention; what interests us is their meaning." The experience happens and it is inevitable. The problem for teachers and students is how to make sense of the experience. In its general form the method of teaching through experience is inductive – it starts with the "raw" experience that is processed through intentional learning and becomes active, usable knowledge. It is important to note that Dewey developed his "Theory of experience" as a critique of "traditional education". According to him, the traditional educational methodology has evolved in response to the needs and requirements of industrial capitalism. It is based on the contradiction between mind and body, the mind and the world around us. It relies on deductive logic which relates the general to the particular. Traditional education implies ignorance of the learner and the wisdom and authority of the teacher. This leads to the well known form of knowledge or "disciplines" that the student should acquire. Although Dewey acknowledged the usefulness, power and cultural primacy of traditional education, he argued that it is inherently undemocratic because it is hierarchically structured, separates learning from the experience of subjective and objective ways of knowing. Experiential learning is conceived as democratic, holistic and fully integrating the process of rationalization of experience.

The idea that experience, training and development are interrelated marks the beginning of many forms of experiential learning. During the 40s of the

twentieth century the organizational theorist Kurt Lewin argued that personal and organizational development are the result of the ability of an individual or a group to set goals, develop theories based on past experience, to apply these theories in their work and revise their goals and theories, depending on the results. "Nothing is more practical", he concluded, "as the good theory." Today the principles of experiential learning are widely applied in organizational development and training, especially in the fields of creative problem solving, team building and conflict resolution. These are also the guiding principles in training programs in nature, during professional

LEARNING BY EXPERIENCE



internships, as well as educational programs in which laboratory or other kind of experimental research is being conducted.

Paulo Freire and David Kolb apply the basic ideas of Dewey in other directions: Freire - in the field of adult education and social justice, and Kolb - in the context of learning throughout the whole life cycle and in organizational development. In his publications in the 60s and 70s of the twentieth century, Freire expresses that education is a way for oppressed people to gain power. In his book "Pedagogy of the Oppressed", Freire calls for "problem solving education" in which "people develop their abilities for critical perception of the way we exist in the world. The goal is to perceive the world not as a static reality, but as a moving and changing nature. "In his book "Experiential Learning" Kolb describes the process as follows: "Learning is a process of transformation of experience into knowledge." According to Dewey, Lewin, Freire and Kolb the purpose of experiential learning is to transform experience into knowledge and to use this knowledge for our individual and collective development.

The appearance and development of experiential learning coincides with the development of cognitive and developmental psychology, psychology of child development and adult education. They are in line with Carol Gilligan's statement that intellectual and moral growth "are trying to manage and synchronize the continuous stream of experiences and perceptions, dreams and everyday life." The common point between the developmental theories of Carol Gilligan, Jean Piaget and Lawrence Kohlberg is the idea that cognitive and moral developments are a consequence of the way in which we realize our experiences in the world. More recent studies of Kagan (Evolving self) and Belenky et al. (Women's ways of knowing) focusing on the role of the context of learning continue from their predecessors' statements.

Critics oppose the idea of the continuity that challenged the permanence of knowledge and the absolute value of morals. However, as noted by Perry, experiential theory maintains that because we have to act in the world, we decide to accept certain beliefs, assumptions and contingent truths. We must be ready and willing to review and verify such decisions based on our own experiences and among the many communities that both support and condemn.

In other words, unlike traditional education, experiential learning develops the idea that knowledge is acquired on individual and group level in the process of getting to know people and the world around us. Experiential learning rejects the Platonic idea that the truth is independent of knowledge and that learning the information is not related to its understanding, adoption and use. In a nutshell, Experiential Education overcomes the dualism between experience, knowledge, mind and body and focuses on unifying the process of communication, called by William Godwin "open conversation". Freire defines it as "dialogue... meeting between the two people in order to name the world." Dialogue can be described as an ongoing conversation about the way we most accurately and usefully interpret our experiences. One of the values of each community is that it provides space where you can conduct such dialogue. This dialogue is usually called "reflection", bringing together experience and knowledge, mind and body, the individual and the community. The cycle of experience and reflection is the basis of all types of learning through adventure.

Neurological studies describe the human brain as a mass of interconnected neurons. "Each feeling received", notes Arthur Chickering, "every our move, every emotion we feel, every thought we think, every word we speak involves a whole system of such relationships. The main thing you need to do to achieve lasting knowledge is to connect new knowledge with any of the existing networks." Testing ideas in motion – experiential learning - is one of the most powerful means to connect new knowledge with existing neurological networks. In his book "Emotional Intelligence" Daniel Goleman describes the way in which past experiences determine our reactions in these situations. It presents the physiological data supporting the idea that we learn from our experiences and stresses that we must pay particular attention to the types of experiences our students are being exposed to.

What is the experience and responsibility of the educator?

Experiential learning can be understood more precisely, if we look at the elements of any "experience". After noting that "all experiences are equally educational", Dewey points out certain criteria, which can help assess the result of any given experience. It is important whether:

- the individual is morally and intellectually developed;
- the acquired knowledge was used for the benefit of the community in a long term;
- "the situation" (Dewey uses this word to note a particular episode of experience) has led to conditions suggesting further growth, such as increased curiosity and initiative, drive and purpose.

Dewey says that the task of the trainer is to create conditions for experiences that would lead to this type of growth. To accomplish this task the teacher should:

- know the "students"
- be aware of what type of experiences will help them
- have the ability to anticipate and respond to the specific "situations" that occur in the course of the overall experience.

Broadly speaking, "struggling" patterns in developing a skill, preparation for specific activities, the acquisition of specific knowledge and the development of values and spirituality, not really compete. Tension among them creates cognitive dissonance, which is the leading motive in absorbing new information.

Dewey explicitly emphasizes that we have to think about "experience" in sufficiently broad term that includes "the school subjects, methods of training and education, material equipment and the social organization of the school." At the "macro" level, experiential learning affects the student-teacher relationship, the priorities of timeframes, resources used and the processes of decision making.

Applying this logic has led to the development of different "types" of experiential learning - training in nature, mastering a specific activity or craft, cooperative education, internships. Each type of training suits

learners with different goals. Educators develop such experience that would match their objectives and later would anticipate and respond to the issues and problems created by actual experience. Every existing "type" of learning by experience is based on the way it is practiced and the accumulated knowledge derived from the actual experience.

Since 1910 when Dewey disclosed his ideas, experiential learning attracts variable interest. The basic principles of this type of education are embedded in the creation of federal programs combining work and training, like Civilian Conservation Corps in the '30s; in the development of educational programs (which Dewey pointed as an artificial barrier between general education and applied studies); by the establishment of programs such as Outward Bound and the Peace Corps; and also in the ideas that led to the blossoming of the internship, community activities and programs for corporate training, proposed in late 60s and early 70s.

Best practice

"It is not enough to insist on the need for experience", said Dewey. "It is the quality of the experience that matters most." The main elements contributing to the "quality of experience" are generally referred to as "rules of good practice." These rules apply to all forms of experiential learning. Although over the years, they tend to carry various names, they can be reduced to: **Intention, Authenticity, Planning, Clarity, Orientation and Training, Observation and Assessment, Continuous Improvement, Assessment and, finally, Recognition**

"It is not enough to insist on the need for experience", said Dewey. "It is the quality of the experience that

matters most." The main elements contributing to the "quality of experience" are generally referred to as "rules

of good practice." These rules apply to all forms of experiential learning. Although over the years, they tend to carry various names, they can be reduced to: **Intention, Authenticity, Planning, Clarity, Orientation and Training, Observation and Assessment, Continuous Improvement, Assessment and, finally, Recognition.**

In preparation of the "situation" for experiential learning a junior facilitator must first ask oneself: "*What type of specific knowledge I can extract from this situation?*" The answer to this question determines all subsequent choices. This does not limit possible other results achieved by individual learners by the specific activity. The main thing though is that the facilitator has provided the **Intention, directing** to areas of training, which should lead to the desired result.

The value of experiential learning lies in the possibility to check the previously learned facts and theories in revising assumptions and acquiring new knowledge at first hand. This kind of knowledge is best achieved in an authentic situation and not in simulation or the story of someone else's experience. During the real experience trainees become aware that training is necessary and that they have the opportunity to influence their own world through the new knowledge.

The very earliest stages of effective experiences include trainees in the **Planning**. The planning process itself provides many opportunities for acquiring knowledge in areas such as decision-making, teamwork, communication, problem solving. The latter often exceed the content or specific program goals. If the activity involves people who actually work together, they must also be included in the planning. This ensures the authenticity of the experience and proves that the activities are practically useful and set realistic goals. Moreover, in this way the objectives of both educators and learners are aligned.

After determination of the specific activity **Clarity** is essential and can be achieved only through constant and thorough communication. Expectations and responsibilities of the teacher, the learner and collaborator, place and type of work – all these must be clear and determined jointly by all stakeholders. The trainee must be actively involved in the formulation and articulation of their own goals and aspirations, strategies and criteria for evaluation.

Because the possible outcomes of experiential learning are not limited to but often exceed the goals initially set should be flexible, without leading to loss of structure and clarity of pre-defined results. This can be achieved through the creation of a work plan or contract outlining expectations, responsibilities, timeframe and desired outcomes, written consent of all participants in the undertaken experience for taking responsibility as well as the specific procedures and techniques that will be used during each situation. True experiences inside or outside the classroom must be preceded by **Orientation (guidance)** that provides the background information and basic skills necessary for the full and effective participation in the situation. Guidance should include information about the facts related to the issues addressed, information about the place and the environment in which experience will take place. The

activities should be designed in a way that would help learners to know the behavioral expectations and their own understanding of the area of the specific experience. After completing the orientation, a **Training and Mentoring** process begins, aimed at improving the skills needed to perform the specific task. At this stage, learners begin to realize that learning is not a beginning to end process but rather accompanies all human life.



Observation (monitoring) and assessment of experiential learning are ongoing processes closely linked to the original goals and objectives that defined the experience. If the elements of experiential learning have been consistently implemented, observation and assessment must have been precisely defined in the planning process. Then each party understands their own role, the expected results, the methods of their evaluation, what and when will be applied. Moreover,



Feedback

based on expectations and goals during the planning. The feedback should be provided to all participants in the process and be taken into account in the continuous planning process. Thus monitoring and assessment become not just tools for final assessment but means for **continual improvement**.

Reflection is another key factor in the discovery and utilization of knowledge. The reflection should start at the very beginning of the process and is an integral part of the activity itself. It is not something that should be kept for dessert. It is part of the process of determining the activity when the trainer connects their intentions with future operations; reflection is part of the planning and assessment of the various options and is indispensable in defining and clarifying the goals of the learner. It is important also during the orientation when all actors explore their preconceptions and attitudes and is crucial for understanding the change and growth of each student in result of an experience. Reflection allows students to review their actions and learning in the context of the appointed assessment criteria. Feedback from the trainer enables them to enhance or alter the process of continuous improvement. Learners should be offered a variety of structured and unstructured activities which provoke reflection.

Common misconceptions

If experiential learning has appeared about a hundred years and if it is so beneficial, why has it not become standard practice yet? Critics commonly offer the following statements. We offer the following answers.

It is not demanding enough to students

It is true that experiential learning does not start with a body of knowledge but with experience, curiosity and questions of the students. It is extremely difficult to know your students. "It is very difficult", said Dewey, "to find out what is behind the experiences of each participant, and even more difficult to understand how the issues raised during the experience should be directed to lead to more extensive and better organized structures of knowledge." However, when this is done through experiential learning the applied methods include careful observation, critical

when the trainee has participated in the creation of the training contract, self-assessment against certain criteria is expected. Furthermore, the facilitator, the community and the experience itself should be judged

Commonly used techniques are reflection journals, small group discussions on certain topics and acting out situations.

Like reflection, **assessment** is also inseparable from the desired outcomes of the experience. In order to be evaluated, the results must be measurable. When a certain experience is based on the belief that it will bring associated future knowledge, we need to create rules to determine the achievement. Assessment is associated also with observation and must be present throughout the whole experience, not only in the end of the activity. We should look for answers to questions such as: "do the achieved results meet the planned goals?" Evaluation should lead not only to answer "yes" or "no", but also to analyze the "why" in order to serve the objectives and continuous improvement and reflection. Increasingly, the assessment is conducted using a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods and incorporates data collected by statistical ways with information from interviews, conversations and observations.

The last element that must be present in every experience is **recognition** or **gratitude**. Knowledge and learning are a good occasion for celebration and that experience is good to end with a closing ceremony. Like reflection, recognition is an important part of the overall process and should not be left solely to the end of the activity. Recognition enables learners to identify, implement and evaluate lessons learned. Recognition appears in the form of a constructive and critical feedback, in the form of shared reflection in which others share your ideas and thoughts; it appears in the form of the statement that "I have learned something useful and used it to accomplish something. I'll remember that, because learning and achievements have meaning."

thinking, dialogue and ethical experiment. To succeed in a given task, the students ask questions and are interested in particular knowledge - scientific or artistic work, folklore, of learning - that can help them make the best decision and to take concrete action. Like any training, experiential learning can be done well or badly, carefully or carelessly.

A more probable cause of the statement that experiential learning is not rigorous enough is that it is placing more responsibility on the learners themselves. Thus, it is very clearly seen when they don't participate in the process for one reason or another. Experiential learning is extremely unattractive for apathetic and disinterested people, as it requires that participants take responsibility for their action and the creation of new knowledge.

It is focused too much on feelings and not enough on content and ideas

Another way to look at this question is to ask why the sensual and subjective knowledge is so far from formal, objective knowledge, presented in traditional education. People act and experience the world simultaneously in both ways. The purpose of experiential learning is to teach and to learn as whole persons. It is not a question if one way of learning is better or worse than another, but simply that it makes no sense to separate them. The goal is to get to know both the world and ourselves, and the interaction between the two. Experiential learning requires us to pay greater attention to the problems associated with the manner and reasons for acquiring specific knowledge. This is usually not discussed by traditional education.

It is chaotic and not structured

It would be more precise to say that it often looks disorganized and chaotic. Experiential learning can be quite unusual and non-linear. Sometimes it has to destroy something before being rebuilt. Social and physiological studies suggest that people bring order and structure in every experience. This is a non-linear, spiral process. Besides mess, chaos is a symbol of pure potential - something that challenges us to reconsider. Usually, when trainers say experiential learning is chaotic, they actually express fear that they will not be able to exercise sufficient control. In fact, it is about the place of control in the student - student relationship. Another way to answer is the explanation that the training methods contain a "hidden plan" and that our task is it to coincide with the explicit curriculum. For example, if people are in rows and have to raise their hands before speaking, and are not entitled to appoint either the direction of the training, nor its level, how they can be taught what it is to live in a democratic society.

It takes a lot of time and / or resources

Experiential learning takes long time, especially at the beginning of a new process. It often requires discussions and agreements between several individuals or organizations. It can be quite expensive, although this is not always the case. Usually, what people, who make such an objection really mean is that experiential learning takes the time for other activities related to traditional ways of learning - eg lectures. Lectures and other forms of "telling" have their place in the overall plan, but they are only one of many methods applied and when overused, their value is significantly reduced.

Due to its holistic approach to teaching, learning through experience is "driven" more slowly, but over time with continuously increasing efficiency. Some critics argue that "activities" take the time to study the various "subjects" like mathematics, literature, chemistry and history. From the perspective of experiential learning, the challenge of the educator lies in processing the task to process and create 'situations' that require problem solving based on the knowledge acquired in relevant disciplines.

It exposes students to too much risk

Experiential learning really can be dangerous: from crossing high ropes garden, venturing into a new organization or community, to being provoked to reconsider some of your long-standing beliefs - all these things contain a certain amount of risk. When raising the issue of risk, teachers usually have in mind the fact that they would not have enough control over the environment. The aim is not to give up from any control but to put "reasonable diligence" -

to create an environment with calculated level of risk, enabling short-term failures and successes. Success means the mental, physical and physiological health of all involved. The minimum requirement is the maxim "do no harm". One of the challenges to the participants in the process of experiential learning is distinguishing between discomfort and risk. Assumptions, stereotypes and / or expectations can cause serious inconvenience, without any risk. Such discomfort, however, should not be overlooked. Learning through adventure develops the idea of "birth pain" and notes that the birth of new knowledge and progress are not a consequence of the very pain (pain is a sign of stress), but what happens afterwards - the restructuring of ideas, values and attitudes. This attitude is captured in Piaget's concept of "optimal disparity" and in the research of other scientists, who note that the achievement of a new level of knowledge or insight (the point of "balance") is usually preceded by a period of transition or dissonance. The basic idea is to create opportunities for development and new application of the acquired skills. Trainers have to be very skilful in creating opportunities for optimal disparity and establishing a new equilibrium.

Practical results

The question "why?" has two answers. Psychologists note that in general, the more active the learning, easier the remembering. Indeed, for some learners the opportunity to actively participate in the learning process itself, increases the desire to learn. By claiming that the exchange of abstract intelligence is the only way to demonstrate academic ability, we can prevent thousands of students to reveal themselves and their opportunities to us. The second answer is a consequence of the first: when you pay attention to the preferences of students learning style, you will find that

it is training in a social context. In other words, the extensive use of experiential learning is especially true for today's learners, many of whom graduate from high school and enter college with little confidence in their ability for traditional academic work and bias against concrete, practical problem solving. While still facing the educational system that does not pay any attention to their psychological needs, the attention of the trainees will be divided between the necessary knowledge and the system that fails to provide it to them.

Why Learning by Experience is important today?

Many historians consider the time we live as the era of great social change. Often this change is explained by the transition from an industrial to a knowledge-based society. In other words, what will be most important in the new era is not the ability for mass production of material goods but the ability to create new types of knowledge. Such transition obviously affects education. This means, for example, that schools, colleges and universities cannot afford their graduates to be unprepared for the constantly changing requirements of the workplace. If knowledge is the basic value at the moment, institutions that fail to provide it can quickly lose their past prestige and popularity.

Therefore, the purpose of education is to develop flexible and responsive to needs training system of

pedagogical strategies. In such time of radical readjustment, Experiential Education represents an opportunity that no educational institution can afford to ignore. According to Boyer, Shulman and many others, the old antagonisms between "pure" and "practical" learning, between the ability of abstract thinking and the acquisition of practical skills is an anachronism that needs to be overcome as quickly as possible. In the middle of the global economy, our society cannot afford to cultivate minds uninterested and indifferent to practical problems. In the embedded dialogue in experiential education - between theory and practice, we find a proven approach to the education system and social organization of the 21st century.

Participants are more likely to engage in learning when they:

- see **value** in what they're learning
- believe that engaging in specific actions will bring about a desired outcome
- believe they can be **successful**
- perceive that the environment is **supportive**

To help motivate participants

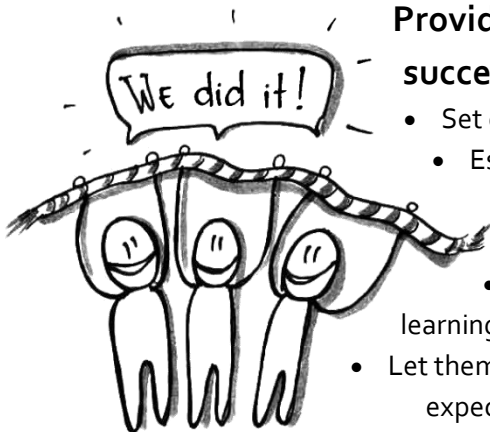
Structure your training and each session to help participants know what to expect

- Use the syllabus to clarify what the participant will learn, your expectations, and how the training will be conducted
- At the beginning of a session, explain the focus of it and what they should be able to know and do by the end
- Align what happens with this initial framing of the session
- Close the session with a summary; provide opportunities for participants to summarize by asking them to:
 - Respond to clicker questions that gauge what they learned
 - Draw a concept map of what they learned
 - Write a one minute paper about what they have learned
- Prepare participants for future sessions and other learning opportunities.



Provide learning experiences where participants feel they can be successful

- Set challenging but attainable **goals** and assignments (success within reach)
- Especially early in the training, help participants **experience success**; for example, incorporate early, shorter assignments that account for a small percentage of their final result
- Encourage participant's **choice** in how to achieve a particular assignment or learning outcome
- Let them know that **you believe** they can be successful – that you have set high expectations and you are confident they have what it takes to meet them.



UNTIE-THE-KNOT CHALLENGE

Include opportunities for participants (and you!) to gain information on how they are doing

- Evaluate participant's understanding as they enter session (e.g., begin with an informal poll or diagnostic question, or post it the night before)
- Provide rubrics for assignments and give feedback based on them
- Provide timely and targeted feedback about how participants are progressing
- Incorporate questions or other assessments designed to identify what participants know or don't know
- Take advantage of training course evaluation

- Guide participants to use the feedback they are getting from activities, checks for understanding, discussion, other activities
- Acknowledge specific areas where participants are doing well and identify a few specific ways that improvement might occur; focus the latter so they have key actions for improvement that are achievable



Foster application/connection of what participants are learning to their own lives

- Design learning experiences that are relevant to participants' lives
- Craft activities that encourage application of content to situations they will likely encounter

Create a positive climate/community for learning where participants feel supported

- Get to know your participants. Learn participants' names and create relationships with them a few at a time
- Craft specific opportunities for individual participants to participate in the learning experience
- Promote social exchanges for learning among peers. Group interaction is more lively when the conversation broadens beyond just alternating between you and one person in the group
- Let participants know how they can link with each other
- Make explicit that you are interested in their success, are available to support them, and have provided or pointed them to ample ways for them to get the help they need

Adapted from - The University of Texas at Austin; TEXAS Learning Sciences; Student motivation,

2015

Tips & Tricks



Importance of humor and laughter (According Sugestopedagogical approach)

The trainer's secrets by prof. dr. Georgi Lozanov himself: The laughing and the humor in the classroom are of special importance. It is known that the laugh is the most effective calming instrument, but only when it is not bitter but spontaneous. It has to be mentioned and underlined in bold that our laughing is not chaotic. It is a system within the system. The trainer knows when and how, in which places and with what means, and also at what level to create conditions for spontaneous laugh which at first sight look completely natural. This is training by laughing. Laugh! Laugh! Do not forget!


Key competences for lifelong learning

Youth work is a process of personal development, social integration and increasing active citizenship of young people. This process is based on educational activities which are based mainly on non-formal education principles that contribute to the holistic and authentic development of young people. Through this process certain outputs are created. They can be tangible (materials, products, videos, brochures, posters, songs, etc.) and intangible (connected with the learning results). We can call the intangible results, competences. We will further explore the concept of competence and how we can work with it in a structured way.


(Bogdan Romanicǎ)

Competence is the “ability to do something successfully or efficiently”. The term is often used interchangeably with the term ‘skill’, although they are not the same. Two elements differentiate competence from skill, and make competence more than skill. When one person is competent, they can apply what they know to do a specific task or solve a problem and they are able to transfer this ability between different situations.


In youth work, competence is understood as having three interlinked dimensions:



Knowledge: This dimension refers to all the themes and issues you know or need to know about doing your work. This is the ‘cognitive’ dimension of competence. It is commonly associated with the ‘head’.



Skills: This dimension refers to what you are able to do or what you need to be able to do for doing your youth work. This is the ‘practical’ or skills dimension of competence. It is commonly associated with the ‘hands’.



Attitudes and values: This dimension of competence refers to the attitudes and values you need to display in order to do your work effectively. This dimension of competence is commonly associated with the ‘heart’.

Source: Youth work essentials - <http://www.coe.int/en/web/youth-portfolio/youth-work-essentials>

Key competences in the shape of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to each context are fundamental for each individual in a knowledge-based society. They provide added value for the labour market, social cohesion and active citizenship by offering flexibility and adaptability, satisfaction and motivation. Because they should be acquired by everyone, this recommendation proposes a reference tool for European Union (EU) countries to ensure that these key competences are fully integrated into their strategies and infrastructures, particularly in the context of lifelong learning.

Act

Recommendation 2006/962/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning [Official Journal L 394 of 30.12.2006].

Summary

Key competences for lifelong learning are a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context. They are particularly necessary for personal fulfilment and development, social inclusion, active citizenship and employment.

Key competences are essential in a knowledge society and guarantee more flexibility in the labour force, allowing it to adapt more quickly to constant changes in an increasingly interconnected world. They are also a major factor in

innovation, productivity and competitiveness, and they contribute to the motivation and satisfaction of workers and the quality of work.

Key competences should be acquired by:

- young people at the end of their compulsory education and training, equipping them for adult life, particularly for working life, whilst forming a basis for further learning;
- adults throughout their lives, through a process of developing and updating skills.

The acquisition of key competences fits in with the principles of equality and access for all. This reference framework also applies in particular to disadvantaged groups whose educational potential requires support. Examples of such groups include people with low basic skills, early school leavers, the long-term unemployed, people with disabilities, migrants, etc.

Eight key competences

This framework defines eight key competences and describes the essential knowledge, skills and attitudes related to each of these. These key competences are:

- **communication in the mother tongue**, which is the ability to express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts and opinions in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and to interact linguistically in an appropriate and creative way in a full range of societal and cultural contexts;
- **communication in foreign languages**, which involves, in addition to the main skill dimensions of communication in the mother tongue, mediation and intercultural understanding. The level of proficiency depends on several factors and the capacity for listening, speaking, reading and writing;
- **mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology**. Mathematical competence is the ability to develop and apply mathematical thinking in order to solve a range of problems in everyday situations, with the emphasis being placed on process, activity and knowledge. Basic competences in science and technology refer to the mastery, use and application of knowledge and methodologies that explain the natural world. These involve an understanding of the changes caused by human activity and the responsibility of each individual as a citizen;
- **digital competence** involves the confident and critical use of information society technology (IST) and thus basic skills in information and communication technology (ICT);
- **learning to learn** is related to learning, the ability to pursue and organise one's own learning, either individually or in groups, in accordance with one's own needs, and awareness of methods and opportunities;
- **social and civic competences**. Social competence refers to personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence and all forms of behaviour that equip individuals to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life. It is linked to personal and social well-being. An understanding of codes of conduct and customs in the different environments in which individuals operate is essential. Civic competence, and particularly knowledge of social and political concepts and structures (democracy, justice, equality, citizenship and civil rights), equips individuals to engage in active and democratic participation;
- **sense of initiative and entrepreneurship** is the ability to turn ideas into action. It involves creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives. The individual is aware of the context of his/her work and is able to seize opportunities that arise. It is the foundation for acquiring more specific skills and knowledge needed by those establishing or contributing to social or commercial activity. This should include awareness of ethical values and promote good governance;
- **cultural awareness and expression**, which involves appreciation of the importance of the creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions in a range of media (music, performing arts, literature and the visual arts).

These key competences are all interdependent, and the emphasis in each case is on critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem solving, risk assessment, decision taking and constructive management of feelings.

A European reference framework for European Union (EU) countries and the Commission

These key competences provide a reference framework to support national and European efforts to achieve the objectives they define. This framework is mainly intended for policy makers, education and training providers, employers and learners.

It is a reference tool for EU countries and their education and training policies. EU countries should try to ensure:

- that initial education and training offer all young people the means to develop the key competences to a level that equips them for adult and working life, thus also providing a basis for future learning;
- that appropriate provision is made for young people who are disadvantaged in their training so that they can fulfil their educational potential;
- that adults can develop and update key competences throughout their lives, particularly priority target groups such as persons who need to update their competences;
- that appropriate infrastructure is in place for continuing education and training of adults, that there are measures to ensure access to education and training and the labour market and that there is support for learners depending on their specific needs and competences;
- the coherence of adult education and training provision through close links between the policies concerned.

It forms the basis for action at Community level, particularly within the Education and Training 2010 work programme and, more generally, within the Community education and training programmes. In this respect, the Commission should make a special effort to:

- help EU countries to develop their education and training systems, apply the reference framework so as to facilitate peer learning and the exchange of good practices and follow up developments and report on progress through the progress reports on the Education and Training 2010 work programme;
- use the reference framework for the implementation of the Community education and training programmes whilst ensuring that these programmes promote the acquisition of key competences;
- use the reference framework to implement related Community policies (employment, youth, cultural and social policies) and to strengthen links with social partners and other organisations active in those fields;
- assess, by December 2010, the impact of the reference framework within the context of the Education and Training 2010 work programme as well as the experience gained and the implications for the future.

Background

The transversal nature of key competences makes them essential. They provide added value for employment, social cohesion or young people (**European Youth Pact**), which explains the importance of lifelong learning in terms of adapting to change and integration. The **reference criteria**, which make it possible to judge improvements in European performances, featured in a 2005 report with contrasting results.

In response to the concerns expressed at the Lisbon European Council on 23 and 24 March 2000, which were repeated in the **revised Lisbon strategy** in 2005, the key competences form part of the objectives of the Education and Training 2010 work programme, the Commission communication of 2001 on making a **European area of lifelong learning** a reality and the subsequent Council resolution adopted in 2002. These last two put forward specific proposals on making key competences a priority for all age groups. For its part, the **2004 joint interim report** on the progress of the Education and Training 2010 work programme made the case for drawing up common European references and principles.

Source - <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=URISERV:c11090>

Facilitation, Coaching, Mentoring and Training: Understanding the Differences

Many novice and experienced facilitators struggle with differentiating the methods of training, facilitating, coaching, and mentoring. These concepts can be confusing because, during any given session, a seasoned facilitator can move effortlessly from one method to another in what appears to be a seamless interaction. The article arranges the topics from most structured to least structured, beginning with training and ending with mentoring. The authors define each method, explain how it works, offer examples of when to use the method, and highlight its distinguishing factors.

