



Erasmus+



HUMAN
RESOURCE
DEVELOPMENT
CENTRE

Manual

Training of trainers

Using non-formal learning and interactive methods in
Youth work

Non-formal learning for employability

Project: 2014-1-BG01-KA205-001743



DreamsforLife



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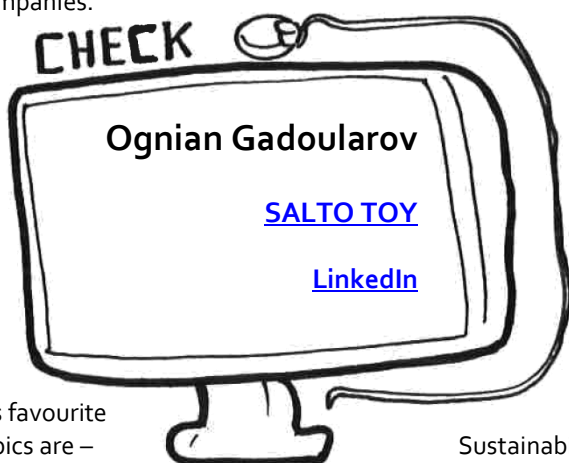
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This manual contains a large amount of information based on the long-term experience of the authors in the field of non-formal learning (NFL) and the interactive teaching of children, youth and adults. During its composition a lot of information related 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

The choice of the topics in the present Manual results from the long-term work of experts from Bulgaria and Romania in the field of non-formal education. In both countries there are no reliable publications on the topic of non-formal education neither on the topic of training of trainers. At European level the training materials and publications are few and quite cursory in relation to pedagogical approaches included in them.

With this document the team of experts offers to the readers a profound selection of topics and approaches reflecting the needs of the future trainers on the field of NFL and Youth work based on their practice in formal and non-formal education and the many researches and expert opinions on the topic.

One of the main goals of this Manual is to enrich the non-formal learning and the understanding of trainers about the application of modern training approaches for improving the learning outcomes. With this Manual we try to take the knowledge about the learning process beyond the simple classification of training instruments (or games) and to 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 specificity and learning needs. We also want to emphasize the importance of the group processes, the 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 abovementioned goals. We have included concepts that are not widely known in the field of youth work (and neither 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 such 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 in 3 sections:

Part 1 – Basic Concepts – where we cover the general principles related to youth work, NFL and the ethics of the trainer. Here we share our experience and understanding about the processes related to NFL, the working principles and the skills of the trainers. We also refer to relevant foundation EU documents.

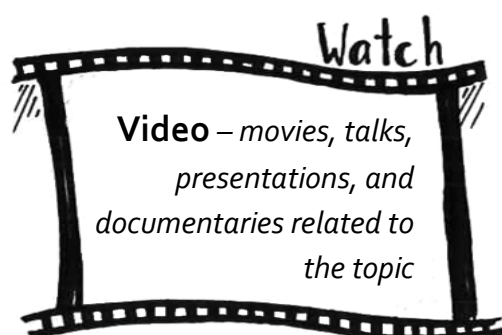
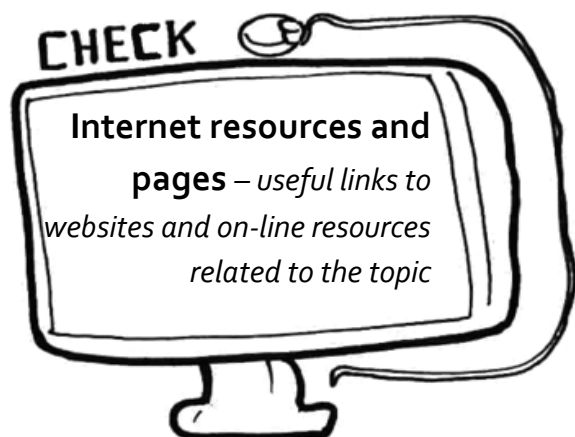
Part 2 – Theoretical Framework – where we outline the main theoretical concepts related to the learning process, the interactive methods and the competences development. The topics begin with the most basic knowledge of the learning processes and the physiology. They are followed by several theoretical models which require attention in relation to the process of NFL:

- *Learning theories, Pyramid of Edgar Dale, Teaching Types and Holistic Approach* – foundation topics about how the learning process happens in general and which are the important modern learning tendencies
- *Self-directed learning* – related to the key competences of the life-long learning;
- *Multiple intelligences* – related to the way of acceptance and expression and also to the learning skills
- *Socio-Cognitive Theory and Self-efficacy* – which clarify the factors influencing the personal development in social environment, the group learning and the methods of motivation and increase of self-efficacy
- *Experiential Learning and Learning Styles* – founding principles in the process of NFL
- *Flow and Motivation* – the ability to discover areas in which the full potential of the learners and the individual's personality is revealed
- *Life-Long Learning Competences* – elements of the competency, how they are developed, stages of the learning process
- *Facilitation, Coaching, Mentoring, and Training* – distinction of the different training methods and guidelines for their effective use
- *Stages of Development of Young People and Characteristics of Adult Learners* – the age periods' specifics and how they relate to the learning process, to the perception and to the behavior in training.

Part 3 – Practical skills – where we have selected specific instruments and methods for application of the theories and the concepts for designing and implementing training programs:

- *Learning goals and taxonomies* – how to effectively set goals of the training process, to distinguish them and to measure the results at the end
- *Group dynamics and Working with groups* – skills for identifying the stages of group development, management of the processes and support of learning in social environment
- *Assignment of activities and Communication* – basic rules on how to give instructions and to communicate effectively with the learners and our colleagues
- *Work in a team of trainers* – guidelines of how to work in a team of trainers, advantages and disadvantages of the team work, types of team interaction in the learning process
- *Debriefing and Active reviewing* – methods to support, guide and deepen the process of learning, awareness and self-observation while using the experiential learning
- *Learning methods* – description and analysis of the most popular learning methods
- *Design of training programs* – the sequence of preparation of programs, elements of the training process, logical connection and process activities – how to integrate the elements of the learning goals, the needs of the learners and the group dynamics in a homogenous and harmonic process
- *Evaluation methods* – how to measure a result from the trainings in the field of NFL
- *Additional training tools* – how to use tools such as photos, stories, analogies, comics and video to support the training process

When preparing the Manual we tried to make it as suitable as possible for people with different levels of experience in the field of NFL and to adapt it for people with different learning and cognitive styles. For this purpose, we have included many links to additional online-based materials, resources and videos. We have selected suitable quotes for inspiration and reflective questions for self-evaluation. In various places across the Manual, the reader will find call-outs 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

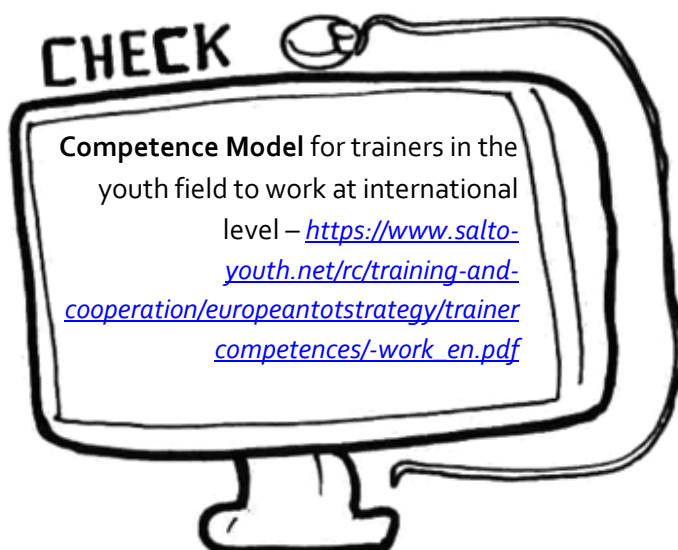
School has a curriculum, life not.

Training - bringing to desired standard of performance or behaviour by instruction and practice.

The Oxford Dictionary

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 organised in different ways (by youth led organisations, organisations 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



Non-formal learning, Youth work and competencies

(Ognian Gadoularov)

At present the gap between the qualification acquired by the young people within the formal education system and their worldly, social and professional realization is becoming more and more obvious. More and more programs, strategies and measures are created aiming to reform education so that it may become more suitable for modern children and young people (as well as for the needs of modern society). Most of these measures are not directed to the fundamental knowledge taught in school, but to the practical, soft and social skills which are not taught there. Many recent studies show that the young people graduating school and university lack such practical skills. They also show their



importance for the

professional and social realization. When investing in trainings for their employees, employers increasingly seek not those targeted at acquiring specific work expertise but trainings for the development of soft skills (communication, presentation skills, time management etc.).



At the same time the Informal learning with its practical focus, its connection to the real world and its attractiveness for the young people is still underestimated as a tool for addressing the above challenges. NFL is an essential tool in youth work, supporting young people in revealing their potential, life and social role. By following the basic principles of NFL we can address many needs of young people:

- development of practical skills based on the needs of the learner;
- direct connection with the practical application of the knowledge;
- flexibility and adaptability of the learning process;
- full involvement of the learners;
- learning in social environment and development of social skills;
- holistic approach;
- stimulation of individual initiative;
- self-fulfillment and the authenticity of each participant, etc.

This is the reason why a process aiming to increase the visibility of the competences acquired within the NFL is underway at European level for several years. More and more employers recognize the competences acquired outside of the education system – project participation, volunteering, event organizing, etc. The promotion of the Youthpass certificate also proves the importance of the practical skills for the realization of young people.



Quality in non-formal education and training in the field of European youth work

(Helmut Fennes and Hendrik Otten)

The learning continuum:

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 that is not provided by an education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification. It is, however, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support).

Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner's perspective.

Informal learning

Learning resulting from daily life activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and typically does not lead to certification.

Informal learning may be intentional but in most cases it is non-intentional (or 'incidental'/random).

Source: Glossary, Lifelong Learning Communication (European Commission: 2001), drawing on the Lifelong Learning Memorandum (European Commission: 2000)

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 organisation 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-centred;
- 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-focussed methods: partnership, teamwork, networking;
- self-directed methods: creativity, discovery, responsibility;

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

Principles for training in the youth field

- Learner-centeredness
- Transparency
- Agreement between trainers and learners on learning objectives, content and methodology
- Confidentiality
- Voluntarism of learners
- Participation of learners
- Ownership of the learning is with the learners
- Democratic values and practices

Principles for training in the youth field

Learner-orientation and learner-/person-centeredness are primary principles of training in the youth field. This principle is closely linked to the feature mentioned above that non-formal learning should be close to real life concerns: Themes, contents and learning objectives need to be based on what the learners need and are interested in. Methodologies, methods and learning sites need to be adequate for the learners and locations as well timeframes need to be organised in order to allow maximum accessibility for and participation of the target groups. All in all: people only learn what they want to learn - and the better if it is adequate to their dispositions, capacities and possibilities.

Learner-centeredness also implies that the learners/trainees are the primary clients of the trainers. This principle can be difficult to comply with: Trainers can be confronted with a discrepancy between the interests of their institutional clients (contractors/sponsors) and the interests of the trainees. E.g., the institutional client might be interested in large numbers of participants and a quick achievement of objectives set by the Institutional client (which reflects a "top-down-approach"), while the trainee clients might have different objectives and mostly be interested in personal and competence development as well as in a change of structures, systems, power-relations etc. (which reflects a "bottom-up-approach"). Subsequently, the different interests in this "training triangle" need to be negotiated.

This requires a special competence of the trainers. In case the interests of the institutional client and the trainees are conflicting and no agreement can be negotiated this could result in a "mission impossible". Subsequently, a trainer would have to consider not accepting a respective training contract for such a setting.

Linked to learner-centeredness are **transparency** and **confidentiality**: transparency implies primarily that the objectives of a training/learning activity, the planned methodology, the anticipated learning process as well as eventual assessment and evaluation procedures are explicit as well as known and agreed by the learners from the beginning as it is the case for many simulations which build on the dimensions of the unknown or unexpected: it just needs to be made explicit that this is the case and that learners can opt for not participating in this unit (see voluntarism below).

Confidentiality implies that whatever happens in a training/learning activity (including the evaluation) is confidential and is not communicated to anyone who is not directly part of the respective process. In particular, it implies that institutional clients (e.g. employers of



trainees) are not informed about what trainees have said or done in a learning activity without the consent of those concerned or except this has been agreed on beforehand (see transparency). The latter could also be the case for a written assessment or for practice and other training elements which are accessible to a larger public than the group of trainees.

Voluntary participation applies for all types of non-formal education and learning, therefore also for non-formal training activities. Nevertheless, training providers and trainers obviously can set conditions for a given training activity, e.g. that full participation in a specific unit is a condition to take part in another unit. Of course, in view of the principle of transparency this needs to be explicit from the beginning and also the consequences if this condition is not met.

Participation of the learners has two sides to it: on one hand it implies an obligation of the learners to actively participate and engage themselves in the learning activities and processes initiated and facilitated by the trainers. On the other hand it implies that the learners can participate in shaping a training/learning activity during the process, including changes in objectives, contents and methodologies. This can, of course, create delicate situations if it leads to conflicts with the interests and commitments of trainers or institutional clients and stakeholders (such as sponsors).

If no agreement can be negotiated it can result in the termination of a training activity. Nevertheless, this principle contributes to placing the **ownership of the learning process and outcomes** with the learners – an essential principle ensuring the motivation of learners and the sustainability of learning outcomes.

All these principles are linked to **democratic values and practices** which are at the same time a core content of youth work and training in a European context: obviously, democracy can only be conveyed and learned in a democratic way – the pedagogic approach and process needs to be compatible and coherent with the content. This is one of the major challenges in training and teaching in general – and this also applies to non-formal education and training in the youth field.

Relationship between trainers and learners

- Equity and parity – partners with different roles, responsibilities and competences
- Respectful, appreciative, valuing
- Trustful
- Co-operative
- Reciprocity – trainers are also learners; trainees are also experts in their fields

Relationship between trainers and learners

Trainers and learners are **partners in a learning process** in which they take different roles and responsibilities. Together they identify learning needs and objectives, they agree on a pedagogic approach and methodology which normally is proposed by the trainers, they are responsible for creating an adequate framework and conditions for productive learning processes, and the learners are responsible for making best use of them and for investing their full learning potential. This implies **symmetrical training/learning relations** characterised by **cooperation, respect, trust, appreciation, equity and parity** between trainers and learners. Trainers and learners recognise, respect and appreciate each others' qualities, expertise and competences in the respective fields – the trainers' pedagogic and educational competences, the learners' competences in their respective working field and context. There is also a dimension of **reciprocity** where trainers are also learners, on one hand from the respective expertise and competences of the learners, on the other hand as learners in the experiential learning process of the training activity itself. The latter implies the reflection, evaluation and analysis of training activities and processes including feedback from the learners and peers.

Pedagogic approach and methodology

- oriented towards competence development
- diversity of methods combining cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning

- holistic and process-oriented
- linking individual learning and learning in groups
- experiential learning
- regarding ambiguity or crisis as a learning opportunity
- using intercultural encounters as learning devices
- self-directed, socially-focussed, interactive and activity-based methods

Pedagogic approach and methodology

Since a major objective of training in the youth field is the **development of competences** combining knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary for youth work, the pedagogic approach implies a mix of **cognitive, affective and practical dimensions of learning** resulting in a diversity of methods. Due to the multidimensional character of the necessary competences – see the respective chapters of this document – this approach is **necessarily holistic and process-oriented**.

It links **individual learning** and **self-directed learning** – which is linked to the principle of learner-centeredness and which should be supported by the development of learning competence – **with learning in groups** and with peers based on social interaction and socially-focused methods – learning from and with each other – including working and **learning in teams, partnerships and networks**. The latter equally applies for the trainers, who in European-level youth worker training normally work in teams and develop their competences in this context and through their practice.

The personal, inter-personal, social and intercultural dimension of the competences to be acquired requires an **experiential learning approach**: learning by doing, where the practical experience is reflected and analyzed, and where what has thus been learned is applied in future practice.

Experiential learning includes encountering new and unknown situations, sometimes resulting in ambiguity, tension or even crisis which at the same time can create new learning opportunities. This applies, in particular, to **intercultural encounters** which play an important role in youth work and training in a European context and frequently are used as learning devices.

This pedagogic approach results in a methodology which includes self-directed, socially-focussed, interactive and activity based methods.

Quality standards:

Quality standards for non-formal education and training

- The activity is underpinned by the core principles and practices of non-formal education.
- The activity meets identified needs in the community.
- The activity is consciously conceptualised and framed to meet identified and appropriate objectives as well as to allow for unexpected outcomes.
- The activity is well designed, planned and carried out, in both educational and organisational terms.
- The activity is adequately resourced.
- The activity demonstrably uses its resources effectively and efficiently.
- The activity is monitored and evaluated.
- The activity acknowledges and makes visible its outcomes and results.

Quality standards for European-level non-formal education and training in the youth field

- The activity integrates principles and practices of intercultural learning.
- The activity contributes to European-level policy aims and objectives in the youth field.

Adapted from - Helmut Fennes and Hendrik Otten (2008): Quality in non-formal education and training in the field of European youth work

Tips & Tricks



Basic characteristics of training designed over principles of NFL:

- ☉ *Process oriented towards developing practical competencies;*
- ☉ *Designed based on the learners' needs and concerns;*
- ☉ *Responding to learners' experience and real life situation;*
- ☉ *Using holistic approach – emotion, intellect and practice;*
- ☉ *Voluntary participation and involvement in the learning process;*
- ☉ *Contains elements of empowerment of young people's social participation;*
- ☉ *Sustainable learning based on long lasting development of awareness, attitudes and behaviour.*
- ☉ *Based on social learning (learning in a group) that results in social and personal development;*
- ☉ *Measuring learners' progress on individual level, instead of unified testing;*
- ☉ *Based on values, human rights and mutual understanding, cooperation and support.*

Watch

Rita Pierson

Every kid needs a champion

Rita Pierson, a teacher for 40 years, once heard a colleague say, "They don't pay me to like the kids." Her response: "Kids don't learn from people they don't like." A rousing call to educators to believe in their students and actually connect with them on a real, human, personal level –

http://www.ted.com/talks/rita_pierson_every_kid_needs_a_champion#t-24412

What is a trainer? Ethics, morality and responsibility

(Ognian Gadoularov)

Educating the mind without educating the heart is no education at all.

Aristotle

The role of the trainer is very responsible and challenging. Sometimes it can be difficult and exhausting. But it is always dynamic and needs constant focus and concentration.

Successful trainers know their personal qualities, strengths, weaknesses very well and responsibly. They selflessly strive to give the most of themselves in the process of personal growth of their trainees, always paying attention to their needs and condition.

Trainers are always assessed by the trainees, the community and the society, having a public role, working with people and fulfilling pedagogical/learning objectives. For this reason, the ethics, the moral and the responsibility during the performance of their duties are of a major importance for the results of their work. The most powerful tools that trainers possess in their work with others are **personal example and inspiration**, which they radiate and transfer to their trainees. By following and affirming their **values** and being **authentic** at work, trainers are capable to lead to a profound change in the attitude and the behavior of their trainees.

The methods used in NFL place a powerful tool in the hands of trainers to change people around them and society as a whole. Therefore, the responsibility for the use of this tool is very big because their behavior in any situation inside and outside the learning process can lead to significant consequences for the learners and others around them.

The main focus and guide of the trainer is to always remember the main purpose of

what he does - namely, to help the improvement of the situation of

young people by **supporting the process of their personal**

development and social advancement. The main

principle which has to dominate the work of a trainer in

the youth field is **"It's all about them!"** (the young

people). And this is the direction which is important for

trainers to follow when performing their duties and

while modeling their own process of development and

improvement. This is the direction which often leads to

extreme exhaustion, working 24 hours a day, requires full

mobilization and dedication in order to meet the needs of trainees.

The principle of **"distant proximity"** is another element of

the trainer's work being close enough to the trainees in order to

win their trust, but

without crossing the limit of a professional attitude and upbringing. Accepting people with all their peculiarities,

differences and individuality is essential for the creation of equality in the learning process. Maintaining the

relationship with the trainees regardless of their personality demonstrates the level of such acceptance.

The moderation of the group learning process, the empathy towards people, the ability to suppress conflicts and the constant dedication to the trainees and the learning process make a trainer a Real Trainer.

Tips & Tricks

Personal example and Inspiration

The strongest tools we have in our work are only two – PERSONAL EXAMPLE and INSPIRATION. Everything else can be learned or developed as knowledge and skills but what is most important for our work is the image and the example we give to the people around us. By inspiring them we give them the wings to achieve what they want. Everything begins with the attitude. Or with just one sentence "Practice what you preach"

When your values are clear to you, making decisions becomes easier.

Roy E. Disney

The ethical trainer can be characterized as a person who:

- Is a lifelong learner;
- Is committed to her own (professional) development;
- Is committed to the (professional) development of others;
- Is aware of and helps to manage the risks that training poses for learners;
- Shares knowledge and skills with others;
- Is able to keep the right balance between proximity and distance to the participants;
- Is openly self-reflective and critical;
- Markets skills and programs accurately;
- Is sensitive to the needs of learners;
- Uses content and processes congruent with available skills;
- Establishes supportive learning environments.

(Adapted from Paige 1993)

Source - T-Kit 6 - Training Essentials - Council of Europe publishing, F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex, October 2002

Key characteristics of a successful trainer:

- An ability to show approval and acceptance of trainees
- An ability to bring the group together and to control it without limiting or damaging it
- A style of teaching and communicating which generates and uses the ideas and skills of the participants
- Knowledge and experience of the subject matter
- Organising ability, so that resources are available and logistical arrangements smoothly handled
- Skill in identifying and resolving participant's problems
- Enthusiasm for the subject and capacity to put it across in an interesting and engaging way
- Flexibility in responding to participants' changing needs

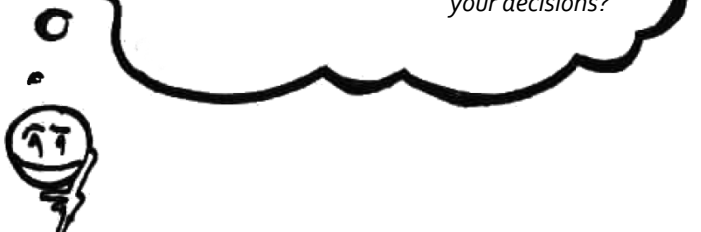
(Adapted from Pretty et al. 1995)

Source - T-Kit 6 - Training Essentials - Council of Europe publishing, F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex, October 2002

Ask yourself

Check your values:

- ☞ Which are your core **Values as a trainer**?
- ☞ Can you define yourself as a good **social model**?
- ☞ Do you follow "**Practice what you preach!**" principle?
- ☞ Are you free in your choices but **responsible** in your decisions?