Training Defined

Training as a method of instruction, can be defined as to make or become accomplished by specialized instruction or practice. Training involves the transfer of learning from one individual, usually an expert, to other individuals or a group. When training is achieved, an individual has all the skills and knowledge needed to perform. Performance may include task-related activities (such as learning how to balance a budget), or process related activities (such as learning how to effectively operate as a team). Training, as a method of instruction, helps learners to:

- acquire new information, techniques, and skills
- increase knowledge
- clarify attitudes, beliefs, and/or behaviours
- practice skills
- improve existing skills and
- implement any learning achieved.

How Does Training Work?

Training is a particular form of education or teaching that encompasses the transfer of knowledge and the performance of skill at a later date. In the process of training the trainer has a variety of responsibilities. In addition to being skillful in communicating so that learners understand the meaning and intent of the experience, the trainer must be aware of the learners needs and sensitive to their issues. The trainer's roles may include presenter, demonstrator, guide, and administrator. Typically the trainer creates specific objectives to be accomplished within a given time period. The trainer manages the time given to ensure that by the end of the session (whether it be 15 minutes or 2 weeks) all objectives are met. The trainer manages the tasks and the processes. The trainer designs the session ahead of time to ensure that the outcome of the training is achieved. These components of the training design include:

- time
- activity being taught
- activity link to specific objectives
- resources and materials needed for activity
- how learning and skill will be assessed

There are many different styles of training delivery-- from the professor/lecturer style on one end of the spectrum-- to the actor/clown style on the other. Trainers need to know:

- how adults learn
- how to develop measurable obtainable objectives for the session
- how to communicate to a group who may have varying receptive styles
- how to listen
- how to give feedback

- how to handle difficult participants
- how to develop a training script and use training aids
- how to prepare the training environment
- how to present.

When To Use Training

Training can be used whenever knowledge about content or process needs to transfer from the expert trainer to the learning trainee. Training is usually best accomplished in a 25 to 1 or less participant to trainer ratio to ensure the trainer has optimum interaction with participants and can assess the success of the knowledge transfer.

Distinguishing Factors

The distinguishing factors for training are:

- transfers knowledge and skill from expert to novice
- results in skill attainment that build on each other and result in a performance
- allows for measurable objectives

Facilitation Defined

People depend on groups to accomplish what individuals alone cannot; yet, groups do not always function in ways that lead to increased effectiveness and desirable outcomes. Facilitation is a method used to help groups develop processes that are effective in order to accomplish desired outcomes. Since facilitation is so broad based and varied according to "context" the authors will focus on one method of facilitation and compare and contrast it to the methods of training, coaching, and mentoring. The Institute for Cultural Affairs developed the facilitation method highlighted. The Institute developed a basic facilitation process that results in more effective communications. It is a process that can be used with individuals or groups. It is also a tool that enables people to initiate and take part in a productive dialogue while helping groups improve the way they identify and solve problems, make decisions, and deal with conflict. This process is referred to as the ORID (Objective, Reflective, Interpretive, and Decisional) method.

How Does Facilitation Work

This method works by asking a series of questions that takes a group on a journey of consciousness. This method is useful for reflecting on experiences and trying to come to consensus on key decisions. Each discussion is tailor-made for best results and questions have to be relevant to the subject and the group. It is important to prepare questions in advance. Recommendations for the best kind of questions to use in a group discussion include the following guidelines:

1. specific questions get better results
2. specific examples and illustrations in answers should be asked
3. open-ended questions that cannot be answered with "yes" or "no" should be employed.



The primary objective of this method is to direct the thinking of the group involved toward making a decision. The model is built upon by asking a specific sequence of questions that are relevant to the subject and the group. For example, the context of a process may be to "define the role of a facilitator." The following questions take participants on a four level journey of awareness:

Define the Role of a Facilitator

Step I - Objective: To get the facts and focus attention.

Question: What do you see on this list of criteria as the most important attributes of an effective facilitator?

Step II - Reflective: To uncover someone's emotions, feelings and gut level reaction to an issue.

Question: What excites you about being a facilitator and what concerns you about being a facilitator?

Step III - Interpretive: To determine layers of values, meaning, and purpose regarding an issue.

Question: After reviewing all of these different ways to facilitate, which ones do you think are important to being an effective facilitator?

Step IV - Decisional: To decide on the relationship and response to a topic and the discussion they have had together. To take some kind of action on a definitive short-term outcome.

Question: Now that we have reviewed these issues, which ones are you going to work on?

When To Use Facilitation

This method can be used to lead group discussions that result in clearly stated ideas and well thought out conclusions. The ORID Method of facilitation can become the basis for:

- collecting data and ideas
- giving out information
- discussing tough issues
- reflecting on important issues and events
- getting ready to do a problem-solving workshop
- group preparation of reports or presentations

It takes some study and practice to become skilled at using this or any facilitation method. The success of this and any facilitation process is determined by the facilitator's ability to demonstrate the following critical skills and behaviors:

- The ability to facilitate the "journey" of the group: decisions, process, problem solving, team development, strategic planning
- Style: demonstration of effective listening skills, keeping people on track, asking the right questions that probe creativity and insight, analyzing and synthesizing issues, being comfortable with silence, being substantively neutral during group discussions
- Physical Involvement: good eye contact, energy level, positive body language
- Personal Readiness: leaving personal problems outside the door, appropriate dress

Distinguishing Factors

The distinguishing factors for facilitation are:

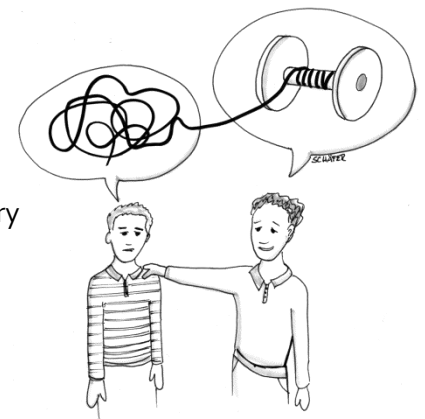
- provides for meaningful dialogue
- broadens perspectives
- results in clear ideas and conclusions
- allows the entire group to participate
- gradually increases a groups' ability to operate effectively on their own

Coaching Defined:

I never learn anything talking. I only learn things when I ask questions.

Lou Holtz

Coaching can be defined as a personal and confidential learning process. Typically, it is designed to result in effective action, improved performance, and/or personal growth for the individual and improved business results for the organization. In contrast to other forms of organized learning, i.e., training, facilitating, and mentoring, coaching is highly personal in two ways. It is individualized, recognizing that no two people are alike and is based upon the theory that each person has a unique knowledge base and learning pace and styles; therefore, participants progress at their individual pace. In addition, coaching is the appropriate forum for personal feedback of both strengths and weaknesses.



Coaching in that

How Does Coaching Work

Normally a coach will contract with an individual or an organization to become involved in that individual's

improvement. The coach will clarify areas that need improvement and make sure that the individual understands and can accomplish the changes that it would take to move from a current state to a more advanced, improved state. During the coaching process, the coach affirms and endorses the participant and provides feedback on areas that are working well and those that still may need improvement. If a coach sees a participant slide back into old patterns, discussions are held about what needs to be done to sustain the desired behaviour.



change. A clear understanding of the desired outcome of coaching is critical to the success of the process. Appropriate objectives of coaching can be categorized as follows:

- skill development, with emphasis on a specific task
- performance improvement, more broadly aimed at the overall job responsibility
- professional development, focused on future responsibilities
- personal development, looking beyond the professional role

When to Use Coaching

What coaching involves specifically depends on the participant and the situation. The light speed of business today requires employees to perform critical tasks in key roles, very often without the benefit of experience or training. Sometimes, there are no models to follow. Coaching assists the individual in learning how to perform at the next level, just as an athletic coach can identify what needs to be done differently and



guide a player through the changes. Coaching is the appropriate method to use when the individual is highly motivated to make meaningful change, the areas designated for improvement are within the coaches realm of expertise, and the individual or organization commits to the resources needed to see the endeavor from start to finish.

Distinguishing Factors

- provides individual attention
- addresses personal development
- motivates and encourages
- requires a "match" trust between coach and participant

Mentoring Defined:

The delicate balance of mentoring someone is not creating them in your own image, but giving them the opportunity to create themselves.

Steven Spielberg

A mentor is a trusted counsellor or teacher. Mentoring is the process of walking along side someone to learn from them. The term mentor describes a wide variety of relationship and behaviours. The mentor helps with technical skill, career development, and psychosocial functions. The mentor is usually senior to the mentee with respect to experience, rank, or influence within the organization. Mentoring as a term and practice is hardly new. Students of the classics may remember Telemachus, Odysseus' son in Homer's *Odyssey*, who had a guardian and adviser named "mentor." Mentoring in organizations often takes place on an informal basis. More recently organizations have developed more formal mentoring relationships. While a number of organizations experimented with mentoring programs over the years, most notably in the 70's and 80's, they were primarily reserved for marginal and average performers as a tool for performance improvement. Due to the tumultuous events of the past decade, there has been an explosion of mentoring efforts in organizations of all sizes and industries. A survey conducted by Human Resource Executive last year found that the number of companies developing mentoring programs doubled between 1995 and 1996, a percentage growth of 17% to 36%. This renewed interest can be attributed to many factors, such as:

- concern about employee morale and loyalty resulting from major restructuring and downsizing activities
- increased sensitivity to the issues of women and minorities
- the need for succession planning
- major change efforts which propel many organizations today and create the need for more and more skilled leaders

All of these, of course, are fuelled by a highly competitive labour market, a major factor contributing to the growth of mentoring programs. Regardless of the motivation, a growing number of organizations are finding mentoring and the sharing of intellectual capital to be making a profound impact on the individual and the organization.

How Does Mentoring Work

The mentoring relationship has many definitions and roles. A mentor can be described as a trusted counselor or guide, a teacher, coach or tutor, or simply as someone who takes a personal interest in your career and offers advice and guidance. Mentoring is predominately a one to one activity which begins with rapport, the French word meaning kinship. It requires active listening skills, openness, trust, commitment and emotional maturity. Once the foundation is in place, the relationship is nurtured by a mutual understanding of the goals and desired outcomes of the relationship. It is further guided by measurements, accountability, and results in learning and growth. In effective mentoring relationships both the mentor and protégé avoid dependency and learn to recognize when it is time to let go.

When To Use Mentoring

While mentoring programs were first created to manage a number of performance-related problems, that is not a role for mentoring today. Performance issues are better managed through coaching. True mentor programs develop people by sharing knowledge that provides opportunities for networking, teambuilding, leadership development, and career mobility. Mentoring enhances communications skills, develops interpersonal skills and builds self-confidence.

Distinguishing Factors

The distinguishing factors for mentoring are:

- fondness at a personal level
- benefits to both mentor and mentee
- relationships and friendships that bridge many years

As organizational life becomes more and more complex, it is important for facilitators to develop a menu of breakthrough strategies that can help build skill, solve problems, increase effective performance, and build winning teams. The areas of training, facilitation, coaching, and mentoring share unique qualities and yet are very different. As facilitators learn to move effortlessly between each method, knowing the differences between the four is crucial.

Source - International Association of Facilitators 1999
Annual Meeting Williamsburg, Virginia, USA;
Jennifer Wild, Rebecca Shambaugh, Jean Isberg,
Pamela Kaul - <http://www.amauta-international.com/iaf99/Thread3/Wild.html>

Watch

Stacie Grossman Bloom

How to Be a Better Mentor

Neuroscience Institute Executive Director Stacie Grossman Bloom answers "What Do You Find To Be the Most Important Elements of a Mentorship Experience?" Bloom shares how mentors have shaped her non-traditional science career outside the laboratory. She notes the importance of respect, trust, open communication, selflessness, and dedication to your personal network and knowledge development. She also makes it clear a good mentor does not necessarily need to dedicate a large amount of time to the relationship; rather it just needs to be focused and dedicated. –

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fxytOloucpY>

Tips & Tricks



5 seconds rule

Listening can be very challenging sometimes, because we want to share our ideas and give solutions to those around us. At the same moment the people need time to find their own thoughts and ideas. In order to stimulate a good communication, if you are in the role of a mentor, coach, facilitator, wait for 5 seconds before you communicate your opinion. This will give more time to your communication partner to share deeper and important thoughts.

Adolescence (from puberty to the age of 18)

The changes in young adulthood build on changes that have taken place in adolescence, particularly the following:

Abstract thinking: One of the most exciting changes in adolescence is the development of a much greater capacity for abstract thought. By early adolescence, one's mental range can hold not only concrete objects and experiences, but also concepts, and organize them into categories and patterns— abstract concepts such as friendship or fairness. One can think about addition and subtraction as "opposite" operations, for example, rather than simply carrying out these functions.

Right/wrong framework: This abstract thinking, however, still has limitations, including a tendency to be able to hold on one's mental screen only one concept of what is "right" at a time. Ideas are either right or wrong; you are either right or wrong; they are either right or wrong. Knowledge is held by authorities, such as teachers, and the student's job is to learn the right answers and give them back to the teacher. This has been called "dualistic" thinking by William Perry and others. (See References on the web site.)

Instrumental relationships: Teens also are limited in their ability to hold more than one point of view. They can put themselves in another person's shoes, but they have more difficulty holding another point of view and theirs at the same time. When their needs become pressing, the needs of others fall off their mental visor. Given these limitations, relationships tend to be about alternating reciprocity, "You scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours." This has been called "instrumental" thinking by Robert Kegan and others. (See References on the web site.)

Intensity of emotion: Triggered by hormones at puberty, teens are more aroused, and aroused more easily, whether by something that makes them happy, angry, or excited. It is not clear, for example, whether they actually argue more often with parents, but it is clear that, when they argue, they express more anger.

Sensation seeking: Teens also show a heightened desire for emotional intensity, and for the thrills, excitement, adventures, and risk-taking that are likely to generate high emotion. The ability to regulate such emotions effectively does not typically come until young adulthood, so there is often a gap of several years between the onset of the "accelerator" and the development of effective "brakes." Or, as Pittsburgh researcher Ronald Dahl puts it, "We have a supercharged car with an unskilled driver." (See References on the web site.)

Adolescence also brings, as a result of hormonal changes at puberty, increased sensitivity to alcohol and other drugs, alterations in the sleep cycle, and changes in the hormones associated with mood. All of these changes interact, contributing to adolescents' heightened vulnerability to mood disorders and other types of mental illness.

Young Adulthood (18-25 years)

More complex thinking: As teens progress into young adulthood, they are able to hold and manipulate on their mental "visor" not only single abstractions, but also clusters of abstractions and then systems for organizing abstract thoughts, according to Kurt Fischer, Michael Commons, and others (See References on the web site). This assists them perhaps most visibly in mathematics and sciences, but applies to thinking about all phenomena, such as ideas, values, and perspectives.

Appreciation for diverse views: This added thinking power is described by William Perry and others as a change from the "right/wrong" framework of adolescence described above to a more "multiplistic" framework, in which young adults can "see" many points of view, value the diversity of people and perspectives, and appreciate that there can be many right answers to a problem. At first, all ideas seem to have equal value, as one embraces the full diversity of people and perspectives. Over time, one finds ways to organize this multiplicity, to identify values and

viewpoints that work better for oneself, while respecting that other viewpoints may fit better for others. Ultimately, one evolves a more “relativistic” approach and works out ways to commit personally to certain values amidst the diversity.

Mutuality in relationships: Young adults are better able to consider different points of view at the same time, that is, to hold multiple perspectives on their mental visor. This allows them to form relationships with peers based on observing that they care about the same things and loyalties to institutions based on observing that they share the same values. They can also understand constructive criticism, appreciating that the other person is intending to be helpful, even if the effect is painful at the moment. Moving from the “instrumental” described above to a more “socializable” orientation, in Robert Kegan’s terms (See References on the web site), young adults are more likely to operate from a principle like the Golden Rule, “Do unto others as you would have them do unto you”.

Emotional regulation: Critical to their safety, young adults acquire a significantly greater capacity for integration of thought and emotion. With the ability to hold the present and the future on their mental visor at the same time, they can weigh immediate rewards against future consequences, putting more effective “brakes” on the emotional intensity and sensation-seeking heightened since puberty.

Risk-taking and decision-making: With this greater capacity for thinking about future consequences and regulating emotions, young adults have an easier time modulating risk-taking and making decisions about the future, including choices about health, relationships, education, and careers. They can also weigh the impact of their choices on others more effectively, in actions as simple as showing up for appointments on time or as complex as parenting a young child.

Later Adulthood (25 and older)

On an even less predictable timetable, powerful changes continue after young adulthood, which cumulatively can lead to sophisticated thought and behavior significantly more complex than that of young adulthood. Employers, parents, peers, and others often sense this evolution subjectively, noticing that someone in or after their mid-20s is somehow more “mature,” more fully an adult. Elements that are part of this growth include:

New levels of abstract analysis: Researchers measure yet another level of complexity in abstract thought, sometimes called abstract systems, which represents an ability not only to organize abstractions, but to do so self-consciously, and to evaluate ways of doing so. This capacity is important in certain types of fields, such as science, humanities, and law, and sometimes shows up relatively early, in the mid-20s, in those studying these areas.

More complex problem-solving: Also measurable is greater sophistication in analyzing problems that have no right answers, such as moral dilemmas, and to articulate resolutions based on more complex types of thought.

Enhanced leadership capacity: Sometimes described as more “self-authoring,” people who have evolved beyond young adulthood are able to put themselves on their mental “visor,” and to observe the ways in which they play an active role in shaping their values and decisions. Thus, they can create as well as follow rules, conscious that there is a process by which individuals do so. As parents, they can make family rules and maintain boundaries more comfortably.

Greater capacity for self-evaluation: With this enhanced ability to see themselves as actors on the stage of life, they can also evaluate how effectively they do so, and how satisfied they—or their employers, partners, and others—are with their performance and their impact.

Internal commitments in work and relationships: At the same time, they can form commitments to people, work organizations, communities, and families based on a self-awareness of their own role in making choices, rather than following along out of loyalty to the same values. As Robert Kegan has put it, the kinds of “meaning-making” that are characteristic of young adulthood are rather like using automatic shift; those more characteristic of older adults

are more like manual shift, where one has more understanding of and influence over the mechanisms behind one's decisions.

Individual Differences

The timing of developmental changes, and whether they happen at all, varies profoundly from person to person. Many factors play a role, including the following.

Age, education, gender: Certain demographics make a difference in the timing and likelihood of developmental shifts, notably age, gender, and exposure to formal education.

Abuse, neglect, trauma: Traumatic events, such as abuse, neglect, severe deprivation, and exposure to violence, take a costly toll. Young adults with a history of trauma are vulnerable to getting "stuck" developmentally, or to growing more slowly and/or unevenly than otherwise.

Race, ethnicity, sexual identity: Anything that adds to challenges around identity can make the developmental tasks of young adulthood more difficult, including challenges associated with belonging to an oppressed, victimized, or stigmatized group within society.

Temperament: People are born with varying degrees of openness to change and to the experiences that facilitate certain types of developmental change.

Parenting style: Parents vary in the extent to which they provide opportunities for young adults to receive the support and the challenges that foster development. The role of parents in young adult development is only just beginning to be studied and appreciated, but it is clear that parents continue to have an important and evolving influence.

Illness: Any serious illness, especially mental illness, can create delays in healthy development. The high rates of depression and other mental illnesses among young adults in the U.S. are of particular concern.

Disabilities: Learning disabilities are a factor in development, as are differences between the learning style of the young adult and the educational approach of her or his learning environment.

Substance abuse: Growing evidence points to the serious impact of chronic substance abuse on young adult development. Recent research is demonstrating ways in which alcohol and other drugs affect the growing brain, causing damage that may or may not be possible to repair.

Culture: Fascinating differences in young adult development across culture are just beginning to be explored, differences that allow some kinds of growth to occur earlier in some cultures than others. For example, young adults in cultures that emphasize interdependence and interconnectedness may adopt a more "multiplistic" view sooner than those in societies that emphasize individuality and independence.

Getting stuck: Due to any of these circumstances, or a combination, some people may not make the kinds of shifts in complexity of thinking, that typically occur during young adulthood. They struggle with the expectations and demands of modern life in part because they are handicapped by thinking capacities that are more typical in some ways of adolescence and younger ages.

Ways to Help

Blending support and challenge: Fostering healthy growth is a balancing act, because the process of development, for anyone, is alternatively exhilarating, disconcerting, satisfying, frustrating, and terrifying. If the environment contains too much challenge, young adults will retreat into old habits, lacking the safety to experiment with new ways of thinking. If the environment provides too much support, young adults will lack the experiences that expose

and question the limitations of their old ways of thinking. Just as young adults are learning that there is no one “right” way to approach problems, their mentors and guides must grapple with their being no one “right” way to help them.

Three tiers of influence: All told, the process of encouraging development in young adults can take place at any or all of three levels:

- One can help provide the conditions that encourage optimal functioning, or at least discourage regression in functioning, such as opportunities to practice new thinking skills; see developmental range below.
- One can encourage steps toward the next developmental milestones, based on ingredients for providing support and providing challenge outlined below.
- One can encourage young adults to think of development as an ongoing, lifelong process by modelling and talking about one’s own developmental changes and challenges, past and present.

Developmental range: No one operates at her or his developmental best all the time. We all have an “optimal” level of functioning that we can manage when we are least stressed and most supported—and lower levels of functioning for the rest of the time. For example, a student’s ability to solve a complex problem may be very different when he or she is working one-on-one with a mentor than it will be that same night when she or he is tired and alone. Some theorists believe that new, more complex capacities for functioning arrive in spurts or stages. However, because these new capacities are fragile at first, and used rarely, they appear to evolve more gradually. Over time, what was hard becomes easier, and what was impossible becomes merely hard.

Below is a list of some of the key factors that can affect one’s level of functioning:

“Hot” and “cold” cognition: As we all know too well, people don’t function at their cognitive best at times of high emotional arousal, what researchers sometimes call “hot” cognition. Thus, a young adult may genuinely say at the family dining table, with clarity and sincerity, that he or she would not consider drinking and driving, but this same level of cognitive functioning is unlikely to be present after a party, late at night, pressured by friends, or reoccupied by the prospect of hooking up. “I wasn’t thinking” is literally true.

Sleep deprivation: Our cognitive functioning is also different when we are alert and rested, compared to when we are sleepy or sleep-deprived. This is of particular concern among teens and young adults, given the prevalence of sleep deprivation triggered, in part, by changes in sleep cycles and in larger part by modern 24/7 lifestyles.

Surroundings: Like all of us, young adults demonstrate higher levels of cognitive functioning when they are in familiar surroundings. Thus, college freshmen are likely to be particularly vulnerable to mistakes and difficulties with judgment, as they navigate entirely new environments, rules, and lifestyles.

Practice: We can use optimal levels of functioning more effectively in content areas that are familiar, where we have had the most practice. Students who are more at home with academic subjects than social scenes, for example, will show more optimal functioning in these areas— and vice versa.

Support: Support encourages optimal functioning, whether it takes the form of modeling the optimal behavior, taking an interest, mentoring, or even doing the same activity along with the learner.

How to Help

Providing Challenge

Interactions with teachers & other adults: One of the most well-established findings about the influence of college on young adult development is that students benefit significantly from interactions with adults who are thinking at higher levels of cognitive complexity, engaging in meaningful and respectful dialogue, and modeling more sophisticated thinking. Some studies focus on the influence of faculty specifically, others on adults more generally.

Diversity of peers: Simply the presence of a rich range of people and ideas makes a difference, challenging young adults to widen their thinking and reach greater complexity.

Interdisciplinary & integrative approaches to education: Educational experiences that bring together diverse ideas and information also help challenge “black-and-white” thinking.

Out of classroom experiences: A recognition of the value of out of classroom experiences is reflected in the growing interest in semesters abroad and public service opportunities on college campuses.

Instruction in cognitive skills: Although generally not found to be as effective as out-of-classroom experiences, actual instruction in areas like “critical thinking” and “leadership” can play a significant role, depending on the characteristics of the program.

Providing Support

Scaffolding: Some researchers use the image of scaffolding to describe the kind of support young adults need—a framework to surround them while the building is being constructed inside, one that is removed piece by piece as more of the building is completed. The “scaffolding” includes:

Matching level of challenge with ability: If the level of challenge is too great, young adults, like all of us, “developmentally escape”, finding ways to absorb new ideas into old structures, rather than taking apart the old structures to build new ones.

Balance of structure and flexibility: Young adults need opportunities to make decisions—and mistakes—on their own, in areas where it is safe to do so, and they need clear boundaries in areas where it is not.

Monitoring: The environment surrounding young adults also needs to include mechanisms for identifying people and situations where mistakes have become, or may become, too costly, and where assistance needs to be offered.

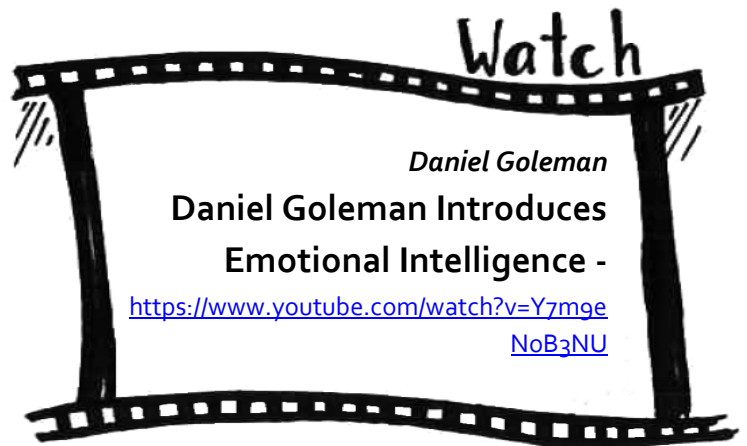
Safety net: The important resources in a young adult’s life, including parents, university programs, clinicians, employer services, and others, need to be in coordination, so that a young adult can “fall” into a safety net anywhere and find her or his way to the right people and programs.

Tincture of time: Healthy development takes time, which the pressured atmosphere of many campuses and workplaces does not provide. Offering opportunities for taking time-out is critical, without stigma and with recognition that doing so is a common and often essential step when students, family members, or employees get “stuck.”

Source (adapted from): A. Rae Simpson, PhD (rsimpson@mit.edu); Young adult development project - <http://hrweb.mit.edu/worklife/youngadult/index.html>

Emotional intelligence

(According to Daniel Goleman)



Emotional intelligence (EI) or emotional quotient (EQ) is the ability of individuals to recognize their own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different feelings and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior. The term gained prominence in the 1995 book by that title, written by the author, psychologist, and science journalist Daniel Goleman. There are several models of EI. Goleman's own model may now be considered a *mixed model* that combines what have subsequently been modelled separately as *ability EI* and *trait EI*. Goleman defined EI as the array of skills and characteristics that drive leadership performance.



Studies have shown that people with high EI have greater mental health, exemplary job performance, and more potent leadership skills.



The model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main EI constructs (for more details see "What Makes A Leader" by Daniel Goleman, best of Harvard Business Review 1998):

1. Self-awareness – the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and recognize their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide

decisions.

2. Self-regulation – involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.
3. Social skill – managing relationships to move people in the desired direction
4. Empathy - considering other people's feelings especially when making decisions
5. Motivation - being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Goleman's model of EI has been criticized in the research literature as mere "pop psychology" (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008).

Source: Wikipedia – Emotional Intelligence - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emotional_intelligence

Counseling youth

In every community there are youth who face different obstacles and have fewer opportunities. They may be from dysfunctional families, marginalized neighborhoods, discriminated groups, and so on. The youth who are in these situations need a special attention and more complex interventions. Improving their life conditions and psycho-emotional states can be a challenging task even for the most experienced youth workers. In order to create better results, a youth worker should play the role of counselor. Although this could be a specialization of a youth worker, it is important to understand the perspective of a youth counselor, so we can better understand how to help the young people in need.

(Bogdan Romanică)

What is a Youth Counselor?

A youth counselor is someone who provides support and guidance to young people who are seen to be 'at risk' or who have committed crimes – typically up to and including in their teenage years. Youth counselors can be involved to provide support in a range of issues affecting this population which impact upon their development socially or educationally. Examples of such issues include unstable home lives, bullying, sexuality, or body image concerns.

As well as providing support, a youth counselor is also a point of contact for young people to find out about local services and provide a key role in introducing their young clients to specialist services for their area of concern. Youth counselors are found in employment in a range of environments including schools, within the criminal justice system and social services – this leaves them well placed to engage with young people that are experiencing problems or who are seen to be at risk of developing ongoing issues.

What Does a Youth Counselor Do?

Youth counselors provide guidance, information, and some case management for youth ages 11-21 who might otherwise go unsupported. Counselors work on a wide variety of issues with these youth: substance abuse, trauma, social skills, academic underachievement, and family issues.

Youth counselors use a wide variety of professional skills to help their clients. The first and most important technique is to develop rapport with a youth; to establish themselves as a friendly, trustworthy adult who has their best interests and success foremost in mind. Because many youth who are underachieving, abused, or are within the criminal justice system feel persecuted by adults, it isn't always easy to establish rapport. Trust-building techniques such as careful self-disclosure, thorough review of confidentiality policies, and intentional discussions of transference and countertransference are some of the first-line tools for building rapport with distrustful youth.

Once rapport is established, many youth counselors use Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) techniques, which involve collaboratively examining the interplay between a youth's thoughts, behaviors, and feelings. Many counselors skip over the rapport-building phase in an effort to streamline treatment, but this is a mistake. Without rapport, the youth will benefit little from counseling.

Within the cognitive-behavioral model, it is believed that a change in either thoughts, behaviors, or feelings can facilitate change in the other two categories. For example, if a counselor and youth are working collaboratively and decide to focus on changing the youth's behavior in a certain academic class with hopes of bettering the youth's grade, they might focus on shifting the youth's thoughts about the teacher from negative to neutral.

Youth counselors working with substance abusing youth might use a variety of techniques. Often these techniques require additional or supplemental training from the basic education necessary to become a youth counselor. These techniques include motivational interviewing, specialty substance abuse counseling, and various other county-instituted programs focusing on substance-abusing youth.

Some youth counselors also incorporate family therapy into their treatment if they believe the youth would benefit from it. Other techniques might include art therapy, journaling, and psychodynamic techniques. Collaboration with other adults in the youth's life is almost always beneficial, but must be done in a way that does not compromise the youth's confidentiality and therefore trust.

What is a Gang Prevention Counselor?

As the name indicates, a gang prevention counselor works with people who are either at risk for gang involvement or who are formerly members of gangs. Primarily focused on the needs of children and adolescents, gang prevention counselors generally work as part of a larger team or task force to achieve the goal of reducing gang activity and involvement in the community. Gang prevention counselors will also provide services to families whose loved ones are in a gang, as well as to communities who are struggling with gang violence.

Gang prevention counselors approach their work in a variety of ways. Many activities in which gang prevention counselors engage are educationally related. Especially when working with children and adolescents, counselors will focus on helping their clients stay in school. This often includes arranging or providing tutoring services, employment readiness training, building college preparatory skills, and preventing truancies. Additionally, mentorship, life coaching, and leadership training are primary tools that counselors use to help keep kids out of gangs and focused on getting an education.

Traditional therapy is also part of a gang prevention counselor's duties. Many counselors offer group therapy for children and adolescents. They might oversee psycho-educational groups for clients that are at risk of joining a gang. These groups would focus on building the educational skills outlined above, in addition to strong social and emotional skills that allow clients to effectively overcome the obstacles in their lives, such as poverty, that might drive them to join a gang in the first place. Other types of therapeutic interventions seek to address specific issues that could also increase the likelihood that a young person becomes involved in a gang, such as substance abuse.

Another common duty for gang prevention counselors is to help people develop a stronger sense of community. In this case, the focus of the intervention would include not just children and adolescents, but parents, siblings, other family members, and community members as well. The goal of family and community-based interventions is to build a strong support system for at-risk youth. This might be accomplished through mentorship activities. For example, youth at risk of joining a gang would be paired with a positive adult role model who teaches young people essential skills they need to make steps towards positive growth.

Working with former gang members is another primary duty of gang prevention counselors. In this capacity, counselors provide many of the same services as they do to at-risk youth – there is a focus on education and building a strong support system. However, counseling former gang members might also involve one-on-one or group counseling as well. For example, counselors might oversee a group that focuses on anger management,

building social and communication skills, improving decision making, and improving self-control. There would also be an emphasis on developing conflict resolution skills that empower the client to resolve issues without violence.

Why Do We Need Youth Counselors?

Working as a counselor with youth clients can be one of the most rewarding jobs in the world. Teenagers are often plagued by internal stressors as well as external stressors which they need guidance in working through. Sometimes these youth have been struggling in school or at home and their families seek out a youth counselor who can help the teenager identify her/his problems and work through them. Other times, youth are sent to a counselor after a major incident such as a crime or threat, in these cases the youth is required to attend sessions with a counselor before they can return to school or home with their family.

Where Does a Youth Counselor Work?

Youth counselors work in a school environment where they talk to students throughout the day about issues that typically face teenagers. Individual students may come to the counselor's office when they have issues they would like to discuss or when a teacher requests they visit with the counselor.

Other work environments may include correctional facilities that work with teenagers, drug treatment programs or inpatient mental health clinics. It is also possible to be a youth counselor in an outpatient clinic and specifically only take teenage clients. There is a growing need for outpatient counselors who can see patients before and after school hours because many youth counselors in this type of setting require kids to miss class to attend sessions during the school day.

What are the Education Requirements to Become a Youth Counselor?

If you will be working with youth in a clinical setting and providing one to one sessions you will likely need to finish a graduate degree program in counseling so you can go on to become a licensed counselor. Through your training and education you will learn specific techniques for working with teenagers and the problems that typically bother them on a daily basis.

Most training programs might not have a specific teen or youth degree, but instead you may specialize in counseling practice and go on to finish specific work training in the area of youth counseling. You may be able to take specific classes that relate to child and teen counseling issues.

What Do You Learn in a Youth Counseling Degree?

Counseling theory – Most courses begin with an introduction to counseling theory course. This gives participants the basic understanding of the theoretical issues around counseling before they begin to learn more specialized techniques.

Different counselling approaches – There are many different approaches to counseling and it's important the participants know, and understand, the differences so that they can make an informed choice about the approach they want to take in their own practice.

Human development – Working with young people of various ages, it is essential that this type of course outlines the developmental stages of childhood. This knowledge helps counselors to use the most appropriate techniques depending on the age of the child, understand difficulties that might arise at each point of development and be able to identify where development is being affected by a child's environment.

Specific areas for focus – Areas such as family issues, educational issues and sexual issues are all common areas of working for youth counseling. A good degree program will cover each one separately and discuss the challenges as well as the techniques to assist clients in coping with them. Other areas likely to be covered specifically are bereavement, bullying and child abuse so that counselors are well prepared for the issues of their client population.

Social and cultural issues – Students may also be taught about the social and cultural issues affecting young people in different communities.

Boundaries – Young people can become attached to a trusted adult. Students are taught how to gain the trust of young people but courses may also discuss how to develop relationships in which clients can talk openly, and feel safe in doing so, while remaining professional and appropriate.

What Skills are needed for a Youth Counselor?

Working with youth will require some specific skills that not all individuals in the counseling profession will have. Youth clients will often have behavioral issues such as violence. These issues are very overwhelming to new counselors in the field of youth counseling. But experienced counselors see violent outbursts as a chance to help the client identify what is bothering them so badly that violence is the only solution they can see. Through your training and education you will learn techniques for de-escalating these individuals and helping them identify their triggers for violent outbursts.

Self-harming statements and behaviors are another area which youth counselors need to be especially aware of because these types of behaviors are extremely dangerous and often require inpatient hospitalization to help stabilize the client.

Teenagers are a great group of individuals who are in the midst of emotional and physical changes, which can often overwhelm them. It is your job, as a counselor, to help them through this difficult time of their lives.

As a youth counselor it is important that you can maintain your composure in the midst of difficult exchanges with your clients. It is also extremely important that you do not let the behaviors of your client dictate the treatment plan you have for them.

Youth clients can be especially manipulative and your job as a counselor requires you to see through those manipulations. Working as a youth counselor is a hard job that will bring many emotional rewards as you see your clients grow into strong and stable adults.

Source: *Psychology School Guide - Youth Counselor Career* - <http://www.psychologyschoolguide.net/counseling-careers/becoming-a-youth-counselor/>

Career guidance

What is Career Counseling?

While growing up, some people want to be astronauts, police officers, race car drivers, teachers, doctors, nurses, or even cowboys. Me? I wanted to be an FBI profiler. Of course, our first career choices don't always work out. We either grow out of them or later find that they aren't suitable for us. The career tests that I took in high school pinned me as the brainy, quiet, creative type - perfect for a writer, but not so much for an FBI agent. While what I do may not be as exciting as chasing down scary, crazy bad guys every day, it really is the perfect career for me.

Of course, I'm one of the lucky ones. Some aren't so lucky. You've probably heard it a thousand times or more...

"I hate my job!"

"I don't make enough money."

"My career isn't challenging enough."

"My job is too difficult for me."

"I'm bored with my career."

These laments are uttered by countless people each and every day. In fact, recent studies show that over half of Americans are unhappy with their jobs and careers.

Career counseling offers a way to change this. This is a type of counseling that focuses on helping people make the best of their careers, whether they're just starting out in the work force or they've been in it longer than they care to admit.

One of the first major books written on the subject of career counseling and guidance was *Choosing a Vocation* by Frank Parson in 1909. Katharine Briggs came up with the idea of different personality types in the early 20th century. Together with her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers, she later helped create the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. This test was originally used during World War II to help place women in positions in the industrial workforce, depending on their personality types.

Why Do We Need Career Counselors?

People work in order to be able to afford to live the lives that they desire. Careers and working are essential necessities in life for the majority of adults in the world. Most people will spend at least a quarter of their adult lives working.

Career counseling can help point people in the right direction when it comes to choosing careers that they will excel at and be happy with. Being happy with a career can lead to a happier home life and a greater sense of accomplishment.

What Does a Career Counselor Do?

Career counselors work with all sorts of people, from all walks of life, of all ages, with all different education and experience levels. These professionals might offer guidance and advice, for instance, to powerful businessmen or even just high school kids just starting out in the world.

The main goal of a career counselor is to help their clients find careers that suit them and careers that they are suitable for. There are a number of things that career counselors might want to consider when trying to accomplish this task.

Attitude and Skills A person's aptitude and skills refer to his ability to do something. Career counselors will often interview and test clients to determine where their strengths lie, and therefore, which careers they would be good at.

Education Career counselors will also usually take in a client's education level - or desired education level - when attempting to help him find the right career, since many careers require a certain amount of education. These counselors might also consider whether or not it is possible or advisable for a client to continue her/his education.

Personality A person's personality will also usually play a role in determining the best career for her/him, since different personality types usually excel at different types of careers.

Interests Career counselors also take their clients' interests into account when advising them on the best career options for them.

To determine some of these factors, career counselors will often ask their clients to take a number of tests and surveys. For instance, clients might take IQ and aptitude tests, as well as fill out questionnaires on their interests and skills. As mentioned above, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is still one of the most common tests that career counselors use. This test reveals a person's personality traits, which can be used to determine that might be a good fit for them.

Career counselors will also usually help their clients research and get started in their new careers. This might involve helping them search for jobs along with writing resumes and cover letters.

Along with helping some clients find the right careers, career counselors will also help others improve their existing careers. They may offer advice and guidance on how to get a promotion, for instance, or just how to have a more enjoyable experience while at work.

Where Do Career Counselors Work?

Career counselors work in high schools and colleges to help students get ready for their chosen careers. They might also work in social services offices, employment and staffing agencies, and private practices.

Source: *Becoming a career counselor* - <http://careersinpsychology.org/start-your-career-counseling-career/>

Career Guidance Tips for Teachers

(Christine Gapuz)

1. **Be an example of happiness and contentment.** The only competition that can give financial rewards a run for its money is happiness. Remind your students every day that career is not an issue of immediate monetary returns but of enduring returns. Seeing you smiling despite the stress of your work (and the delayed salary if you will) will inspire them to choose careers they will enjoy in the long run. It will also show them how, even if industry demands change, who they are and what gives them joy will remain rock-steady.
2. **Encourage self-reflection and self-discovery.** With all the diversions and recreation students have, taking time off to think and reflect might be the last thing on their to-do list. You can help them by giving them a few minutes at homeroom to ponder on some questions like: "What do I like best about myself?" or "What do I want to do for the next five years?" If this seems too serious, use games like Icebreaker or Query.
3. **Let them express their plans and dreams.** Many students, when asked what they want to do in life, just shrug and say, "I don't know". Perhaps they don't, perhaps they do but haven't really thought about it. Allowing them to express their dreams-no matter how far-out-promotes the value of thinking ahead and the skill of planning. Ask them to create an image of who they will be ten years from now and to write about what they have accomplished within ten years. This way, it will seem like they have already achieved what they desire.
4. **Commend a student's strengths to him and to his peers.** Giving praise where it is due certainly makes a difference. Notice the smallest victories in any field or aspect of life. Did someone submit an exceptional drawing or essay? Made friends with everyone? Fixed a broken chair? Receiving positive remarks about his/her output or attitude boosts self-esteem and encourages a student to pursue his/her best attributes. Making a student's peers see your sign of approval makes them appreciate the person's worth, creating a community where students are not forced to see academics as the only standard of worth.
5. **Introduce them to a variety of successful people.** Provide them with role models of passion and good career choice, be it a college graduate or a high school dropout. It is common fare for students to meet college graduate bigwigs in their lessons. There are many of them after all, as if to prove that college is the only way out of poverty. What is difficult is to convince people that college is not for everyone and is not the only option. If you name drop successful celebrities and tycoons who didn't go to college, they just might rethink the entire thing.
6. **Talk about a student's best qualities and possible options to his/her parents.** Hearing of their child's passion and perseverance in something never fails to make parents proud of their children. Hearing of the best qualities of their child from a teacher enhances their understanding of their child and makes them more open to options other than theirs. Inform them of possibilities for their child and emphasize long-term rewards over immediate gains. For those students who are not apt for college education, dwell on the positive traits of the student so that parents will see the benefits of alternative options like technical-vocational careers.
7. **Organize a simple education and career directory.** Because of the unavailability of organized information on education and career options, make a simple one for your homeroom class. You can put a simple list of college courses and technical-vocational specializations and their corresponding job or industry requirements. At the bottom of the list, include contact numbers for some colleges or universities and institutions that offer technical-vocational programs. You may also include local bureau or government agency hotlines.

Source: *Career Guidance Tips For Teachers* By Christine Gapuz; Article Source: <http://EzineArticles.com/4795520>

Solution Focused Brief Therapy

Each person is at one point in life in need for support. Sometimes, when we lose our motivation, direction in life or simply we don't know how to overcome a problem, an "outsider" is what we need. The "outsider" can be a youth worker, who knows some "tricks" which can help the person in need overcome the obstacle. The youth worker can help the person identify the solution that he/she already has, but cannot see it. Using complex psychological therapy is not on the youth workers job description, but using elements of short term therapies, which focus on the present and the future and not on the past, can be the trick which can help the youth overcome the problems. Solution Focused Brief Therapy offers easy to use tools and approaches which can help the youth workers support the young people in need of help.

(Bogdan Romanică)

What is Solution-focused Therapy?

Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT), also called Solution-Focused Therapy, Solution-Building Practice therapy, was developed by Steve de Shazer (1940-2005), and Insoo Kim Berg (1934-2007) and their colleagues beginning in the late 1970's in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. As the name suggests, SFBT is future-focused, goal-directed, and focuses on solutions, rather than on the problems that brought clients to seek therapy.

The entire solution-focused approach was developed inductively in an inner city outpatient mental health service setting in which clients were accepted without previous screening. The developers of SFBT spent hundreds of hours observing therapy sessions over the course several years, carefully noting the therapists' questions, behaviors, and emotions that occurred during the session and how the various activities of the therapists affected the clients and the therapeutic outcome of the sessions. Questions and activities related to clients' report of progress were preserved and incorporated into the SFBT approach.



Since that early development, SFBT has not only become one of the leading schools of brief therapy, it has become a major influence in such diverse fields as business, social policy, education, and criminal justice services, child welfare, domestic violence offenders' treatment. Described as a practical, goal-driven model, a hallmark of SFBT is its emphasis on clear, concise, realistic goal negotiations. The SFBT approach assumes that all clients have some knowledge of what would make their life better, even though they may need some (at times, considerable) help describing the details of their better life and that everyone who seeks help already possesses at least the minimal skills necessary to create solutions.

Key Concepts and Tools

All therapy is a form of specialized conversations. With SFBT, the conversation is directed toward developing and achieving the client's vision of solutions. The following techniques and questions help clarify those solutions and the means of achieving them.

Looking for previous solutions

SF therapists have learned that most people have previously solved many, many problems and probably have some ideas of how to solve the current problem. To help clients see these potential solutions they may ask, "Are there times when this has been less of a problem?" or "What did you (or others) do that was helpful?"

Looking for exceptions

Even when a client does not have a previous solution that can be repeated, most have recent examples of exceptions to their problem. These are times when a problem could occur, but does not. The difference between a previous solution and an exception is small, but significant. A previous solution is something that the family has tried on their own that has worked, but later discontinued. An exception is something that happens instead of the problem, often spontaneously and without conscious intention. SF therapists may help clients identify these exceptions by asking, "What is different about the times when this is less of a problem?"

Present and future-focused questions vs. past-oriented focus

The questions asked by SF therapists are usually focused on the present or on the future. This reflects the basic belief that problems are best solved by focusing on what is already working, and how a client would like their life to be, rather than focusing on the past and the origin of problems. For example, they may ask, "What will you be doing in the next week that would indicate to you that you are continuing to make progress?"

Compliments

Compliments are another essential part of solution focused brief therapy. Validating what clients are already doing well, and acknowledging how difficult their problems are encourages the client to change while giving the message that the therapist has been listening (i.e., understands) and cares. Compliments in therapy sessions can help to punctuate what the client is doing that is working. In SF therapy, compliments are often conveyed in the form of appreciatively toned questions of "How did you do that?" that invite the client to self-compliment by virtue of answering the question.

Inviting the clients to do more of what is working

Once SF therapists have created a positive frame via compliments and then discovered some previous solutions and exceptions to the problem, they gently invite the client to do more of what has previously worked, or to try changes they have brought up which they would like to try – frequently called "an experiment."

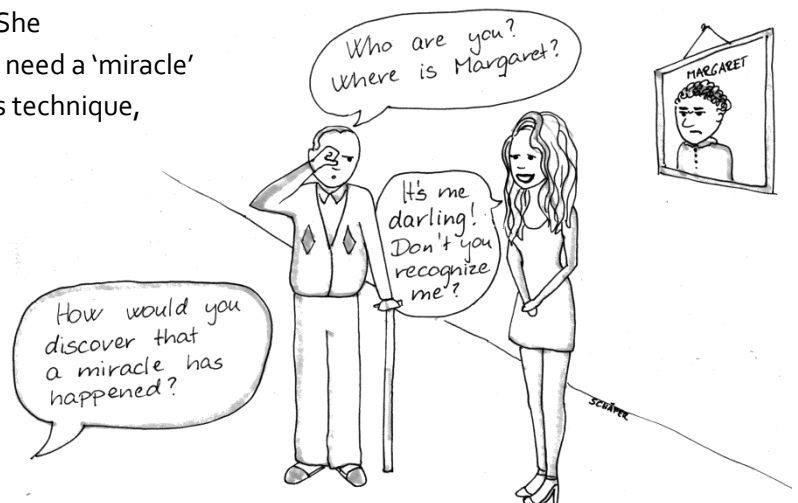
Miracle Question (MQ)

This unusual sounding tool is a powerful in generating the first small steps of 'solution states' by helping clients to describe small, realistic, and doable steps they can take as soon as the next day. The miracle question developed out of desperation with a suicidal woman with an alcoholic husband and four "wild" children who gave her nothing but grief. She was desperate for a solution, and thought she might need a 'miracle' to get her life in order. Since the development of this technique, the MQ has been tested numerous times in many different cultures. The most recent version is as follows:

T: I am going to ask you a rather strange question . . . that requires some imagination on your part . . . do you have good imagination?

C: I think so, I will try my best.

T: Good. The strange question is this: After we home (go back to work), and you still have lots of work to do yet for the rest of today (list usual tasks here). And it is time to go to bed . . . and everybody in your household are sound asleep and the house is very quiet . . . and in the middle of the night, there is a miracle and the problem that brought you to talk to me about is all solved. But because this happens when you are sleeping, you have no idea that there was a miracle and the problems is solved. . . so when you are slowly coming out of your sound sleep . . . what would be the first small sign that will make you wonder . . . there must've been a miracle . . . the problem is all gone! How would you discover this?



C: I suppose I will feel like getting up and facing the day, instead of wanting to cover my head under the blanket and just hide there.

T: Suppose you do, get up and face the day, what would be the small thing you would do that you didn't do this morning?

C: I suppose I will say good morning to my kids in a cheerful voice, instead of screaming at them like I do now.

T: What would your children do in response to your cheerful "good morning?"

C: They will be surprised at first to hear me talk to them in a cheerful voice, and then they will calm down, be relaxed. God, it's been a long time that happened.

T: So, what would you do then that you did not do this morning?

C: I will crack a joke and put them in a better mood.

These small steps become the building block of an entirely different kind of day as clients may begin to implement some of the behavioral changes they just envisioned. This is the longest question asked in SFBT and it has a hypnotic quality to it. Most clients visibly change in their demeanor and some even break out in smiles as they describe their solutions. The next step is to identify the most recent times when the client has had small pieces of miracles (called exceptions) and get them to repeat these forgotten experiences.

Scaling Questions

Scaling questions (SQ) can be used when there is not enough time to use the MQ and it is also useful in helping clients to assess their own situations, track their own progress, or evaluate how others might rate them on a scale of 0 to 10. It is used in many ways, including with children and clients who are not verbal or who have impaired verbal skills. One can ask about clients' motivation, hopefulness, depression, confidence, and progress they made, or a host of other topics that can be used to track their performance and what might be the next small steps.

The couple in the following example sought help to decide whether their marriage can survive or they should get divorced. They reported that they have fought for 10 years of their 20 years of marriage and they could not fight anymore.

T: Since you two know your marriage better than anybody does, suppose I ask you this way. On a number of 1 to 10, where 10 stands for you have every confidence that this marriage will make it and 1 stands for the opposite, that we might just as well walk away right now and it's not going to work. What number would you give your marriage? (After a pause, the husband speaks first.)

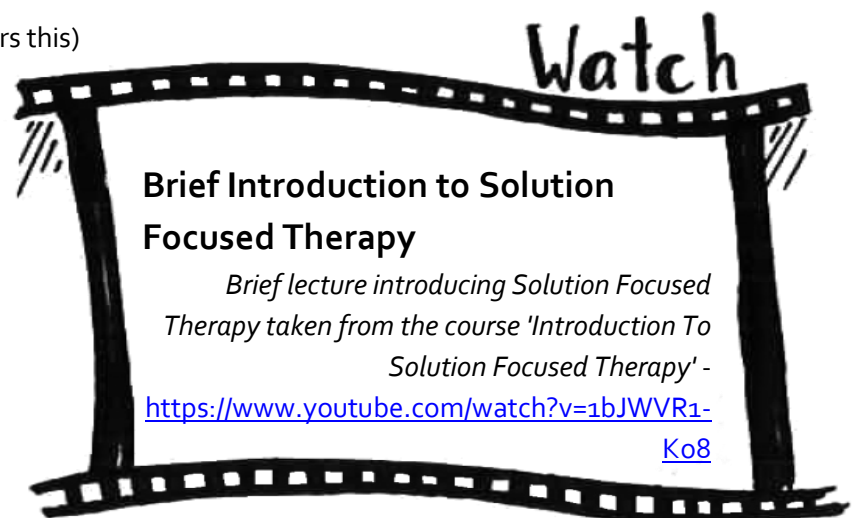
H: I would give it a 7. (the wife flinches as she hears this)

T: (To the wife) What about you? What number would you give it?

W: (she thinks about it a long time) I would say I am at 1.1.

T: (Surprised) So, what makes it a 1.1?

W: I guess it's because we are both here tonight.



Coping Questions

This question is a powerful reminder that all clients engage in many useful things even in times of overwhelming difficulties. Even in the midst of despair, many clients do manage to get out of bed, get dressed, feed their children, and do many other things that require major effort. Coping questions such as “How have you managed to carry on?” or “How have you managed to prevent things from becoming worse?” open up a different way of looking at client’s resiliency and determination.

Consultation Break and Invitation to Add Further Information

Solution focused therapists traditionally take a brief consultation break during the 2nd half of each therapy session during which the therapist reflects carefully on what has occurred in the session. Some time prior to the break, the client is asked “Is there anything that I did not ask that you think it would be important for me to know?” During the break, the therapist or the therapist and a team reflect carefully on all that has occurred in the session. Following that, the client is complimented and usually offered a therapeutic message based on the client’s stated goal. Usually this takes the form of an invitation for the client to observe and experiment with behaviors that result in positive movement in the direction of the client’s identified goal.

Research Findings

Even though it is an inductively developed model, from its earliest beginnings there has been consistent interest in assessing SFBT’s effectiveness. Given the clinical philosophy behind the SFBT approach, it is not surprising that the initial research efforts relied primarily on client self-reports. Since then, an increasing number of studies have been generated, many with randomized comparison groups, such as that of Lindforss and Magnusson who studied the effects of SFBT on the prison recidivism in Hageby Prison in Stockholm, Sweden. Their randomized study compared those clients who received average of five SFBT sessions and those who received their usual available services. Clients were followed at 12 and 16 months after discharge from prison. The SFBT group consistently did better than the control group.

A number of researchers have reviewed studies conducted in a variety of settings and geographical locations, with a range of clients. Based on the reviews of these outcome studies, Gingerich and Eisengrat concluded that the studies offered preliminary support that the SFBT approach could be beneficial to clients. However, more microanalysis research into the co-construction process in solution-focused conversation is needed to develop additional understanding of how clients change through participating in these conversations.

Source: Institute for Solution Focused Therapy – What is Solution Focused Therapy - <http://www.solutionfocused.net/what-is-solution-focused-therapy/>

Youth participation

Youth participation is one fundamental principle in youth work. Despite its importance, it is often misunderstood and misused in youth projects. The lack of experience of young people is often used as a reason for many youth workers to create everything for the young people. Often the youth workers decide the educational program, the activities, they anticipate the needs of the young people and the ways to solve them. Although well intentioned, the youth workers can create a limited development of young people by reducing their participation. In order to create a more complex learning environment it is important to understand the characteristics of youth participation.

(Bogdan Romanică)

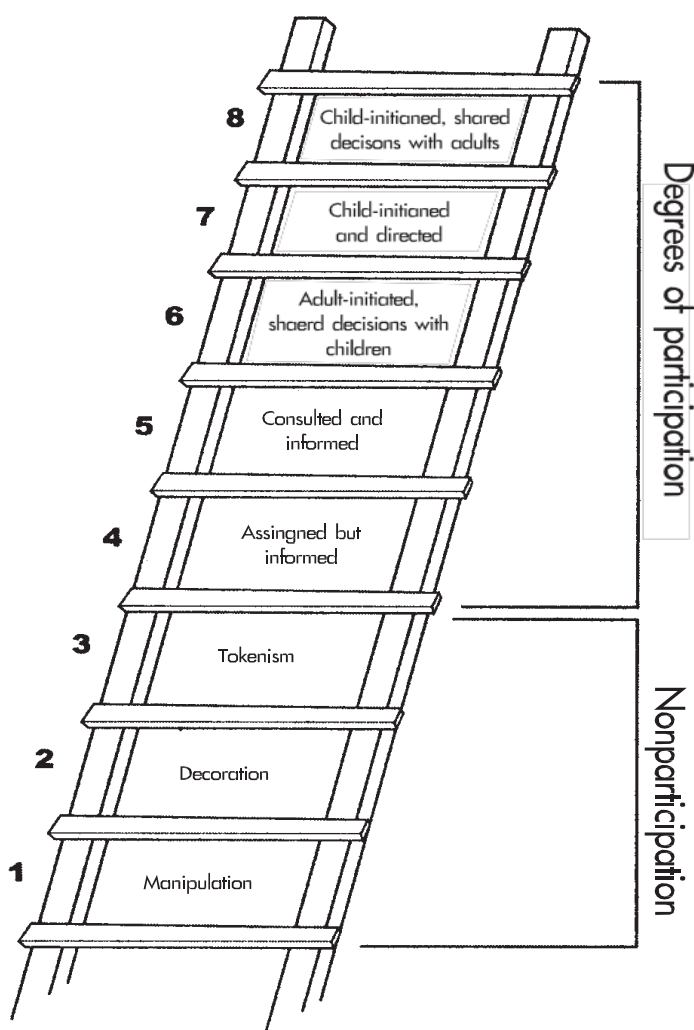
Roger Hart's Ladder of Participation

Roger Hart (1992) proposed the first comprehensive definition of the concept of participation, based on his experiences in environmental studies. He described participation as the process of sharing decisions that affect one's life and the life of the community in which one lives. It is the means by which democracy is built and it is a standard against which democracies should be measured. According to Hart, participation is the fundamental right of citizenship.

The key element of Hart's definition is decision-making. He describes participation as a ladder, with levels of youth involvement in projects ranging from non-participation to full participation. He identifies eight levels of participation, calling this the Ladder of Participation.

Hart's Ladder of Participation (Hart 1992)

- 1. Manipulation:** In this kind of participation, youth have no understanding of the issues and hence do not understand their actions. They are consulted but given no feedback on how the ideas they shared during the consultation are used.
- 2. Decoration:** youth participation involves providing entertainment through performances, or simply providing evidence of their involvement.
- 3. Tokenism:** Here, youth appear to have a voice. They are invited to sit in conference panels as representatives of youth but provided no opportunity to formulate their ideas on the subject of discussion. Likewise, no process enables them to consult with other youth they are supposed to represent.



The next five levels represent genuine participation. Hart describes how the youth is able to participate meaningfully by thoroughly understanding and choosing to become involved in the project.

4. Assigned-but-informed: This represents the first level of genuine participation. Here, youth understand the intentions of the project; they know who made the decision concerning their involvement and why; they have a meaningful role; and they volunteered for the project after it was made clear to them.

5. Consulted-and-informed: Here, the project is designed and run by adults but youth understand the project and their opinions are treated seriously.

6. Adult-initiated, shared decisions with Youth: Although adults initiated the project, decision-making is shared with young people.

7. Youth-initiated and directed: youth can initiate and direct their own projects, provided adults are able to leave youth alone to design their own projects.