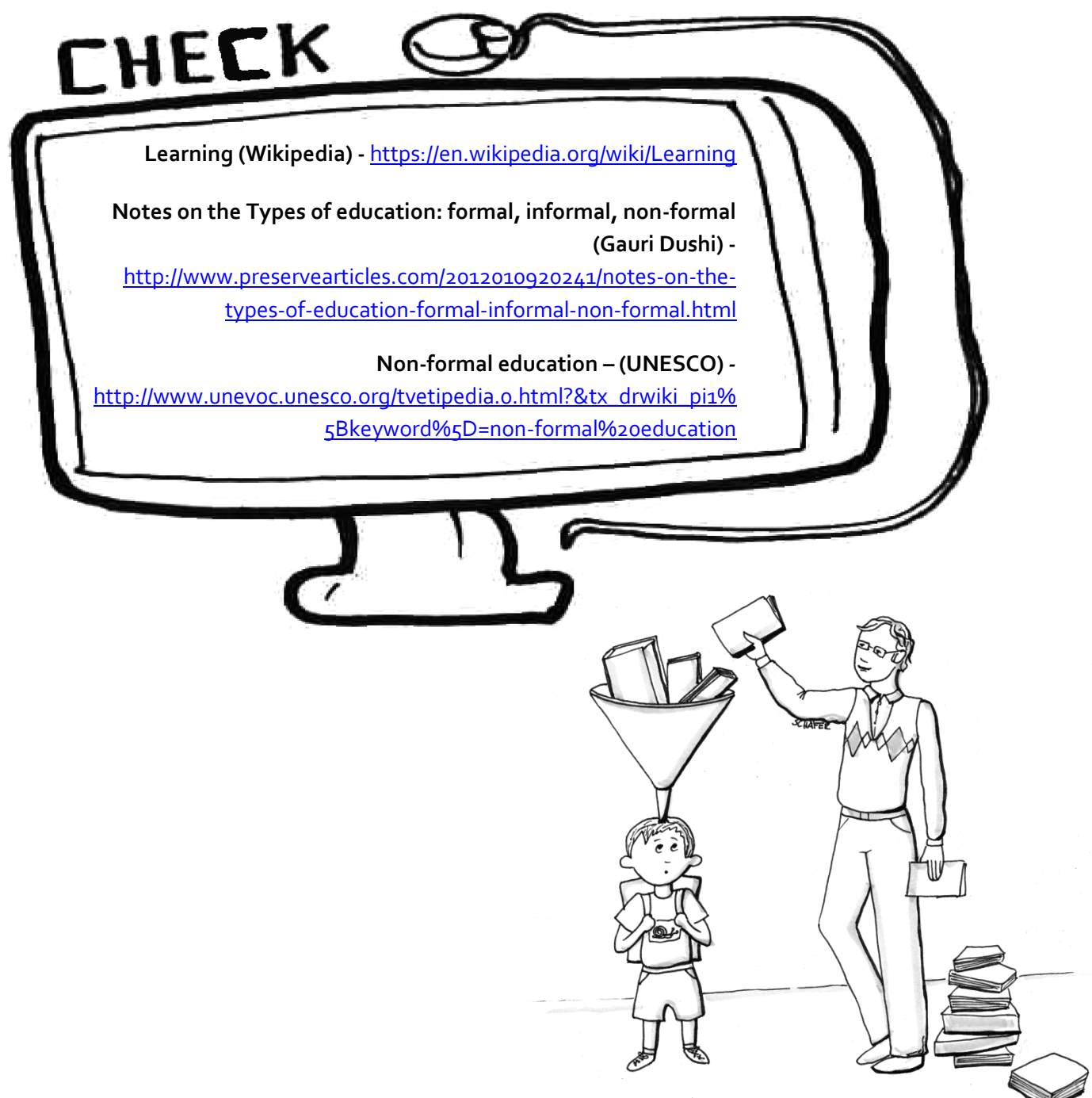


Part 2 Theoretical framework

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.

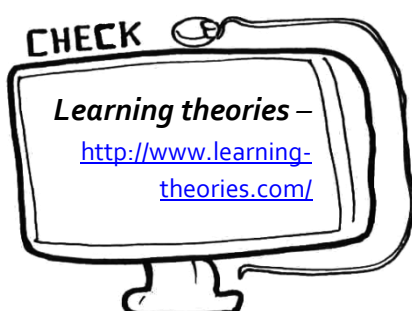
Behaviourism

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, put 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.

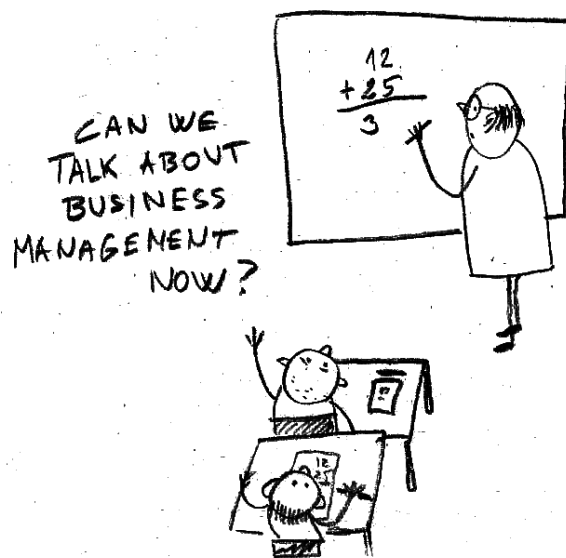


Multiple intelligences

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

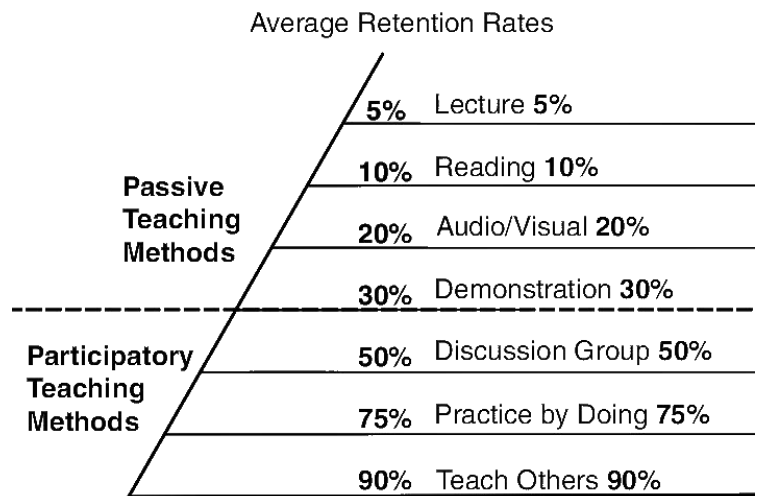
We remember 20% of what we hear and see - by listening to words and viewing images

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)

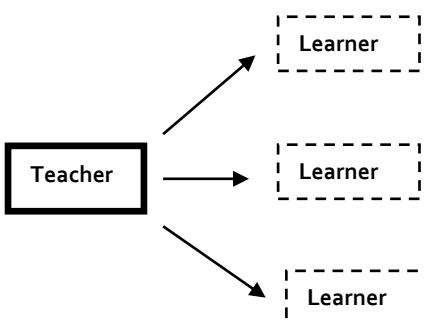
Practical application of the learning pyramid

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".

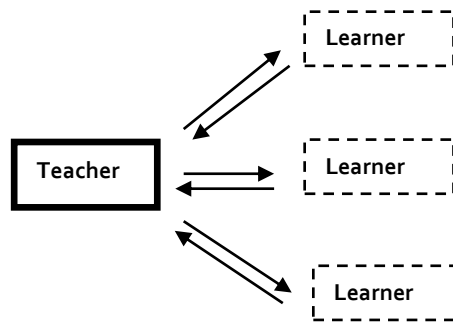
There are **various ways of learning**. Hence, there is real potential for people to learn successfully in more than one or two ways.

Types of teaching

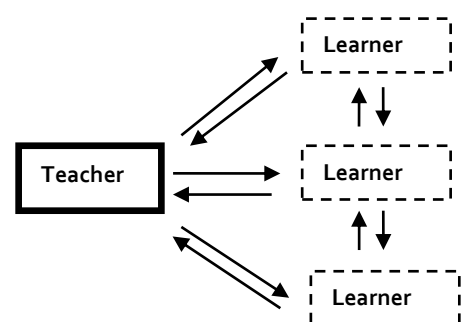
Passive



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

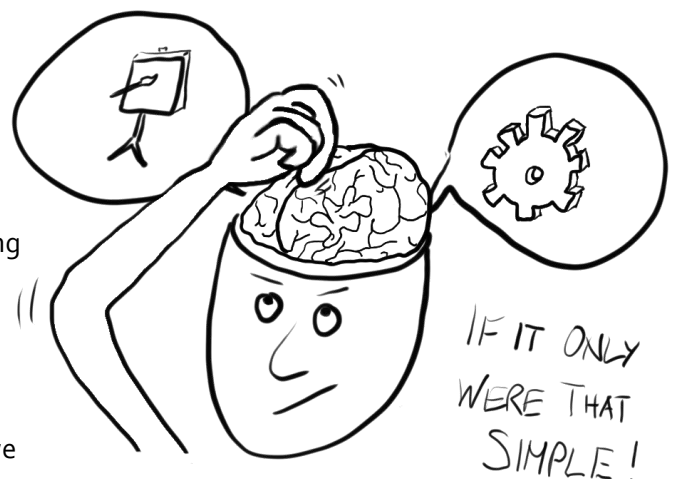
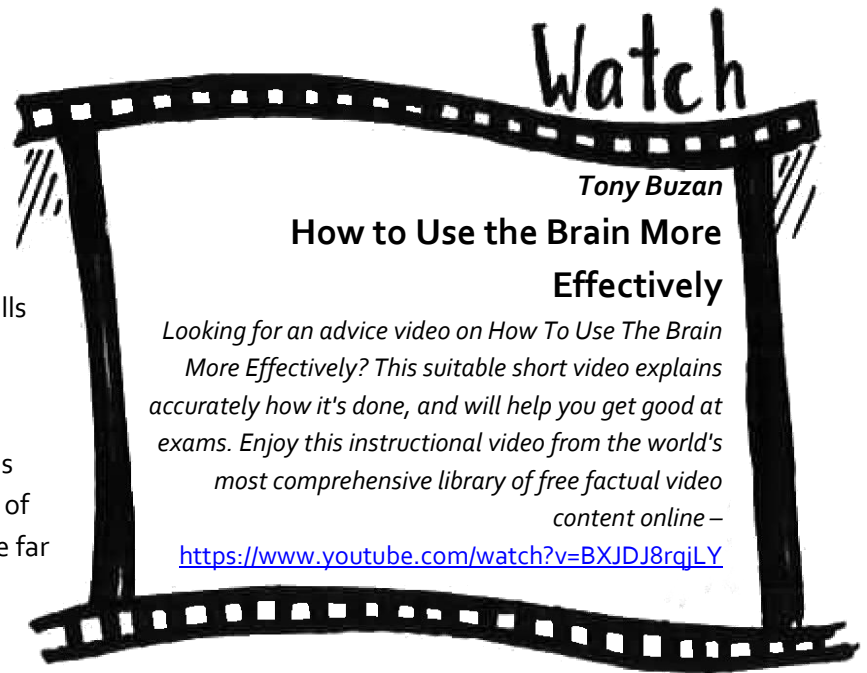
It is commonly thought that the left and right hemispheres of the brain have different functions. The left hemisphere is used for analytical operations, written and spoken language, and logical processes. The right hemisphere is involved in visualisation, synthesis, and creativity. Some people have skills 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 emphasise 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 channelled 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 organised by emotions and mind-sets;



- The brain processes parts and wholes simultaneously - the left and right hemispheres are inextricably interactive;
- Learning involves both focussed 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 organising 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.

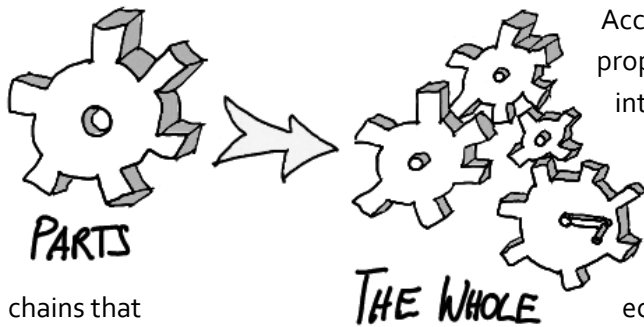
Reference - Gibbs, J. Tribes - A New Way of Learning Together. Centre Source Publications, 1994

Knowledge of whole systems

Earlier this century ecologists who focussed 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, reductionistic thinking:

Shift from the parts to the whole:



chains that

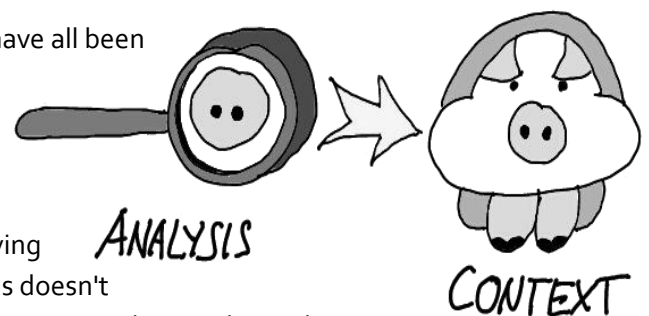
networks, and there are cycles within those networks, which are feedback loops. All these are properties that can only be understood if you observe the whole ecosystem. If you split it into a number of species and make a list of those, you will never discover that there are these cyclical patterns that 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 organisation of the whole. In order to understand something, you don't take it apart; you put it into a larger context.

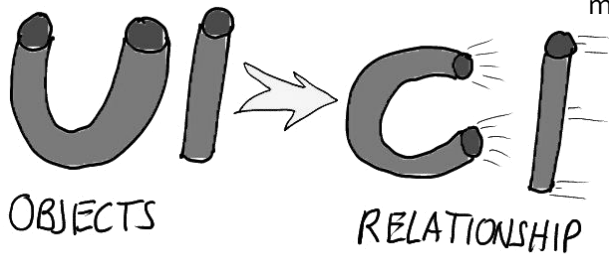
Only then will you understand, for example, why a bird has certain colours. If you know something about evolution, you will know how these colours originated and evolved. You will understand the properties within the context of the environment of this animal and within its evolutionary context.

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:

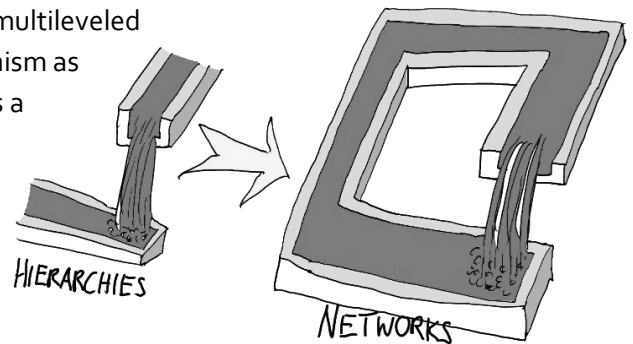
In the 1920s physicists discovered that ultimately there are no parts. What we call a 'part' is merely a pattern in an inseparable web of relationships. It is of course very useful to define parts, but this definition is often arbitrary and approximate and needs to be flexible.

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 realise 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.

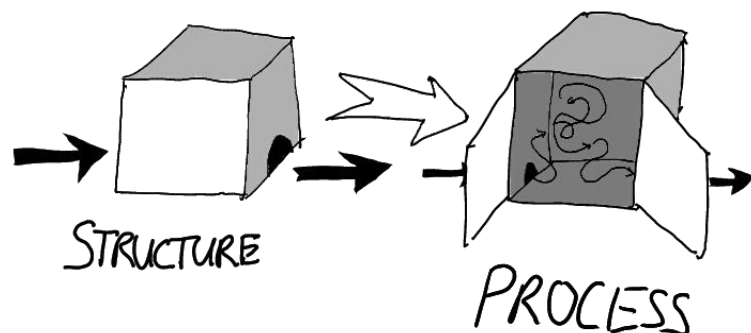


At each level, we have systems that are integrated wholes while at the same time being parts of larger wholes. Throughout the living world, we find living systems within other living systems.

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 visualise 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

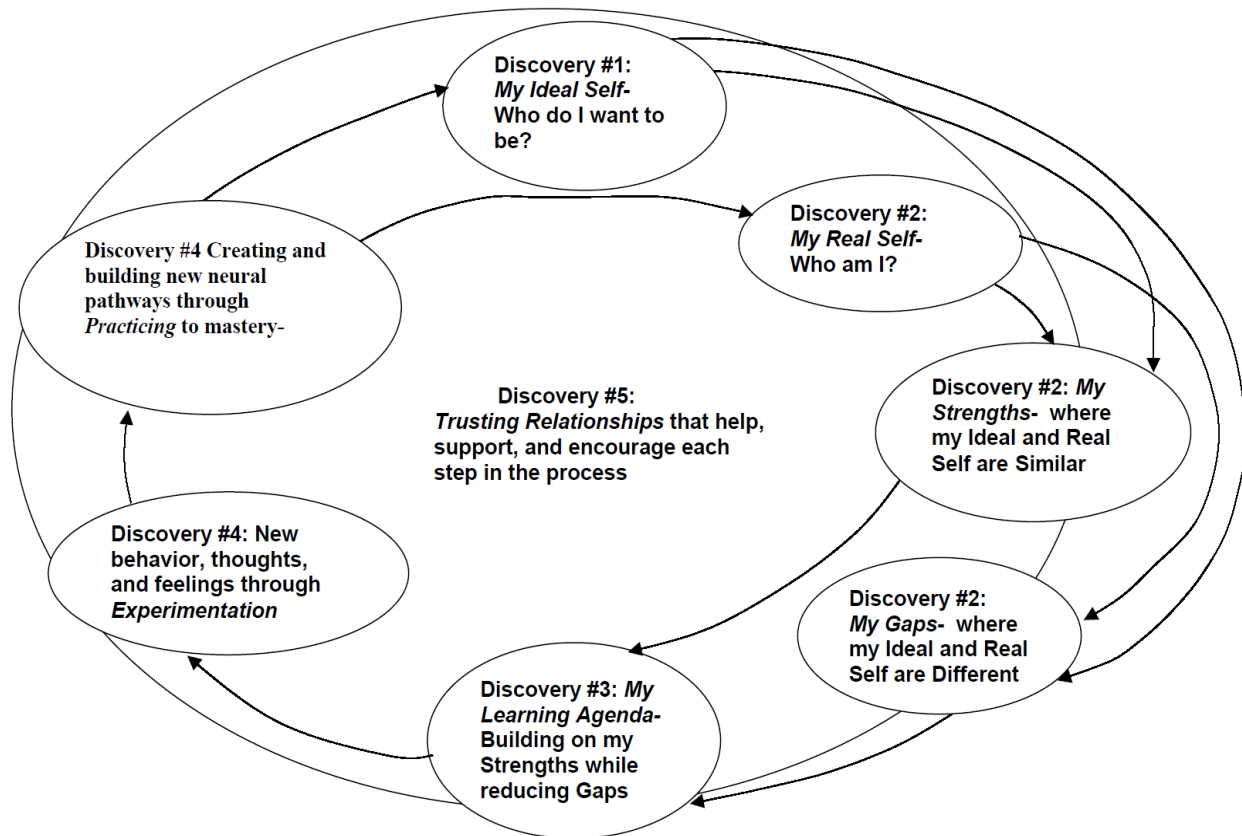
Adapted from - *Holistic Education Network of Tasmania, Australia* - <http://www.hent.org/intro3.htm>

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 Andragogy, 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."

We may be victims of the expectations of others and the seductive power of popularized images from the media,

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

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.

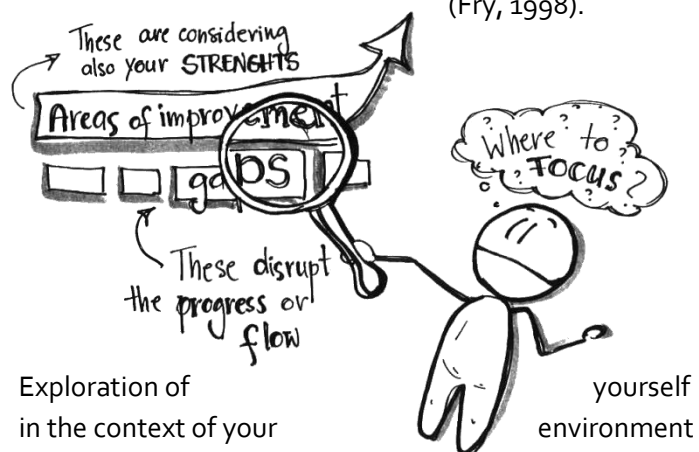
In counselling sessions with effective CEOs and Managing Directors of not-for-profits, I have often been surprised by their lack of seeing themselves as leaders. Others may see them as leaders. Sometimes humility blocks this perception. Sometimes, it is the interpersonal or cultural context. On the planet 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 in the context of your (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.

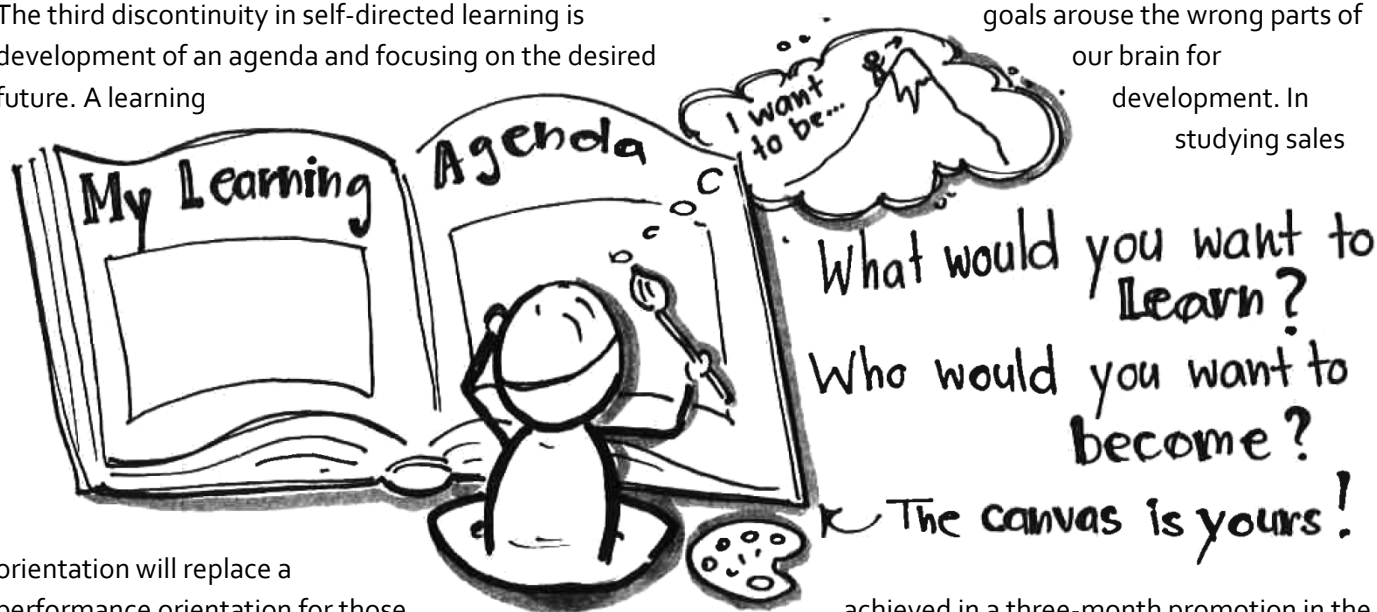
Sources for insight into your Ideal Self are more personal and more elusive than those for the Real Self. Various exercises and tests can help by making explicit various dreams or aspirations you have for the future. Talking with close friends or mentors can help. Allowing

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"

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.

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

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

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.

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

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 kept 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.

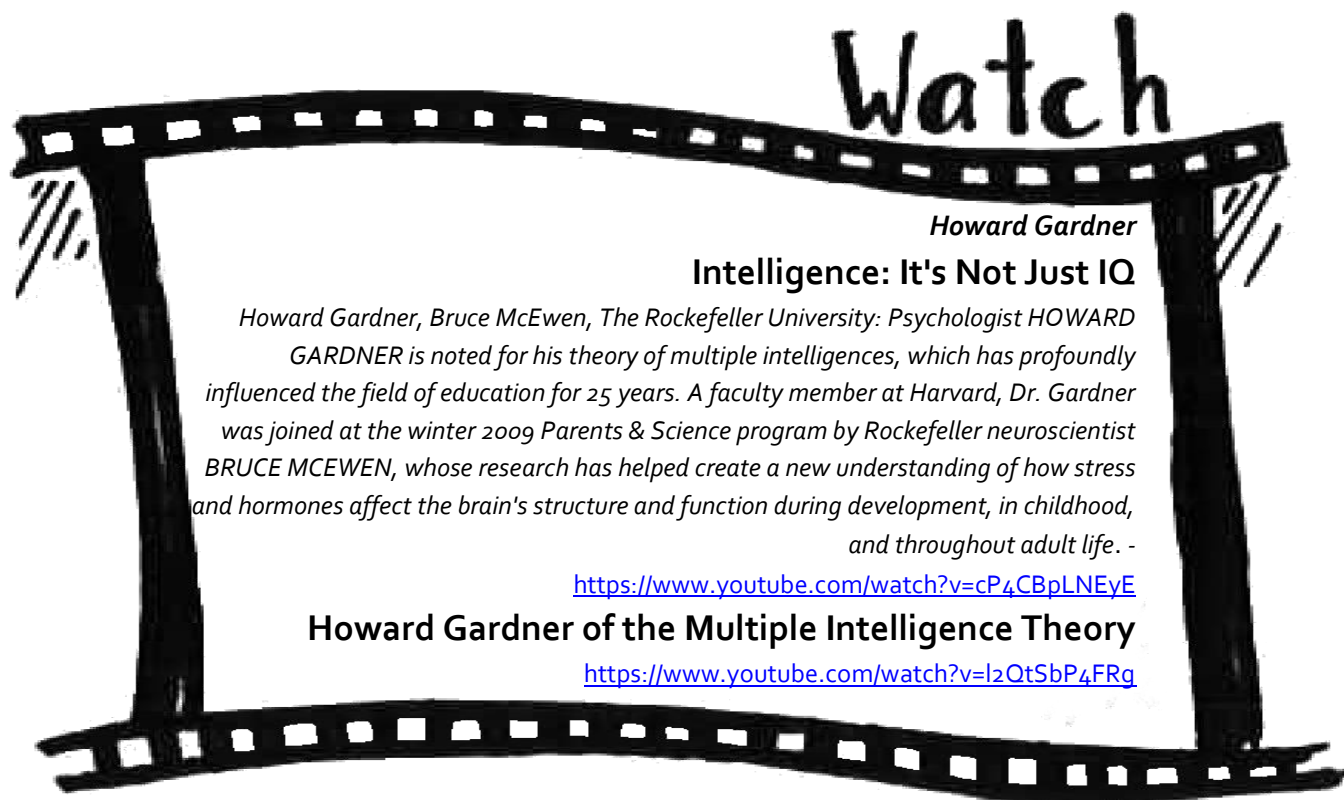
For this to happen, however, we need to teach, develop and grow our children, taking into account their individual characteristics like: temperament, interests, natural talents and not least the type of intelligence. It is necessary to observe children, to analyze the observations and to understand what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

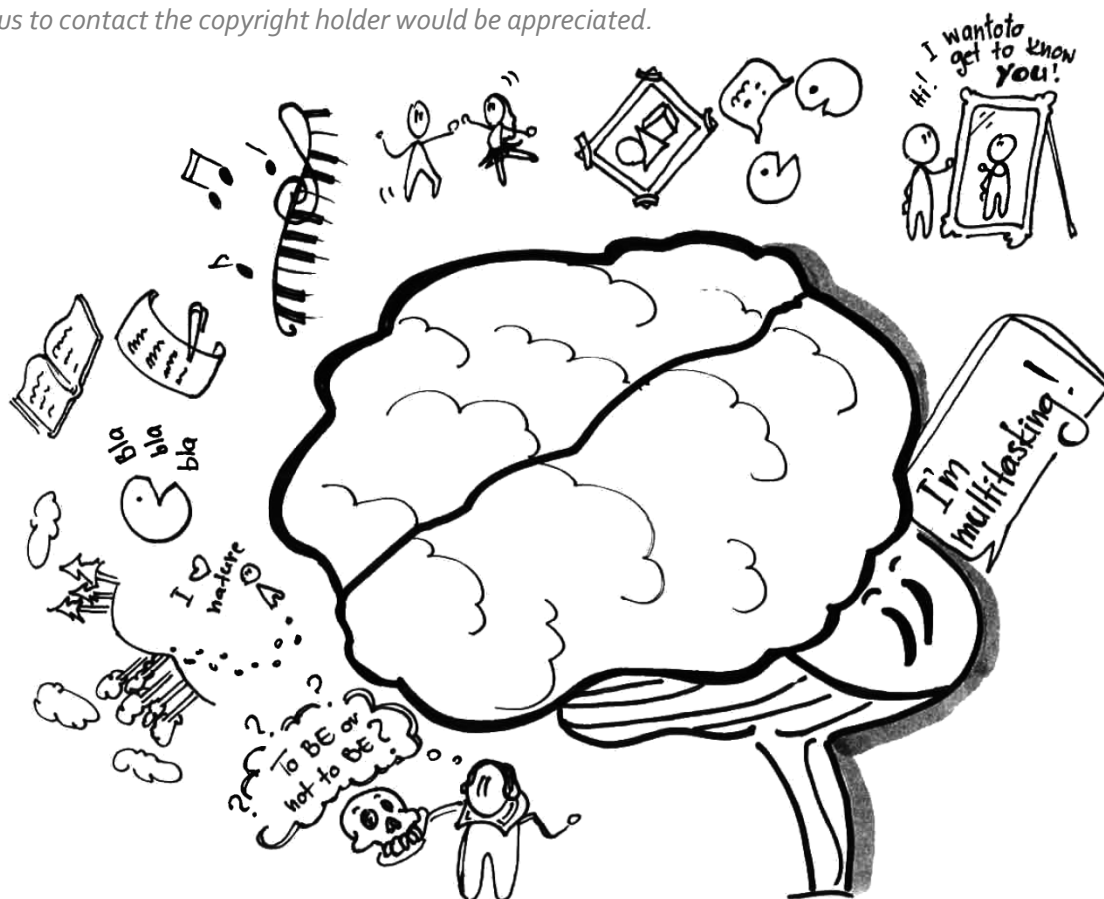
Children with this kind of intuitive intelligence are inclined to self-knowledge, even self-examination. These introverted by nature children deeply feel their strengths and weaknesses, better understand their own mental turmoil. From an early age they have their own values and purpose in life. Their 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.

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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.

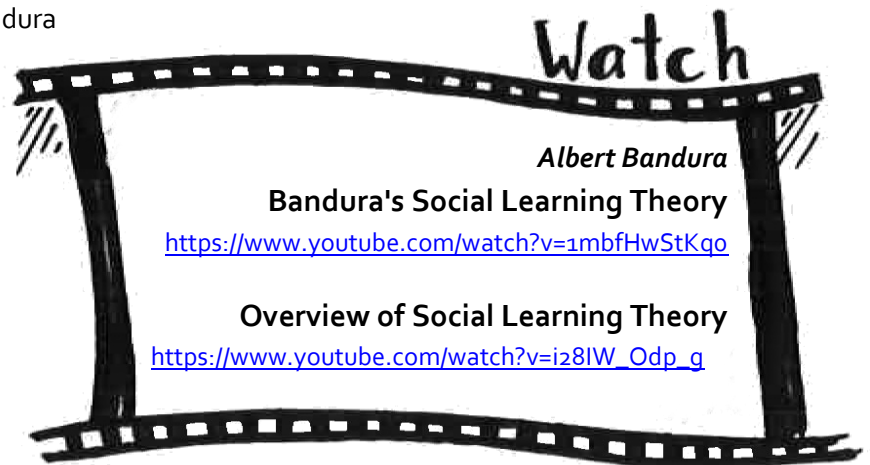
Cognitive focus

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

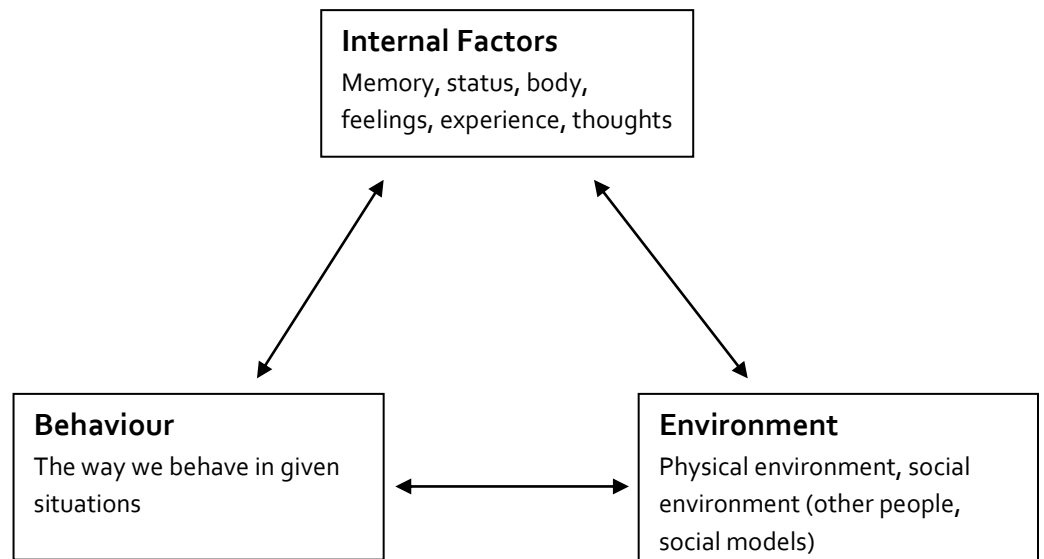
Behaviorism focuses primarily on experimental methods and on the variables that we can observe, measure and change. It avoids all that is subjective, internal, not subject to measurement – i.e. mental or spiritual. By the experimental method, the standard procedure is to amend a variable and then to 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!

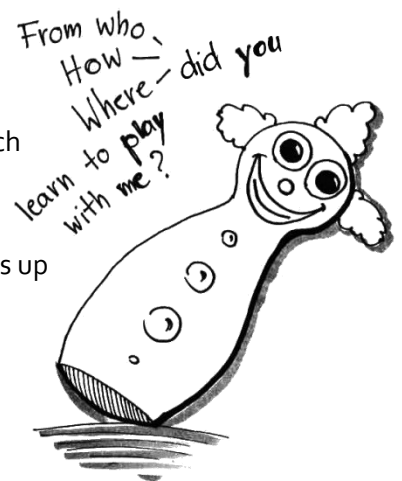
Adding images and language to the established essence, allows him to theorize much more efficiently than someone like, say, Skinner, on two things, considered by many to be the "strong hand" of the human species: learning by observation (modelling) and self-control.



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.



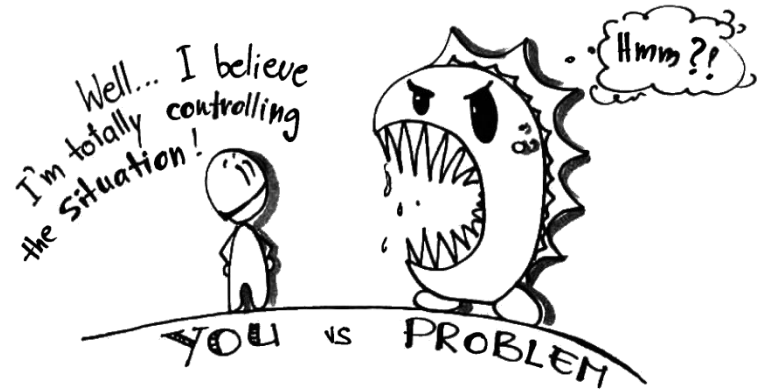
You can guess what the observers have recorded: many small children outrageously beating up the Bobo doll. They hit and kicked it, screamed at it, sat on it and imposed it with their little hammers, etc. In other words, they imitated the actions of the young lady from the movie pretty good.

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 "modelling" 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 modelling 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 paid 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 ourselves, 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;

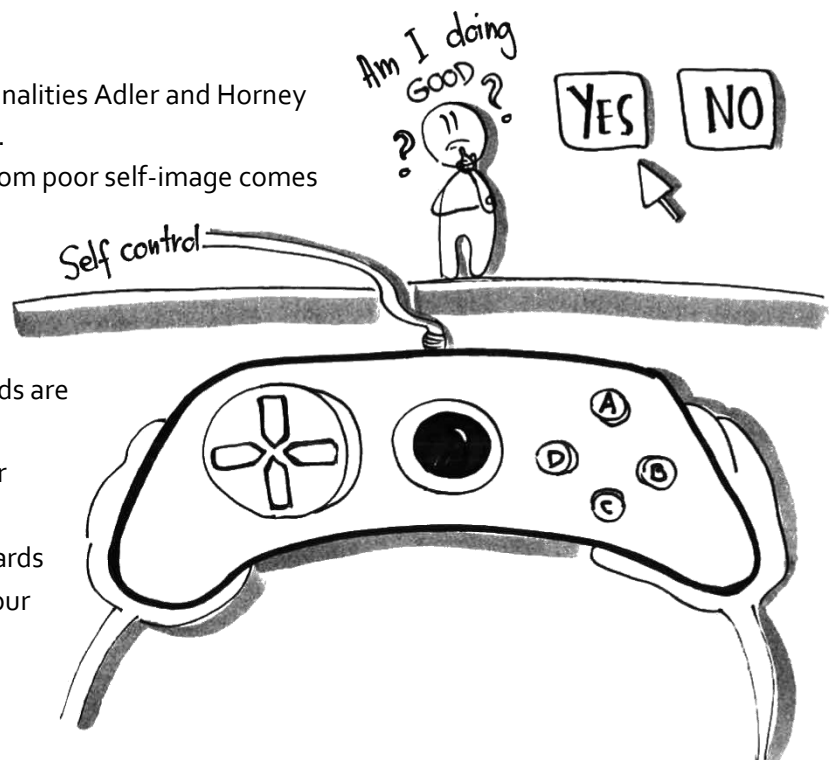
Related to the response to yourself - use rewards rather than punishments for yourself. Celebrate your victories, don't live with failures.

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.



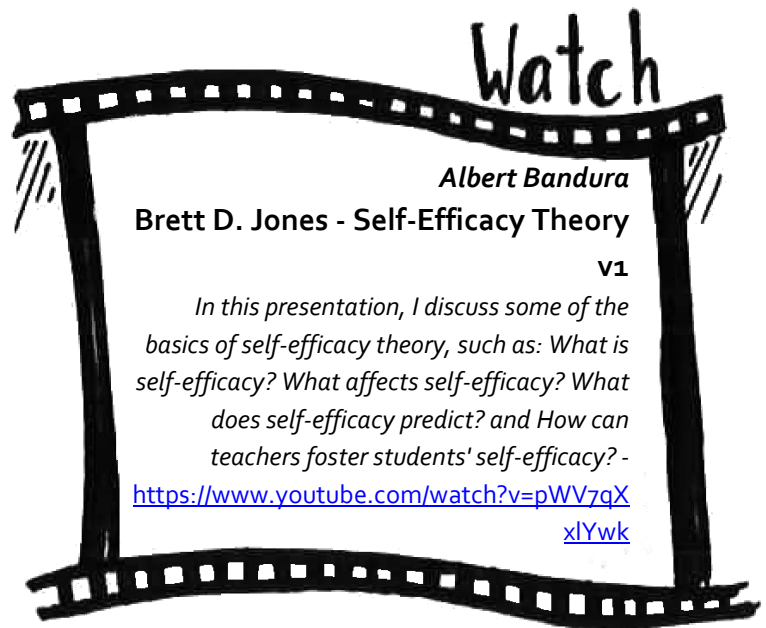
Self-efficacy

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.

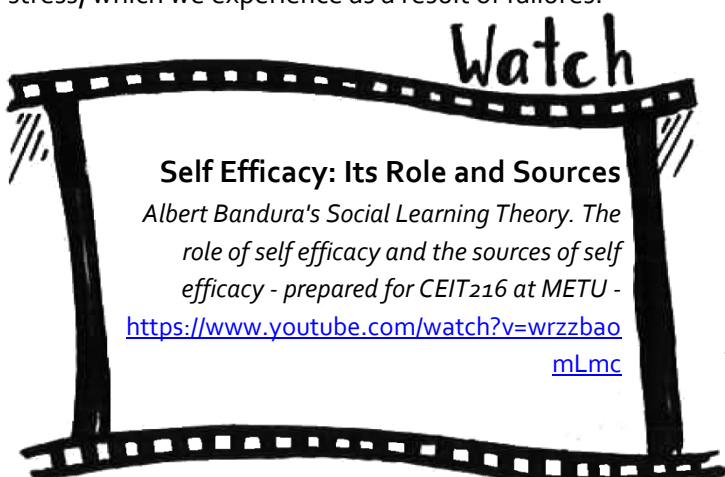
Self-efficacy affects human development and adaptation. It affects the level of human aspirations, strong commitment to achieving the objectives, the quality of analytical thinking, motivation and perseverance in overcoming difficulties and defeats, the processes of causal attribution in success or failure, 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 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

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.



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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.

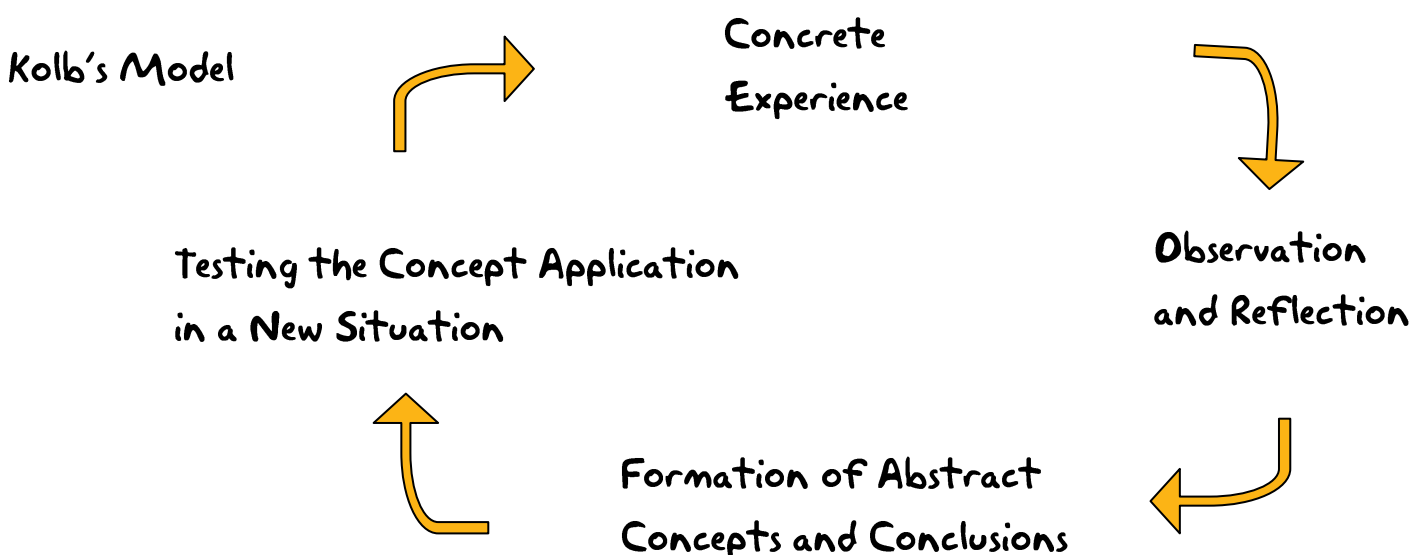
Kolb sets the learning cycle as a main principle in his TEL. The cycle consists of 4 stages:

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!

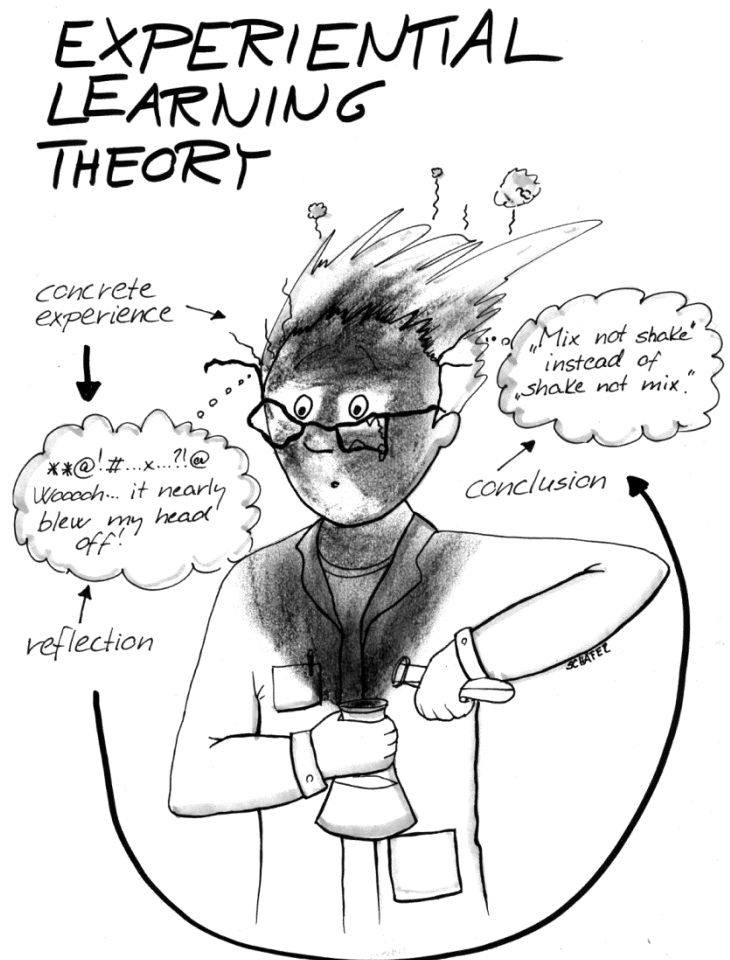
- The facilitator has to be careful not to generate an excessive amount of information or an environment which will impede the discussion of the results.
- If the process stops after this stage that means that the training is left at fortuity and the facilitator is not capable of achieving the learning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

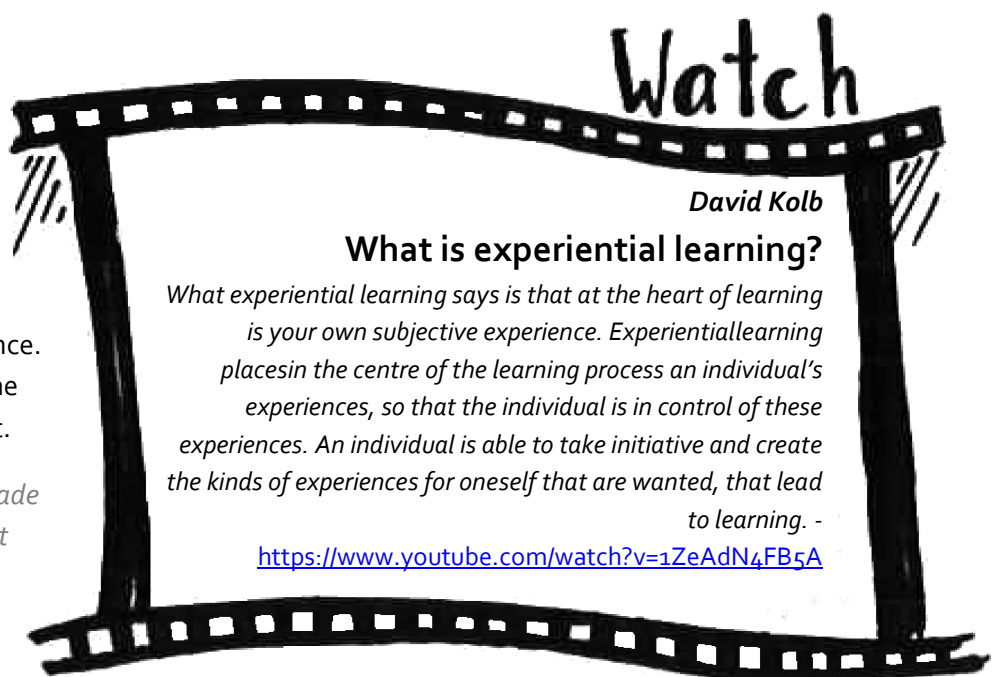
The experience from applying the model shows several problematic situations:

- 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.