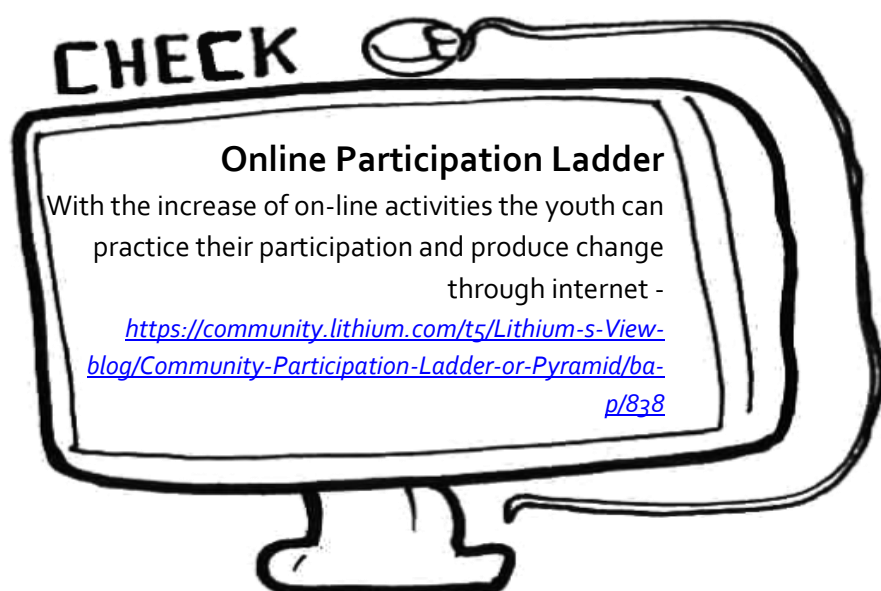
8. Youth-initiated, shared decisions with adults: This is the highest level of participation, according to Hart's model. Here, young people incorporate adults into projects they have designed and managed. Hart does not differentiate it from the other levels of participation. He explains this level by citing an example and by saying that this kind of participation is very rare.

Comments on the ladder of participation

The ladder of youth participation is very popular and is widely used among people promoting youth participation. The ladder is a scale that can be used in different situations to measure the degree of youth participation. However, the ladder says nothing about the purpose (and content) of youth participation. The CRC sets out very clearly what is meant by youth participation and what its purpose is.

For example, youth have the right to express their opinions. The ladder of participation could be used to determine the degree to which youth are able to express their opinions (and how seriously these opinions are taken by adults). However, rather than focusing on the degree of expressing opinions, it would be more useful to define more clearly what needs to be in place to realize youth right to an opinion. There is a danger that the ladder of participation gets overused and diverts attention from the clarity of youth rights to participation. Is there a danger that the ladder's hierarchy looks at participation from a needs-based perspective?

Acknowledgement of the article above is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated



Inclusion

Youth work is a domain of promoting and developing human rights and universal values. These elements are the most needed by those who have them the least. Young people with fewer opportunities are facing obstacles that stop them from reaching their full potential and create walls around them, which can lead to marginalization and discrimination. Youth work can be a powerful tool for creating social justice and bringing hope to those who lack it. In an unjust world, striving for equality and inclusion should be a cause for each of us, thus having a deeper understanding of what fewer opportunities means is the first step to produce change.

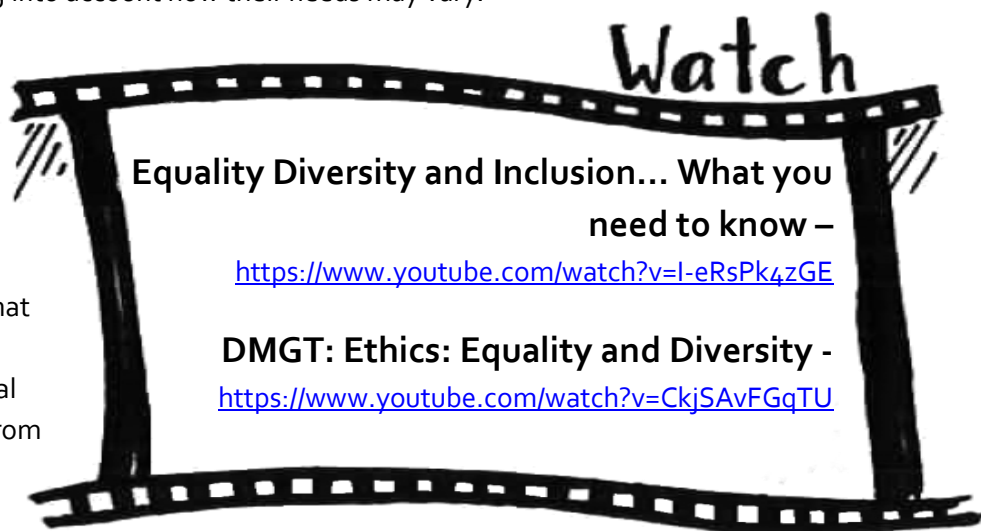
(Bogdan Romanică)

Inclusion: taking the stand for those who have fewer opportunities

Different programmes may categorize young people they address by age bracket, economic circumstances, migrant or cultural background, level of education, experience of education (e.g. drop outs, school returnees or an educational difficulty of some kind), disability or health issues, geographical setting (e.g. problem areas of a city, or a rural/urban divide), parenthood (i.e. considering the dynamics of teenage pregnancy or the needs of young parents), gender, language (i.e. what is their mother tongue?), or by institution they are involved with or which refers them (e.g. school, health or social services, institutional care or police).

Identifying differing needs is key to tailoring actions suitably; however, labelling young people can be stigmatising and prejudicial. Categorizing young people entails certain dangers: pre-assumption, putting people into 'boxes' and labelling a youth with a problem. Moreover, putting young people into pre-established generic typologies can serve to hide real specificity that may be relevant to that young person's situation. Nonetheless, actions in support of youth cannot be effective without taking into account how their needs may vary.

One possibility for youth practitioners is to adopt the definition of excluded youth used by the inclusion strategy of the Youth in Action, which is "young people with fewer opportunities" – as we do in this report – because it covers a wide range of situations and obstacles that can "prevent young people from having effective access to formal and non-formal education, trans-national mobility and from participation, active citizenship, empowerment and inclusion in society at large"



In practice, it is usually more effective and empowering to tailor support to young people in terms of the obstacles they need to overcome, i.e. as described by young people themselves. This means that young people should be involved in identifying their own needs. Thus, practitioners working with young people need to speak to them, and solicit from them – in their own words – a description of the obstacles they face and the needs they have.

The objective is not to invalidate the diagnosis of a situation that a qualified professional can make; rather it is to say that the subject – young people – needs to be part of that diagnostic and prescriptive process.

Source: Salto Inclusion: INCLUSION THROUGH EMPLOYABILITY - <https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-2316/InclusionThroughEmployability.pdf>

Intercultural learning

Intercultural learning: Working with youth in an increasingly diverse environment

New societies: multi- or intercultural?

Nowadays, people from different cultural backgrounds often live together in one society. More information and mobility on the one hand, unjust political and economic circumstances on the other, contribute to migration flows between many countries. Still, migration into Europe is little in comparison to other continents. The more borders we tear down, the stronger we protect others (for example, some would claim this for the Schengen treaty). “No more foreigners” becomes a policy. We start dividing into “good” and “bad” foreigners, into “valid reasons” and “not valid reasons” to migrate. Many of our societies find new – or not so new – ways to deal with the facts: suburban ghettos, segregation, racism, exclusion. Possible forms of living together are debated. We try to answer the questions whether people from different cultures can merely live beside each other in multicultural societies, or if a kind of “intercultural society” with deep interaction and all its implications is possible.

How does the encounter of cultural difference impact on us personally? Will we be able to cope with the day-to-day diversity around us? Can we develop appreciation for these differences? Are there chances to develop pluralistic forms of living together, in neighbourhoods, cities and countries? Can different cultures co-exist, based on curiosity, mutual acceptance and respect? Which processes will be necessary to reach this? What difficulties are to be met?

Intercultural learning as one possible contribution

Obviously, the view on the tendencies as presented here is not a neutral one, neither are the questions raised. They are based on the values the European institutions stand for and aim at, and transmit therefore a political vision, in the sense that we – as single persons encountering others – are as well citizens, living together in community, in constant interaction. Therefore, we carry common responsibilities for the way our societies look like. The absence of peace means war. Does the absence of war automatically mean peace? How do we define peace? Is it just “don’t hurt me, and then I won’t hurt you”? Or are we longing for more, do we have another vision of living together? If we admit that the interdependencies of today’s world touch and involve all of us, then we have maybe to search for new ways of living together, to understand the other as somebody to be respected deeply in all his/her differences.

“Intercultural learning” can be one tool in our efforts to understand the complexity of today’s world, by understanding others and ourselves a bit better. Moreover, it can be one of the keys to open the doors into a new society. “Intercultural learning” may enable us to better face the challenges of current realities. We can understand it as empowerment not just to cope personally with current developments, but to deal with the potential of change, which can have a positive and constructive impact in our societies. Our “intercultural learning capacities” are needed now more than ever. In this context, intercultural learning is a personal growing process with collective implications. It always invites us to reflect why we want to deal with it, which visions we have, what we want to achieve through it. Not just taken as a personal acquisition or a luxury for a few people working in an international environment, intercultural learning is relevant for how we live together in our societies.

Intercultural learning – and this publication – will hopefully contribute to daring to find at least some responses to the questions raised here. It can help to meet the challenges encountered, it might invite you to dream of another society and, it will definitely bring you new questions.

Source: *Intercultural Learning T-Kit* - <http://pjp-eu.coe.int/documents/1017981/1667917/tkit4.pdf/1e4f2f12-6448-4950-bofd-5f4c94da38e2>

Volunteering

Volunteering is a very profound experience. It is not only work experience or practice of something, but is the exercise of kindness and responsibility. Young people have, through volunteering, the chance to gain life and professional experience, develop key competences, practice participation and active citizenship. Often in youth work, voluntary work is used as learning experiences. Voluntary activities are planned strategically by the youth organizations in order to create opportunities for growth. The best use of voluntary work is if it is done within the experiential learning cycle. The work is the experience which needs to be analyzed through adapted debriefing and active reviewing. We will further explore what is volunteering and how it can be used to enhance young people's employability.

(Bogdan Romanicã)

Volunteering: a tool for youth employment and community development

Some examples of definitions are:

'Volunteering is giving your time and expertise/experience freely to influence and shape the development of young people, volunteers and youth organizations at local/regional/ national level'

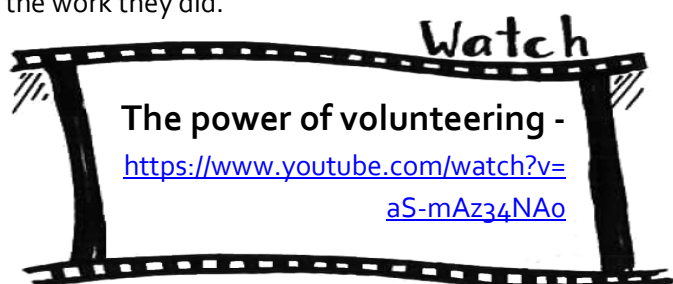
'Volunteering is a commitment of time to improve the situation and capability of young people by acting as a role model in terms of conduct and actions that we hope young people will aspire to.'

'A volunteer is someone who gives up their time for others' reward, because they care about their communities and people, are motivated to help other people, while being outgoing and willing to do stuff.'

More importantly, whilst it may be difficult to formally come up with a definition, there was more general agreement that volunteering was based on a set of principles that people accepted and tried to ensure that it formed a fundamental part of the ethos of their organization and the work they did.

Some Guiding Principles therefore are:

- Volunteering plays a significant and positive contribution to improving the lives of people, and to strengthening communities and civil society.
- Volunteering work is undertaken by the volunteer's free will, without financial gain.
- Sustaining volunteering is a means of creating and supporting a network of people who are available to work for and support organizations.
- Volunteers should be valued primarily for their individual contributions, enthusiasm and commitment, as well as for the experience and skills they can bring.
- Volunteering very often takes place informally in communities, as well as the formal organization of National Society programmes and activities.
- The role of volunteers complements but cannot replace that of paid staff and others who provide services.



Types of volunteering

Diversity of Volunteers

It is clear that there are many varied ways in which volunteers specifically in the youth sector can engage, some of which are as follows:

Occasional Volunteers - These are people who volunteer at short term events such as summer projects or help by contributing specific skills ranging from driving buses, accountancy, mentoring, painting /decorating etc. They volunteer occasionally, for short periods, perhaps a few times a year.

Regular Volunteers - These are people who give a commitment, on an ongoing basis usually within the one organization which they have had link with for some time. They undertake regular work in organizations, usually the same or similar role and complement the daily work of paid staff.

Specific volunteers - These are people who volunteer for a specific task or role such as for positions of responsibility or the Governance of the organizations. They have usually been elected and/or recruited by the community and/or staff on the basis of their skills and experience.

Young Volunteers - These young people can hold any of the above roles and/or act as peer mentors to other young people in organizations. There are also a number of specific youth led and managed voluntary organizations.

Additionally, it is possible to categorize volunteers by task, and in doing this it can be seen that in fulfilling this role, the volunteer may cross over one or more of the groups noted above.

For instance, it is quite possible for a young person who volunteers as a youth leader on a regular basis within his/her organization to take on or to be asked to take on a different role such as possibly representing the organization on the Board of another organization or at a Conference. Likewise, paid staff of an organization may take on a similar Board or Governance role within another organization on behalf of the organization that employs them.

What this diversity means is that as with the definition of Volunteering, it is difficult if not impossible to clearly identify a generic youth sector volunteer. The impact of this for organizations and the sector generally is that it throws up a significant variety of challenges and obstacles that the organization needs to be aware of and address in relation to its volunteer body.

Source: *Volunteering & volunteer support in the youth sector* - <http://www.youth.ie/sites/youth.ie/files/VOLUNTEERING.pdf>



Part 3 Practical skills

Assessing youth needs

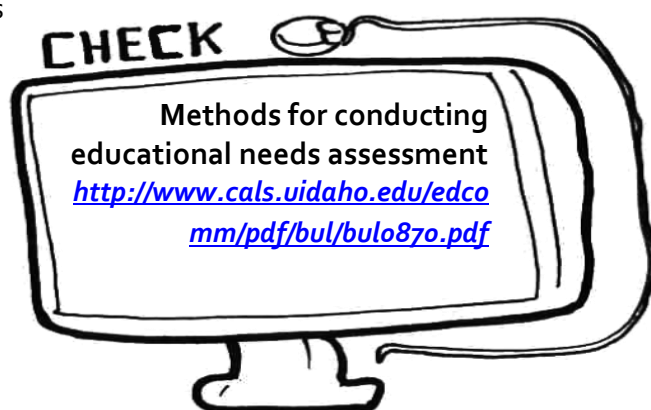
In the real world, there is never enough money to meet all needs. Needs assessments are conducted to help program planners identify and select the right job before doing the job right.

- A “**need**” is a discrepancy or gap between “what is” and “what should be.”
- A “**needs assessment**” is a systematic set of procedures that are used to determine needs, examine their nature and causes, and set priorities for future action.

“Target Group”

Needs Assessments are focused on particular target groups in a system.

Common target groups in education settings include students, parents, teachers, administrators, and the community at-large.



Ideally, needs assessments are initially conducted to determine the needs of the people (i.e., service receivers) for whom the organization or system exists (e.g., students).

However, a “comprehensive” needs assessment often takes into account needs identified in other parts of a system.

For example, a needs assessment might include the concerns of the “service providers” (e.g. teachers, guidance counselors, or school principals—the people who have a direct relationship with the service receivers) or “system issues” (e.g., availability of programs, services, and personnel; level of program coordination; and access to appropriate facilities).

A “**Needs Assessment**” is a **systematic** approach that progresses through a defined **series of phases**.

Needs Assessment focuses on the **ends** (i.e., outcomes) to be attained, rather than the **means** (i.e., process). For example, reading achievement is an outcome whereas reading instruction is a means toward that end.

It gathers data by means of **established procedures and methods** designed for specific purposes. The kinds and scope of methods are selected to fit the purposes and context of the needs assessment.

Needs assessment **sets priorities and determines criteria for solutions** so that planners and managers can make sound decisions.

Needs assessment **sets criteria** for determining how best to allocate available money, people, facilities, and other resources.

Needs assessment leads to **action** that will **improve** programs, services, organizational structure and operations, or a combination of these elements.

Source: *COMPREHENSIVE NEEDS ASSESSMENT – Practical Guide -*

<https://www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/compneedsassessment.pdf>

In the next two chapters we will use the term **Learning goal** as a reference to all pedagogical results that can be outcomes of a learning process. It also refers to the terms – learning aim, learning objectives, pedagogical objectives, training objectives etc., – broadly used in the educational field. All these terms will be covered here by "Learning goal".

The end is the beginning.

Since the beginning of my work as a trainer I have always believed that in order to achieve any goal you have to be sure you know what it is. Starting from understanding what you want to achieve you can clearly see every step of the process and prepare it properly for the needs and opportunities.

A learning goal (objective) is the goal which we aim to achieve by carrying out a certain activity. It is connected to the results we want to achieve for the learners.

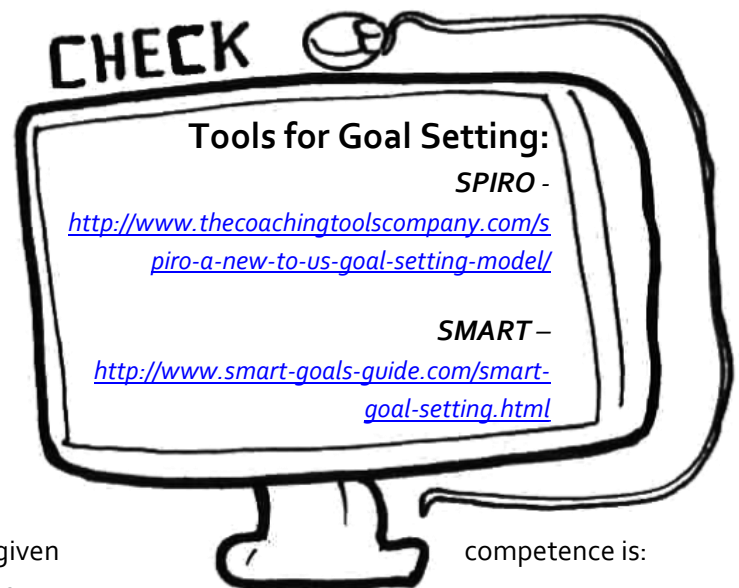
The learning goals are always associated with one of the elements of the **Competence**:

**Competence = attitude +
knowledge + skill**

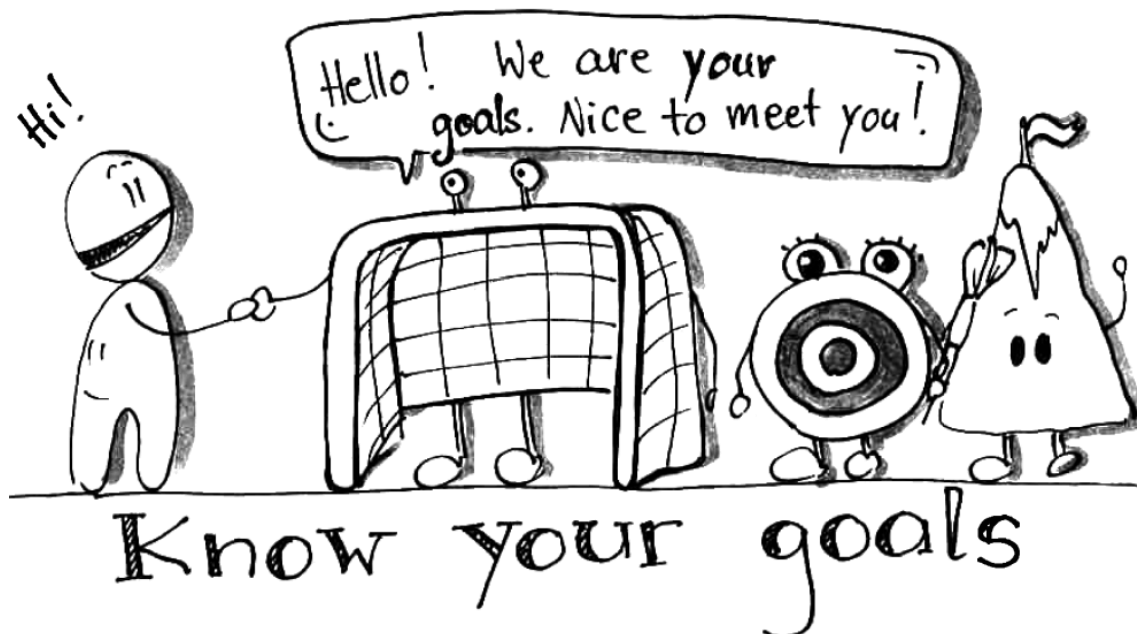
Each of these components is developed independently (attitude, knowledge and skills) and is a subject of separate learning goals.

The sequence of the development of the components of a given

- **Attitude** – we develop a desire for something to be done;
- **Knowledge** - we give the necessary knowledge needed to acquire a given competency;
- **Skill** –we provide an opportunity to acquire practical skills for applying the above knowledge.



competence is:



What is a goal?

- According to the philosophical-sociological definition the goal is a mental and desired result of a given activity
- In the pedagogy the goal is a mental and desired (possible and desired) result from a training activity (in which the favorable and the unfavorable conditions are taken into account)

Action Areas

- **Cognitive** – The area includes goals from remembering and reproduction of the studied material to problem solving. During the process the existing knowledge has to be reconsidered, or put into new combinations together with previously studied ideas, methods, procedures (action models), also including the possibility to start process of finding new solution.
- **Affective** (emotional - value) – It includes the goals of establishing personal emotional relations to the events in the surrounding world from the simple perception, interest, willingness to respond to the uptake of value orientations and attitudes and their active manifestation.
In this area fall such purposes as the formation of interests and inclinations, experience of different emotions, forming an attitude, awareness, and its manifestation in the activity.
- **Psychomotor** - It includes objectives that are associated with the formation of various types of motor activity, of manipulation activity, and neuromuscular coordination.
This area concerns writing and speech habits, and also targets the goals placed within the physical and working skills.

Tips & Tricks

Active Verbs in Learning Goals Writing -
Easy method to write goals is "At the end of the training participants will..." After will, you use **active verb** according to the level of taxonomy or the method of evaluation.

Taxonomy application

- In each action area different levels are distinguished which are arranged by the principle "from simple to complex."
- These levels can be examined as different stages of difficulty – in order to complete a certain level, the previous must be mastered beforehand. The approach enables the measurability of the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the students. The taxonomy is used for classification of the goals in the learning process.

How to describe a goal

The goal has to be **clear, concrete, measurable and observable**

Cognitive taxonomy (Revised Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy – Bloom, Anderson and Krathwohl)

Description of Levels (process)	Active verbs describing the process
<p>Remembering – recall of the information needed from the memory. They (the students) can repeat and/or remember the information. (To remember):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognition – Answering "right or wrong" questions, selection of an object among others similar to it • Recalling – Listing facts, events, occurrences 	<p>Repeat, reproduce, define, describe, recognize, order</p>

<p>Understanding – presentation of one’s own opinion about the studied material. The students can understand and/or realize ideas and concepts (To understand):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretation – Retelling of some information in one’s own words • Example giving – Search and explanation of examples confirming facts, events, occurrences • Classification - Distribution of information in groups • Summary – Deduction of general characteristics, indications, etc. • Conclusion – Information analysis, represented in a certain form and presentation of conclusions • Comparison – Conduction of comparative analysis of events and processes • Description – Use of diagrams, schemes for presentation of information 	<p>Classify, discuss, explain, recognize and defend, report, select, translate, paraphrase</p>
<p>Applying – use of the procedure. The students can use the information in a new way (To apply):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance – Conduction of an experiment • Application – Adoption of the experiment 	<p>Select, demonstrate, dramatize, illustrate, interpret, operate, compose, organize, sketch, solve, use, write</p>
<p>Analyzing – breaking of the concept into several constituent parts and describing how those parts are related to the entity. Can the students distinguish and analyze different parts? (To analyze):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Differentiation – listing of the most important facts. Categorization of facts, preparation of schemes and diagrams. • Organization – Making of schemes and diagrams showing the place of the event or the process in its surroundings. 	<p>Compare, criticize, state, differentiate, test, formulate questions, differentiate, experiment</p>
<p>Evaluating – arguments based on criteria and standards. Can the students evaluate and refer their decisions? (To evaluate?)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verification – Examination of logic and arguments. Setting of criteria • Critics – Finding the best method and proofs; Search of arguments in favor or against something 	<p>Argue, appraise, judge, select, evaluate, refer, value</p>
<p>Creating – putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole. Defining the components of a new pattern or structure. Are the students capable of creating a new product and/or new point of view? (To create):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generalization – Creating list of criteria, use of several hypotheses to explain the event or the process, creation of alternative hypothesis based on criteria. • Planning – Creation of a schedule (plan) for the realization of the idea • Production - Implementation of the idea. 	<p>Construct, create, design, develop, formulate, write</p>

Affective taxonomy (David Krathwohl)

Description of Levels (process)	Active verbs describing the process
<p>Receiving - describes the stage of being aware of or sensitive to the existence of certain ideas, material, or phenomena and being willing to tolerate them. Examples include: to differentiate, to accept, to listen (for), to respond to.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realization • Readiness or willingness to accept something/to accept oneself 	<p>Ask, attend, describe, follow, help, define, listen, name, observe, show</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selective attention 	
<p>Responding - describes the second stage of the taxonomy and refers to a commitment in some small measure to the ideas, materials, or phenomena involved by actively responding to them. Examples are: to comply with, to follow, to commend, to volunteer, to spend leisure time in, to acclaim.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • submissive response • voluntary response • satisfaction by the reaction 	<p>Try, agree, ask, help, communicate, concentrate, follow (obey), assist, discuss, react</p>
<p>Valuing - means being willing to be perceived by others as valuing certain ideas, materials, or phenomena. Examples include: to increase measured proficiency in, to relinquish, to subsidize, to support, to debate.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accepting a the value orientation (in the daily life this corresponds to the term "opinion") • Preferences towards value orientation • Attachment, conviction 	<p>Assume, accept, compose, choose, desire, explain, justify , prefer, offer, share</p>
<p>Organization - is the fourth stage of Krathwohl's taxonomy and involves relating the new value to those one already holds and bringing it into a harmonious and internally consistent philosophy. Examples are: to discuss, to theorize, to formulate, to balance, to examine.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptualization of the value orientation and consideration of one's own attitude • Organization of the value system 	<p>Adapt, categorize, choose, create, formulate, generalize, integrate, modify, organize, evaluate, systematize</p>
<p>Characterization - by value or value set means acting consistently in accordance with the values the individual has internalized. Examples include: to revise, to require, to be rated high in the value, to avoid, to resist, to manage, to resolve.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Summary of values • Full internalization (assimilation) or distribution of the value orientations over the activity. 	<p>Act, defend, encourage, show patience, influence, justify, listen, is aware, modify, practice, preserve, demonstrate, approve</p>

Psychomotor taxonomy (Kenneth D. Moore)

Imitation is the input level at which items are reproduced with the help of the trainer. At this stage there is a lack of enough coordination and the movements were slow.

Manipulation - implies the ability of the learner to improve the skill without the help of the trainer, but also without thinking specifically about every detail which has to be improved.

Precision is the highest level of the taxonomy and is characterized with a learner who can carry out the action accurately, efficiently and economically. The automatization and the improvement of the ability to managing process.

Ask yourself

Learning goals vs. Learners needs

- ☉ Are you process oriented or result oriented in your trainer's work?
- ☉ Are you sensitive about the needs of the group?
 - ☉ Are you focused only on achieving training objectives or you observe the group and adapt the program according their level, needs, emotions and situation?
- ☉ Try during training to be more **People oriented** than usually and observe reaction and results.



perform are made in in the course of the

Group Dynamics and Social learning

(Ognian Gadoularov)

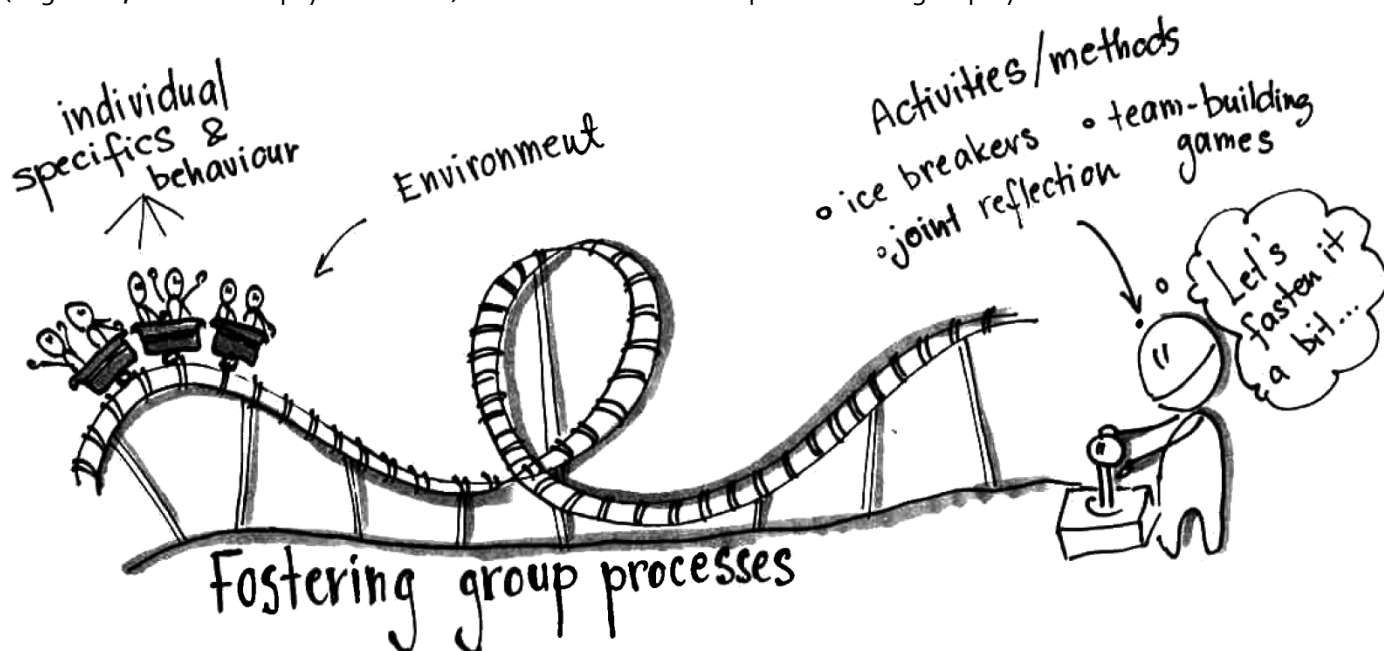
One of the main characteristics of the training processes in youth work is that they happen in a group. Moreover, non-formal learning reinforces values such as tolerance, mutual aid, support, team work, etc. The social processes and interaction influence greatly the learning on individual or group level. For this reason during preparation and conduction of trainings it is necessary to take into account two elements – the group dynamics and the socio-cognitive learning (see Social learning theory and self-efficacy).