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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.

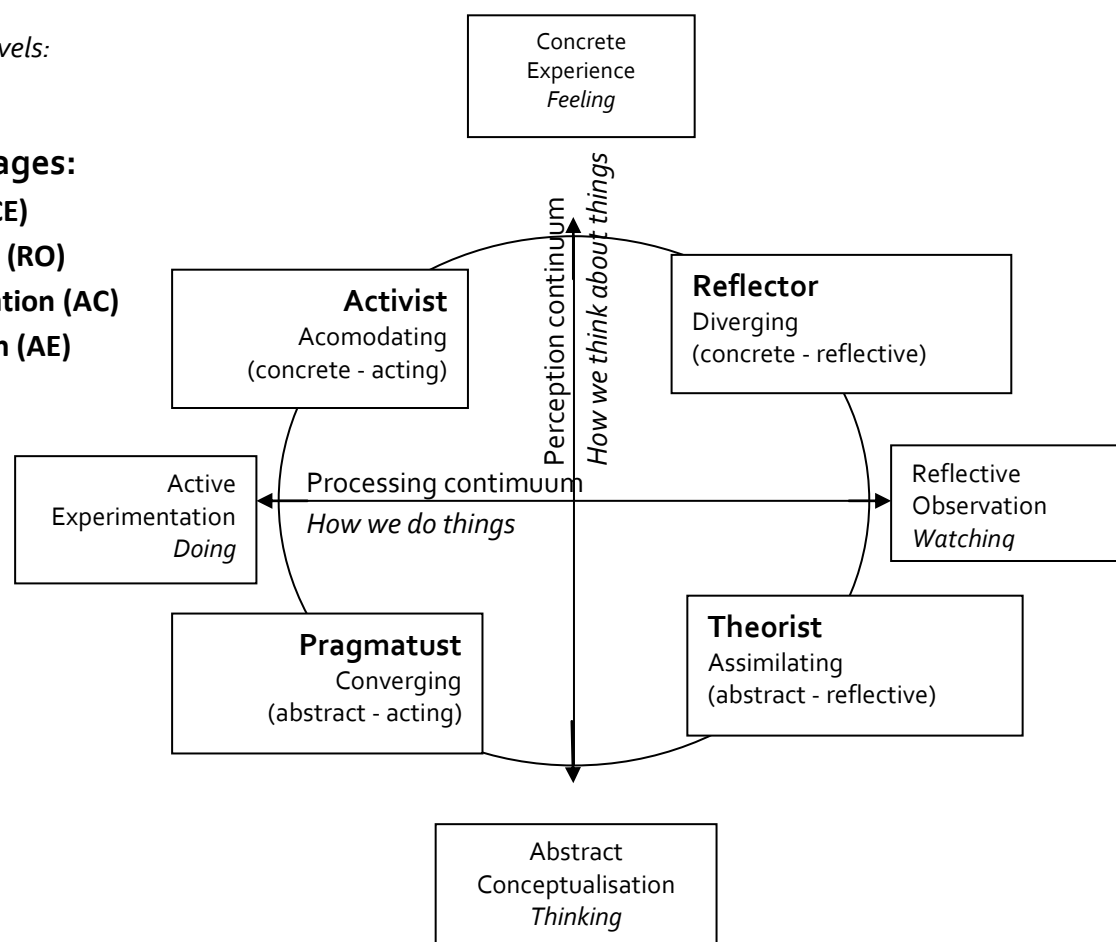
It is also possible that you sit together with a colleague who knows how to use the program and learn from him.

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

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

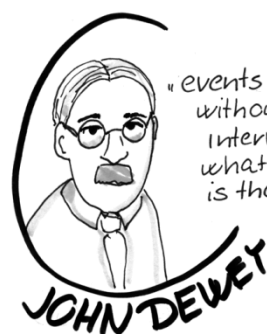
Galileo Galilei

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



"Learning is a process of transformation of experience into knowledge."



"Intellectual and moral growth are trying to manage and synchronize the continuous stream of experiences and perceptions, dreams and everyday life."

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**

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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





Feedback

planning process. Then each party understands their own role, the expected results, the methods of their evaluation, what and when will be applied. Moreover, 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 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. 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."

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 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.

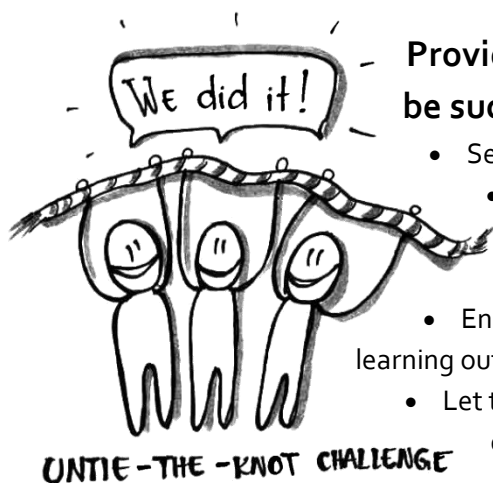
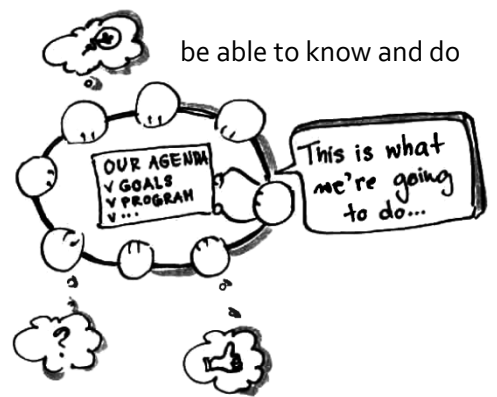
Participants are more likely to engage in learning when they:

- 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.

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 to 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!

Flow (psychology) – In positive psychology, **flow**, also known as **the zone**, is the mental state of operation in which a person performing an activity is fully immersed in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement, and enjoyment in the process of the activity. In essence, flow is characterized by complete absorption in what one does. Named by Mihály Csíkszentmihályi, the concept has been widely referenced across a variety of fields, though has existed for thousands of years under other guises, notably in some Eastern religions. Achieving flow is often referred to as *being in the zone*.

Wikipedia - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flow_%28psychology%29#Conditions_for_flow

Learning flow

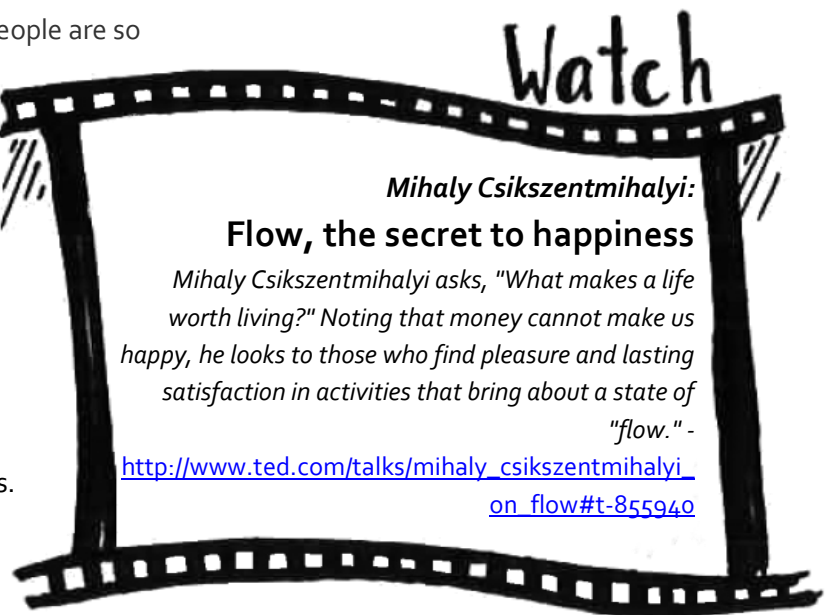
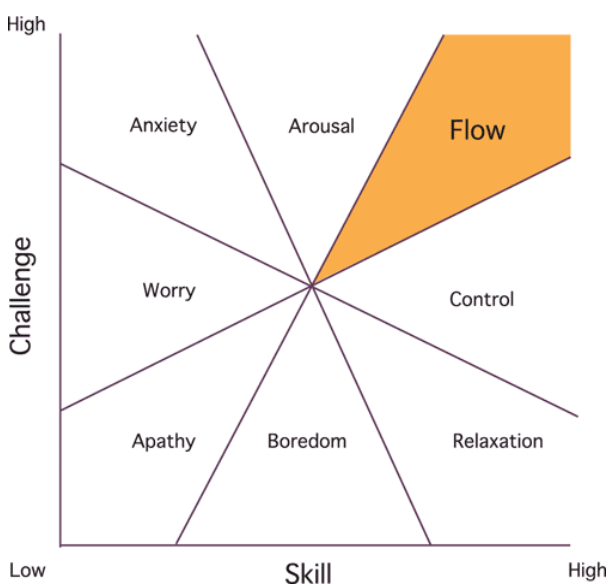
Csikszentmihalyi defines flow as “a state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience is so enjoyable that people will continue to do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it.”

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p.4) He identifies a number of different elements involved in achieving flow:

There are clear goals every step of the way.

- There is immediate feedback to one’s actions.
- There is a balance between challenges and skills.
- Action and awareness are merged.
- Distractions are excluded from consciousness.
- There is no worry of failure.
- Self-consciousness disappears.
- The sense of time becomes distorted.
- The activity becomes an end in itself.

As the above qualities indicate, the flow-like state is not primarily characterized by subjective feelings, even positive ones. Rather, the essence of flow is the removal of the interference of the thinking mind. When Michael Jordan is “in the zone” and making that behind-the-back pass, he is not consciously thinking “how can I pass the ball,” and if he did, he would interrupt his flow-like state and probably throw the ball into the stands. Absorption in a task indicates



the absence of the self, and a merging of your awareness into the activity you are engaged in. As positive psychologist Martin Seligman puts it, “Consciousness and emotion are there to correct your trajectory; when what you are doing is seamlessly perfect, you don’t need them (Csikszentmihalyi, 2002, p. 116).”

From this example and many others, Csikszentmihalyi points to five ways through which one is able to cultivate one’s self into an autotelic person:

1. Setting goals that have clear and immediate feedback
2. Becoming immersed in the particular activity
3. Paying attention to what is happening in the moment
4. Learning to enjoy immediate experience
5. Proportioning one’s skills to the challenge at hand

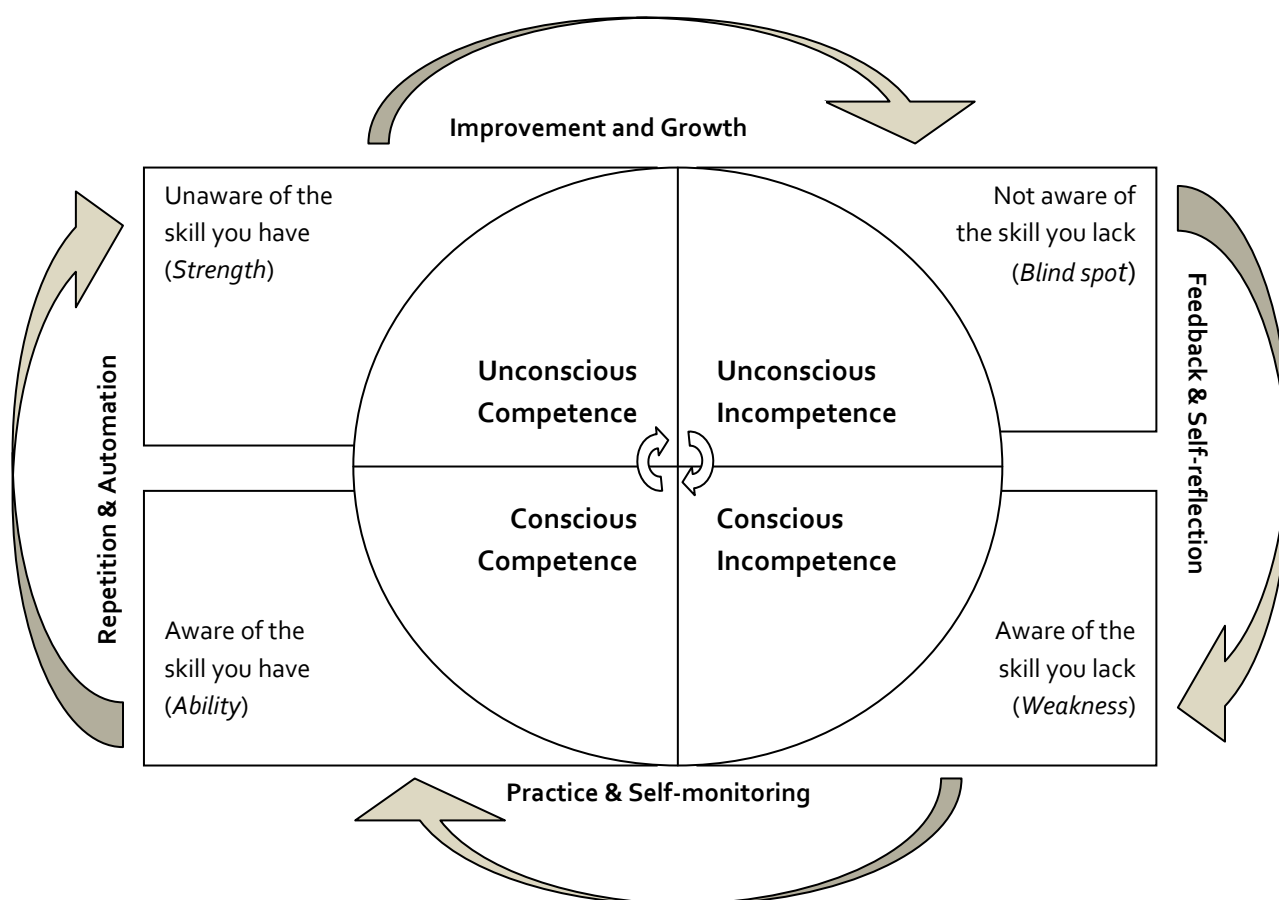
As these criteria indicate, flow is created by activities with a specific set of properties: they are challenging, require skill, have clear and immediate feedback (one knows whether one is doing the activity properly or not), and have well-defined success or failure metrics. Flow is a constant balancing act between anxiety, where the difficulty is too high for the person's skill, and boredom, where the difficulty is too low (see figure).

Thus flow is a dynamic rather than static state, since a properly constructed flow activity leads to increased skill, challenge, and complexity over time. Since one's skill doesn't remain static, repeating the same activity would fall into boredom; the flow reward inspires one to face harder challenges. This is why sports are extremely well-designed for producing flow; another popular activity that appears to meet these criteria (and thus explains its wide appeal) is the playing of video games. The only problem, Csikszentmihalyi writes, is that these kind of flow activities can easily become addictive, which ultimately results in a loss of the control of consciousness and thus further unhappiness.

Four stages of competence – In psychology, the four stages of competence, or the "conscious competence" learning model, relates to the psychological states involved in the process of progressing from incompetence to competence in a skill.

Wikipedia

The four stages of competence



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The Four Stages of Learning provides a model for learning. It suggests that individuals are initially unaware of how little they know, or unconscious of their incompetence. As they recognize their incompetence, they consciously acquire a skill, and then consciously use it. Eventually, the skill can be utilized without it being consciously thought through: the individual is said to have then acquired unconscious competence.

1. Unconscious incompetence

The individual does not understand or know how to do something and does not necessarily recognize the deficit. They may deny the usefulness of the skill. The individual must recognize their own incompetence, and the value of the new skill, before moving on to the next stage. The length of time an individual spends in this stage depends on the strength of the stimulus to learn.

2. Conscious incompetence

Though the individual does not understand or know how to do something, he or she does recognize the deficit, as well as the value of a new skill in addressing the deficit. The making of mistakes can be integral to the learning process at this stage.

3. Conscious competence

The individual understands or knows how to do something. However, demonstrating the skill or knowledge requires concentration. It may be broken down into steps, and there is heavy conscious involvement in executing the new skill.

4. Unconscious competence

The individual has had so much practice with a skill that it has become "second nature" and can be performed easily. As a result, the skill can be performed while executing another task. The individual may be able to teach it to others, depending upon how and when it was learned.

Source – Four stages of competence; Wikipedia - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Four_stages_of_competence

Key competences for lifelong learning

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

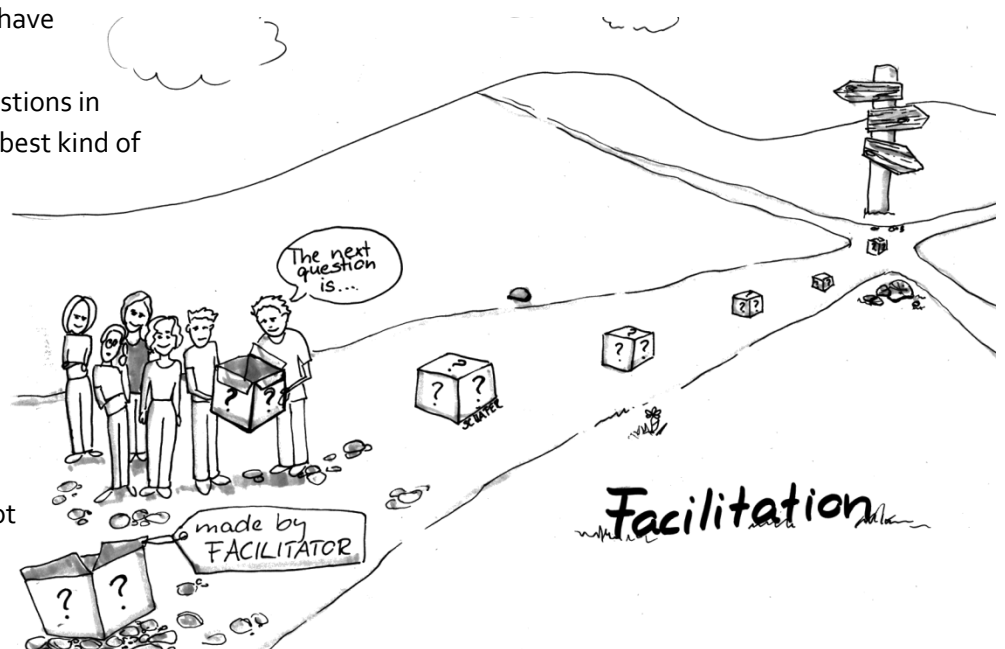
Facilitation Defined

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:

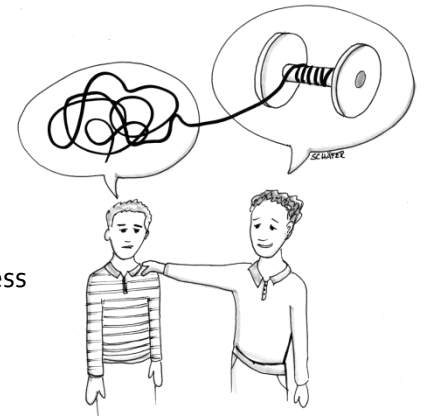
- provides for meaningful dialogue
- broadens perspectives
- results in clear ideas and conclusions
- allows the entire group to participate
- gradually increases a groups' ability to operate effectively on their own

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

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.

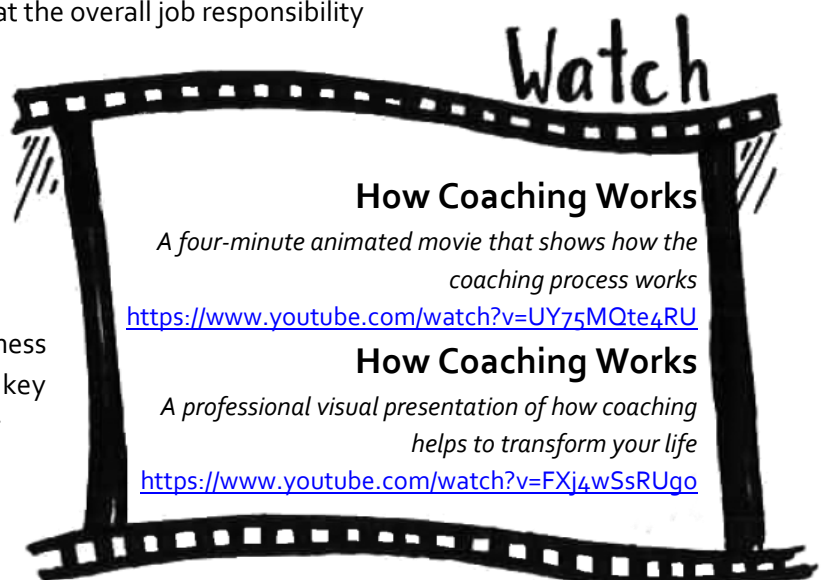
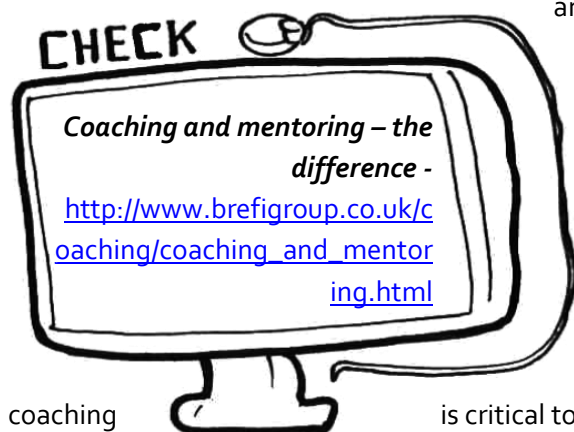
Coaching takes place for the purpose of creating a path for personal change. A clear understanding of the desired outcome of

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.

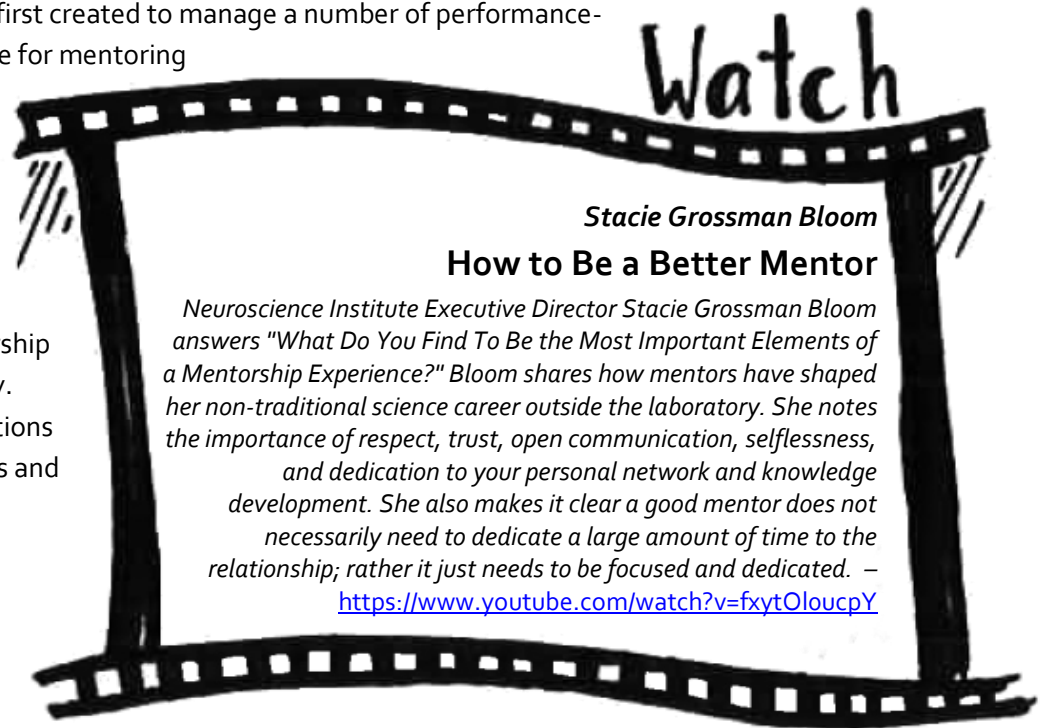
Distinguishing Factors

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>



Characteristics of Youth by Age

Characteristics of 12-14 year olds:

Physical:

- Exhibit a wide range of sexual maturity and growth patterns between genders within gender groups.
- Experience rapid changes in physical appearance.

Social:

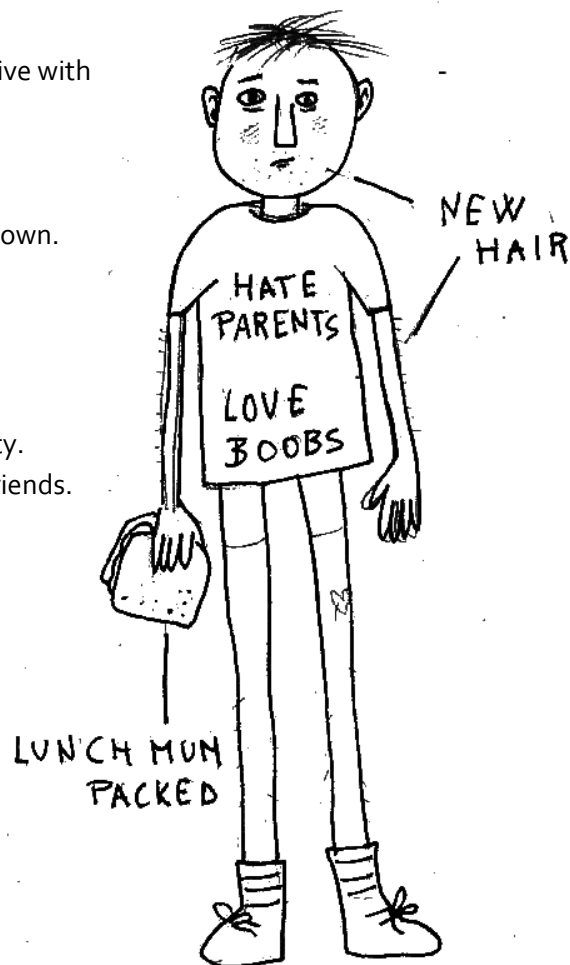
- Are interested in activities involving the opposite sex; learning to live with opposite sex.
- Are looking more to peers than parents. Seek peer recognition.
- Seek acceptance and trust.
- Tend to reject ready-made solutions from adults in favour of their own.
- Question authority and family values.

Emotional:

- Compare themselves to others.
- Are concerned about physical development and emerging sexuality.
- Are concerned about social graces, grooming and being liked by friends.
- Abandon view of parents as all powerful.
- Strive for independence, yet want and need parents help.
- Need information for making decisions.
- Seek privacy from parents/adults.
- Want to be part of something important.

Intellectual:

- Find justice and equality to be important issues.
- Think abstractly and hypothetically.
- Are developing skills in the use of logic. Can understand cause and effect.
- Can solve problems that have more than one variable.
- Can imagine consequences.
- Are ready for in-depth, long-term experiences.
- Challenge assumptions.
- Want to explore the world beyond their own community.
- Are curious about the environment.



Youth ages 12 to 14 would thrive in curriculum activities that focus on developing attitudes about the natural world. Looking at community environmental issues and defining their feelings about those issues through research and investigation provides youth to challenge assumptions and redefine their beliefs based on real life experiences.

Characteristics of 15-18 year olds:

Physical:

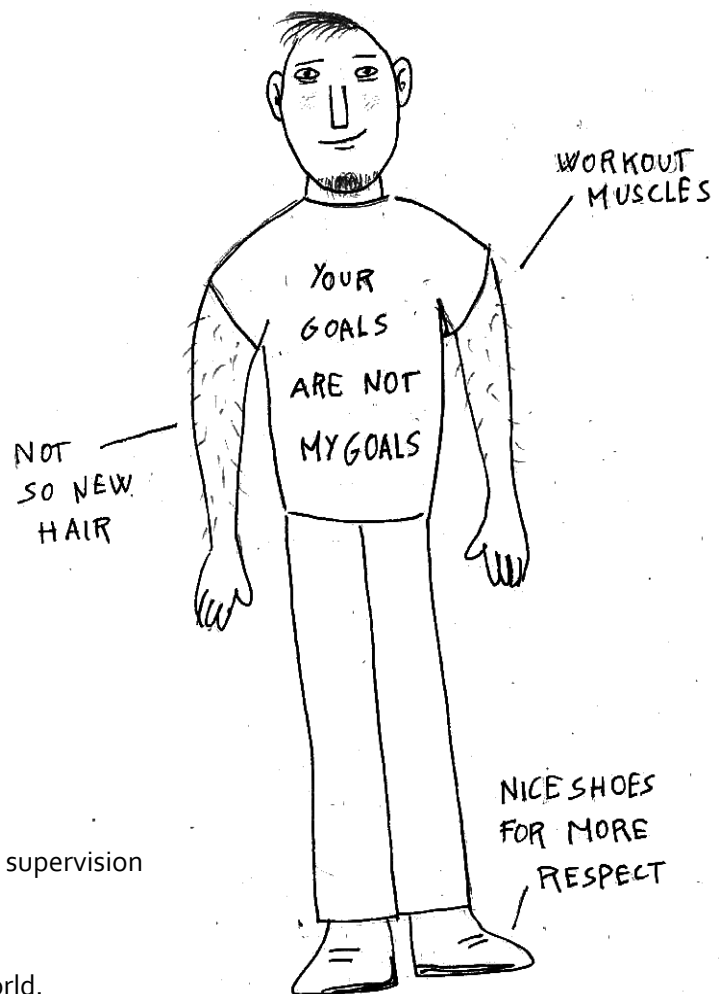
- Are concerned about body image.
- Exhibit smaller range in size and maturity among peers.

Social:

- Make commitments.
- Can commit to follow through with service.
- See adults as fallible.
- Desire respect.
- Are apt to reject goals set by others.
- Want adult leadership roles.

Emotional:

- Desire respect.
- Are beginning to accept and enjoy their own uniqueness, but still seek status and approval of peer group.
- Look for confidence of others in their decisions.
- Develop their own set of values and beliefs
- Take on multiple roles.
- Gain autonomy.
- Are introspective.
- Take fewer risks.
- Can initiate and carry out their own tasks without the supervision of others.
- Search for career possibilities.
- Desire a role in determining what happens in their world.



Intellectual:

- Are mastering abstract thinking. Can imagine impact of present behavior on the future.
- Can consider many perspectives on a given issue.
- Develop theories to explain how things happen.
- Create new possibilities from information.

Fifteen to 18 year olds are ready for authentic experiences in the environment that foster commitment and skill development to protect and improve the environment. Service learning, teaching others and authentic leadership roles around the environment provide 15 to 18 year olds with opportunities to impact their world and challenge others to do the same.

The selection of age appropriate activities for young people will provide them with a positive learning environment that will support their interests and provide a solid foundation for further investigation and research.

Groff, J. Training Trainers to Teach. Raleigh, North Carolina: North Carolina State University.

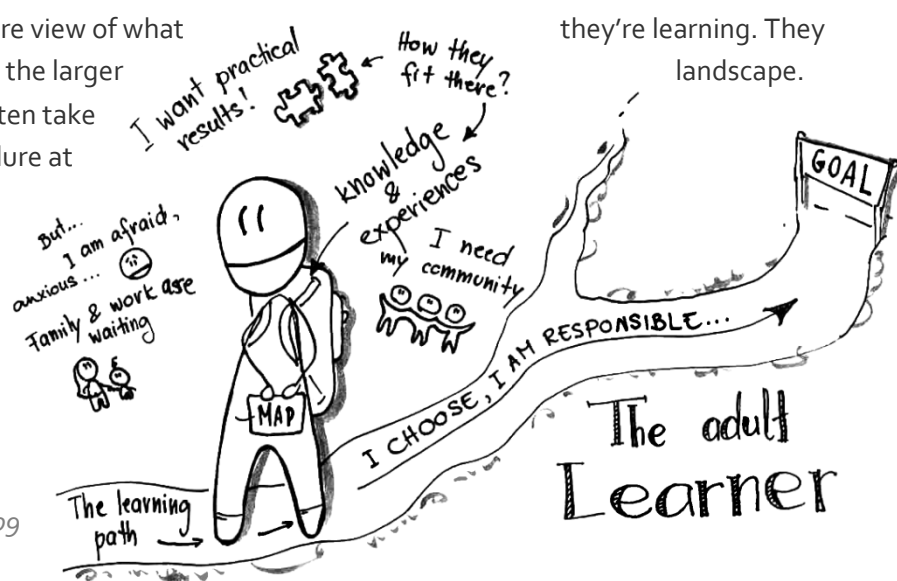
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Characteristics of Adult Learners

(Connie Malamed)

When it comes to learning, adults are not over sized children. Maturity brings unique characteristics that affect how adults are motivated to learn. By appealing to the unique qualities of adult learners, we can design more effective and motivating online courses. Here's a list of generalized characteristics common to **many but not all adult learners**:

- **Autonomy.** Adults typically prefer a sense of control and self-direction. They like options and choice in their learning environment. Even adults who feel anxiety from self-direction may learn to appreciate this approach if given proper initial support.
- **Goal-oriented.** Many adults have specific goals they are trying to achieve. They prefer to partake in learning activities that help them reach their goals.
- **Practical.** Adults in the workplace prefer practical knowledge and experiences that will make work easier or provide important skills. In other words, adults need personal relevance in learning activities.
- **Competence and mastery.** Adults like to gain competence in workplace skills as it boosts confidence and improves self-esteem.
- **Learning by experience.** Many adults prefer to learn by doing rather than listening to lectures.
- **Wealth of Knowledge.** In the journey from childhood to adulthood, people accumulate a unique store of knowledge and experiences. They bring this depth and breadth of knowledge to the learning situation.
- **Purposeful.** Workplace training is often part of an initiative that involves change. Adults want to know the purpose of training and the motivation underlying an organization's training initiative.
- **Emotional Barriers.** Through experience, adults may fear a subject, have anxiety about a subject or feel anger about forced changes in job responsibilities or policies. These emotions can interfere with the learning process.
- **Results-oriented.** Adults are results-oriented. They have specific expectations for what they will get out of learning activities and will often drop out of voluntary learning if their expectations aren't met.
- **Outside responsibilities.** Most adult learners have numerous responsibilities and commitments to family, friends, community and work. Carving out time for learning affects adult learners.
- **Potential physical limitations.** Depending on their age and physical condition, adult learners may acquire psychomotor skills more slowly than younger students and have more difficulties reading small fonts and seeing small images on the computer screen.
- **Big Picture.** Adults require the big picture view of what they need to know how the small parts fit into the larger
- **Responsible for Self.** Adult learners often take responsibility for their own success or failure at learning.
- **Need for Community.** Many self-directed adult learners prefer a learning community with whom they can interact and discuss questions and issues.



Source – thelearningcoach.com; Malamed, Connie – *Characteristics of adult learners*, 2009

<http://thelearningcoach.com/learning/characteristics-of-adult-learners/>

Part 3 Practical skills

Setting learning goals

(Ognian Gadoularov)

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.

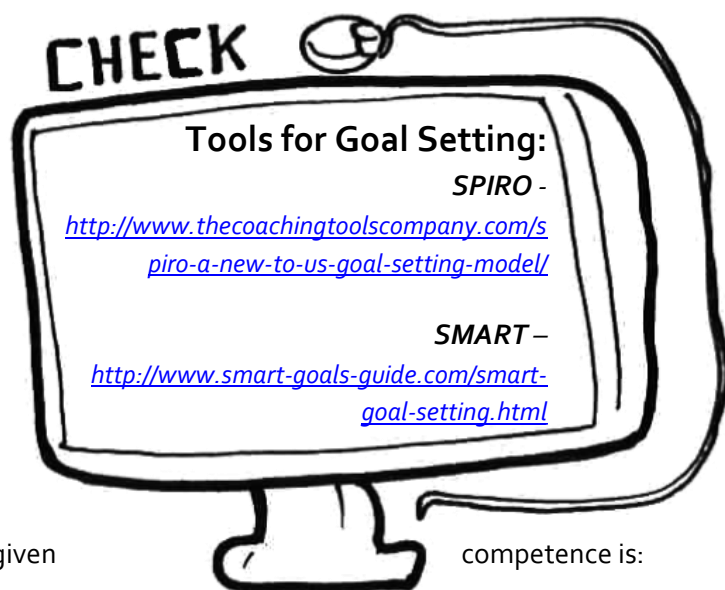
The learning goals are always associated with one of the elements of the **Competence**:

**Competence = attitude +
knowledge + skill**

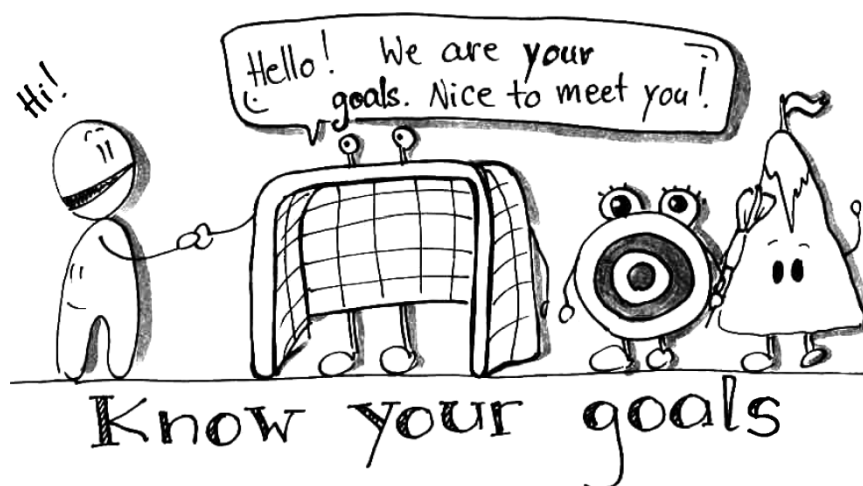
Each of these components is developed independently (attitude, knowledge and skills) and is a subject of separate learning goals.

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
Remembering – recall of the information needed from the memory. They (the students) can repeat and/or remember the information. (To remember): <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	Repeat, reproduce, define, describe, recognize, order

<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 • Selective attention 	<p>Ask, attend, describe, follow, help, define, listen, name, observe, show</p>

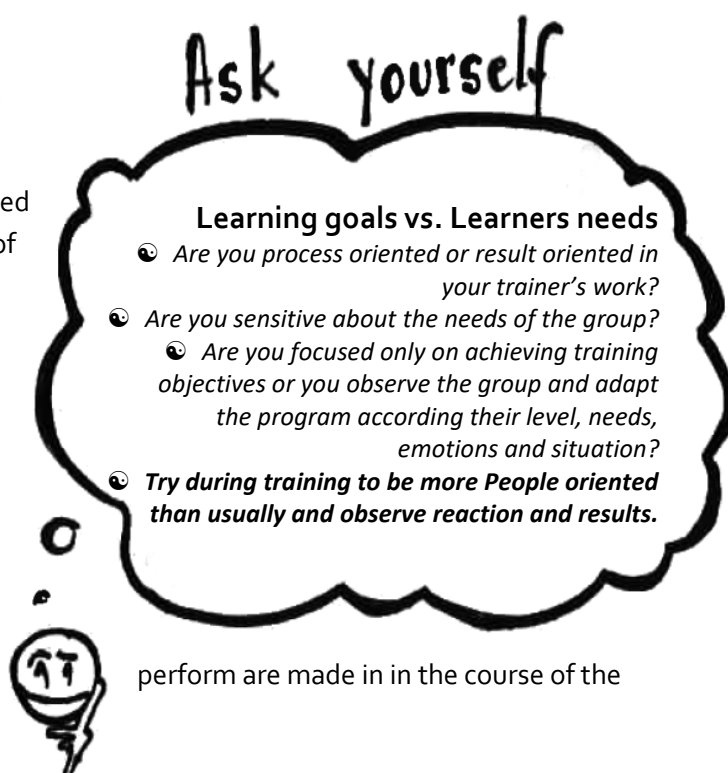
<p>Responding - describes the second stage of the taxonomy and refers to a commitment in some small measure to the ideas, materials, or phenomena involved by actively responding to them. Examples are: to comply with, to follow, to commend, to volunteer, to spend leisure time in, to acclaim.</p> <p><i>Subcategories:</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.



perform are made in in the course of the

Group Dynamics and Social learning

(Ognian Gadoularov)

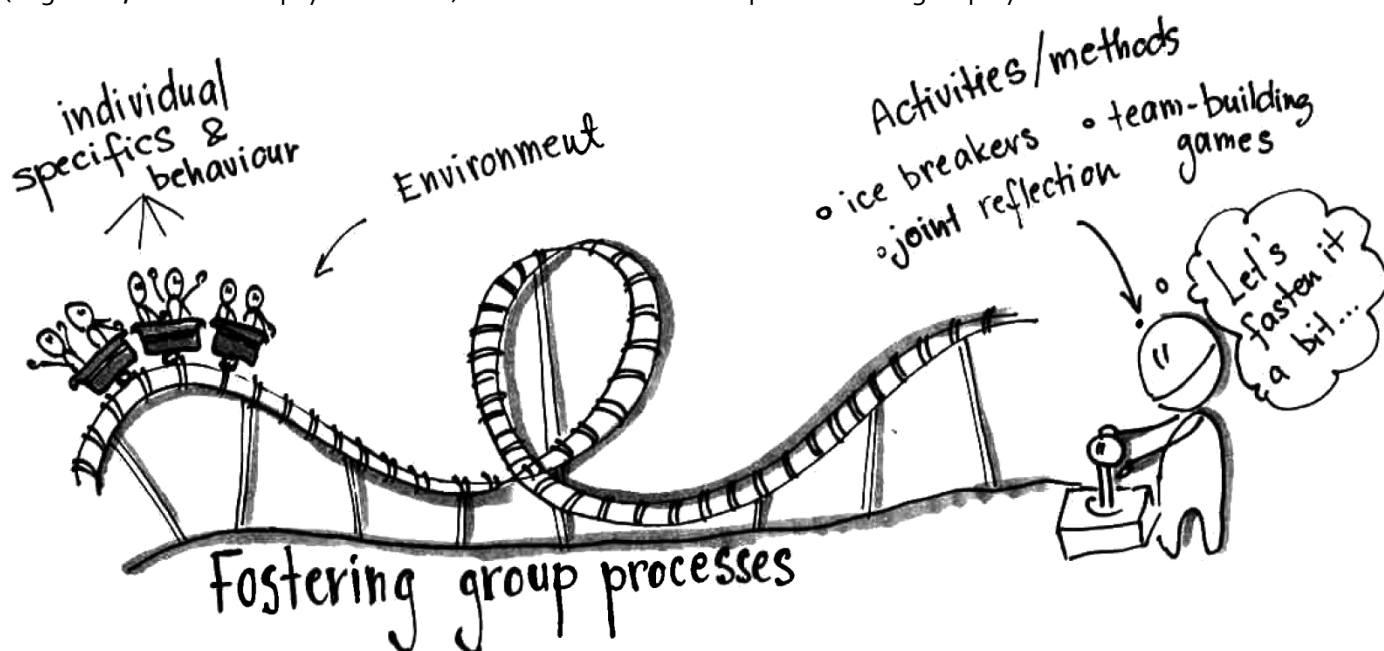
One of the main characteristics of the training processes in youth work is that they happen in a group. Moreover, non-formal learning reinforces values such as tolerance, mutual aid, support, team work, etc. The social processes and interaction influence greatly the learning on individual or group level. 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.