The group dynamics processes are phases through which a group passes from the moment of its gathering until the moment when it reaches a level at which the focus and its attitudes are targeted towards a common goal. In trainings the shared goal for a group of students is the joint effective learning and competence development. Besides the group dynamics processes the achievement of the educational result is highly influenced by social learning factors (environment, individual specifics and individual behavior).

In this relation the trainer has to know well the group dynamics processes of transition from one phase to another in order to direct them successfully paying special attention to the factors of the learning environment and the condition of the students.

The youth work trainings are often carried out a short time period (usually 1 to 7 days). For this reason one of the first tasks of the trainer is to stimulate the fastest possible transition of the group through the group dynamics phases in order to reach the level of effective work (see next chapter). This is usually done by using certain activities (games) at the beginning of the training – games for introduction and sharing, ice-breakers, team challenges, trust building games, activities for securing reflection (see Theory of experiential learning) – debriefing, reflection, discussion.

Very often during trainings which are limited in their duration there is not enough time to fit thematic sessions in the program or find time for activities directed specifically towards the stimulation of the group dynamics. In such cases the so called **The Layers Effect (Two layered program planing) - parallelism (bi-planning)** of the training program is applied. This is an approach used to design training programs in which at every moment of conducting an educational activity the work is directed simultaneously towards the achievement of educational goals (cognitive, affective or psycho-motor) and towards the development of the group dynamics.

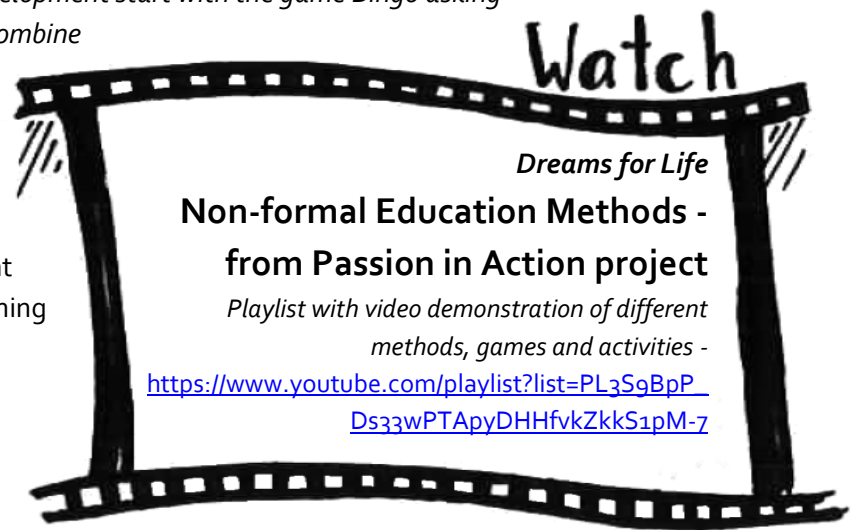


This is achieved in the process of design and preparation of thematic educational sessions when certain activities are selected and adapted in such way that they are used also for the development of the group processes – sharing, getting closer, and team work.

Example – in a session related to Sustainable development start with the game Bingo asking questions about Globalization – in this way you combine the introduction of concepts with the introduction of the participants).

On other hand games for development of the group dynamics can be adapted in such way that they can be also used for demonstration or learning related to the topic.

Example – the energizer at the beginning of the session can be adapted so that it carries information or message related to the topic of the session.



Working with groups

Stages of Group Development

All ongoing groups go through certain stages of development, regardless of their particular tasks. The facilitator needs to be able to determine which stage a group is currently in, what options for growth are available at any given stage, and what group-interaction problems might be anticipated in that stage. Patterns that deviate from the usual suggest problems and a need for intervention. However, interventions should be located: the trainer must know what he or she is responding to, what the intervention is designed to do, and how it fits in with the general needs of the group. In this way, the trainer can monitor and influence the development of the training group. Such flexibility requires an intervention repertoire.

An understanding of the development of the group also creates implications for leadership behavior. A trainer's reluctance or inability to change leadership styles limits the trainer's effectiveness and the group's chances for success. The objective is to help the group to progress from a collection of individuals to a cohesive unit whose members can work together proficiently. Of course, there always will be a struggle to maintain the balance between personal relations and task accomplishment, but the trainer who knows what to look for can maintain this balance more easily.

Numerous classifications of the stages of group development have been presented in the literature (e.g., Charrier, 1974; Cooke & Widdis, 1988; Kormanski, 1985; Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). The following figure illustrates the relationships between some of these classifications.

Tuckman	Charrier	Cooke & Widdis
Forming	Polite	Polite
	Why We're Here	Purpose
Storming	Bid for Power	Power
Norming	Constructive	Positive
Performing	Esprit	Proficient
Adjourning (Unforming)		

The stages are sequential and developmental. A group will proceed through these five stages only as far as its members are willing to grow. Group cohesiveness seems to depend on how well group members can relate in the same phase at the same time. Each member must be prepared to give up something at each step in order to make the group move to the next stage. The timing of each of these stages will depend on the nature of the group, the members, and the leadership of the group. Issues and concerns must be resolved in each stage before the group can move on. If the group is not able to resolve such issues, the dominant behavior will become either apathy or conflict, and group disintegration will result.

In Tuckman's model, the first stage is called "forming." This initial stage is broken into two in other models; Charrier calls them the "polite" stage and the "why we're here" stage, while Cooke and Widdis call them the "polite" stage and the "purpose" stage. Personal relations are characterized by dependency, and the major task functions concern orientation.

The Polite Stage

Relationship and Task Behavior

In the first phase of the group's life, members are occupied with orienting themselves personally and interpersonally and becoming comfortable with the physical setting. In general, they have a desire for acceptance by the group and a need to be sure that the group is safe. Members set about gathering impressions and data about the similarities and differences among them and forming preferences for future subgrouping. Many members are aware of their own hidden agendas. There are differences in members' need for structure, but there is a general desire for cohesion through successful interaction and task accomplishment.



The rules of their behaviour seem to be to keep things simple and avoid controversy. Serious topics and feelings are avoided. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must relinquish the comfort of nonthreatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict.

Trainer Interventions

Formal leadership is needed to provide structured interaction. The group has low task maturity, so the trainer style that is required is a highly directive approach involving high task, low relationship behaviour. The trainer should make expectations clear, instruct the group members in what is to be done and how and when it is to be done, and supervise closely. One of the trainer's tasks is to help the group members to resolve

dependency relationships and to become oriented toward the task at hand.

At this point, nonverbal and verbal activities that allow for private data gathering can help the group members to move on. The trainer must create an atmosphere of confidence and positive attitudes. Establishing pairs and/or subgroups that work together briefly can enhance the interactions among group members. As members give up individual comfort in controlled topics and tasks, they begin to risk possible conflicts.

Recommended interventions include structured getting-acquainted tasks (not unstructured milling), introductions, name tags, personal information sharing, review of agenda items, exploring similarities among members, and brief physical tasks such as assembling notebooks, moving chairs, distributing materials, and checking rosters. These help members to anticipate one another's future responses to group activities.

It is too early in the life of the group to attempt activities that force team formation, present fixed time schedules or agendas, explore differences of opinion, require consensus or voting, or rush into content areas or participate in skill building.

The Purpose Stage

Relationship and Task Behaviours

In the next stage, participants begin to seek clarification and agreement about the purpose of the group and may express concern about the fit between individuals and the group's purpose. In the interpersonal realm, there is increased desire for and attempts by *individuals* to win subgroup approval (it is too early for members to feel group identity). Members seek identification with others whom they perceive to be similar and desire evidence that they are valued by others. Cliques may emerge.

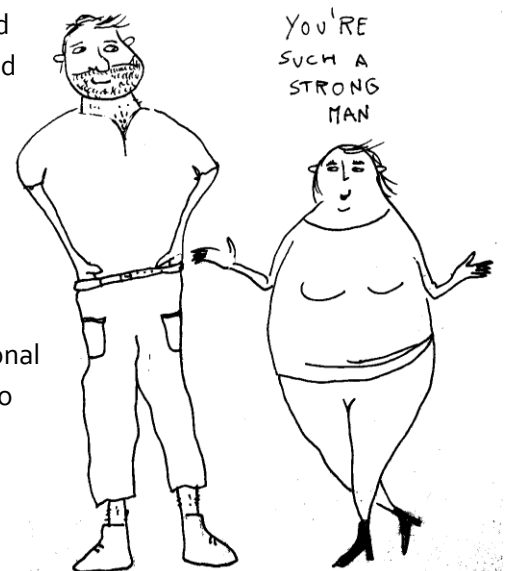
In the task realm, the members tend to depend on the leader (the trainer) to provide structure, establish ground rules, set the agenda, and so on. Some members may demand a written agenda. Tasks must be specified and clarified so that there is a common understanding of what the group is expected to do. A theme is why they are there, what they are supposed to do, how they are going to do it, their goals are. There is a sharply higher need for evidence of structure and a fear of loss over tasks and topics. There may be concern about requirements of commitment to an unacceptable group goal. When the objectives come from outside the group, the members will still discuss them in order to gain understanding and commitment.



common
and what
of control

Trainer Interventions

The most effective trainer style in this stage is one of high task behaviours with some relationship behaviours added. The trainer should supply a visible structure and materials and facilities geared to the tasks of the group. The participants should have the opportunity to participate in setting norms and to experience various pairings and subgroupings. What is needed for movement in this stage is the opportunity for input and participation. Each member must be able to put aside a continued discussion of the group's purpose and commit to a purpose with which he or she may not agree completely. Activities that will surface negative reactions and bipolar dimensions among members' attitudes, experiences, and preferences can help the members to move into risking personal attack. The participants should begin to give up task clarification and move into task commitment.



Useful interventions in this stage include clarifying goals, setting goals, checking expectations, planning to reduce gaps, discussing task relevance,

making conforming agreements, and brief activities relevant to the group's task. Also helpful are subgroup discussion tasks yielding procedural suggestions or recommendations.

Interventions to be *avoided* included group problem solving, preference-based team formation, consensus tasks, tasks requiring volunteers for fishbowl activities or demonstrations, and skill-practice sessions.

The Power Stage

Relationship and Task Behaviours

Tuckman calls the next stage "storming"; Charrier calls it "bid for power"; and Cooke and Widdis call it the "power" stage. Competition and conflict in the personal-relations dimension and organization in the task-functions dimension characterize it. Even if the conflict remains hidden, it is there: the result of members' unresolved conflicts with regard to authority, dependence, rules, etc., and the conflict generated by organizing to get work done.



It is expected that the participants will develop a desire to probe and explore their own and others' hidden agendas. Because of fear of exposure or weakness or fear of failure at tasks, there will be an increased desire for structure or clarification and commitment to structure. Attempts to resolve struggles will rely on rules, voting, arbitration, and appeals to the formal leader. Questions will arise about who is going to be responsible for what, what the rules are, what the reward system is, and what the criteria for evaluation are. These reflect conflicts over leadership, structure, power, and authority. There may be wide swings in members' behaviour based on emerging issues of competition and hostilities. Members will attempt to influence one another's ideas or opinions, and there will be competition for attention, recognition, and influence. Cliques will be most potent (as members find that they can wield more power), and there will be testing of clique commitment. Because of the discomfort generated during this stage, some members may remain completely silent while others attempt to dominate.

Progress in this stage requires some testing and some risk taking. This includes establishing a norm for and strategies to engage in positive confrontation, nondefensiveness, listening, and openness to influencing and being influenced. It means risking exposure of personal agendas and the effects of personal attacks. It also means giving up personal or subgroup preferences and establishing recommitment to the purpose of the total group. Individuals must give up defending their own views and risk the possibility of being wrong; in other words, they must develop some humility. The members must move from a "testing and proving" mentality to a problem-solving mentality. The most important trait in helping groups to move on to the next stage seems to be the ability to listen.

Trainer Interventions

At this point, the most effective trainer style is one of high task and increasingly high relationship behaviours. Although still providing task directions, the trainer now adds clarification, explains the rationale behind the task, and provides the opportunity for questions from the group. It is essential that the trainer also manage the conflict in the group effectively; too little control can allow chaos, while suppression of all conflict can lead to apathy. The objective of this developmental phase is to assist the group members to assume more responsibility for tasks. As the participants demonstrate that they are willing and more able to carry out tasks, the facilitation engages in relationship behaviours such as support, praise, encouragement, and attention.

Interventions that can help during this stage of the group's development include confronting dysfunctional behaviours; training in communication, influence styles, and conflict management; and helping the group to create a common language. Assigning roles and functions and role negotiation also can be helpful. Activities can include demonstrations, structured experiences, presentation of models, third-party work, and assigned tasks.

Interventions to be *avoided* are those that establish formal leader roles that could have long-range implications, those that overemphasize norms of cooperation and polite behaviour, and activities that emphasize nonverbal communication. Because suspicion of motives is high and trust is low, feedback in this phase can be stinging, so attempts to promote feedback should be managed with great care.

The Positive Stage

Relationship and Task Behaviours

The "constructive" (Charrier) or "positive" (Cooke & Widdis) stage corresponds with Tuckman's "norming" stage and the beginning of his "performing" stage. Now the personal relations are characterized by cohesion: group members are engaged in

active acknowledgment of all members' contributions, community building and maintenance, and solving of group issues. They can celebrate strengths and accept or plan to address weaknesses. They are open minded, listen actively, and accept differences. They are willing to change their preconceived ideas or opinions on the basis of facts presented by other members, and they actively ask questions of one another.

Leadership is shared, and cliques dissolve. Free-flowing subgroups are based on task needs rather than on members' similarities or previous cliques.

Norms are upheld, and there is trust in the group and a

change and grow. As trust and acceptance have increased, the

this stage of development—assuming that the group gets this far—that people begin to experience a sense of groupness and a feeling of catharsis at having resolved interpersonal conflicts. They begin to share ideas and feelings, giving and receiving feedback, sharing information related to the task, and exploring actions related to the task. The major task function is data flow. Creativity is high. The members may, however, choose to abandon the task briefly in order to enjoy the cohesion being experienced.

willings to need for approval has decreased. It is during this stage of development—assuming that the group gets this far—that people begin to experience a sense of groupness and a feeling of catharsis at having resolved interpersonal conflicts. They begin to share ideas and feelings, giving and receiving feedback, sharing information related to the task, and exploring actions related to the task. The major task function is data flow. Creativity is high. The members may, however, choose to abandon the task briefly in order to enjoy the cohesion being experienced.

The down side of this positive stage is that members may fear the loss of cohesion that they have worked to establish; they may cling to the hope of maintaining the status quo and regret the inevitability of future change. It is very disruptive to bring in a new member at this stage, so it is important that there not be a change in group membership.

Trainer Interventions

The group members now are committed to the task but may be somewhat unwilling to assume total responsibility for it because of a lack of confidence. The appropriate trainer style now is one of low task behaviours and high relationship behaviours. By reducing the amount of directive behaviour, the trainer allows the group to assume increased, shared, task responsibility. This participative leadership style includes sharing ideas, facilitating group decision making and problem solving, and providing feedback and socio-emotional support. As the group progresses toward the end of this stage, it will become more self-motivating and will need less support from the trainer.



Tips & Tricks

"We don't want to leave"

If at the end of a session, a module or a training the participants are hanging around and do not rush to leave this means that the session (module, training) was very successful. The reason lies in the high emotional level and the positive energy of the participants. This is why they do not want to "go back in the reality" and want to prolong the experience as much as possible.

This is the stage toward which the group has been progressing, so interventions now are geared toward maintaining it. Group membership should be closed; if a new member is introduced, the feelings of esprit will be destroyed and the group will regress to an earlier stage. Any attrition should be de-emphasized. There should be plans for the maintenance of group identity. This can include items of membership identification such as buttons, sweatshirts, or signs. The vitality of the group is maintained through planned rotation of roles and functions and planned changes in membership on task projects. Achievements are celebrated through rituals of visibility and congratulation.

It would be dysfunctional at this stage to institutionalize roles, functions, or procedures, such as having a permanent chairperson or permanent decision-making processes. It could be equally dysfunctional to test radically new procedures.

The Final Phase

The last stage of the group's life prepares for termination of the group. Tuckman calls this stage "adjourning." It involves the termination of task behaviours and disengagement from relationships. A planned conclusion usually includes recognition for participation and achievement and an opportunity for members to say personal good-byes. Adjourning of the group should be accomplished within a set time frame and have a recognizable ending point.

Concluding a group can create some apprehension — in effect, a minor crisis. The termination of the group is a regressive movement from giving up control to giving up inclusion in the group. If such a crisis results in a decrease in task ability or willingness (regression to a previous stage of group development), the trainer can reassess the current needs of the group members and use the appropriate degrees of task and relationship behaviours. Usually, the participating style (low task behaviours and high relationship behaviours) will be most appropriate because it facilitates the task termination and disengagement process.

By now it should be obvious that the ability to diagnose the group's stage of development is not enough. Employing the appropriate trainer style and appropriate interventions or activities with each stage of the group's development means attaining skill in actually changing to and using different styles and in using a wide variety of interventions.

This is a challenge and a necessary developmental step for the group trainer.

Ask yourself

Can I recognize group dynamics processes?

- Analyze groups with which you work by observing if they exhibit the characteristics described above.
- Using your knowledge of the stages, can you examine how you might move a group to next stage?
- Try to measure the period of changeover from one stage to another for particular group?
- Can you list the observed behavior in a group you work with?

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated



Tips on Effective Listening

We were given two ears but only one mouth, because listening is twice as hard as talking.

Brief Theory of Communication

Expressing our wants, feelings, thoughts and opinions clearly and effectively is only half of the communication process needed for interpersonal effectiveness. The other half is listening and understanding what others communicate to us. When a person decides to communicate with another person, he/she does so to fulfill a need. The person wants something, feels discomfort, and/or has feelings or thoughts about something. In deciding to communicate, the person selects the method or code which he/she believes will effectively deliver the message to the other person. The code used to send the message can be either verbal or nonverbal. When the other person receives the coded message, they go through the process of decoding or interpreting it into understanding and meaning. Effective communication exists between two people when the receiver interprets and understands the sender's message in the same way the sender intended it.

Sources of Difficulty by the Speaker

- Voice volume too low to be heard.
- Making the message too complex, either by including too many unnecessary details or too many issues.
- Getting lost, forgetting your point or the purpose of the interaction.
- Body language or nonverbal elements contradicting or interfering with the verbal message, such as smiling when anger or hurt is being expressed.
- Paying too much attention to how the other person is taking the message, or how the person might react.
- Using a very unique code or unconventional method for delivering the message.

Sources of Difficulty by the Listener

- Being preoccupied and not listening.
- Being so interested in what you have to say that you listen mainly to find an opening to get the floor.
- Formulating and listening to your own rebuttal to what the speaker is saying.
- Listening to your own personal beliefs about what is being said.
- Evaluating and making judgments about the speaker or the message.
- Not asking for clarification when you know that you do not understand.

The Three Basic Listening Modes

1. **Competitive or Combative Listening** happens when we are more interested in promoting our own point of view than in understanding or exploring someone else's view. We either listen for openings to take the floor, or for flaws or weak points we can attack. As we pretend to pay attention we are impatiently waiting for an opening, or internally formulating our rebuttal and planning our devastating comeback that will destroy their argument and make us the victor.
2. **In Passive or Attentive Listening** we are genuinely interested in hearing and understanding the other person's point of view. We are attentive and passively listen. We assume that we heard and understand correctly, but stay passive and do not verify it.

3. **Active or Reflective Listening** is the single most useful and important listening skill. In active listening we are also genuinely interested in understanding what the other person is thinking, feeling, wanting or what the message means, and we are active in checking out our understanding before we respond with our own new message. We restate or paraphrase our understanding of their message and reflect it back to the sender for verification. This verification or feedback process is what distinguishes active listening and makes it effective.

Levels of Communication

Listening effectively is difficult because people vary in their communication skills and in how clearly they express themselves, and often have different needs, wants and purposes for interacting. The different types of interaction or levels of communication also add to the difficulty. The four different types or levels are.

1. **Clichés.**
2. **Facts.**
3. **Thoughts and beliefs.**
4. **Feelings and emotions.**

As a listener we attend to the level that we think is most important. Failing to recognize the level most relevant and important to the speaker can lead to a kind of **crossed wires** where the two people are not on the same wavelength. The purpose of the contact and the nature of our relationship with the person will usually determine what level or levels are appropriate and important for the particular interaction. Note the different requirements in the following situations:

- You're lost, and you ask a stranger for directions.
- Your child comes to you crying.
- You are in trouble and someone offers to help.
- Your spouse is being affectionate and playful.
- Opposing council is cross-examining you in court.

If we don't address the appropriate elements we will not be very effective, and can actually make the situation worse. For example: If your wife is telling you about her hurt feelings and you focus on the facts of the situation and don't acknowledge her feelings, she will likely become even more upset.

There is a real distinction between merely **hearing the words** and really **listening for the message**. When we listen effectively we understand what the person is thinking and/or feeling from the other person's own perspective. It is as if we were standing in the other person's shoes, seeing through his/her eyes and listening through the person's ears. Our own viewpoint may be different and we may not necessarily agree with the person, but as we listen, we understand from the other's perspective. To listen effectively, we must be actively involved in the communication process, and not just listening passively.

We all act and respond on the basis of our understanding, and too often there is a misunderstanding that neither of us is aware of. With active listening, if a misunderstanding has occurred, it will be known immediately, and the communication can be clarified before any further misunderstanding occurs.

Several other possible benefits occur with active listening:

- Sometimes a person just needs to be heard and acknowledged before the person is willing to consider an alternative or soften his /her position.
- It is often easier for a person to listen to and consider the other's position when that person knows the other is listening and considering his/her position.
- It helps people to spot the flaws in their reasoning when they hear it played back without criticism.
- It also helps identify areas of agreement so the areas of disagreement are put in perspective and are diminished rather than magnified.

- Reflecting back what we hear each other say helps give each a chance to become aware of the different levels that are going on below the surface. This helps to bring things into the open where they can be more readily resolved.
- If we accurately understand the other person's view, we can be more effective in helping the person see the flaws in his/her position.
- If we listen so that we can accurately understand the other's view, we can also be more effective in discovering the flaws in our own position.

Listening Tips

- Usually it is important to paraphrase and use your own words in verbalizing your understanding of the message. Parroting back the words verbatim is annoying and does not ensure accurate understanding of the message.
- Depending on the purpose of the interaction and your understanding of what is relevant, you could reflect back the other persons:
 1. Account of the facts.
 2. Thoughts and beliefs.
 3. Feelings and emotions.
 4. Wants, needs or motivation.
 5. Hopes and expectations.
- Don't respond to just the meaning of the words, look for the feelings or intent beyond the words. The dictionary or surface meaning of the words or code used by the sender is not the message.
- Inhibit your impulse to immediately answer questions. The code may be in the form of a question. Sometimes people ask questions when they really want to express themselves and are not open to hearing an answer.
- Know when to quit using active listening. Once you accurately understand the sender's message, it may be appropriate to respond with your own message. Don't use active listening to hide and avoid revealing your own position.
- If you are confused and know you do not understand, either tell the person you don't understand and ask him/her to say it another way, or use your best guess. If you are incorrect, the person will realize it and will likely attempt to correct your misunderstanding.
- Active listening is a very effective first response when the other person is angry, hurt or expressing difficult feelings toward you, especially in relationships that are important to you.
- Use eye contact and listening body language. Avoid looking at your watch or at other people or activities around the room. Face and lean toward the speaker and nod your head, as it is appropriate. Be careful about crossing your arms and appearing closed or critical.
- Be empathic and nonjudgmental. You can be accepting and respectful of the person and their feelings and beliefs without invalidating or giving up your own position, or without agreeing with the accuracy and validity of their view.

Source: Larry Alan Nadig, Ph.D. - *Tips on Effective Listening* - <http://www.drnadig.com/listening.htm>

Active Listening, hear what people are really saying

Tips & Tricks



If you're finding it particularly difficult to concentrate on what someone is saying, try repeating their words mentally as they say them – this will reinforce their message and help you stay focused.

Tips & Tricks



It takes a lot of concentration and determination to be an active listener. Old habits are hard to break, and if your listening skills are as bad as many people's are, then there's a lot of habit-breaking to do! Be deliberate with your listening and remind yourself frequently that your goal is to truly hear what the other person is saying. Set aside all other thoughts and behaviors and concentrate on the message. Ask questions, reflect, and paraphrase to ensure you understand the message. If you don't, then you'll find that what someone says to you and what you hear can be amazingly different! Start using active listening techniques today to become a better communicator, improve your workplace productivity, and develop better relationships.

Watch

Improve Your Listening Skills with Active Listening

Research suggests, however, that we only remember 25-50 percent of what we hear, meaning that we could be missing important messages. Practicing "active listening" is a good way to improve your listening skills. You make a conscious effort to hear what the other person is saying, by paying close attention to them and not allowing yourself to be distracted -

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t2z9mdX1j4A>

Non-violent communication

Nonviolent Communication (NVC) has been described as a language of compassion, as a tool for positive social change. NVC gives us the tools to understand what triggers us, to take responsibility for our reactions, and to deepen our connection with ourselves and others, thereby transforming our habitual responses to life. Ultimately, it involves a radical change in how we think about life and meaning.

Nonviolent Communication is based on a fundamental principle: Underlying all human actions are needs that people are seeking to meet. Understanding and acknowledging these needs can create a shared basis for connection, cooperation, and more harmonious relationships on both a personal and global level. Understanding each other at the level of our needs creates this possibility because, on the deeper levels, the similarities between us outweigh the differences, giving rise to greater compassion.

When we focus on needs – without interpreting or conveying criticism, blame, or demands – our deeper creativity flourishes, and solutions arise that were previously blocked from our awareness. At this depth, conflicts and misunderstandings can be resolved with greater ease.

The language of Nonviolent Communication includes two parts: honestly expressing ourselves to others, and empathically hearing others. Both are expressed through four components - observations, feelings, needs, and requests – though observations and requests may or may not be articulated.

Practicing NVC involves distinguishing these components from judgments, interpretations, and demands, and learning to embody the consciousness embedded in these components. This compassionate approach allows us to express ourselves and hear ourselves and others in ways more likely to foster understanding and connection. It allows us to support everyone involved in getting their needs met, and to nurture in all of us a joy in giving and in receiving.

The practice also includes empathic connection with ourselves - "self-empathy." The purpose of self-empathy is to support us in maintaining connection with our own needs, thus encouraging us to choose our actions and responses based on self-connection and self-acceptance.

NVC was developed by Dr. Marshall B. Rosenberg, who has introduced it to individuals and organizations world-wide. It has been used between warring tribes and in war-torn countries; in schools, prisons, and corporations; in health care, social change, and government institutions; and in intimate personal relationships. Hundreds of certified trainers and many more non-certified trainers around the world are sharing NVC in their communities.

The Components of Nonviolent Communication

1. Observations

Observations are what we see or hear that we identify as the stimulus to our reactions. **Our aim is to describe what we are reacting to concretely, specifically and neutrally, much as a video camera might capture the moment. This helps create a shared reality with the other person.** The observation gives the context for our expression of feelings and needs.

The key to making an observation is to separate our own judgments, evaluations or interpretations from our description of what happened. For example, if we say: "You're rude," the other person may disagree, while if we say: "When you walked in you did not say hello to me", the other person is more likely to recognize the moment that is described.

When we are able to describe what we see or hear in observation language without mixing in evaluation, we raise the likelihood that the person listening to us will hear this first step without immediately wanting to respond, and will be more willing to hear our feelings and needs.

Learning to translate judgments and interpretations into observation language moves us away from right/wrong thinking. **It helps us take responsibility for our reactions by directing our attention to our needs as the source of our feelings, rather than to the faults of the other person.** In this way, observations – paving the way towards greater connection with ourselves and with others – emerge as a crucial building block towards more meaningful connection.

2. Feelings

Feelings represent our emotional experience and physical sensations associated with our needs that have been met or that remain unmet. Our aim is to identify, name and connect with those feelings. **The key to identifying and expressing feelings is to focus on words that describe our inner experience rather than words that describe our interpretations of people's actions.**

For example: "I feel lonely" describes an inner experience, while "I feel like you don't love me" describes an interpretation of how the other person may be feeling. When we express our feelings, we continue the process of taking responsibility for our experience, which helps others hear what's important to us with less likelihood of hearing criticism or blame of themselves. This increases the likelihood that they will respond in a way that meets both our needs.