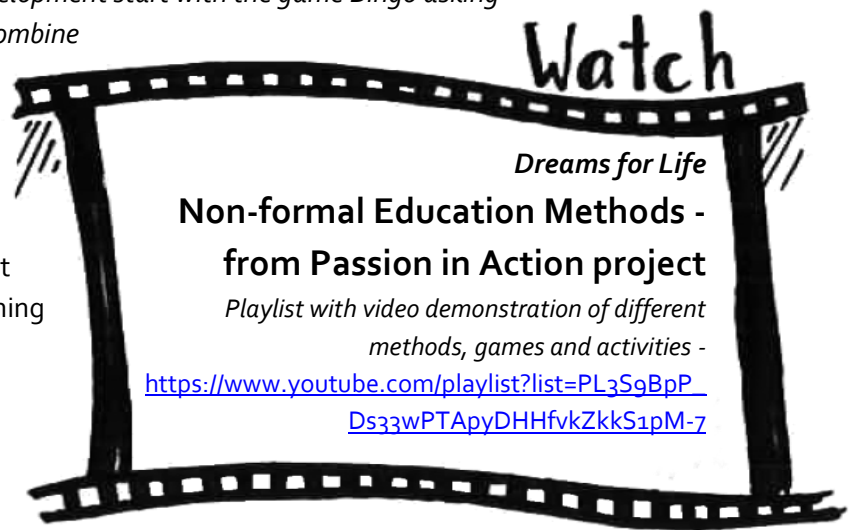


This is achieved in the process of design and preparation of thematic educational sessions when certain activities are selected and adapted in such way that they are used also for the development of the group processes – sharing, getting closer, and team work.

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.

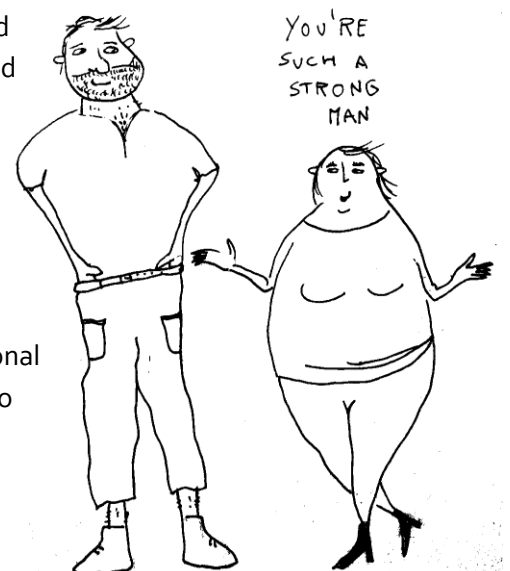


common
and what
of control

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

and acceptance have increased, the 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.

willingness to change and grow. As trust

This is a good time to foster celebration. Strategies can be developed to explore the “magical” aspects of group interaction, to reinforce cooperative and collaborative attitudes and activities, and to develop a group identity. The trainer can aid in this process by generating planned celebration. The group can be encouraged to develop a motto or symbol, and group photos or other tangible group-identity vehicles can be created. Group interviews, group assessments, and planning for group needs all can help in affirming cohesion. Activities can include those based on sharing, helping, listening, questioning, and building.

Less structure needs to be imposed on the group; it now should be ready to act cohesively to certain challenges. These include creating tangible benchmarks for checking progress toward goals, cross-group competition, the ability to risk breaches of trust, and the willingness to give up group cohesion. It is necessary to achieve these if the group is to move on. The group can be given internal tasks such as exploring group weaknesses and external tasks such as competitor analyses. External resource people can be used to help stimulate new visions. The trainer also can ask constructive questions, summarize and clarify the group’s thinking, and refrain from making any comments that tend to reward or punish group members. At this stage, the leader should trust the group to achieve its maximum potential and try to blend in with the group as much as possible.

It would *not* be helpful in this phase to introduce changes in routines or in group composition, to generate intragroup competition (which could cause regression), or to emphasize individual members’ preferences, strengths reactions, or decisions. Nor is this the time to bring up the subject of termination of the group.

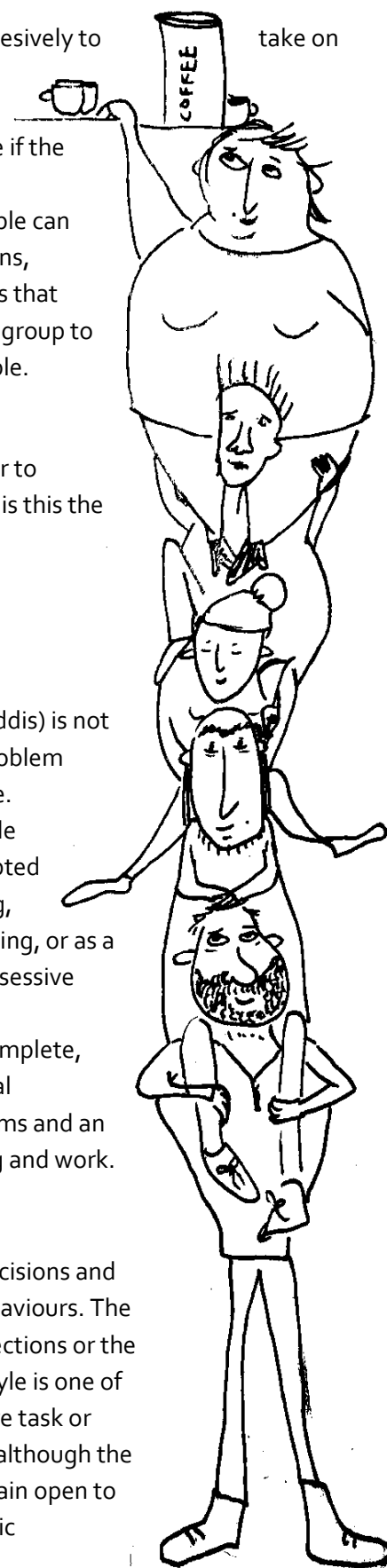
The Proficient Stage

Relationship and Task Behaviours

The “performing” (Tuckman), “esprit” (Charrier), or “proficient” stage (Cooke & Widdis) is not reached by all groups. It is marked by interdependence in personal relations and problem solving in the realm of task functions. By now, the group should be most productive. Differences in members’ goals are accepted, are not threatening, and do not impede work toward group goals. Group members’ personal agendas are assumed or accepted and do not elicit threat or suspicion. Individual members have become self-assuring, and the need for group approval is past. Members can work singly, in any subgrouping, or as a total unit. They are both highly task oriented and highly person oriented. A nonpossessive warmth and feeling of freedom result, so individuality and creativity are both high. Relationships between individuals are empathic. There is unity: group identity is complete, group morale is high, and group loyalty is intense. Both collaboration and functional competition mark activities. There is support for experimentation in solving problems and an emphasis on achievement. The overall goal is productivity through problem solving and work.

Trainer Interventions

In this ultimate stage, the trainer should be willing to turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation to the group and engage in both low task and low relationship behaviours. The group is competent, confident, and highly motivated; it does not need the task directions or the socioemotional support that the trainer has provided heretofore. The leadership style is one of delegating with minimum supervision. In fact, the group members may regard more task or relationship behaviour from the trainer as interference or a lack of trust. However, although the trainer’s role is reduced, it is not eliminated. Channels of communication must remain open to provide for pertinent interchanges of task-relevant information. In addition, periodic reinforcement for outstanding achievement may be appropriate.



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?

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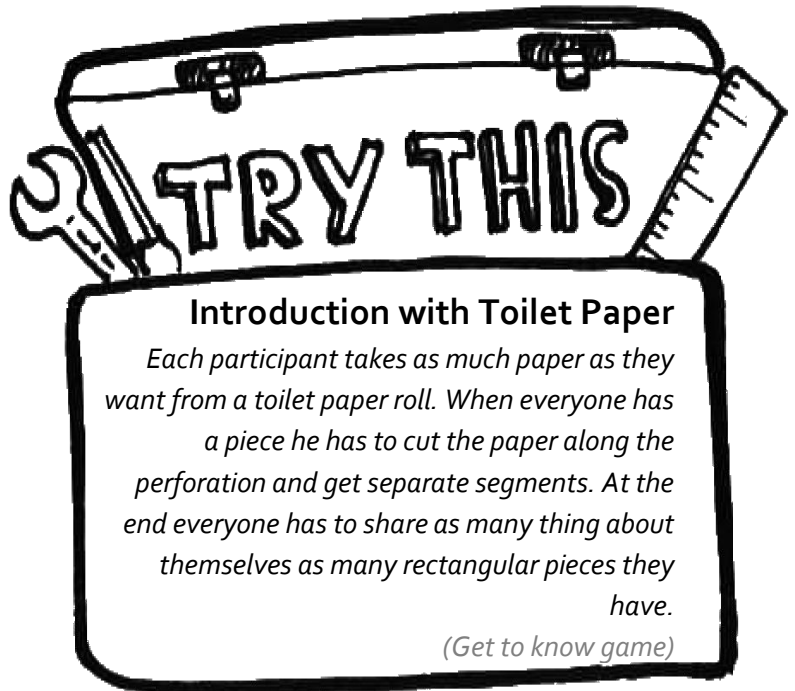
Forming

Characteristics

- The individual behavior dominates
- Untruthful to "rituals"
- Cautious
- Have their own goals
- Apparent politeness to decrease tension
- Lack of structure

Types of behavior

- The noisier will dominate
- The feelings and the opinions will be hidden
- Inability to concentrate on the task
- Distortion of the information heard
- Lots of voting
- The conflicts are suppressed or covered up



The role of the trainer in the group building

- To define tasks
- To establish a structure
- To develop trust
- To manage roles
- To engage the attention of the group
- Individual approach to the leaders

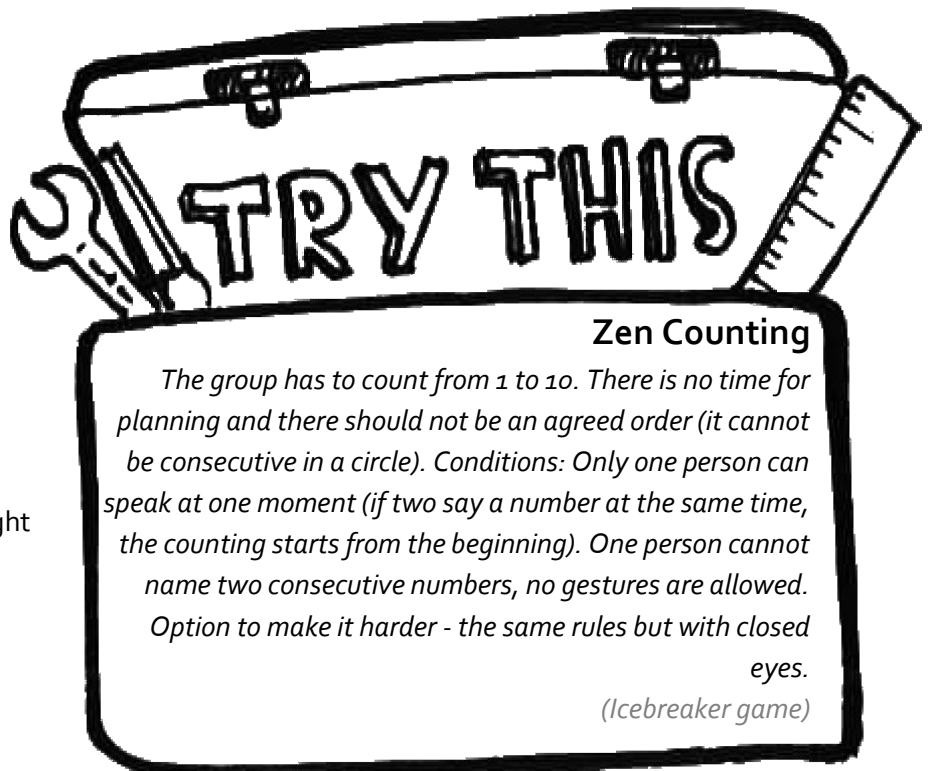
Storming

Characteristics

- Feeling of hopelessness
- Resistance towards a structure
- Challenges against the leader
- The reason for the lack of success is sought in external factors
- Inner struggles and sub-grouping
- Use of personal attacks as a protective reaction

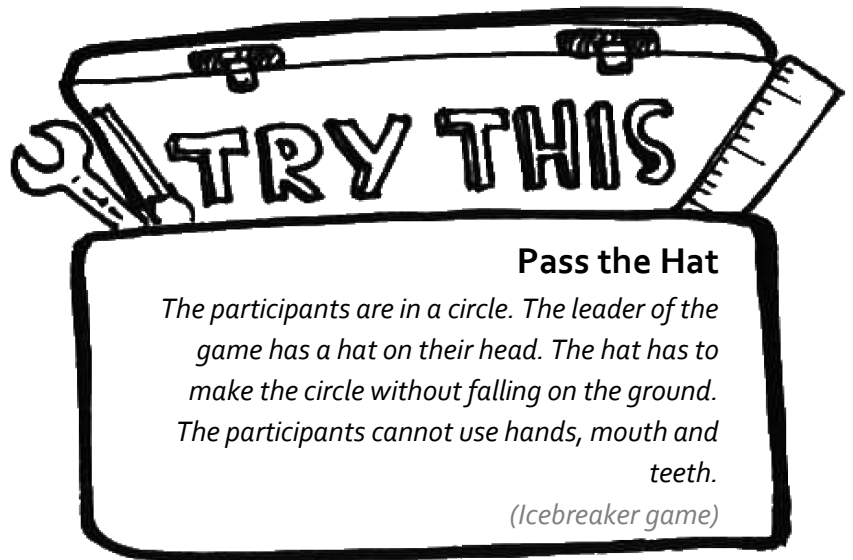
Types of behavior

- Evaluative comments
- Protective reactions shown as negative non-verbal behavior
- Comments and opinions which are not wanted



The role of the trainer in the group building

- To encourage talking
- To clarify the mission
- To give feedback
- To stimulate each participant
- To initiate discussion of fears
- To identify conflicts
- To engage the team in problem solving
- The leader needs a purposeful approach (coaching)



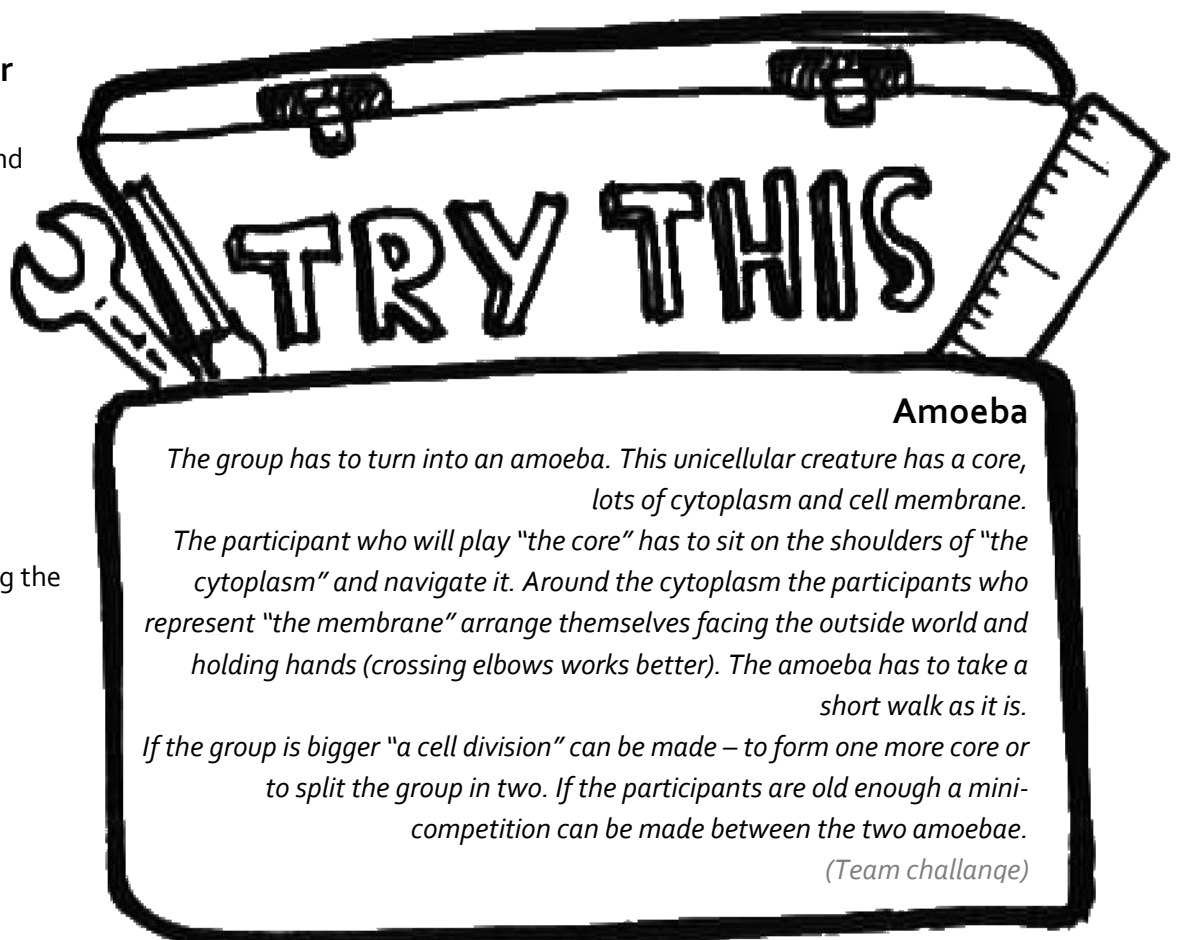
Norming

Characteristics

- Power centralization – looking at the leader to decrease the tension
- The individuals develop a sense of belonging
- The aggression is directed towards the problems, not towards the people
- Solving structural problems
- The attention is focused on the goal
- A feeling of satisfaction develops

Types of behavior

- Open discussion on values, proposals and opinions
- Asking questions on the topic
- Willingness to experiment
- Increase in the willingness to give feedback
- Demonstration of advancement during the performance of the tasks
- More balanced participation



The role of the trainer in the group building

- To provide support
- To encourage free communication
- To concentrate on the goal
- To support the structuring of the activity
- To stimulate conflict as part of the progress
- The leader needs a facilitator's approach

Performing

Characteristics

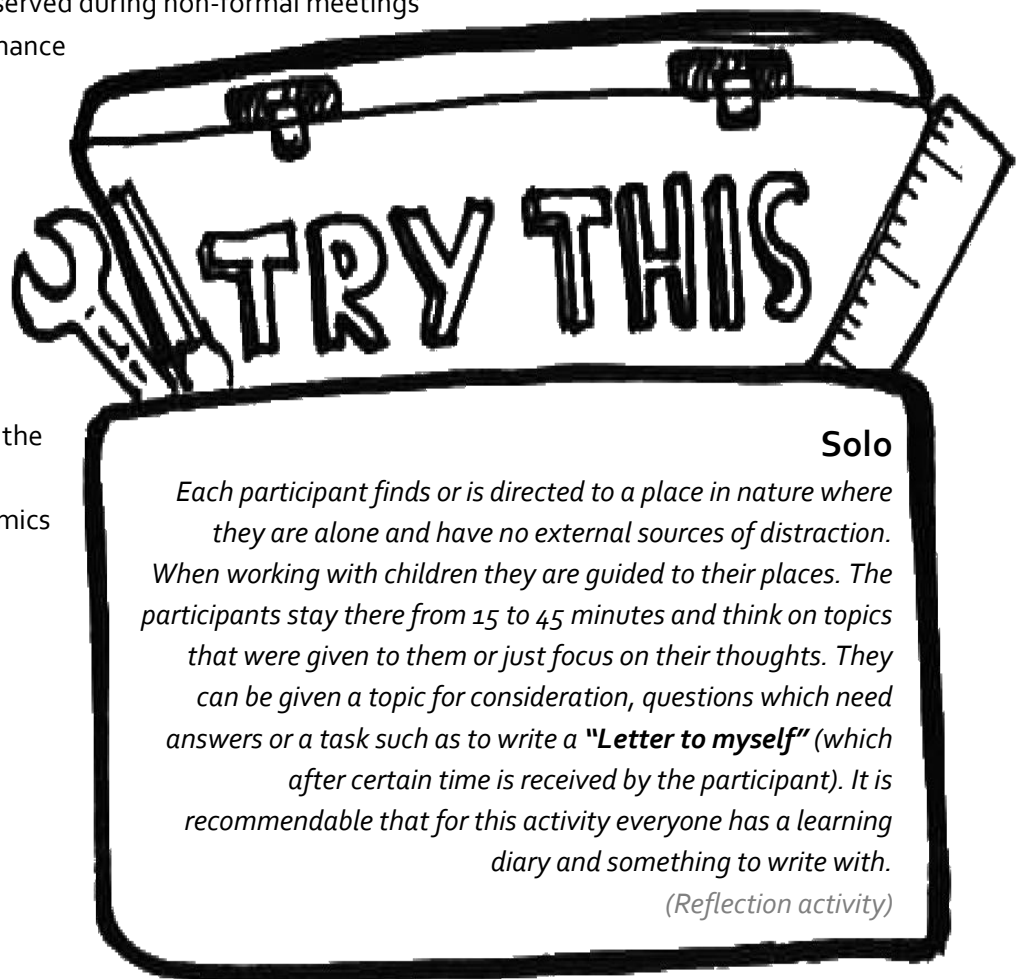
- Purposefulness
- Acceptance of external help/resources
- High level of trust
- Frequent analysis of the actions undertaken
- Fixing mistakes together – softening of the tension as a sign of cooperation
- Pure feeling of joy

Types of behavior

- The participants encourage each other with or without words
- Willingness to have witnesses, which helps the feedback
- The closeness of the team is preserved during non-formal meetings
- High level of flexibility in performance of different roles
- Easy laughs
- The participants give strength to each other

The role of the trainer in the group building

- To state the goals again
- To maintain the composition of the group
- To support changes in the dynamics
- To give appraisal of the achievements
- The Leaders need a focused approach
- To leave them to say it



Solo

Each participant finds or is directed to a place in nature where they are alone and have no external sources of distraction. When working with children they are guided to their places. The participants stay there from 15 to 45 minutes and think on topics that were given to them or just focus on their thoughts. They can be given a topic for consideration, questions which need answers or a task such as to write a "Letter to myself" (which after certain time is received by the participant). It is recommendable that for this activity everyone has a learning diary and something to write with.