3. Needs

Our needs are an expression of our deepest shared humanity. All human beings share key needs for survival: hydration, nourishment, rest, shelter, and connection to name a few. We also share many other needs, though we may experience them to varying degrees, and may experience them more or less intensely at various times.

In the context of Nonviolent Communication, needs refer to what is most alive in us: our core values and deepest human longings. Understanding, naming, and connecting with our needs helps us improve our relationship with ourselves, as well as foster understanding with others, so we are all more likely to take actions that meet everyone's needs.

The key to identifying, expressing, and connecting with needs is to focus on words that describe shared human experience rather than words that describe the particular strategies to meet those needs. **Whenever we include a person, a location, an action, a time, or an object in our expression of what we want, we are describing a strategy rather than a need.**

For example: "I want you to come to my birthday party" may be a particular strategy to meet a need for love and connection. In this case, we have a person, an action, and an implied time and location in the original statement.

The internal shift from focusing on a specific strategy to connecting with underlying needs often results in a sense of power and liberation. We are encouraged to free ourselves from being attached to one particular strategy by identifying the underlying needs and exploring alternative strategies.

Feelings arise when our needs are met or not met, which happens at every moment of life. Our feelings are related to the trigger, but they are not caused by the trigger: their source is our own met or unmet needs. **By connecting our feelings with our needs, therefore, we take full responsibility for our feelings, freeing us and others from fault and blame.**

And by expressing our unique experience in the moment of a shared human reality of needs, we create the most likely opportunity for another person to see our humanity and to experience empathy and understanding for us.

4. Requests

In order to meet our needs, we make requests to assess how likely we are to get cooperation for particular strategies we have in mind for meeting our needs. Our aim is to identify and express a specific action that we believe will serve this purpose, and then check with others involved about their willingness to participate in meeting our needs in this way.



In a given moment, it is our connection with another that determines the quality of their response to our request. Therefore, when using NVC, our requests are "connection requests" intended to foster connection and understanding and to determine whether we have sufficiently connected to move to a "solution request." An example of a connection request might be: "Would you tell me how you feel about this?" An example of a solution request might be "Would you be willing to take your shoes off when you come in the house?" The spirit of requests relies on our willingness to hear a "no" and to continue to work with ourselves or others to find ways to meet everyone's needs.

Whether we are making a request or a demand is often evident by our response when our request is denied. A denied demand will lead to punitive consequences; a denied request most often will lead to further dialogue. We recognize that "no" is an expression of some need that is preventing the other person from saying "yes".

If we trust that through dialogue we can find strategies to meet both of our needs, "no" is simply information to alert us that saying yes to our request may be too costly in terms of the other person's needs. We can then continue to seek connection and understanding to allow additional strategies to arise that will work to meet more needs.

To increase the likelihood that our requests will be understood, we attempt to use language that is as concrete and doable as possible, and that is truly a request rather than a demand. For example, "I would like you to always come on time" is unlikely to be doable, while "Would you be willing to spend 15 minutes with me talking about what may help you arrive at 9 am to our meetings?" is concrete and doable.

While a person may assent to the former expression ("Yes, I'll always come on time"), our deeper needs – for connection, confidence, trust, responsibility, respect, or others - are likely to remain unmet. If someone agrees to our request out of fear, guilt, shame, obligation, or the desire for reward, this compromises the quality of connection and trust between us.

When we are able to express a clear request, we raise the likelihood that the person listening to us will feel that they are given a realistic choice in their response. As a consequence, while we may not gain immediate assent to our wishes, we are more likely to get our needs met over time because we are building trust that everyone's needs matter. Within an atmosphere of such trust, goodwill increases, and with it a willingness to support each other in getting our needs met.

Learning to make clear requests and shifting our consciousness to making requests in place of demands are very challenging skills for most people. Many find the request part to be the hardest, because of what we call a "crisis of imagination" – a difficulty in identifying a strategy that could actually meet our needs without being at the expense of the needs of others.

Even before considering the needs of others, the very act of coming up with what we call a positive, doable request is challenging. We are habituated to thinking in terms of what we want people to stop doing ("don't yell at me"), and how we want them to be ("treat me with respect") rather than what we want them to do ("Would you be willing to lower your voice or talk later?").

With time, and a deeper connection to our needs, our creativity expands to imagine and embrace more strategies. This fourth step in NVC of making a concrete request is critical to our ability to create the life we want. In particular, **shifting from demands to requests entails a leap in focus and in faith: we shift from focusing on getting our needs met, to focusing on the quality of connection that will allow both of our needs to truly matter, and ultimately also to be met.**

Empathy

Expressing our own observations, feelings, needs and requests to others is one part of Nonviolent Communication. The second part is empathy: the process of connecting with another by guessing their feelings and needs.

Empathic connection can sometimes happen silently, but in times of conflict, verbally communicating to another person that we understand their feelings and that their needs matter to us can be a powerful turning point in problem situations.

Demonstrating that we have such understanding doesn't mean we have to sacrifice our own needs. Connecting empathically with another person can be a catalyst to meeting our needs for understanding, connection, contribution, or others. At the same time, empathy can be a powerful tool to meet the other person's needs. The ability to understand and express the other person's feelings can aid us in finding strategies that meet both of our needs.

The language of NVC often helps us relate with others, but the heart of empathy is in our ability to compassionately connect with our own and others' humanity. Offering our empathic presence, in this sense, is a means through which we can meet our own needs. It is a gift to another person and to ourselves of our full presence.

When we use NVC to connect empathically, we use the same four components in the form of a question, since we can never be certain of what is going on inside the other. We respect that the other person is the ultimate authority on what is going on for them.

Our empathy may meet other people's needs for understanding, or it may spark their own self-discovery. We may ask something like:

Observation: When you [see, hear, etc]

Feeling: Are you feeling

Need: Because you need

Request: And would you like

Tips & Tricks



Practicing Non-Violent communication can be challenging because many people are not used with such words as: "I feel", "Your needs", „I observed" etc. Using such expressions can create odd looks, but don't get discouraged. Understand the principles, observe more the people around you and when you see youth having negative emotions, just ask them what they really need. They will appreciate you for your genuine care and interest in them.

In an ongoing process of dialogue, there is often no need to mention either the observation (it is usually clear in the context of communication) or the request (since we are already acting on an assumed request for empathy). We might get to guessing a request only after we have connected more and are ready to explore strategies.

In the process of sharing empathy between two people, if both parties are able to connect at the level of feelings and needs, a transformation often happens in which one or both parties experience a shift in attention. This can lead to a shift of needs or generate new reserves of kindness and generosity. In seemingly impossible situations, it can even open us to remarkable bursts of creative solutions that were unimaginable when clouded by disconnection.

Self-Empathy

Both expression of our own feelings and needs, and empathic guesses of others' feelings and needs are grounded in a particular awareness which is at the heart of nonviolent communication. This awareness is nurtured by the practice of self-empathy.

In self-empathy, we bring the same compassionate attention to ourselves that we give to others when listening to them using NVC. This means listening through any interpretations and judgments of ourselves that we are making in order to clarify how we are feeling and what we are needing.

This inner awareness and clarity supports us in expressing ourselves to others, or receiving them with empathy. It allows us to make a request to ourselves about where we want to focus our attention.

The practice of NVC entails an intention to connect compassionately both with ourselves and with others, and an ability to keep our attention in the present moment - which includes being aware that sometimes in this present moment we are recalling the past, or imagining a future possibility.

Often self-empathy comes easy, as we access our sensations, emotions and needs, to attune to how we are. However, in moments of conflict or reactivity to others, we may find ourselves reluctant to access an intention to connect compassionately, and we may falter in our capacity to attend to the present moment.

Self-empathy at times like this has the power to transform our disconnected state of being and return us to our compassionate intention and present-oriented attention. With practice, many people find that self-empathy alone sometimes resolves inner conflicts and conflicts with others as it transforms our experience of life.

Summary of Principles of Nonviolent Communication

State concrete actions you **observe** in yourself or the other person.

1. State the **feeling** that the observation is triggering in you. Or, guess what the other person is feeling, and ask.
2. State the **need** that is the cause of that feeling. Or, guess the need that caused the feeling in the other person, and ask.
3. Make a concrete **request** for action to meet the need just identified.

Needs inventory

The following list of needs is neither exhaustive nor definitive. It is meant as a starting place to support anyone who wishes to engage in a process of deepening self-discovery and to facilitate greater understanding and connection between people.

CONNECTION acceptance affection appreciation belonging cooperation communication closeness community companionship compassion consideration consistency empathy inclusion intimacy love mutuality nurturing respect/self-respect safety security stability	support to know and be known to see and be seen to understand and be understood trust warmth PHYSICAL WELL-BEING air food movement/exercise rest/sleep sexual expression safety shelter touch water PLAY joy humor	HONESTY authenticity integrity presence PEACE beauty communion ease equality harmony inspiration order AUTONOMY choice freedom independence space spontaneity	MEANING awareness celebration of life challenge clarity competence consciousness contribution creativity discovery efficacy effectiveness growth hope learning mourning participation purpose self-expression stimulation to matter understanding
---	---	---	---

Feelings inventory

The following are words we use when we want to express a combination of emotional states and physical sensations. This list is neither exhaustive nor definitive. It is meant as a starting place to support anyone who wishes to engage in a process of deepening self-discovery and to facilitate greater understanding and connection between people.

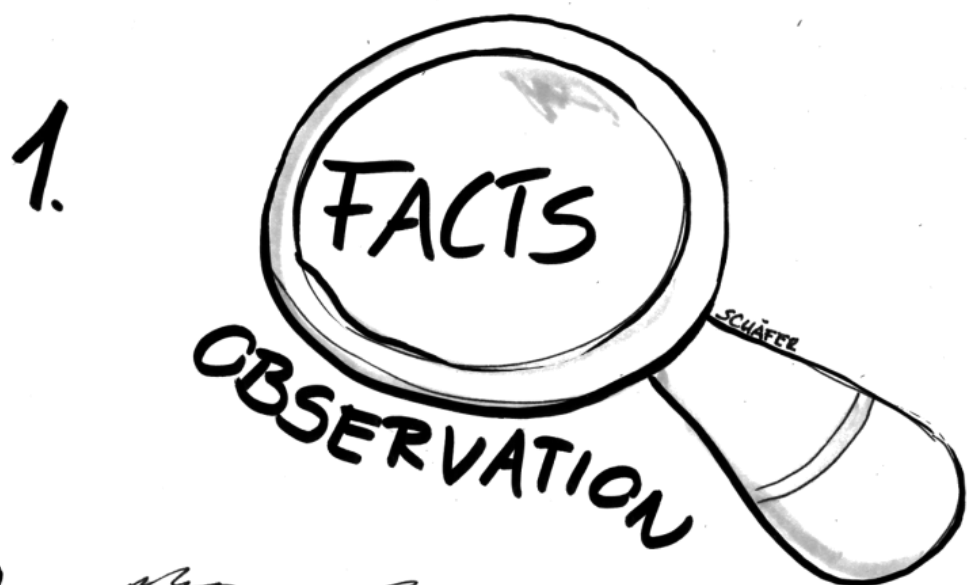
There are two parts to this list: feelings we may have when our needs are being met and feelings we may have when our needs are not being met.

Feelings when your needs are satisfied			Feelings when your needs are not satisfied			
AFFECTIONATE	EXCITED	EXHILARATED	AFRAID	CONFUSED	EMBARRASSED	TENSE
compassionate	amazed	blissful	apprehensive	ambivalent	ashamed	anxious
friendly	animated	ecstatic	dread	baffled	chagrined	cranky
loving	ardent	elated	foreboding	bewildered	flustered	distressed
open hearted	aroused	enthralled	frightened	dazed	guilty	distraught
sympathetic	astonished	exuberant	mistrustful	hesitant	mortified	edgy
tender	dazzled	radiant	panicked	lost	self-conscious	fidgety
warm	eager	rapturous	petrified	mystified		frazzled
	energetic	thrilled	scared	perplexed	FATIGUE	irritable
ENGAGED	enthusiastic		suspicious	puzzled	beat	jittery
absorbed	giddy	PEACEFUL	terrified	torn	burnt out	nervous
alert	invigorated	calm	wary		depleted	overwhelmed
curious	lively	clear headed	worried	DISCONNECTED	exhausted	restless
engrossed	passionate	comfortable		alienated	lethargic	stressed out
enchanted	surprised	centered	ANNOYED	aloof	listless	
entranced	vibrant	content	aggravated	apathetic	sleepy	VULNERABLE
fascinated		equanimous	dismayed	bored	tired	fragile
interested	GRATEFUL	fulfilled	disgruntled	cold	weary	guarded
intrigued	appreciative	mellow	displeased	detached	worn out	helpless
involved	moved	quiet	exasperated	distant		insecure
spellbound	thankful	relaxed	frustrated	distracted	PAIN	leery
stimulated	touched	relieved	impatient	indifferent	agony	reserved
		satisfied	irritated	numb	anguished	sensitive
HOPEFUL	INSPIRED	serene	irked	removed	bereaved	shaky
expectant	amazed	still		uninterested	devastated	
encouraged	awed	tranquil	ANGRY	withdrawn	grief	YEARNING
optimistic	wonder	trusting	enraged		heartbroken	envious
CONFIDENT			furios	DISQUIET	hurt	jealous
empowered	JOYFUL	REFRESHED	incensed	agitated	lonely	longing
open	amused	enlivened	indignant	alarmed	miserable	nostalgic
proud	delighted	rejuvenated	irate	discombobulated	regretful	pinning
safe	glad	renewed	livid	disconcerted	remorseful	wistful
secure	happy	rested	outraged	disturbed		
	jubilant	restored	resentful	perturbed	SAD	depressed
	pleased	revived		rattled	dejected	despair
	tickled		AVERSION	restless	despondent	disappointed
			animosity	shocked	discouraged	disheartened
			appalled	startled	forlorn	gloomy
			contempt	surprised	heavy hearted	hopeless
			disgusted	troubled	melancholy	unhappy
			dislike	turbulent	unsettled	wretched
			hate	turmoil	upset	
			horrified	turmoil		
			hostile	uncomfortable		
			repulsed	uneasy		
				unnerved		
				unsettled		
				upset		

Source: Center for Nonviolent Communication -

http://www.wanttoknow.info/inspiration/nonviolent_communication_summary_nvc

NON-VIOLENT COMMUNICATION



Active Reviewing describes how facilitators can bring together the worlds of talk and action in experience-based learning by making use of these active learning methods.

Active reviewing

(Roger Greenaway - <http://reviewing.co.uk/actrev.htm#intro>)

REVIEWING = PROCESSING = REFLECTION = DEBRIEFING

Reviewing is learning from experience - or enabling others to do so. Reviewing helps you get more from work, life and recreation - especially if you have the reviewing skills to match your ambitions.

A Definition of Reviewing

Reviewing is any process that helps you to make use of personal experience for your learning and development. These reviewing processes can include:

- reflecting on experience
- analysing experience
- making sense of experience
- communicating experience
- reframing experience
- learning from experience

Alternative terms for reviewing are 'processing', 'debriefing' and 'reflection'.

I use the term 'reviewing' in these two ways:

- **Sense 1: REVIEWING = LEARNING** - the process of learning from experience itself (e.g. by keeping a diary, confiding with a friend, or talking with your mentor).
Sense 1 is about what the *learner* does.
- **Sense 2: REVIEWING = HELPING OTHERS TO LEARN** - the process of facilitating learning from experience for others (e.g. by asking questions, giving feedback, or exploring alternative explanations).
Sense 2 is about what the *facilitator* does.

My main interest is in this second sense of 'reviewing', but you will find that many of these 'facilitation' skills (asking questions, giving feedback etc.) are also useful 'learning' skills. A good 'facilitator' uses their own reviewing skills (sense 2) to develop reviewing skills (sense 1) in others. A good facilitator will also use reviewing skills (sense 1) as part of their own continuing professional development. Facilitators should be learning from their own experiences too!

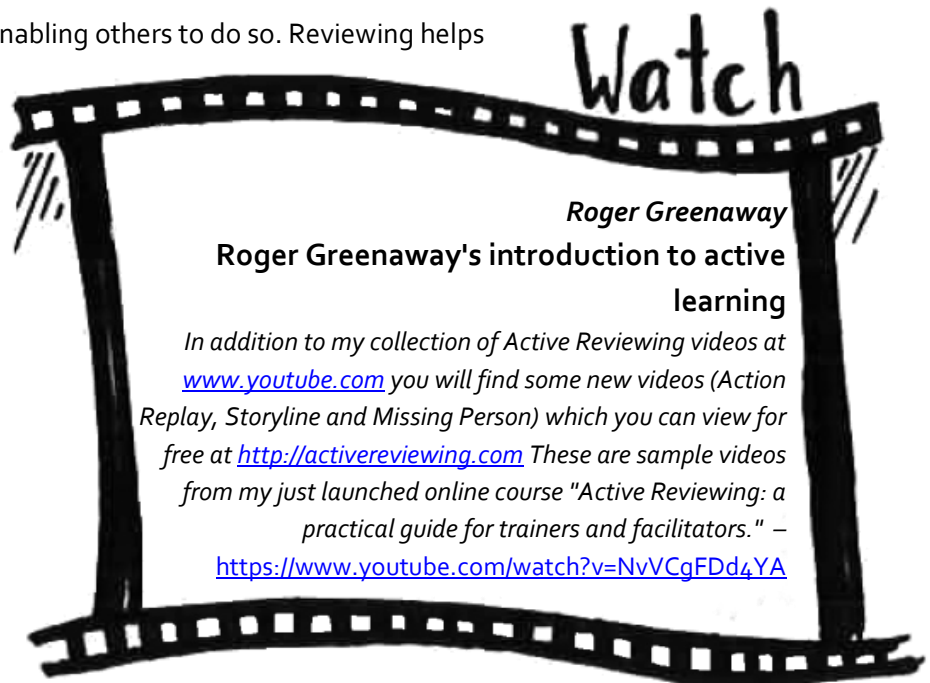
Bringing the worlds of talk and action together

When words are not enough

The purpose of reviewing is to assist the process of learning from experience. This paper outlines some active approaches to reviewing that offer a way forward when words are not enough, or when words get in the way.

ACTIVE REVIEWING

Active reviewing improves our ability to learn from experience. Most active reviewing is simple, basic and direct. Used wisely it can enliven and sharpen the process of reviewing experience.



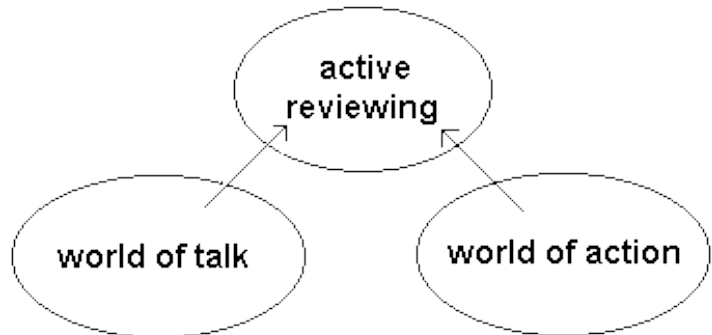
Integrating the worlds of talk and action

- Over-reliance on words can restrict our ability to learn from experience, however articulate or inarticulate we may think we are.
- Talk and action tend to inhabit distinct and separate worlds, especially when there is a clear demarcation line between doing and reviewing.
- The more separate these worlds, the less likely it is that learning from experience is happening.
- *Active reviewing* brings these worlds closer together, by narrowing the gap between theory and practice.

The benefits of active reviewing

The benefits arising from the habit of active reviewing can include:

- More effective learning from experience
- An improved confidence in translating words into action, trying out ideas, making decisions happen, and turning plans into reality
- Soundly based resolutions and action plans. The transition of learning from a course is more likely to happen if plans for the future have already been rehearsed in some way while on the course.
- Language is more likely to be used accurately, responsibly and sensitively. When language and action are no longer 'safely' separated, the quality of communication can only improve.



Active reviewing complements discussion-based methods - it does not replace them

There is a risk that active reviewing might be seen as 'anti-language' or as an attack on the value of verbal reviewing. It is the trainer's responsibility to maintain a suitable balance between language, action and any other media which are used for reviewing. Active reviewing methods simply extend the choices available for learning from experience.

Preparing for active reviewing

Setting up new languages

It is useful to have a wide range of options instantly available when reviewing. If a trainer intends to use active techniques during a review, an earlier session involving communicating through action can prime the group for using 'active language'. 'Active Images' is an example of setting up and using a new language:

ACTIVE IMAGES

On a course which has 'teamwork' and 'leadership' as themes, each group member can be asked to demonstrate an ideal active image of 'teamwork' by directing the rest of the group in a short realistic or symbolic presentation. These presentations can then be readily adapted during later reviews to illustrate how the group is actually working as a team, and to represent people's changing views about teamwork or leadership.

Setting up conventions

A number of games, communication exercises or movement exercises can be used to set up a range of conventions for use during reviewing. Strict observance of conventions can be just as vital to the success of a review as it can be to the success of a game.

A group which already knows various conventions and has experienced their value is more likely to be responsive when such conventions are re-introduced during a review.

The discipline of 'rounds' or of 'sustained silences', or the precedent of moving everyone else or of freezing during action - these are just some of the conventions that can be valuable during reviewing.

CONVENTIONS FOR CONVENTIONS

If conventions are simply established by default (e.g. that people always sit in the same places and keep to the same pecking order in group discussions), then it is unlikely that effective reviewing will get off the ground. By making alternative conventions available in advance, trainers create more room for manoeuvre during reviews - both for themselves and for participants.

Examples of active reviewing

Action replays: improvised group reenactments of a group event

Action replays are the basis of many active reviewing techniques. The purposes and variations of action replays are endless. Purposes include clarifying what happened (1-3 below), celebrating what happened (4-5), investigating what happened (6-9):

1. keeping everyone in the group informed about what others were doing (especially where a group has split into smaller units during an activity)
2. informing others outside the group about a group event (or possibly just to update the trainer following an independent exercise)
3. reconstructing a distant or complex event (to help people recall and relive the facts and feelings of an event)
4. celebrating a success (and appreciating more about what contributed to the success)
5. helping people to see the serious side of a humorous incident (or vice-versa)
6. agenda-raising (using an action replay as a sweep search for issues to review)
7. awareness-raising (bringing out different points of view and disagreements)
8. focusing on issues which participants have found difficult to recognise or confront during the activity
9. analysing a problem (similar to reconstructing the scene of a crime)

Action Pre-plays (or rehearsals)

Pre-plays (or rehearsals) are a natural development of action replays. They simply focus on future possibilities rather than on past events. Acting out alternative courses of action is more committing than talk, but is less committing than the real thing.

- pre-plays create quick and convenient opportunities for second attempts (compared to real second attempts). There may also be fewer distractions from key issues.
- pre-plays create opportunities for experimenting with alternatives
- individuals can swap roles with each other, leading towards criticism becoming more constructive...

Reviewing By Doing: active testing of theories during a review

Course members arrive with theories about what a good manager or a good team member does. They record their theories for display, and after doing some group tasks and receiving feedback from observers, the group considers whether to adjust the theory and/or their practice.

Groups also develop theories about themselves and each activity may put such theories to the test.

Testing theories is a sound process, but groups can sometimes delude themselves. Reviewing can be a time for examining any of these theories (whether about managing, or about teamwork, or about the nature and behaviour of their own group). Trainers should be alert to opportunities for testing out theories - especially suspect ones. 'EXCUSES' provides an example of this.

EXCUSES

A group which was highly disorganised following their arrival at a remote and basic mountain hut came up with a theory about themselves during their initial review in the hut. This went along the lines of:

"...it was dark..."; "...we'd never been there before..."; "...we were tired..."; "...we would manage it much better another time, or in a different 'new' situation..."

After their return to the training centre, their disorganised arrival at the hut was reviewed for a second time. This time, the trainer darkened the room and supplied the group with three torches after scattering information about

the hut's resources around the room on bits of paper.

This simulation allowed the group a second attempt to organise themselves on arrival at the 'hut'. It was just as much of a shambles. The second (active) review had exposed the inadequacy of the initial (all-talk) review and brought out a more accurate explanation of the group's disorganisation.

Newsround Extra: sharing individual experience through action

This is particularly useful where a group has been operating in smaller units or comes together to review their individual experiences. In these situations (where there is a lot of news to exchange) verbal review methods can be particularly time-consuming. Levels of concentration and interest may be low when the time comes round for the last people in the group to tell their stories.

One way of keeping people 'involved', is to invite people to act out the story as it is told. One person acts or mimes the part of the narrator, while others take the parts of any animate or inanimate objects which turn up in the narrative. This can become exhausting and chaotic! It can become so physically involving that rather than bringing the story alive, the story gets lost as the group concentrate on the challenge of staging it. More time-consuming, but more controllable (if desired), is to give individuals time to prepare performances in subgroups. Each performance can be required to include (for example) 2 high points, 2 low points, 2 interesting points and 2 learning points.

Sharing work experience through action

Individuals can represent their work experience or 'problem at work' by putting it into action using the group. The problem-solving resources of the group can then be harnessed by other group members offering alternatives through action.

"SHOW ME A BETTER WAY"

A trainer was unhappy about his introductory meeting with a new group. A few days later, he invited group members to enact alternative ways of starting the course, each in turn taking on the role of the trainer. The trainer discovered a wider range of options and received useful advice as the group discussed their suitability.

This method can help people develop constructive action plans. Symbolic and abstract representations of work can sometimes provide a more effective means of sharing than realistic representations, but both approaches have their value.

Instant reply (through reenactment)

This is a method of promoting understanding between groups or between subgroups. Group A has a theory, perhaps a grudge, about Group B, which is related to a particular incident. Group A now re-enact the incident as if they are Group B, and in the presence of Group B.

As soon as Group A has finished, Group B replies with their version of what happened. Because the reply is spontaneous, it is likely that the dialogue between the groups is honest and open, with the groups learning about each other without lapsing into defensiveness and justification.

To even things up, the exercise should be repeated, this time starting with Group B re-enacting an incident as if they are Group A.

Active appraisal

The presentation of mimed gifts to each other can be worth more than lots of words. These tend to be more considered and sincere than verbal 'gifts'. Verbal explanation of symbolic gifts is recommended if there is a risk of misunderstanding!

Acting on appraisal

"I'LL TRY OUT YOUR ADVICE"

A manager led a group on a mountain expedition, and received a thorough and constructive appraisal. A few days later he staged a reenactment of the expedition in which he tried out the advice offered by the group.

Search techniques

Some active reviewing techniques can be surprisingly time-efficient. Some techniques simply provide quick and easy ways of finding out what's worth talking about (although they can also be used for other reviewing purposes).

Amongst these 'search techniques' are:

- **Head-Height Happy Charts** in which individuals show their state of morale at various points during an earlier exercise by the height of their heads above the floor.
- **Line-ups.** Attitudes, behaviours and contributions during an exercise can be quickly revealed by lining up in order of, say, enthusiasm, thoughtfulness, job satisfaction etc.
- Alternatively, the attitudes within the group can be demonstrated by **human sculptures**, in which the centre and periphery of the room correspond to the centre and periphery of the group.

In all such techniques, individuals can place themselves, and can have the option of moving one or more (perhaps all) of the others in the group.

Key Points (conclusion)

1) Active reviewing as a group norm

Active reviewing techniques should not be regarded as the sole property of the trainer.

Once a group is familiar with the use of active language and active conventions, then the mixing of discussion and action can become the norm - providing everyone with wider opportunities for enlivening, extending and enriching their reviews.

2) Holistic experiences need holistic reviews

If the experiences being reviewed are holistic rather than purely cerebral, then it makes sense to offer reviewing media and methods that are suitable vehicles for these multifaceted holistic experiences. If the reviewing vehicles offered are merely discussion-based, then the less discussible aspects of experience will remain untapped, unreviewed and unharnessed. Important sources of power, energy and insight will remain neglected and underused.

3) It's difficult to find words to express ...

People interviewed after disasters struggle to find words that adequately express their feelings. Experience-based training should of course not expose people to such trauma, but the principle is the same: new and intensive experiences, however traumatic or pleasurable they might be, challenge us to find adequate ways of expressing ourselves. Experience-based learning (especially when it is also adventure-based) creates experiences that can be very rich, extensive, intensive, confusing or complex. If the quality of the experience is to have maximum impact for learning, then it must be matched by reviewing methods that are capable of dealing with the depth, essence and richness of the original experience.

4) The reviewer's toolkit

Active and creative reviewing techniques should be seen as basic tools in a reviewer's toolkit, but they will never replace the need for the skilful and imaginative use of verbal techniques, and for facilitating group discussions. Active reviewing techniques have many purposes. At all stages of the reviewing cycle there are active techniques that can assist the reviewing process i.e. for establishing facts, for expressing feelings, for examining findings and for exploring futures.

An earlier version of this article appeared in Bulletin, Group Relations Training Association, (1983). This version was revised in 1996 as a handout for reviewing skills training. It includes references to material that now appears in ['Playback: A Guide to Reviewing Activities'](#) (1993), published by the Duke of Edinburgh's Award in association with Endeavour Scotland, and written by Roger Greenaway.

*Active Reviewing Guide [Active Reviewing ~ article by Roger Greenaway](#)
<http://reviewing.co.uk/actrev.htm#intro#ixzz3jXzICClj>*

Debriefing Experiential Learning Exercises

Good training exercise design is about providing an engaging experience for the participants. Experiential learning exercises have been used in various fields from indoor training courses to outdoor adventures and many more for decades. Worldwide research from these fields demonstrates **the importance of including debriefing activities to help the learners/participants consider what was learned and how that learning can be connected to previous learning and experiences in their own practice.** The purpose of this professional description for trainers is to explore some of these models of debriefing and to present a variety of methods that trainers and facilitators can use to include debriefing in their training exercises.