(Reflection activity)

Adjourning /Unforming

Characteristics

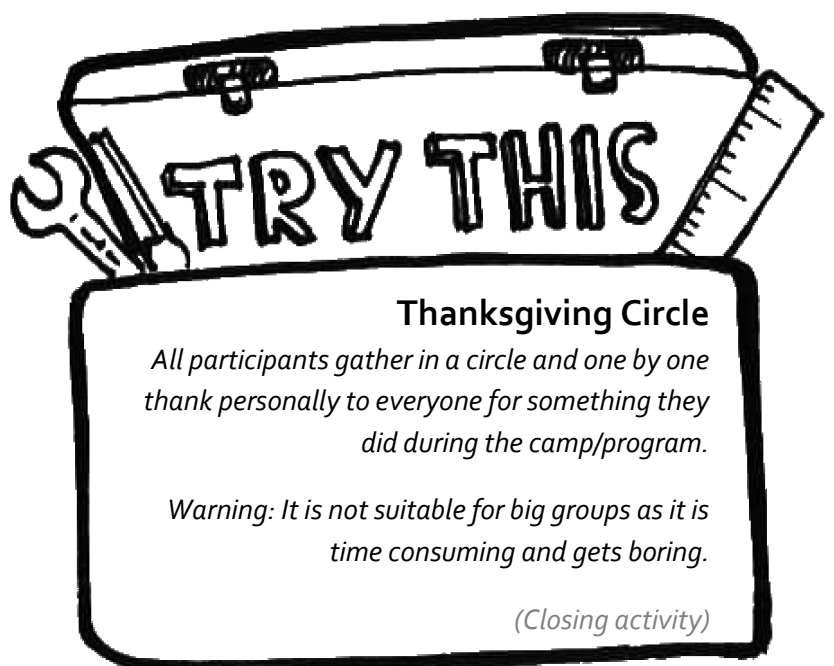
- Reflectivity
- Willingness to share
- Willingness to work on new projects
- Melancholy – return to shared memories
- Feeling of insecurity and threat

Types of behavior

- Participants share and remember what they lived through together
- They consider a future connection between themselves
- Sharing

The role of the interpreter in the group building

- To secure a sharing environment
- To secure time and place for sharing or remembering of the experience
- Place/environment for future plans and continuous communication

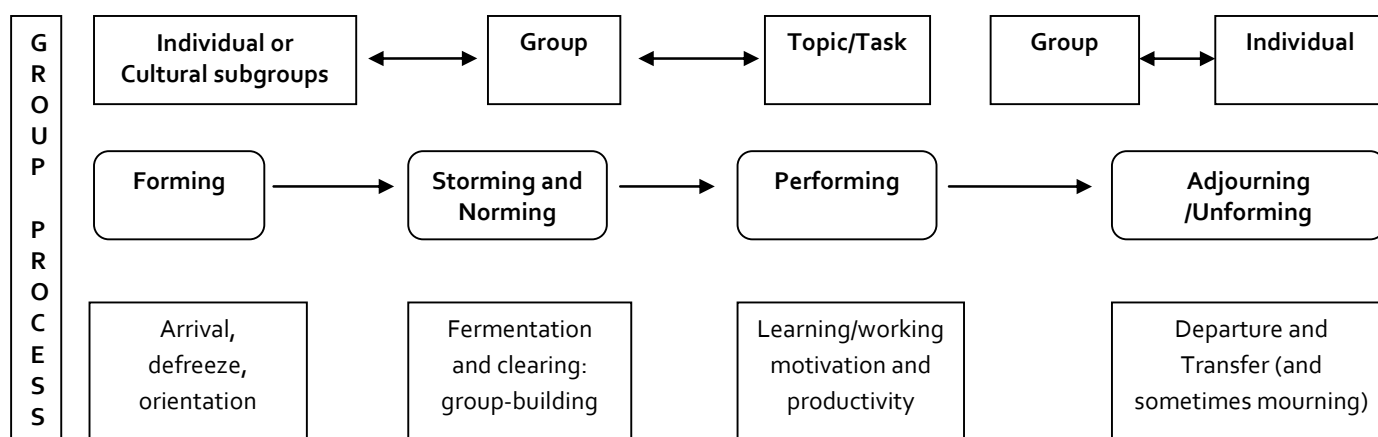


Emotions and behaviors during the development stages

Stage	Characteristics	Emotions	Behaviors
Forming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Transition period – the individual starts to feel part of the group ▪ Test of the leadership ▪ Walk in the dark 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Excitement, expectation, optimism ▪ Pride – I am part of this team ▪ First insecure attempts to identify oneself with the team ▪ Suspicion, fear, worry about the work ahead 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Attempt to formulate the task and possible solutions ▪ Attempt to establish acceptable behavior of the group during the solution of the task ▪ Taking a decision what information needs to be collected ▪ „Diluted“ abstract discussion about the concept and the tasks ▪ Discussion of topics and problems not related to the task, difficulty in the identification of the real problems ▪ Complains about the organization and the challenges for the completion of the task
Storming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The hardest phase for the group ▪ Impatience for the work to advance ▪ The participants rely only on themselves ▪ The arguments are between everyone 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Stubbornness and unacceptance of approaches different from the personal ones as solution of the task ▪ Strong uncertainty about the success of the team and the project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Arguments between participants even when there is an agreement about the main parameters of the task ▪ Defense and competition, belonging to subgroups.
Norming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The team starts to unite ▪ The participants overcome their differences ▪ The roles get shaped ▪ The participants start to rely on each other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ability to give constructive feedback ▪ Acceptance of the leadership in the team ▪ Relief – it look like everything will work out fine 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Attempt to reach agreement avoiding conflicts ▪ More amiability, trust in one another, sharing of personal problems and free talk about the team processes ▪ A collective spirit and unity and sense of common goals can be felt in the group
Performing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Developed relationships and expectations ▪ Everyone knows their roles ▪ The participants know theirs pros and cons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Satisfaction by the success of the team ▪ Intuition about the ongoing interpersonal and group processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ability to foresee and avoid problems ▪ Strong connection with the team ▪ Self-development

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Group learning process, group development and the choice of methods



Welcome Name games	Energizers Flashlight	Energizers Flashlight	Energizers Flashlight
Ice-breakers Personal, organizational and cultural presentations Expectations	Intercultural awareness games and exercises (continuous) Trust games and group-building exercises	Topics explored by active and participatory methods (maintaining the intercultural perspective) <i>Excursions or visits</i> Sharing and debriefing in the plenary sessions Daily evaluation	Personal evaluation Cultural group evaluation Goodbye ritual(s)
Evening activities: work, games, party, cultural nights, free time etc.			

(Adapted from – Georges Wagner 2000: Unpublished training material)

Adapted from - T-Kit 6 - Training Essentials - Council of Europe publishing, F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex, October 2002

Tips & Tricks

Before taking action:

- ☉ **Goals** - Why am I doing this?
- ☉ **Willingness** – Is the group ready to do this?
- ☉ **Feelings** – What is the emotional state of the participants?
What are their feelings? – Hidden? Suppressed?
- ☉ **Behavior** – Challenge through choice. The participants have right and deserve respect for choosing their way of participation. Stimulation never harms.
- ☉ **Level** – What is the current level of the group? What are they ready for?

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)

Johari window

The Window of Interpersonal Communication

Johari window is a compact conceptual model for description, evaluation and forecast of aspects of the interpersonal communication. By the quadrants we present and receive information about ourselves and the others. The streams are dynamic. By the model we can see movements from one quadrant to another, as rising and falling tides of trust, as actors exchanging feedback. The size of the quadrants can expand or decrease.

Johari Model

	Known to ourselves	Not known to ourselves
Known to others	Arena/Public self Information that everyone knows.	Blank area/Blind self Information that the person does not know or acknowledge (denies), but others do know. (Feedback)
Not known to others	Facade/Private self Private information known only by the person. Others can only infer this information.	Mystery/Unknown self Information no one knows; The others must make inferences about aspects of the person's personality that he or she is in denial or unaware of (hidden potential).

Windows' quadrants

Public (open) self

This quadrant presents the free and open information sharing between me and the others, the public behavior accessible to everyone. The size of the quadrant increases as much as the trust between me and the other increases, as much as the information (the specific, related personally to me information) is shared. This is the information that concerns us personally, which every side finds useful.

Private self

For one reason or another I keep my information hidden – fear, risk of influences, demands and insecurity. One reason for my façade can be that I do not feel supported at home or at work. Maybe I want to protect myself from being criticized.

It is possible to guard certain type of information secret to support or protect the people around me. My motives can be:

- Egoistic – I want to control the situation and not revealing myself complies with my tactics
- Selfless – If I believe that the tactics of no revealing of myself can be useful

Tact, diplomacy, or even hidden offence can be features of our private personality. Keeping to ourselves a certain point of view no matter what we feel towards the other side can be a useful behavior. The "privacy" can protect us or the others. The private personality is controlled.

Blind Spot (Blind self)

When I (the ego) works with the others, all types of information are exchanged that you do not realize but others do. How? With verbal keys, the manner, the way in which you say things or your style of connecting to the others. The limit up to which I am insensible about my behavior which touches the others can be surprising and confusing.

The blind spot is very important in relation to the personal development. Many of us know and realize that the others discover things that we do or say. Your behavior, the expression on your forehead, the tone of your voice can belie the contents of the message. Those can be our eccentric features. They can be like a bull in a China shop – behaviors to which the others find it hard to react, get hurt, irritated or worried. The way in which this worsens our relationships with the others depends from their attitudes towards us and their capacity to adapt to our behavior (their tolerance and flexibility).

The blind spot requires high level of awareness and self-control. When you look at yourself in the mirror you see yourself in the way you want to see yourself.

Unknown self

What influences me can be under the surface of what is realized by the both sides. We probably have unknown resources or features. The learning possibilities and the exchange of feedback in a supportive way allow those influences to go on to the surface and to reveal themselves, but only if we want that.

Conclusion

Johari's window is a useful tool for trainers working in a team, managers and even members of the family who can evaluate their interpersonal positions and analyze their experiences. When the conditions of the feedback and the learning are appropriate the model of Johari offers to us an analytical frame where it is easier to see ourselves with the eyes of the others.

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Listening

The most important thing in communication is hearing what isn't said.

Peter Drucker

Levels of listening

Actually most of us have heard of the different learning techniques such as active listening, repeating of the words of the others or other tricks we can use to make it obvious that we listen attentively. To listen does not necessarily mean to remain silent and shake politely your head in agreement. Let's take a look at some of the levels of listening. We will also explore their effect on our ability to understand the people and the things that happen to us in our lives.

Tips & Tricks

- **Lack of listening**

The listener's mind is busy with other thoughts or is overloaded with information. The busy mind does not allow listening.

- **Taking the words out of someone's mouth**

At this level the mind of the listener works mostly using memory than in the present moment. It is as if someone mentions something which brings out a memory of an event or experience. The reaction of the listener is to feel that they want to share the memory (no matter if it is connected to the topic of conversation).

- **To agree or not agree**

At this level the listener is obsessed with agreeing or arguing with what they hear. Here they make evaluations on the grounds of their past beliefs (past experience) and do not listen in reality.

- **To apply what was heard**

When the brain is calm and stops noticing the things with which it agrees or disagrees, a higher level of listening is achieved. At this level the information, what is heard is perceived as something which can be used and applied. The listener can ask the question "What does this piece of information means to me?" or "How can this which I am hearing be useful to me?", or "What coincides from what I hear?"

- **To understand**

At this level we listen to understand. Our attention is completely in the present moment trying to hear not only everything that is said but also to catch the elusive elements of the communication, those beyond the words, the hidden meaning.

Main Instruments and Rules for Good Listening

- **Limit or stop your own talking** – you cannot listen if you are talking. Do not take the silence necessarily for attention. If your interlocutor is silent this does not mean that they are necessarily listening. They can be absorbed in their own thoughts.
- **Pay full attention to your interlocutor** – make the speaker feel at ease. Help them feel free to share.
- **Show to the speaker that you want to listen** – show with your appearance and behavior that you are interested
- **Do not get distracted and do not do something else while someone is speaking to you** – do not bang with fingers, turn pages over, etc.
- **Be patient, do not interrupt your interlocutor** – give them enough time. If you have to interrupt a serious conversation provide help afterwards to recover the broken flow of the thoughts of the speaker.
- **Clarify information** – ask clarifying questions and explain things to yourself (ex. "I am not sure that I understand well. Could you repeat?"). Paraphrase what was said. That encourages the speaker and shows them that you are listening.
- **Don't ask too many questions** – the big number of questions bothers the speaker, takes out the initiative from them and puts them in a defensive position.

Four mistakes that creates inequality in the group

1. **Emotional** – giving importance to a certain person
2. **Informational** – more information given to a certain person.
3. **Behavioral** – more attention given to those whom we like.
4. **Quantity of feedback** – permanent positive feedback given to a preferred person.

- **Give yourself an account about the feelings of the interlocutor** – put yourself in their shoes, to see their point of view. Show compassion to the speaker. When you listen to an over-excited interlocutor, reflect their emotional condition without falling under the influence of their feelings. Otherwise you can miss the meaning of the message.
- **Maintain eye contact.**
- **Pay attention to the non-verbal communication**
- **Open your consciousness and neglect your prejudices** – do not hurry into conclusions and evaluations. They are a barrier for the meaningful communication.
- **Limit or stop your own talking** – you cannot listen if you are talking. This is the first and the last rule because all of the others depend on it.

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Giving and receiving feedback

Elements of effective feedback

- It is something specific, not general
- The attention is drawn towards the behavior not towards the person
- Takes into account the needs of the listener
- It is directed towards behavior which can be controlled by the listener
- It is more stimulating than imposed
- Includes information sharing not giving of advice
- Includes as much information as can be useful to the listeners
- Refers to what was said and done and not to why it happened

Giving Feedback

- Focus your attention to the behavior not to the personality. Refer to the actions of the person and not to your idea about him/her.
- Give feedback on observation not on interpretations and conclusions. Describe in which way the observed behavior influenced you.
- Give feedback with descriptions not with evaluations.
- Use feedback to share ideas and information instead of giving advice. Leave the person to choose whether to change or not.
- Focus on the benefit for the receiver and not on the relief of the person who gives the feedback
- Begin your sentence with "I" when you give feedback. If possible ask the people to evaluate themselves first and then give them your feedback.

Tips & Tricks



Guidelines for formulating feedback

1. I felt / I saw / I observed... that you... (*facts, specific behavior*)
2. For me / I felt / I think ... (*feelings, thoughts, impressions*)
3. I would have done differently / Next time could improve / I think you might be more effective if ... (*suggestions; improvements*).

Receiving Feedback

- The feedback is an opportunity to learn and develop.
- I accept my emotions. I avoid emotions which stop me from listening to the others.
- I avoid defending and making excuses. I listen, ask, paraphrase to make sure that I understood.
- If I do not understand I ask how my behavior was accepted. In reality it could have been understood in a very different way than the one I wanted.
- I am thankful to people who give me feedback.

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How to deal with disruptive behaviour

Too talkative – well informed, too impatient, willingness to direct discussion:

- Avoid sarcasm
- Make them slow down with a challenging/provocative question
- Leave the group to exercise control
- Interrupt them with the following: "This is an interesting position. Let's see what the others think"

Strong arguments – martial person, shows good sense for the topic, shows impatience:

- Avoid that the person gets put in the corner, try to find something new and important in the words of the participant
- Try to stimulate the others to express some opinion and to continue onward
- Explain that there is no problem if common agreement is not reached
- Talk in private with the participant, understand if there is a problem and try to solve it

Fast reactions and excessive helpfulness – they can help you but can exclude the others from active participation:

- Stop them tactfully by asking questions to the others
- Thanks the participant and suggest "to give something to do to the others as well"
- Use them to summarize
- Use non-verbal methods to stop them

Interpersonal clashes – two or more participants are engaged in interpersonal conflict in order to control or to impose their opinion:

- Suggest some position of mutual agreement
- Redirect the attention to the agenda or the goals

Tips & Tricks



General techniques

- Make a short pause before reacting.
- If someone pushes you don't push back.
- Ask questions containing "What?" and "How?".
Restrain yourself from asking "Why?"
- Use and encourage sentences beginning with "I".
- Describe behavior but do not make judgements.
- Check if the others understand what the conversation is about.

- Include a neutral participant in the discussion "Bill, what do you think about...?"
- Remind about following the general rules (without personal attacks, mutual respect), tell them that you will exclude them from the discussion

Absent-mindedness – lack of ability to concentrate on the problem and to extract conclusions:

- Thank the participant and continue
- Smile and say that the position is interesting and give a hint that in this way you are "turning a bit from the initial plan"
- Remind that the time is limited and you still have lots of things to do

Stubborn – conflict personality, loaded with prejudices, relentless:

- Throw the opinion of the participant to the group
- Suggest to discuss the question later
- Suggest to the participant to accept for a moment the position of the group

Moaning – tries to get pampered and always have something to complain about:

- Make participants react "Betty, how would you react?"
- Remind that the time is limited "Can we continue?"
- Suggest that you will discuss it latter

Side conversations – can be related to the topic or can be personal:

- Turn to one of them by name and ask some simple question
- Turn to one of them repeating the last opinion they expressed and ask them what they think about the topic
- Get closer pretending it is unintentionally and without making it too obvious position yourself in the personal space of the people talking

Not too expressive – is not capable of expressing clearly their thoughts with words:

- Say "Let me try to repeat what I heard you say". Try not to change the initial idea

Wrong comment – wrong understanding of the topic of conversation:

- Approach carefully, try not to put them in an uncomfortable situation. Suggest "I understand your position, can we combine it with...?"
- Paraphrase the question

Tips & Tricks



Effective questions...

- ☞ Give chances to the others to discover the answers on their own.
- ☞ Are asked with the idea that the person who is asked knows the answer
 - ☞ Are open and therefore cannot be answered with only "yes" or "no"
 - ☞ Create positive attitude, self-respect and trust in the others
 - ☞ Do not give to the others our answers as they may not like them.
- ☞ Do not judge whether something is right or wrong but extract answers which are appropriate for the moment.
 - ☞ Do not contain hidden threat.
- ☞ Lead to answers which are neither better nor worse than the others but are just correct for the individual in that moment.

Asks about your opinion – can be trying to provoke you or completely honestly wants you to get involved:

- Avoid to solve the problems of the group in general and never take sides
- Choose some other member of the group to answer
- Say "I have an opinion but prefer not to share it because I do not want to influence the group"

Refuses to participate – is bored, feels insecure or thinks that they are on a higher level/better than the others:

- Try to wake up some interest by asking them about their opinion
- Point out someone who is closer to that person and make them talk
- Express gratitude for their contribution when they get involved in the discussion.

Ask yourself

- ☞ What roles have you observed in a group with which you work?
- ☞ How can you encourage group members to take more responsibility for dealing with disruptive behaviour?
- ☞ How can more encouraging behaviour be developed?
- ☞ How do you deal with disruptive behaviour in a group?



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Very often in practice the trainer has to work (prepare, conduct and report trainings) in a team with other trainers (co-trainers). The ability to be an effective and full member of such team is one of the founding competences of each trainer.

Advantages of team work

- Distribution of responsibilities
- Gives opportunity for joint preparation, mutual evaluation and feedback
- Enriches the learning of participants with diverse expertise and experience
- Allows exchange of skills, resources and energy between the members of the team
- Ensures space for development of the not-so-experienced trainers

Disadvantages of team work

- More time is used for joint preparation and feedback
- Lack of balance in the relationship with the group (some of the colleagues can get along better with the participants)
- Lack of balance in the relationship within the team (one of the trainers may dominate)

The ideal option is when the skills of the trainer are at a level where they allow them to work in a team with everyone, no matter the conditions. This is a very rare skill. Consider taking my advice "Choose to work with people with values similar to yours". When you know your team make sure that everyone participates equally in the preparation. Make sure that everyone is informed at each stage what is going on and can participate in the decision making. Make the preparations together, decide together who is going to prepare a certain session and who will lead each session. Make it in a way that there is a balanced distribution of the sessions between everyone in the team – this creates a sense of equity of the trainers in the eyes of the students.

The preliminary agreement about the tasks of other trainers while one of them is leading a session is of big importance. Decide if they have to leave the hall or stay, to take part as participants or to observe, to get involved with comments or not. Choose a procedure about the cases when a member of the team wants to interrupt or comment while another one leads (ex. To support a statement with an example, to add something omitted, to share different experiences, etc.).

My personal preferences while I lead a session are that my colleagues stay in the room, take notes, help me with the technical elements (materials, projector, music, etc.). They can join with comments and conclusions about the session, interrupt me or ask me to comment only when it is very important about the process and as a conclusion.

The work with a co-trainer is an unreplaceable tool when talking about self-improvement and development. The opportunity to have someone to observe, take notes during a training session which you lead is the most effective instrument for fast growing. You can agree in advance which elements of your performance should be observed by your colleague and you can rely completely on their experience. After the end of the day make team meetings and discuss your notes and observations. Follow the rules for feedback and effective communication. Help each other with the best feelings of friendship. Plan your future session having in mind the comments discussed.

Ask yourself

Are you a team-player?

- ☉ Are you confident about your partner's facilitation and group work skills?
- ☉ Do you have a clear understanding of roles and responsibilities?
- ☉ What are your partner unique skills and experience that will benefit the group process and learning?
- ☉ Do you co-operate efficiently at the discussing and planning stages?
- ☉ What works well between you?
- ☉ What doesn't work well between you?
- ☉ How can you solve these difficulties?
- ☉ Do you feel safe about giving feedback on your performance and that of your colleague? If not, why not?



The Art of Co-Working

(Nik Paddison)

I have spent a lot of time working with trainers and youth workers in the last years, conducting observations of their work, group mentoring sessions, supervision and support work. Something I have noticed is the difficulty many people have in working with other people. There seems to be an inbuilt assumption that by sticking youth workers or trainers in the same room as each other they will do what they do, and do it well. In reality the opposite is often true.

Co-working is something that as youth workers and or trainers in the youth field we often take for granted. We rarely work alone, and over the course of time we work with quite a large number of different people. Yet each one of these people has a different character and temperament, attitude and belief, a different understanding of professionalism and different ways of working. Working with another human being is actually quite a complex thing.

As a youth worker and trainer I like to develop a group contract / working agreement with groups. Rarely in my past did I give the same consideration to the people with whom I was co-working. 'We are professionals', 'we don't need to think about this kind of thing', 'surely good co-working is automatic', 'we will just work and it will be great'.

As a participant and as a trainer I have experienced the trainer team on a seminar or training working long into the night, every night. Huddled in a backroom somewhere away from the participants, fighting and arguing, talking in circles, and trying to find solutions to this or that problem! Sometimes it's a tough seminar or a tough group but often it is because the team has not actually considered who they are co-working with, regardless of whether they are friends or not, in reality they are professional strangers.

As much as it is important to get a group to work together it is equally important, perhaps even more so, for the people delivering the training to be able to work together. We are coming from different organisations, countries, cultures, gender, ability, experience, and so on... We need to build our relationships, to get to know the other worker(s) professionally.

We need to challenge our assumptions and discover who we are working with and try to understand how we actually operate ourselves.

Below is a selection of questions from a questionnaire I developed at Triagolnik – Centre for Non-Formal Education, Macedonia. I took and adapted the questions from different sources, and this list is being used at the beginning of every new co-working relationship in Triagolnik, both for youth workers and trainers.

- How do you deal with excessive talkers?
- How do you feel about long periods of silence in a group?
- What do you do when strong emotions are expressed?
- What do you do when someone comes in late?
- I would like to learn more about... ..during this training
- Are you more nurturing or confronting in style?
- What is not negotiable for you as a co-worker?
- My signal to ask for my co-worker's help is...

This is just a short selection, there are many others and in reality the type of questions need to reflect your own organisation or type of work. The process of asking ourselves these kinds of questions about our individual working methods raises our consciousness about what we do and how we do it. The next step would be to share your answers with your coworker(s) and explore how you work. Let's not kid ourselves, we will still get into conflict and have problems from time to time with our co-workers but at least we stand a better chance of being able to deal constructively with the difficulties that arise during our work together.

The following Model does not give answers to all the above issues about co-working, it is a model that highlights some of the most common mistakes that are made among co-workers. It is designed to help us be self-critical of how we are working with our colleagues and it provides an opportunity to explore how they are working with us. It is a tool for reflecting on the quality of our working relationships and can be used to discover what we sometimes do wrong. Although originally designed for teaching and training staff who work in pairs it was later also used by youth workers. It is also applicable for groups of co-workers and can be adapted to probably any work environment.