Introduction

In line with the shift from traditional to progressive training (or any type of education), there has been a shift in what is considered to be good exercise design. Traditional exercises are focused on asking a series of questions in order to gain an in-exercise reward. These exercises function more as assessment tools, but do little to inspire or teach participants. **The experiential learning model is based on using simulations or other activities that teach through having participants do something instead of demonstrating knowledge about something.** For example, a traditional leadership exercise may ask participants facts about leadership styles or tasks, while an experiential learning exercise may put participants in the role of a leader in a specific – mostly abstract – situation called in to assist with the investigation of a team-conflict where the player explores proper or wrong reactions through experimentation. **These experiential spaces allow for play and risk-taking and encourage learners to continue exploring the topic outside of the exercise.** Models of experiential learning military exercises, outdoor adventure experiences, and corporate training all include the debriefing as part of experiential learning activities.

John Dewey, one of the most influential thinkers in educational theory, argued that **education is the combination of experience and reflection.** This theory has been embodied in the concepts of experiential exercises and simulations through techniques known as reviewing or debriefing that encourage learners to mentally process the experience.

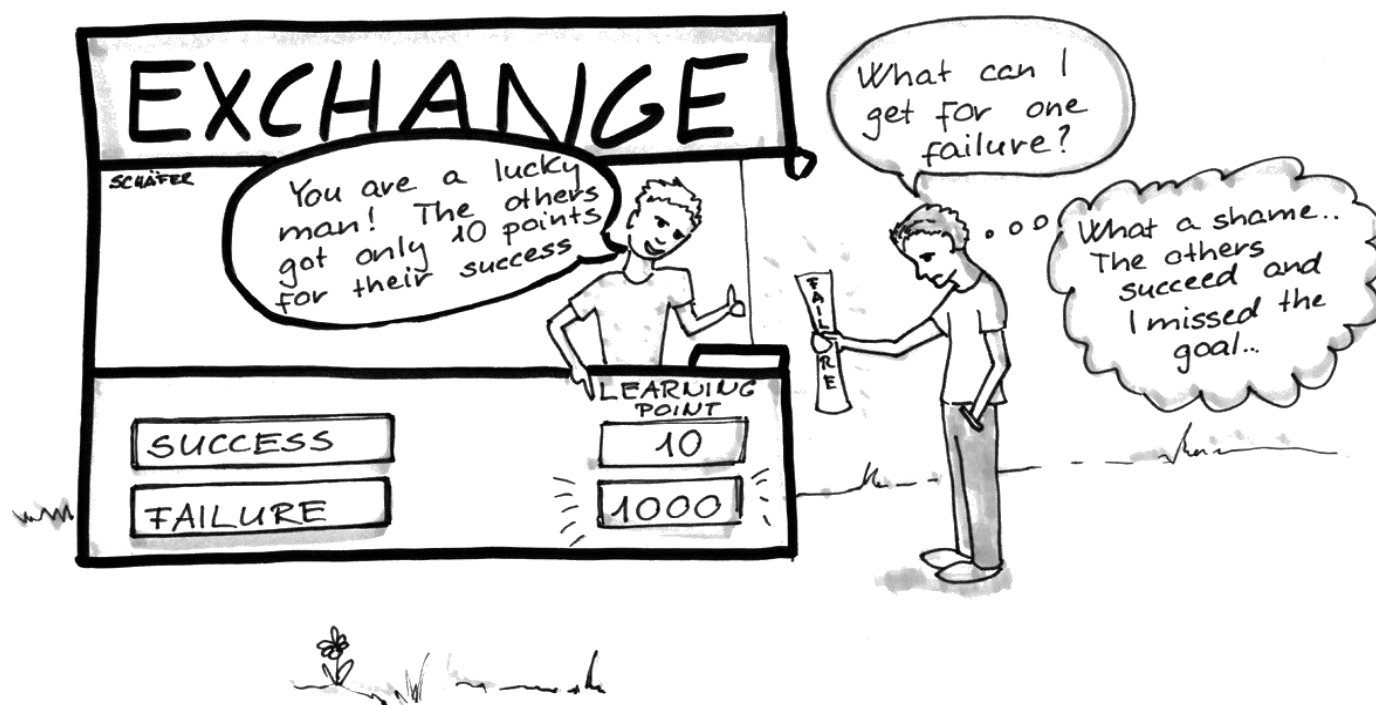
People don't learn from experience; they learn from reflecting on their experience.

Sivasailam Thiagarajan

If we look at the trainings delivered in youth work by many “trainers”, experiential educational exercises do not include a debriefing component or it is not delivered properly. At the end of the experience, the exercise simply ends and the next will come. These programs are rather imitation or just fun events than competency development training courses. Participants can enjoy them, but what will they learn from it - especially if we agree with Thiagarajan’s statement above. Focus on debrief - the exercise is only a tool to create a situation you can debrief with participants. If these experiential exercises do not contain any debriefing activities, then a significant opportunity to create a meaningful and educational experience is lost.

The importance of debriefing

There are two assumptions behind the importance of debriefing - that the activity affected the participant(s) in a way that requires further consideration and that there is a process needed to help the participant through that consideration.



If one goal of the experiential exercise is to create a meaningful learning experience, then if that goal succeeds, these assumptions will hold true. Based on the statement of an article, called *Debriefing Experiential Learning Exercises: A Theoretical and Practical Guide for Success* published in *Journal of Management Education* in 1998 debriefing for training activities should “integrate experiences with concepts and applications that are transferable to settings outside the classroom”. These processes “encourage the learner to reflect, describe, analyze, and communicate what they recently experienced”. **The result of the debriefing process is that participants discover meaningful connections between the activity and their own lives (working practice), thus increasing the learning that occurs from an experiential exercise.**

The debrief is critical because it helps learners explore what went on, talk about their experiences, develop insights, reduce negative feelings about aspects of the activity and connect the activities to their every day situations. A simulation or training exercise that goes poorly can still be a good learning experience with an experienced trainer/facilitator taking the time to debrief the activity appropriately. Similarly, even if the experiential educational exercise is not as successful for a group as was hoped, debriefing exercises can help the participants still gain something from the experience. Based on our own experiences, unsuccessful exercises provide much better basis for learning than the successful ones. Do not be afraid as a trainer if the group misses the goal, they will get out more!

Models of debriefing

There are a number of models of debriefing that have been presented and refined over the years. One model presented starts with **Benjamin Bloom's** taxonomy and argues that debriefing that starts too high up on the taxonomy can fail. Instead, this model starts with activities focused on having learners discussing **what happened** in the event, which is based on the **Knowledge and Comprehension** level. After this, the facilitator encourages participants to **explore how the group performed** in the event, which comes from the **Application and Analysis** level. Next, the participants **discuss other potential solutions** to the challenges during the **Synthesis** portion of the

process. Finally, in the **Evaluation and Opinion** stage, learners are ready to **discuss how well they did** in the activity.

Another well-known model by **David A. Kolb** leads learners through several stages from experiencing to learning. The **first stage focuses on what the learners felt and experienced** during the event. The **second stage introduces other points of view by engaging an individual's experiences** with the experiences of others. The **third stage has the learners relate the concepts in the activity to previously learned concepts** at the training and consider how the activity can be expanded. The **fourth stage focuses on enabling users to make a connection of the activity to the real world**. This then can lead to a growing desire to have more experiences, which starts the cycle of experiential learning anew.

Roger Greenaway further refined this model to make it easier to trainers and facilitators to remember and apply (can be called 4 E model). His four-stage active reviewing sequence starts with **Experience**, where learners reflect and discuss the activities that occurred. The next stage is **Express**, where the learners consider the emotions that they felt during the process. **Examine** comes next in this model, where learners are encouraged to mentally detach from the experience to consider, more holistically, what happened and how well everything went. Finally, the **Explore** phase has participants thinking about the future and how the activity can connect back into the reality.

Sivasailam Thiagarajan brings together ideas of these models and extends them in his popular debriefing model. There are **six stages** to his debriefing process after a simulation or experiential learning activity. **First**, the learners explore **how they feel** after the activity. Many activities can involve stress, conflict, or negative situations, so it is important to allow the learner to express these feelings. **Second**, the group explores what they **recall as happening** as part of the activity. **Third**, the participants explore **what they learned** during the activity. **Fourth**, the learners **tie that learning to their own experiences** from the real world or other things they have learned before. **Fifth**, the learners consider what happened and how what they learned **might apply in a different context**. **Sixth**, the learners plan out their **next steps**.

All of these models point to key activities that need to take place after an experiential activity, which are **description, analogy/analysis, and application**.

Comment on self-facilitation — delivering the debriefing by someone from the group. The literature review reports various attempts at self-assessment with mixed results, although a common pattern of success centres on the use of self-assessment tools. Therefore, this concept of expert-created tools that help a learner assess their own performance through reflection is an important one in developing debriefing tools facilitated by the educational exercise. We can state, external trainer can manage the process far better than the group itself or someone from the group.

Applying debriefing models

In the typical training group, it is up to the trainer to debrief the use of an exercise, simulation or activity. If presented appropriately, this **debriefing helps the participants deconstruct the activity and then connect it into their mental models**. Without this debriefing time, the effectiveness of the activity may be greatly diminished, as some learners will see the activity as a stand-alone event and not properly connect it to other aspects of the class.

Comment on E-learning - Most e-educational exercises and simulations do not include a debriefing as part of the exercise. Some of them will include knowledge-based assessments, such as quiz, to test learning, but these are not the same as a proper debriefing activity.

Debriefing activities do not have a "right" answer, and are instead used to help learners explore and express their feelings about an experience.

Changing the Stage

In talking about debriefing of e.g. outdoor exercises we present the importance of **having the debriefing in a different physical place from the activity**. The reason for doing this is so that the focus can move from a state of action to a state of reflection.

When considering this from an exercise perspective, it means that the debriefing process needs to be in a different exercise mode or in-exercise space. The underlying concept is that the learner needs to mentally step back from the space where the activity has taken place in order to reflect upon the experience and connect it to his or her life.

One challenge is to present these activities in a way that is separate from the exercise, so **that the group can mentally step out of the situation and engage with the debriefing**, but still presenting them in a way that is engaging so that the participant does not just quit the exercise. One method of doing this is to change the reality that the learning is engaged with within the exercise. For example, if the group is exploring concepts of Safety through a hospital case setting, the debriefing could take place in the setting of the director's office or doctors' meeting room. If the activity was out in the field of Crisis public speaking, the debriefing could be with a journalist who is now reporting on the story. Another method is to break the exercise with an "instructor" character that introduces the activity and appears throughout the exercise to lead debriefing activities.

Once the new stage has been set for the debriefing activities, designers of experiential educational exercises can select from different debriefing ideas as a starting point upon which to build a cohesive set of activities. No matter which debriefing methods are selected, the key underlying concepts are having the learner describe what happened, asking them to analyze their performance, and encouraging them to talk about how this experience could be applied to the real world.

Expressing Feelings and Describing Activities

In any experiential activity that could be emotionally charged for the participant(s), it is important to allow him or her to be able to express those feelings. If emotions are strong - which is positive in a training situation - then the person will have a hard time working through other aspects of the debriefing process. One way to help the person express his or her emotions is with an **emotion timeline**. This timeline can consist of the significant milestones in the activity, and a set of icons representing different emotions. The learner can then drag icons to different parts of the timeline and annotates what aspects of the activity created those feelings. This debriefing exercise will help the participant see how his or her feelings changed over the course of the activity.

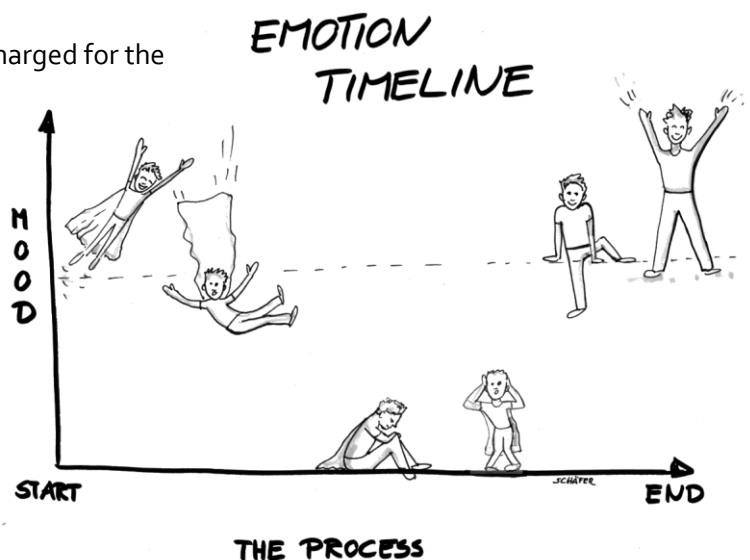
Tips & Tricks

Level of energy

If after a long training day you feel full of energy that means that you did well. And accordingly if you are exhausted and with low energy level that means that something was not right and you have to seek the reasons. They can be internal or external:

Internal – lack of confidence in the topic, embarrassment, insufficient preparation, too many elements which we try to control, etc.

External – unmotivated group, sabotaging behavior of some participants, group conflicts, lack of support from your colleagues, etc.



A traditional method of reflecting is to have the learner record both feelings and activities through a **diary**. This diary (journal) could be integrated into the exercise, or could be a component that is printed before the exercise begins and used alongside the exercise. Providing no context within to write can lead to brilliant insights or meandering thoughts; it will be more effective as a debriefing to provide journaling guidance. A log is a journal where the learner records findings, emotions and his or her own reflections and insights. At the end of the experience, the person can look back at the log to reflect upon highlights. In a similar vein, the critical incident journal (in safety topics) is used for the learner to reflect in-depth about key points during the experience.

One method of inspiring reflection is through creating screen captures that represent critical moments in the activity. A more sophisticated method is to take **photos** or even **video** shots from the actual exercise with the participant's character in it, showing his or her successes and failures. The learner can then either be shown these one at a time or in small groups and then is asked to select one and reflect upon what was going on and how he or she was feeling at that moment.

Exploring What was Learned

One technique in debriefing is a **partnered reflection**, where pairs of learners work through the debriefing experience with each other. In a single-player experiential exercise, some of this can be done with a simulated partner. The learner reviews the performance of one or more "partners" and assesses that performance and compares that performance to his or her own. This will force the participant to think more about what makes for a good performance and consider how different people might approach the same task.

Another method for self-reflection and assessment is **to ask the person to rate his or her learning on a series of specific outcomes or questions**. The rating could be used with a simple 1-5 or 1-10 scale, where 1 is "I feel that I didn't learn anything" and a 5 or 10 is "I feel that I learned a lot." After answers of 1 or 10, a follow-up question can be asked to probe further. The other advantage of this method is that trainers can look at the results of these questions to learn about how the participants perceive the effectiveness of the activity.

Relating to other Experiences or prior Learning

If the exercise is made up of a series of activities, each building upon the past, then one strategy is to take a break from the activity between sections and ask the member of the group to reflect upon what he or she learned and how his or her success was built upon what they have previously learned. This can also work within the aforementioned journal structure, where the person reflects upon the past entries and then continues the journal.

To have the learner reflect upon how this activity relates to prior life and educational experiences, any of the earlier methods for having them document what he or she learned can be used as a starting point for another debriefing activity. For each important situation documented earlier by the participant, a follow-up question can be asked to have people reflect upon other things they learned or experienced in the past that helped them deal with that situation in the activity.

Consider how to Apply Learning to other Contexts

One opportunity to explore how to apply learning elsewhere comes after asking the user about previous situations. A follow-up exercise is to then ask participants to think about other situations in life where what they learned may be valuable or past situations that the learner was in where the knowledge gained from the exercise would have been useful. A different approach is to ask the person about what types of other people would find these topics valuable. Rather than just list other people, the learner can be encouraged to **write a fake e-mail** to either a real or fictional person convincing him or her that this learning activity would be valuable.

Another method of having the group think about how lessons learned can apply elsewhere is to put them in the role of an **exercise designer**. Learners are asked to think about an exercise idea that would take the lessons taught in the activity they just completed and allow someone to learn how to apply those lessons into a new environment. By

providing the participant with a variety of icons to drag into an exercise design document, the learner's creativity can be jostled in directions different than a text-only document would provide.

A simpler, but less engaging, way to get people to think about other contexts for the learning is to ask the person to select three-five situations from a long list of **pre-determined situations where the learning would be useful**. The learner's goal is to select the five most commonly selected situations by other participants where this learning would be useful. As they select situations, they learn how many other participants selected that situation. This will provide them with a wide variety of things to consider outside of what they might come up with on their own.

Planning next Steps

One way to help learners think about what next steps to take is through picture analogies. The group can be presented with a set of **inspirational images** and is asked to choose which one represents how he or she will take what was learned here and continue with it. After selecting an image, he or she will then record why that image was meaningful. It can also be a nice touch for the learner to see reasons from other learners who selected the same image to learn other reasons. This provides a connection to other group members who have done the activity at another time.

Another activity for thinking about the future is to have each participant write a **fan letter** to him or herself a year in the future. This letter should talk about the experience, what was learned, and how the learner applied what was learned to his or her life. Instead of a letter, this could be a video that the learner records to a future self. This letter can then be e-mailed to the person a year or some months later.



Simulating a Group

One of the powerful aspects of debriefing is that it allows each participant to take what he or she internalized from the activity, share it with others, and learn from others. In several of the activities listed here, some of the influence of other participants, either real or simulated, is integrated into the activity. While challenging, it can be quite valuable to bring in other viewpoints and to let the person know that his or her thoughts will be shared with others.

Conclusions

By including more debriefing activities in an experiential exercise, the learning experience can be more effective. These debriefing elements in exercises can also assist trainers wanting to use these exercises as at-home supplements to classroom lessons by ensuring that the participants go through the critical debriefing process. While the trainers and courseware designers can greatly benefit from seeing the results of the debriefing, it is important to ensure that participants know how their debriefing will be used.

Any debriefing should focus on at least three elements - what was done in the activity, how well the activity worked for the group, and how the learning could be applied. It is important that there be a **shift in the exercise space** between the experience and the debriefing activity so that the participant can mentally shift from doing to reflecting. Providing some way for learners to engage with each other in a synchronous or asynchronous way will lead to a richer learning experience. The result of a successful debriefing is that both the participant and also the trainers gain much more out of the original exercise.

Based on abstracts from D. Kolb, S. Nicholson, J. Dewey, R. Greenaway and S. Thiagarajan

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated

Six phases of debriefing

In the above article, the term debriefing is used to refer to a general process of reflecting over experiential activities. Here the term Debriefing is used as a name of a specific method for the reflection process.

Debriefing is the structured group discussion of the emotions, learning and application opportunities the certain exercise has generated.

Summary

Experiential learning exercises can be derived into three phases: briefing - delivery - debriefing. The **professional process of Debriefing** you can find here.

There are many schools and gurus with different approaches on how to deliver the debriefing. Here is described the 6-phases model. There are three steps and six-phases within the discussion with the participants. You can read the six-phase model to structure debriefing questions.

Delivery Procedure

Notes for trainers from the author (Sivasailam 'Thiagi' Thiagarajan) of the debriefing model:

"I firmly believe this principle and keep preaching it to everyone. To me, all experiential learning activities (simulations games, role-plays, outdoor adventures, and other such things) merely provide an excuse for debriefing sessions.

You must conduct a debriefing discussion to help your participants reflect on their experiences, relate them to the real world, discover useful insights, and share them with each other. Debriefing also helps you to wind down the learning activity, reduce negative reactions among the participants, and increase insights.

A major dilemma in debriefing is maintaining a balance between structure and free flow. I suggest that you prepare several questions before the debriefing session. During actual debriefing, encourage and exploit spontaneous comments from the participants. If the conversation degenerates into a stream-of-consciousness meandering, fall back on your prepared list of questions.

I use a six-phase model to structure debriefing questions. Here are some guidelines for each phase of this model."

Steps of Debriefing

Step 1: Emotions, reactions

- How do you feel?
- What has happened?

Step 2: Learning

- What did you learn?
- How does this relate to the real world?

Step 3: Application

- What if?
- What next?

How do
you feel?



The Phases of the three steps

Phase 1: How Do You Feel?

This phase gives the participants an opportunity to get strong feelings and emotion off their chest. It makes it easier for them to be more objective during the later phases.

Begin this phase with a broad question that invites the participants to get in touch with their feelings about the activity and its outcomes. Encourage them to share these feelings, listening actively to one another in a nonjudgmental fashion.

Phase 2: What Has Happened?

In this phase, collect data about what happened during the activity. Encourage the participants to compare and contrast their recollections and to draw general conclusions during the next phase.

Begin this phase with a broad question that asks the participants to recall important events from the training activity. Create and post a chronological list of events. Ask questions about specific events.

Phase 3: What Did You Learn?

In this phase, encourage the participants to generate and test different hypotheses. Ask the participants to come up with principles based on the activity and discuss them.

Begin this phase by presenting a principle and asking the participants for data that support or reject it. Then invite the participants to offer other principles based on their experiences.

Phase 4: How Does This Relate To The Real World?

In this phase, discuss the relevance of the activity to the participants' real-world experiences.

Begin with a broad question **about the relationship between the experiential learning activity and events in the workplace**. Suggest that the activity is a metaphor and ask participants to offer real-world analogies.

DO NOT FORGET: Real life analogy with the exercise itself and NOT with the learning! Give them enough time to think individually or even in pairs or triads. Then ask them what real cases, situations, activities are the same as the exercise or the failures/mistakes happened during the exercise showed. Put all or the best cases on flipchart too!

Phase 5: What If?

In this phase, encourage the participants to apply their insights to new contexts. Use alternative scenarios to speculate on how people's behaviors would change.

Begin this phase with a change scenario and ask the participants to speculate on how it would have affected the process and the outcomes of the activity. Then invite the participants to offer their own scenarios and discuss them.

Possible questions in this phase:

- What would you do differently next time when delivering this exercise?
- How would you change your actions, decisions when doing the activity next?
- What to change next time to be successful?

Phase 6: What Next?

In this phase, ask the participants to undertake action planning. Ask them to apply their insights from the experiential activity to the real world.

Begin this phase by asking the participants to suggest strategies for use in future rounds of the activity.

Follow with such questions:

- How the learnings you listed can be in the concrete cases you collected be applied?
- If you said that you would do the exercise..... (Differently) then what should you change in your concrete cases you mentioned (and you can read on flipchart)?

Then ask the participants how they will change their real-world behavior as a result of the insights gained from the activity CONCRETELY. Ask them to make commitments!







Important note for trainers or facilitators







You cannot miss any of the listed steps or change the sequence. Only this well-structured format will lead the participants to the last phase, the action planning. Between each steps there is a strong logical connection, if you miss any or mix up the order this logical link will be broken.

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.



Learning methods

Method	Characteristics	Description	Use	Limitations
Lecture 	Talking to a group from previously prepared notes.	Trainer or specialist presents information on a given subject to audience.	When few if any members of the group are familiar with the subject and when group is large (30-40 people). Also when a large amount of information must be presented.	Least effective method in amount of remembered information and their application into practice. Listeners may fast lose their attention.
Discussion 	Discussion of a problem common to all. Conclusion reached by learners responding to guided questions.	Trainer uses provocative questions or statements, usually prepared in advance, to stimulate group thinking and contributions to guide discussion.	Method can be used when group has some knowledge or experience in the subject.	Unequal involvement of participants, especially in new groups.
Ice breaker 	Short activity with participants aiming to bring more non-formal atmosphere and get participants a bit closer to each other.	Trainer leads short, often physical activity, where participants are in direct verbal or physical contact. It can have some or no link to the topic.	Overcoming communication barriers, bringing non-formal atmosphere. Chosen activity should reflect specificities of the group.	Refusal from participants as "childish games". Refusal because of being in physical contact with others.
Brainstorming 	To generate many alternative solutions to a problem or topic.	Quantitative method. We never evaluate or judge any of the generated ideas. Ideas might be further analyzed.	To generate many creative ideas, best to use in smaller groups (at least 5-6) or when entering into new topic.	High diversity of outcomes. Lot of energy put into analysis of generated ideas.
Group work 	Participants are divided into smaller working groups, where they work or discuss on one or more themes.	Groups discuss or work on given theme and after time limit they present their results to others. Group division should be random, only exception is when we need to create groups according to their experience. If you select groups on some criteria, you should explain them.	It gives opportunity for better discussion, interaction and more sharing of opinions than in the bigger group. It gives space also to more "silent" participants. One of the most used methods.	Is not usually facilitated, so method might not work. Limitation might be also space for expressing opinions taken by only few more dominant participants with no space for more "silent" ones.
Role play 	Learners try out behaviours in a simulated situation in a limited amount of time.	Teaching conclusions are not important, trying out behaviours is. Roles from life can be switched, all given a change to both play and observe. After activity participants analyze attitudes and behaviour of different roles to subject.	Role plays are used to have a variety of views and opinions on the same situation. It allows seeing often contradictory behaviours, gives opportunity to analyze them with minimal risk. It can show importance of tolerance to different opinions.	Role play requires, that participants feel comfortable and safe. Using role play at the beginning of educational activity may cause refusal or negative emotions towards trainer or training. This method includes lot of emotions, therefore the activity is followed by debriefing, where we deal with the feelings and also make links to the topic. Participants should get out of their roles as soon as possible after activity before debriefing.

Case study 	Learners analyze prepared description of problem situation. Usually in printed version.	Individual or group work, when participants look for answers related to presented situation. Situation should be from reality (something that happened or can happen).	To gain theoretical knowledge from practical example and its analysis.	Insufficient time for good understanding and analysis of case. Difficult to create a good case study (enough facts, updated information to reality, with easy to understand logic...).
Simulation game 	Participants are part of created situation, where every person has got a task. It is an extended role-plays with extensive design.	Groups of learners are given critical data about a situation, make their decisions, receive feedback, and take further action.	It is often used for simulation of processes that are taking place in longer term on different places (like simulation of preparation of youth exchange during training by more groups). Simulation games can be prepared for few hours, for a day or even for more days.	Same risks as in role play.
Buzz Groups 	Smaller discussion groups, sharing opinions on given or any topics without presence of trainer.	Method allows opened discussion where participants are facilitating process. Basic rule is that no information leaves the group without permission of all members.	Mostly during evaluation activities, at the evening participants can evaluate the day, methods, approach of the team, and express their feelings.	Chaos during discussion or going off the topic as no trainer is present.
Open Space 	Participants suggest topics for discussions and workshops and they are taking place with participation of others. It is a method which requires high level of responsibility from participants.	Participants suggest others topics for workshops or discussions they would like to have in the program. Based on this time schedule is created. Workshops are led by participants, discussion is free, participants can switch between workshops or open new topics. At the end conclusions are presented to others.	Method relevant mostly with groups used to work independently. It supports responsibility of volunteers in generating outcomes of educational activity.	While working with participants with low motivation or without stronger relation to the topic there is a risk that participants will not come out with relevant topics or discussion will be too general without specific results.
Self-reflection 	Time for self reflection on activities that happened before	Participants individually analyze situation that happened, previous activities or their behaviour and confront it to their present and future reality.	Good method in complex topics during trainings, which are aiming to touch values and attitudes of participants. One of the techniques can be "letter to myself" where participants will write personal things, put them in an envelope and trainer sends it after some time (1 month, 3 months...)	Important point for self-reflection is when, where and on what to reflect. In more technical or knowledge based trainings this method can be considered useless.
Excursion 	Planned trip during training, which can give more information from practice to the topic.	Place of excursion are planned by trainer (organiser) connected to theme of educational activity. Usually it is practical presentation followed by discussion where links with topic are explained.	Advantage is the possibility to see in practice some of touched themes. It gives possibility to remember better theories and also inspiration for further work of participants.	Time consuming, not prepared and discussed program with members of visited organisation or institution. In this case excursion may be chaotic and not clearly linked to the topics.

Watch

26 non-formal methods presented in short online movies

These methods were filmed during the international project "Passion in Action" implemented through Erasmus+.

https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL3S9BpP_Ds33wPTApyDHHfvkZkkS1pM
-Z

14 teambuilding and improvisational theatre methods

These methods were filmed during the international project "IMPROVe your life" implemented through Erasmus+.

https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PL3S9BpP_Ds30RYIcArbMNGAlbj922F_7E
7E

Assignment of Activities

(Ognian Gadoularov)

The **assignment of an activity** (the instruction giving) is one of the critical moments in the work of a trainer. The result of the method (game) we choose depends fully on how we assign the activity, how we motivate the participants and what rules we will introduce.

The assignment of the activity is the main factor for motivating the participants to get involved fully and actively. The assignment has to be in conformity to the composition and the level of the group. The trainer has to be well-acquainted with the method itself (game, activity). The ideal situation is when they have experienced it in the past as a participant.

Here we present a list of steps for assigning of a group activity. It can be used during the preparation of the assignment. The sequence of elements in the list is in conformity with the human psychology and the logic flow of the training process. The presence or the lack of a certain parts in the list depends on the method and is flexible to adaptations:

- **Motivation/visualization** – a phase which draws the attention and the interest of the participants and makes them want to get involved. Here the benefits for the participants can be used as motivation.
- **Exercise/ Rules** – a phase of clarification of the rules
 - **Aim/result** – final condition or desired result
 - **Rules and limitations** – ways of performance
 - **Roles** – explanation if there are going to be different roles and their specific function
 - **Duration** – division of time for the separate stages (if there are such) or setting the general time frame
- **Time for questions asked by the group**
- **Safety instructions** – if the activity requires them
- **Role distribution/group division/distribution of materials or instructions** – carried out at the end. The participants have to understand the general instructions well before they are given the materials, roles or group tasks. Otherwise they can get easily distracted by the new information means introduced at improper time.

There are two criteria which can help you measure the quality of your performance during the assignment. Both criteria are related to the questions asked by the participants.

Quality Measures of Assignment of Activity

- 🕒 **Number of questions** – if the group asks too many questions about the rules that means that you did not explain them clearly
- 🕒 **Quality of the questions** – The group has understood all instructions if it asks further questions about related topics that were not mentioned or are subject to further communication. It is motivated to gather all the information (ex. After the explanation of the rules the questions are: “How do we split into groups?”, “When are we leaving?” etc.)

In the ideal case the trainer aims to give the instructions in a way that does not leave the participant anything to ask.

Directions for Assignment of Activities

- Plan the activity according to the age and the physical abilities of the group. An elder group can easily lose interest if you put them in a childish situation and vice versa. Any group can get frustrated by a problem which requires physical and mental capabilities above their limits.
- Present the situation and set conditions then step back and leave the group to work on the problem even if it is difficult for them at the beginning. The trainer can harm the process by dropping hints or suggesting solutions because of their preparation and better understanding of the problem and the possible solutions. Participants should work independently. Sometimes the interaction which happens during the problem-solving process is much more important than the quality of the solution to the problem.
- Limit rules as much as possible. Long wordy explanations lead to boredom and lack of understanding. When appropriate use visualizations and schemes. Demonstrate by using your body in space to increase the understanding.
- Adapt and change rules so that they fit to the goals, the situation, and the people. Adapt them towards the desired result.
- Stimulate participation. Include everyone in the activity. Avoid activities where participants are being eliminated.
- The task can be presented in oral or written form. The use of written assignment guarantees that nothing will be skipped or forgotten. It gives great accuracy and the group does not have an excuse afterwards to claim that the trainer has skipped some details. The disadvantage is that if the written instruction is given in advance the participants can constantly check it and read which means that the necessity to listen carefully disappears. When the game or the task is complex and is presented verbally it is good to make a short written summary to limit the possibilities for making mistakes.
- There is an option that the task is explained to one or several group members instead of the whole group. This approach is used to encourage information sharing in the group and to strengthen the position of some of its members who somehow remained isolated until that moment.
- The information concerning security (the safety instruction) has to be very clear and understandable (unambiguous). It is advisable that the trainer demands some feedback to confirm that the safety instructions are understood clearly.

Planning Phase

The group is given some time to make a plan before they advance to solving the given task. Here different options are also possible. An exact time period can be given for planning after which the task-solving or the game has to start immediately. The group can also be told that the game or the task solving can start only after the time given

for planning is over. Different options are possible in relation to setting the condition whether the group is allowed from time to time to divert slightly from the initial plan during the task or, is obligated to stick to the initial plan even if threatened by failure. No matter the choice made about how the planning phase will be structured all options contribute to fulfilling the goals such as resourcefulness, logical thinking and ability to communicate. Often here some emphasis is put on “playing it serious” and on the intellectual component.

Competitive Element

During a game or a task completion groups compete each other. For many participants the competition can increase motivation and the pleasure of the game. The competition stimulates the cohesion of the groups (teams). In relation to the goals it opens possibilities for dealing with daily competition and the need of high achievements (at work, at school, etc.). The risk from competition is that it can have reverse effect to the desired one. It can lead to aggression, deepening of the hostility, etc. If there are enmities in the groups the formation of the teams can be done by the trainer so that a more appropriate distribution is made. We cannot give a single answer when it is appropriate to introduce a competitive element. It all depends by the type of the group and the type of the training. Usually the problems arise at the beginning of the training when in the group there is still a stronger orientation towards high achievements and competitiveness.

Role distribution

During a game or other activity to a selected participant a task can be given to present a behavior which is not typical for their personality, gender and social status etc. - namely a role. By giving roles various life situations and reactions resulting from them can be experienced and demonstrated in order to give food for thought about one's own role or the role of another person. Roles also give possibility to experience playfully various ways of reactions and various types of behavior. The role has to be well-thought and prepared. Also enough time is needed for performance and active discussion.

Limitations of Conditions

There are various options for limiting the conditions and creating complications which can influence significantly the activity or the motivation of the participants. Such limitations can be:

- ✓ Choice of the place and limitation of the space used
- ✓ Limitation of the time
- ✓ Limitation of the resources/materials
- ✓ Exclusion of senses (eyes covering, prohibition of speaking), physical obstacles (ex. Tying of arms or legs, game played on only one leg or by only one arm, tying the participants to each other, carrying of additional objects during the task completions, prohibition of additional auxiliary means, etc.)
- ✓ Limitation of the number of participations in the game (ex. Each participant can play as many times as many stones are put in their hand at the beginning of the game)
- ✓ Assigning certain ways to move (only backwards, crawling, jumping, etc.)
- ✓ Presentation and clarification of the game (ex. Coding of information, isolation of certain participants)

Initially developed as a model for the army by the University of Florida the ADDIE Model is very structured and hierarchical. The aim of the model was to adequately train people who had to complete certain activities or tasks. The model included several steps coinciding with the 5 main stages where every step had to be completed before the next one. Over the years the people who practiced the model revised and developed the steps and it became more dynamic and interactive than its original hierarchical version. In the mid 80s, the version which we use today appeared.

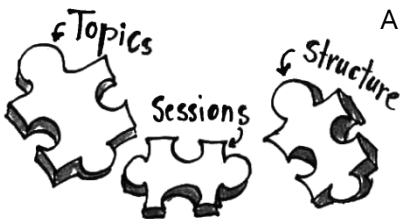
Analysis Phase

During the analysis the designer of the program identifies the learning needs and challenges, the general and specific goals, the problems of future students, the levels of knowledge, skills and attitudes and all other relevant information which is needed for the preparation of the training.

- What needs will the training address?
- This part of the model is related to research and digging much deeper than the assumptions
- It is related to systematic thoughts about the desired outcome at organization level, group and single individual.



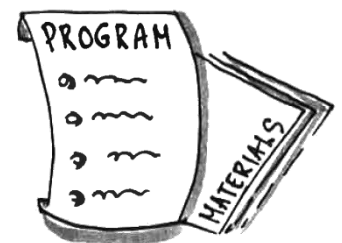
Design Phase



A systematic process which includes concrete educational topics and areas. Often detailed descriptions of the training are made. They can contain also graphic summary of what is going to happen and prioritizing of the topics and sessions which are important in the training. At the end of the design we have to have general idea about the structure of the training.

Development Phase

The real creation of a detailed program which includes all activities and the materials needed for the work, based on the structure prepared during the design phase.



Implementation Phase



During the implementation phase the plan is put into action and the procedure for training of the participants happens according to the goals planned. The prepared materials are introduced and the program is applied in the context of the group and the group processes and dynamics.

Evaluation and Feedback Phase

The feedback phase contains research by the team and the evaluation by the participants. A feedback has to be included at the end of each of the stages of the cycle. At the end of the analysis we make a summary of what we have found during each stage and take notes for improvement. From the participants we can collect official and unofficial feedback.



At the end of the cycle we revise the plan and the design if this is needed for the future.

Acknowledgement of above article is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.

Construction of the training program

(Ognian Gadoularov)

A construction of a complete training program is the action in the trainers' practice which unifies all elements of the training into one – goal setting, conduction, report and future actions. By the program, the trainers prepare how the learning goals will be achieved and set all elements of the educational process. The well-prepared training program is a predisposition for effective work and quality results during the training process.

There are many interrelated elements in a training program which the trainers join together in one complete logical stream with predictable and measurable results. The program is made conformable to the characteristics of the students and the environment in which it is going to be conducted. In order to secure a complete training process the program has to include the following features:

- To have clear relationship to the training objectives
- To include elements that support the development of the group dynamics
- To have a clearly defined training part
- To have practical connection to the reality
- To be conformable to the students
- To be able to answer the individual training needs of the participants
- To give opportunities for flexibility and adaptability.

From our experience we can point out several elements that are extremely important for creation of a training program:

Aim and Objectives

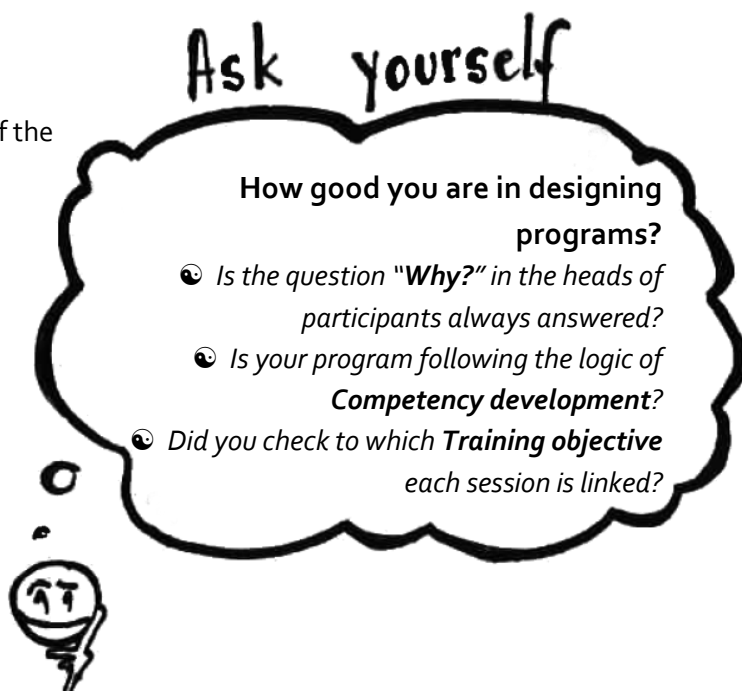
Even before the construction of the program, the training team has to have formulated training goals on two levels – general aim and objectives. The general aim is the result expected from the training as a whole. The objectives are concrete measurable elements related to the development of behaviors, knowledge, skills and attitudes – leading to the achievement of the general aim.

During the preparation of the program the objectives serve as the skeleton to which one by one the program's elements are attached. During the preparation of each session a checkup is made about the relevance of the session to the concrete objective and what results are expected from the participants. ("What do we want the participant to go out of the session with?"). At the most detailed level of planning the trainers set concrete objective for each training session of the program.

Sequence according to the educational results

This is the organization of the training part of the program according to the logic of competence development. We begin with development of attitudes, continue with knowledge, create environment for development of skills and at the end help the participants to understand the relationship between the newly acquired competences and how they can be applied in real life.

Attitude → Knowledge → Skill



The Layers Effect (Two layered program planning)

When constructing a program we should not forget the layers element – the simultaneous processes related to group dynamics and educational activities (see Group Dynamics and Social learning). When preparing the activities related to group dynamics we have to make sure that they are appropriate for the educational context and if possible to adapt them to it. When choosing activities and methods in the thematic sessions (directed to the affective, cognitive and psychomotor goals) we have to look examine their effect on the group dynamics (ex. If we have a thematic session in the program too early and include the group work as a method but without a facilitator this can lead to unsatisfactory results. This is because the main behavior during the phase of group formation is restraint and there is no focus on the achievement of the goal. In such way the dominating behaviors will decrease the effect of the method.)

Program Flow

It concerns all existing relationships between all elements of the program and all training objectives. In a well-designed program in every moment it is clear to the participant that a certain element of the program is happening. The use of each element is easy to understand and there is no feeling of misbalance or fragmentation between the activities (ex. aimlessly arranged games one after another are not a training program, a long presentation followed by 3-4 energizers gives a feeling of lack of balance). As in the classic novels the program has an introduction, real part and conclusion. The existence of the elements relevant to the parts of the program gives a feeling of consistency and coherence. (Ex. In the introduction we make a session on getting to know each other and present the objectives while in the conclusion we make evaluation and planning of the future steps).

The tools which help us establish a common logic in the program are **Introductions, Summaries, References** and relationship between **the Part** and **the Whole**. The Introductions and the Summaries are instruments which relate each session (or element of the program) with the previous or following elements. We can imagine them as the Glue of the program. The References and the relationship Part-Whole are the logical connection (in the form of reminders and messages) between the distant elements of the program (ex. The connection between the tool “Action Plan” from the last day of the program to the personal training objectives from the first day of the training) and the relationship of the separate elements to the global whole (ex. The relationship of the separation of garbage with child slave labor in the factories of South Asia.)

Process activities

Activities and methods directed towards the achievement of specific objectives which are not related to a concrete topic of the training. For this reason the process activities are rarely touched in the trainings for trainers and the publications on non-formal learning. This is why we will pay some special attention to them in the following chapter.

Ask yourself

Choose your training program end evaluate it

- ☉ Does the program meet the agreed aims and objectives?
- ☉ Is there a sufficient diversity of methods planed to help group to work effectively?
- ☉ Does the program include methods stimulating people to interact and participate actively?
 - ☉ Is the timing reasonable?
- ☉ Do the sessions follow a logical sequence from beginning to end?
 - ☉ Does the program have an identifiable beginning, middle and end?



Process activities are all activities, actions and methods carried out in the framework of a training program/process which are not related to the concrete topic of the training but are directed towards a specific objective. In most cases their goal is to help the group processes (passing through the stages of the group dynamics) or to achieve affective (emotional) objectives. Also the process activities can serve for improvement and support of the learning process related to the topic and the cognitive objectives of the training. The process activities can last during all of the training or can be single activities carried out in a certain moment. Examples of process activities are the popular game "Secret friend" and the method "Reflection group". The first is directed towards improvement of the relations in the group while the second aims to the facilitation of the learning process.

The process activities are set during the stage of design of the training process and have to be considered with the main sessions, the environment and the other elements of the training. It is very important to seek the best balance between the thematic sessions and the process activities. As was said before in this manual, often the process activities can be adapted to support the main educational objectives (by giving them a thematic content or using them for delivering messages). In such way the two-layered effect of the educational process is achieved. On one side objectives that were out of the main theme of the training are achieved and on the other side the activities support the thematic field of the training.

Many of the unexperienced trainers can slip into conducting a big number of process activities instead of achieving the training objectives. This is because the process activities are directed towards the relationships between the participants and the result is a highly positive environment and positive emotions which lead to increased level of trust and admirations for the trainer. On the other hand the result from such training process is meagre and without significant meaning for the participant.

Here I will present a brief selection of process activities which you can use to improve the training programs which you conduct.

Group dynamics games and reflection methods

Name games, Getting to know each other activities, Icebreakers, Trust games, Team challenges, debriefing etc. These activities are used to facilitate the process of group dynamics.

Energizers

Very short, dynamic games with fast and easy instruction. Used to increase the energy level in the group, to create atmosphere and to focus attention.

Reflection Groups

Daily gathering in same small groups of participants for discussing and sharing learning outcomes and training process. Used to facilitate the process of group and individual learning, assessment of learning outcomes and giving feedback for the training.

Morning program presentation

Short presentation of daily program as first activity every morning. This gives participants feeling of structure and reminds specific objectives for the day. It is very useful in long training programs (4 days and more).

Analysis of the day

Short session at the end of each day when trainers explain logic behind every activity during the daily program. This tool is suitable for training the trainers and educators, where an analysis of the logic of the activities carried out during the day is needed, in order to deepen participants' understanding of the levels/layers in the design of a training program.

Mail boxes

Each participant has a personalized "mail box" on the wall (envelop, box, bag etc.) for receiving letters. This supports communication and cohesion in the group.

Evening activities

Star gazing, Movie nights, Game evenings etc. All this can support creation of good atmosphere in the group. Do not forget that all this activities can be topic related to the training.

Adventurous activities

Including adventure activities in the program (climbing, Via ferrata, caving, rope course, trolley etc.) can reveal hidden potential of participants, to provoke them and to take them out of the comfort zone. They also can demonstrate principles of Experiential learning or Group dynamics development.

Learning diary

Each participant is provided with a notebook (a nice one) and asked to personalize by drawing, application writing etc. Each day during personal reflection time participants answer specific questions by writing in the diary.

Solo

Time that participants spend alone in nature, to reflect about their learning, life, etc. The place is the same every day and time can be increased during the process.

Resources poster

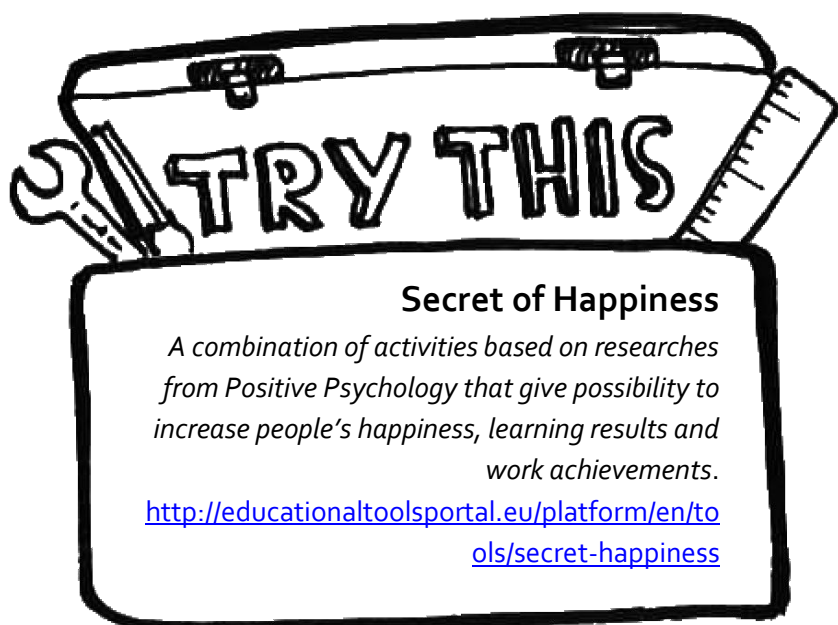
Poster that participants can write resources related to the training (books, movies, web pages etc.). The content is distributed to the group after the training.

Parking lot

Poster where participants can write any question or topic to be discussed. Trainers decide when to rise the questions and to answer.

Daily closing activity

Every day content part of the training to finish with short activity. This creates the feeling of completeness of the day, closing the learning part and increasing positive emotions in the group. Activities can also be related to daily evaluation – one word sharing, movement feeling expression etc.



Things to Pay Attention to during a session

- **Goal of the session** – With the introduction of each session we answer to the inner questions of the participants “Why are we doing these things?” and “What will be the useful result which I will receive?” In order to secure maximum level of participation you have to aim at every moment to keep clear the goals and the benefits to the participants of the activities.
- **Explanation and assignment of activities** – the clearest possible explanation at the beginning saves the time of later additional explanations. Separate clearly the beginning and the end of each activity. Ask if everyone has understood and if not – explain again.
- **Interaction** – try to distribute the session so that 30% of the time is for the trainer (introduction of information, giving instructions, demonstrations, etc.) and 70% is for the participants (discussions, group work, exercises, development of something)
- **Mutual learning and sharing of experience and ideas** – at each possible moment direct and encourage the participants to enrich their shared ideas and opinions.
- **Less but clearer topics (of separate sessions and tasks)** – do not overload the participants with too much theoretical information
- **Diversity of methods for reflection and evaluation (feedback)** - Use as diverse methods as possible to ensure reflection and feedback (the constant repetition of the question “How do you feel?” soon becomes a reason for jokes and leads to boredom and uniformity of the expectations). At each possible moment surprise the participants with unusual methods – to imitate, show without words, draw, sing, express through a melody on their phones, etc.)
- **Taking notes** – write everything which impressed you during the sessions in order to improve your methodology and your work. Discuss the notes with your colleagues and apply the conclusions in practice.
- **Documentation of the sessions** – develop the session using tables for description of the training modules. Keep an archive of the methods and sessions used. During preparation of training programs use your old notes to adapt and upgrade with new topics and content.
- **Asking of questions** – encourage the participants to ask questions. If it does not bother you, allow the participants to interrupt you even when you present information. In such way you increase the trust and the feeling that you give everything you can to them and help them in the understanding of the material.
- **References** – showing the connections between the parts of the material support the logic of the training process and reinforce what was learnt. The creation of connections and the return to the global picture is important for remembering and for better perception.
- **Conclusions and summaries** – make summaries at the end of each activity going back to the objective. (“Why are we making this?”, “What do we want to achieve?”, “Did we achieve it?”)
- **Additional activities** – ensure that the program has the following additional elements
 - **Enough energizers and physical activities** – the program has to be vibrant, to have a balance between more dynamic and calmer activities
 - **Self-reflection** – answer questions which were prepared in advance and are kept during the entire program
 - **Group discussion** – evaluation of what has happened up to the moment with all participants
 - **Solo** –time during which the participants stay with themselves and reflect on what was studied
 - **Review of the program and the task distribution** – ensure the review of the programs and the activities

Tips & Tricks



Guidelines for the use of interactive games and activities:

- **Try it yourself** – experience the games and the exercise before you “cause” them to someone else
- **Clear aim of the game** – make sure that you understand well the goals of each activity. If the answer to the question “Why am I playing this game?” is not related to the training/process do not make the game.
- **Sensibility towards the participants** – introduce the activities sensitively – consider the situation and the mood of the group
 - **Clear and understandable instructions** – give instructions in a clear and easy to understand manner with examples and demonstrations
- **Motivation** – encourage the participants to get involved but do not bribe/force them. The principle of voluntary participation has to stay into force.

In every real man a child is hidden that wants to play.

Friedrich Nietzsche

Publications consulted

1. Council of Europe and European Commission, (2002): T-Kit on Training Essentials - <http://pjp-eu.coe.int/en/web/youth-partnership/t-kit-6-training-essentials?inheritRedirect=true>
2. Helmut Fennes and Hendrik Otten (2008): Quality in non-formal education and training in the field of European youth work - <https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-1615/TrainingQualityandCompetenceStudy.pdf>
3. T-kit 12 - Youth transforming conflict - Council of Europe Publishing, F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex, <http://book.coe.int>, ISBN 978-92-871-6776-7, © Council of Europe and European Commission, October 2012; - <http://pjp-eu.coe.int/en/web/youth-partnership/t-kit-12-youth-transforming-conflict?inheritRedirect=true>
4. Developing Facilitation Skills - A Handbook for Group Facilitators - Patricia Prendiville; Updated December 2002; New Edition 2008; ISBN 978-1-905485-67-3
5. Compass Manual for human rights education with young people - http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/eycb/Source/Compass_2012_FINAL.pdf
6. Experiential Learning: A Best Practice Handbook for Educators and Trainers - <http://www.amazon.com/Experiential-Learning-Practice-Handbook-Educators/dp/0749444894>
7. An EU Strategy for Youth – Investing and Empowering - A renewed open method of coordination to address youth challenges and opportunities - <https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-2444/Investing%20and%20Empowering.pdf>
8. Competence Model for trainers in the youth field to work at international level - <https://www.salto-youth.net/rc/training-and-cooperation/europeantotstrategy/trainercompetences/>
9. Policy Paper on NonFormal Education: A framework for indicating and assuring quality - https://www.jugendpolitikeneuropa.de/downloads/4-20-2490/0009-08_NFE_FINAL.pdf
10. The eight key competencies for lifelong learning: An appropriate framework within which to develop the competence of trainers on the field of European youth work or just plain politics?, Hendrik Otten and Yael Ohana (2009) - https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-1881/Trainer_%20Competence_study_final.pdf
11. Quality Youth Work - A common framework for the further development of youth work. Report from the Expert Group on Youth Work Quality Systems in the EU Member States - http://ec.europa.eu/youth/library/reports/quality-youth-work_en.pdf

Suggested reading

1. The Element – Ken Robinson - <http://www.amazon.com/The-Element-Finding-Passion-Everything/dp/0143116738>
2. Lateral Thinking: Creativity Step by Step - Edward de Bono - <http://www.amazon.com/Lateral-Thinking-Creativity-Perennial-Library/dp/0060903252>
3. The 7 habits of highly effective people - Stephen R. Covey - <https://www.stephencovey.com/7habits/7habits.php>
4. Gamestorming: A Playbook for Innovators, Rulebreakers, and Changemakers - Dave Gray - <http://www.amazon.com/Gamestorming-Playbook-Innovators-Rulebreakers-Changemakers/dp/0596804172>
5. Man's Search for Meaning - Viktor Frankl - <http://www.amazon.com/Mans-Search-Meaning-Viktor-Frankl/dp/080701429X>
6. Nonviolent Communication: A Language of Life - Marshall B Rosenberg - <http://www.amazon.com/Nonviolent-Communication-A-Language-Life/dp/1892005034>
7. Change Your Thinking, Change Your Life: How to Unlock Your Full Potential for Success and Achievement - Brian Tracy - <http://www.amazon.com/Change-Your-Thinking-Life-Achievement/dp/0471735388>
8. The Way of Council - Jack Zimmerman - <http://www.amazon.com/The-Way-Council-Jack-Zimmerman/dp/1883647053>
9. Emotional Intelligence - Daniel Goleman - <http://www.amazon.co.uk/Emotional-Intelligence-Matter-More-Than/dp/0747528306>
10. Start with why - Simon Sinek - <http://www.amazon.com/Start-Why-Leaders-Inspire-Everyone/dp/1591846447>
11. Experience and education - John Dewey - <http://www.amazon.com/Experience-And-Education-John-Dewey/dp/0684838281>
12. Multiple Intelligences: New Horizons in Theory and Practice - http://www.amazon.com/Multiple-Intelligences-Horizons-Theory-Practice/dp/0465047688/ref=asap_bc?ie=UTF8

Suggested video

1. Top documentaries - <http://topdocumentaryfilms.com/>
2. The school of life – Youtube channel - <https://www.youtube.com/user/schooloflifechannel>
3. Ultimate camp resource – Youtube channel with lots of videos - <https://www.youtube.com/user/ultimatecampresource>
4. How We Learn - Synapses and Neural Pathways - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BEwg8TeipfQ>
5. Character Education with Outward Bound (Outdoor education) - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FFoW-rbXegU>
6. Democratic schools: Imagine a School...Summerhill - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZE2oyIESsY4>
7. The Forbidden Education – documentary - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1RBBVL1Saho>
8. Billions in Change Official Film - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YY7f1tgy9ao>
9. Ken Robinson on Passion - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-M8Hl5MUr8w>
10. TED-ED – Lessons worth sharing - <http://ed.ted.com/>

Suggested web pages

1. Take free online classes from 120+ top universities and educational organizations - <https://www.coursera.org/>
2. Resources, tools, and solutions for teachers, administrators, and parents. - <http://www.edutopia.org/>
3. The Heroic Imagination Project (HIP) is a nonprofit organization that teaches people how to take effective action in challenging situations. - <http://heroicimagination.org/>
4. Ultimate camp resource (collection of games and outdoor activities) - <http://www.ultimatecampresource.com/>
5. Salto Tool Box Hundreds of useful tools for learning - for youth work and training activities - <https://www.salto-youth.net/tools/toolbox/>
6. Solution Focused Therapy - http://www.sfbta.org/about_sfbt.html
7. SALTO Educational Tools Portal - <http://educationaltoolsportal.eu/platform/>

Suggested TED talks

1. Sugata Mitra: Kids can teach themselves – 2007 - http://www.ted.com/talks/sugata_mitra_shows_how_kids_teach_themselves
2. Sugata Mitra: The child-driven education – 2010 - http://www.ted.com/talks/sugata_mitra_the_child_driven_education
3. Sugata Mitra - Build a School in the Cloud – 2013 - http://www.ted.com/talks/sugata_mitra_build_a_school_in_the_cloud
4. Ken Robinson - Do schools kill creativity? – 2006 - http://www.ted.com/talks/ken_robinson_says_schools_kill_creativity
5. Ken Robinson - Bring on the learning revolution! – 2010 - http://www.ted.com/talks/sir_ken_robinson_bring_on_the_revolution
6. Ken Robinson - How to escape education's Death Valley – 2013 - http://www.ted.com/talks/ken_robinson_how_to_escape_education_s_death_valley
7. Kiran Sethi - Kids, take charge – 2009 - http://www.ted.com/talks/kiran_bir_sethi_teaches_kids_to_take_charge
8. Annie Murphy Paul - What we learn before we're born – 2011 - http://www.ted.com/talks/annie_murphy_paul_what_we_learn_before_we_re_born
9. Logan LaPlante: Hackschooling makes me happy - <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h11u3vtcpaY>
10. Jullien Gordon: How to graduate college with a job you love & less debt - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=29tJAgc54RA>

Tips & Tricks



You must unlearn what you have learned!

This time reference is to a great teacher - Master Yoda. According him to become a great Jedi must first ... „You must unlearn what you have learned!“

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BO4yd2W5oNo>



Proof of absurd thesis

In small groups participants prepare an argumentation and try to prove a claim:

- ☉ *Eating bananas leads to good relations.*
- ☉ *Regularly speaking to a cactus raises love for chess.*
- ☉ *When a dog pees on you it brings good luck.*
- ☉ *Regular rubbing of the nose with potato peelings leads to better self-esteem.*
- ☉ *Cuckoo three times a day leads to better sex.*

The publication is **NOT FOR COMMERCIAL USE**

Use it

FOR FREE

Distribute it

FOR FREE

Promote it

FOR FREE

Make the world better

FOR FREE

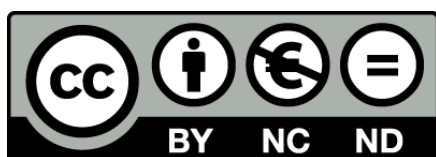
Contacts

Ognian Gadoularov, training expert, Bulgaria – ogi@gudevicalearning.net

Bogdan Romanica, training expert, Romania - romanica.bogdan@gmail.com

This project has been funded with support from the European Commission.

This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.



This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. To view a copy of this license, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/> or send a letter to Creative Commons, PO Box 1866, Mountain View, CA 94042, USA.