Co-Working Models©

Created and Developed by Nik Paddison 2009

The Model below is written in the context of a pair of co-workers in the context of conducting training:

Working in Parallel

This is where the co-workers are aiming in the same direction doing all



the right things but there is a lack of open and honest communication between them. They have a surface level working relationship. The level and quality of their training is based on what we might call «head knowledge» but there is little or no emotional connection in this relationship. It can also be a sign of poor preparation, neither is completely sure of where the other is going because the training programme has not been developed enough between them or talked through in enough detail.

Typically what I have witnessed here is the trainers each carefully preparing their part of the programme independently of the other. When they come to the actual training, the first introduces an activity or theory, it is effective and achieves what it needs to. The second trainer facilitates the next hour of the session, again it is effective and achieves what it needs to. But there is no link between the first part and the second part, except that it is to the same group, on the same day and fits within the overall training subject. The specific topic has just jumped from one aspect to another. There is no flow or rhythm for the group to follow, they receive information on each part but it is not linked and so it is for them to make the connection – which in reality rarely happens!

Working in Conflict

Here there is a conflict between the co-workers; there is a relationship breakdown and therefore a

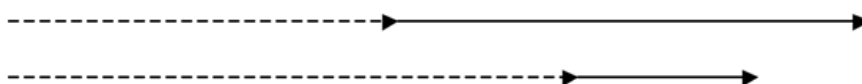


communication breakdown. Neither has confidence or trust in the other. Each trainer is focussing on the work of the other; what mistakes are they making? What are they doing wrong? 'I could do that better...' It is difficult to hide any conflict between co-workers from a group however subtle the conflict. It directly affects the quality of the training and if not quickly resolved will influence the nature and ability of the group to develop and learn.

I was in a trainer team some years ago where two co-workers were in conflict. Both had very different but strong personalities. In front of the group they acted professionally, but behind the scenes, they were in open war. Each one was sure that they were right and the better trainer. Every team meeting lasted for hours and hours because they would not listen to each other, they had no concept of communication in each other's company. On the surface this did not affect the participants but it did affect the quality of the training. All the trainer team had to endure this conflict and the long meetings were focussed on these two and not the participants or the programme.

Working in Competition

In this context one or both co-workers do not believe in or accept the abilities of the other. Each is striving to be the lead

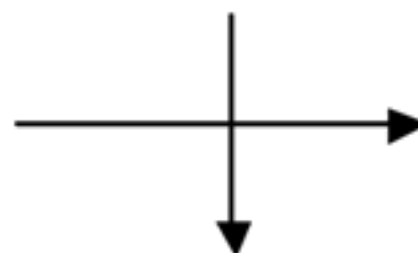


worker and to show the group, themselves or the other, who is the better trainer. As one does something «amazing», so the other responds with something more «amazing» and so on... The focus of the trainers is on the self and being better than the other, not on the development of the group. This is not necessarily on a conscious level, from my observation it is usually happening without the individuals being aware of what they are doing.

This is perhaps the model I have observed the most over the years. It is especially common with those of us with big egos. One trainer I worked with was constantly looking for bigger and better ways of presenting activities to the group. It seemed at times that the most important thing for him was to be the most popular trainer with the group, it did not seem to matter about the quality of the training. This was not done consciously, yet whatever his colleagues did he had to go one step further, do it bigger and better, and be more creative and energetic. The training became a competition of personalities, rather than a development and learning of the subject.

Working at Cross Purposes

Working at cross purposes means "to misunderstand or to act counter to one another without intending it" (Webster's Dictionary). There is a lack of communication between the coworkers. The trainers have witnessed a situation or incident and each tries to resolve it in their own way but without understanding what the other is trying to do. Both trainers know where they want to go but assume the other will just follow or is thinking in the same way.



Another aspect of this is when the trainers are attending to a number of small

groups and each trainer is giving slightly different or even contradictory information to each group. One trainer gives the instructions for an activity and splits the participants into small groups. The second trainer then floats among the small groups unconsciously giving contradictory instructions. The first trainer is also floating and continues to give his or her original instructions. Confusion is created and the trainers and the group have to sort it all out in order to complete the activity. While this does not have catastrophic effects on the participants and they are able to complete the task, the quality of what they achieve is poor and not what it could be.

Working in Shadow

This example sees one co-worker far more experienced than the other. It does not show the experienced supporting the inexperienced, instead it



shows the experienced trainer dominating all aspects of the work. This includes preparation and actual training time. The experienced trainer is very visible and the inexperienced is either not visible or is overshadowed in all they do. The role of the experienced should be to support the inexperienced in trying new things and gaining valuable experience.

I was observing a colleague trainer working once in this kind of scenario. There were just two trainers. The more experienced trainer totally dominated the session, her co-worker might as well not have been there. He was virtually invisible, his parts of the session were not only minimal but also overshadowed by her greater experience and larger than life personality. He sat next to the flipchart making little or no effort to engage himself in the process or the group. She on the other hand was unstoppable, she was totally immersed with the process and engaged with the group. It did not occur to her for a moment that she had totally excluded her co-worker or that she had a responsibility toward his development.

Working as a Rescuer

This scenario is very similar to 'Working in Shadow'. The difference here is that one of the trainers is constantly stepping in



to rescue the other trainer, whether they need it or not. Each time one of the co-workers starts to explain an exercise or deliver a theory the other co-worker steps in. They do this either during the explanation or they repeat in their own words afterwards what was said by the first trainer. There is no cooperation here but it is not competition, it is a lack of trust or the ego of one trainer preventing the other from being able to do anything effectively.

I experienced this with a colleague some years ago. Her approach to the work was much more process oriented while at the time I was more task based. We had divided the week of training between us, each had his or her own part. Each time it was my session I would introduce the activity, we would go through it and then arrive at a discussion or debrief. And without fail, each time as I was facilitating she would add something and then suddenly she was facilitating the discussion and I was excluded to the sidelines. Each time she thought I was struggling with the discussion and knew that she could handle it better so she stepped in and rescued. Through some good discussion between us after a couple of sessions we were able to resolve the situation.

However it should be noted that a Rescuer can be a positive model as well. If one of the trainers is having problems facilitating a discussion or delivering a theory or an exercise, they need someone to step in and take over for a moment. The positive model will take over, but when they see their co-worker is OK or get a signal that the co-worker wants to continue, they give back the lead as appropriate.

Working with a Wanderer

In this scenario the trainer is alone and unsupported by their co-worker. One of the trainers is delivering a theory or instructions for an exercise and their co-worker has disappeared. Sometimes this



means the co-worker's concentration is somewhere else, staring out of the window or thinking about dinner. Sometimes this means the co-worker physically removes themselves and is off somewhere, for example; preparing materials for another exercise but still within the training space. In either case the majority of the group becomes attracted to the distraction created by the co-worker rather than what the primary trainer is doing at that moment.

I think this is one of the most frustrating of the Models for me. I was supporting a dialogue day and had completed my part of the session, I was now sitting as a member of the group. One facilitator was introducing some important aspects concerning the development of national youth policy. Her colleague – who was also sat in the circle with the group – suddenly got up walked across the circle to go behind where the participants were sat. She then proceeded to arrange chairs, tables and materials in the background, walking here and there across the room.

Working Together

Working together is a constructive and positive working relationship that will



include small conflicts and it will include a little co-worker competition – but on healthy levels and even – sometimes – the rescuer. This relationship is about working together with strong communication, verbal and non-verbal, and a willingness to understand the other. It is about respect for the work of the other, a desire to see the other develop, an openness to ask for help and offer support, analysing the session together, problem-solving together, willingness to give and receive open and honest feedback, developing the programme and activities in close cooperation and so on...

Since I first used this Model in a training in February I have heard several colleagues referring to it. One colleague remarked that she used it to analyse what was wrong with her co-working relationship on a course she was conducting; she worked out that she was 'working in parallel'. Through reflecting on the Model she and her co-worker were able to make the necessary changes and developed their co-working relationship constructively and thereby the quality of their work. Another colleague explained to me how she used the Model in the preparation phase when working with someone she had never worked with before. They used it to raise their awareness of the potential problems they might face as new coworkers during the training. As they started to work together by referring to the Model they were able to identify the negative approaches they were using and quickly through discussion adjust their approach to each other. They had a very successful training. There are many ways in which we work together, in pairs or in teams, this Model does not explore every difficulty that could be experienced but covers some of the most common issues faced. Most of the time we do not think about how we are going to work with other people, we just assume that we can and that there will not be problems. In reality we have to work at our working relationships as much as personal relationships and be constantly aware of the issues as they arise. This Model can be used as a reminder of the things we tend to do that are wrong, that work against good co-working relationships. The Model can help better the work we do with our co-workers and therefore the quality of the work we deliver to our participants.

References: Questions and statements are adapted from - Younger, R. Wade. The Art of Training: Co-Facilitation. Copyrights 2005. www.fruitionpm.com

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!

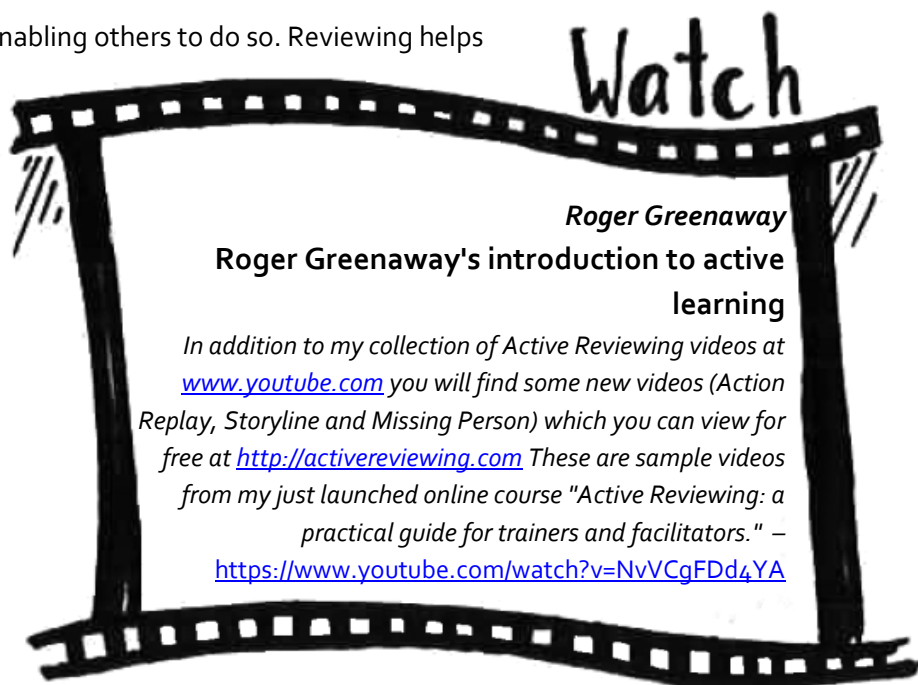
Bringing the worlds of talk and action together

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.

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.

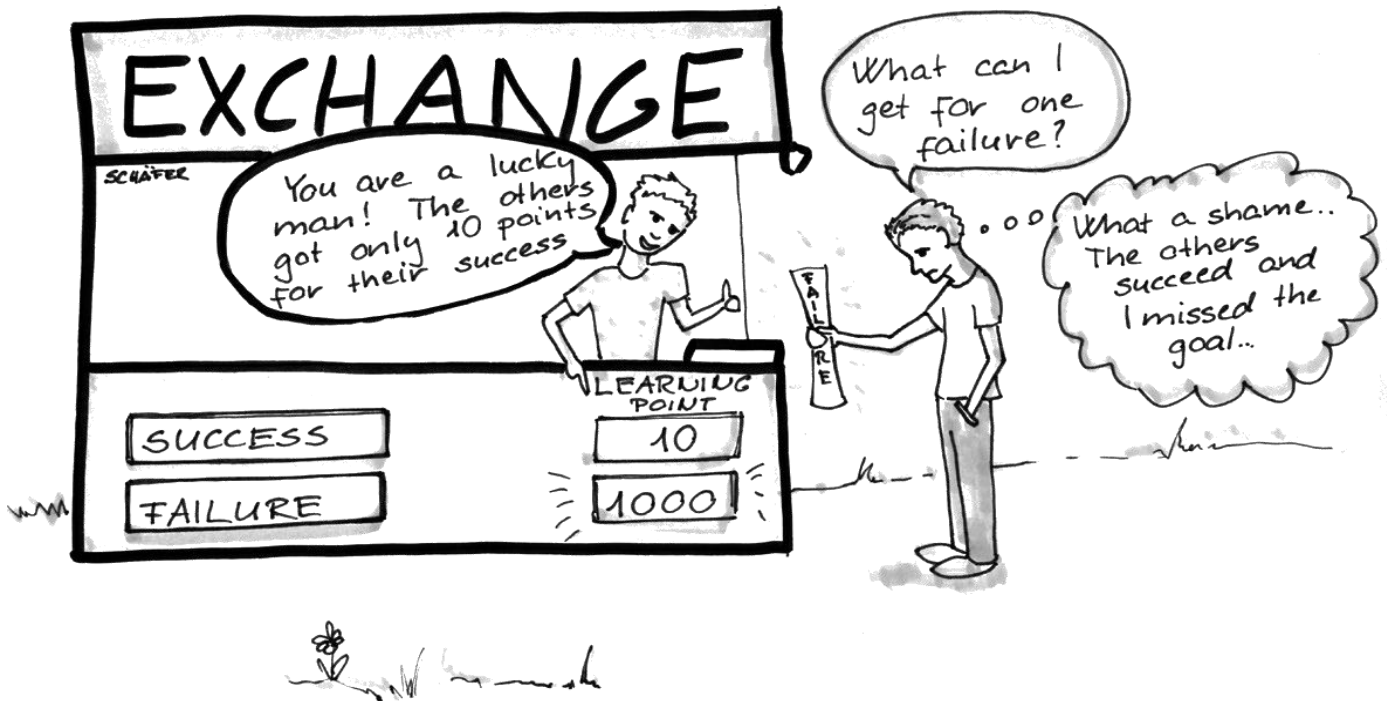
People don't learn from experience; they learn from reflecting on their experience.

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.

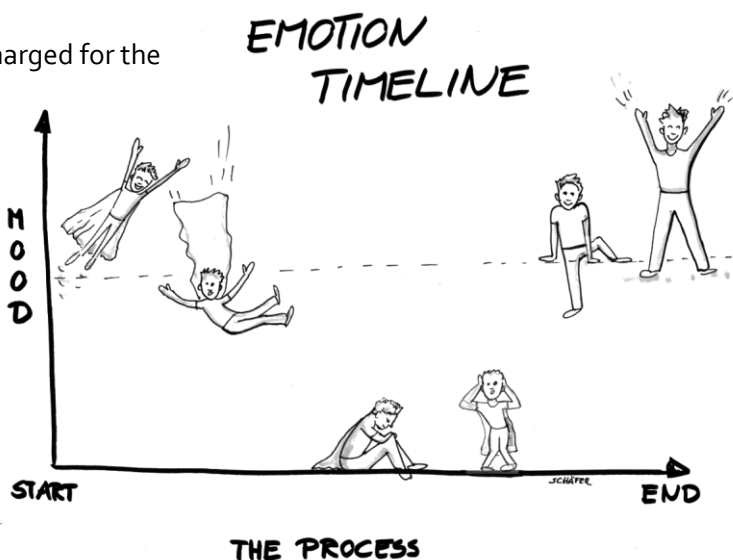
Tips & Tricks

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

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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

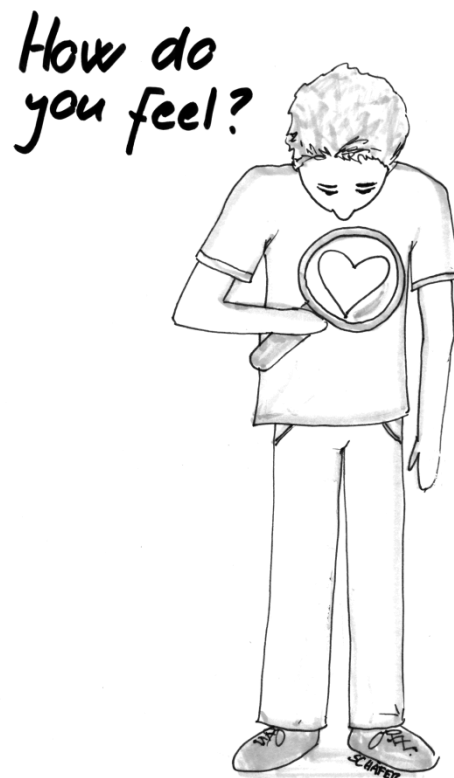
- How do you feel?
- What has happened?

Step 2: Learning

- What did you learn?
- How does this relate to the real world?

Step 3: Application

- What if?
- What next?



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:

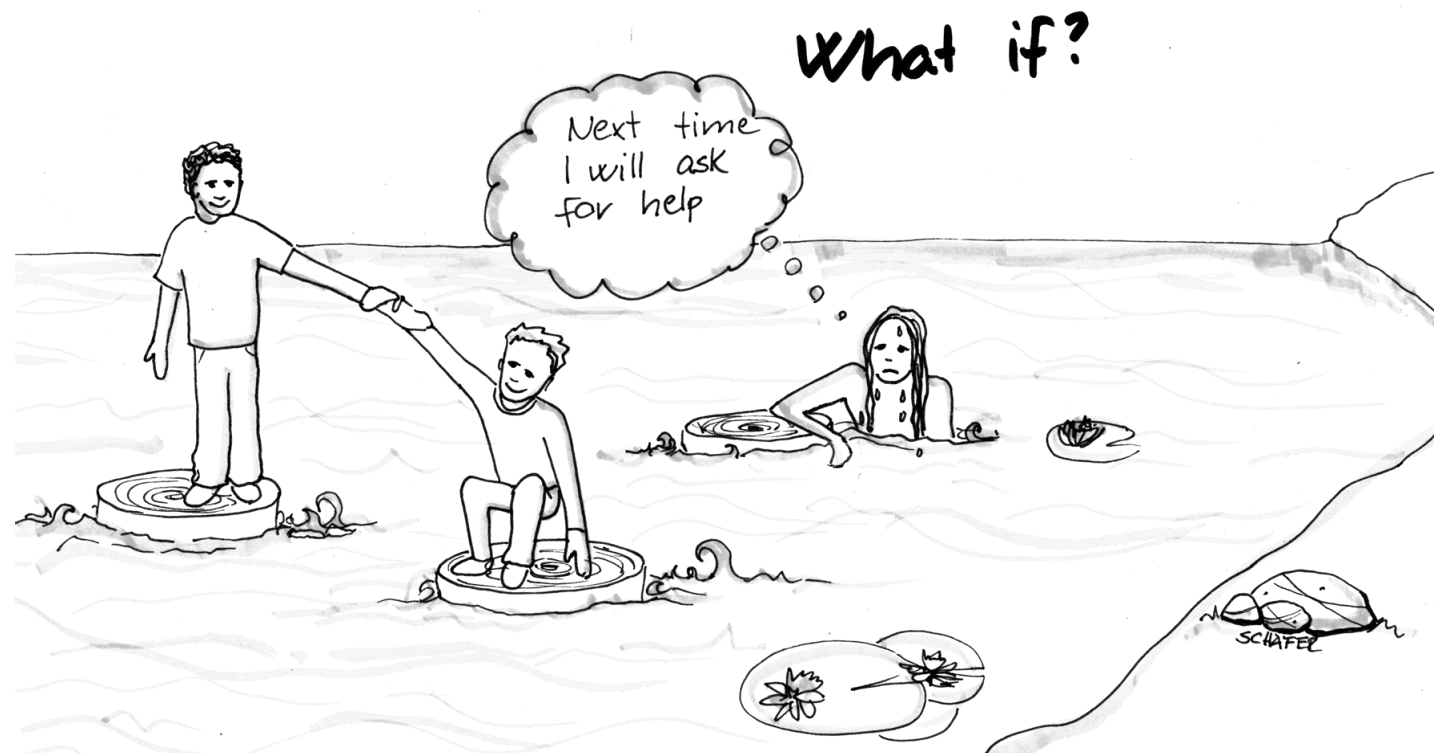
- How the learnings you listed can be in the concrete cases you collected be applied?
- If you said that you would do the exercise..... (Differently) then what should you change in your concrete cases you mentioned (and you can read on flipchart)?

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!





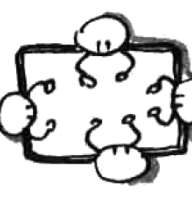

Important note for trainers or facilitators







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.

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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.

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.

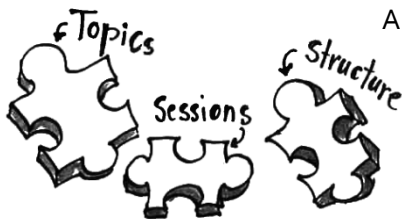
Analysis Phase

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.



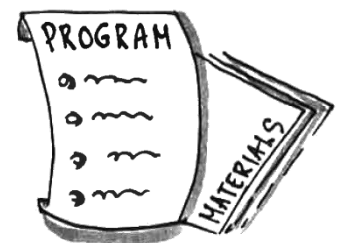
Design Phase



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.

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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

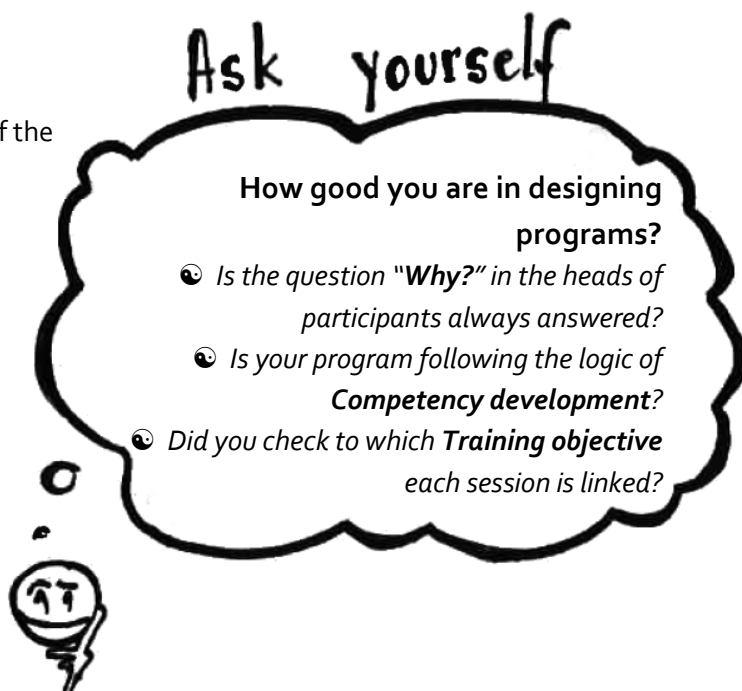
Even before the construction of the program, the training team has to have formulated training goals on two levels – general aim and objectives. The general aim is the result expected from the training as a whole. The objectives are concrete measurable elements related to the development of behaviors, 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.)

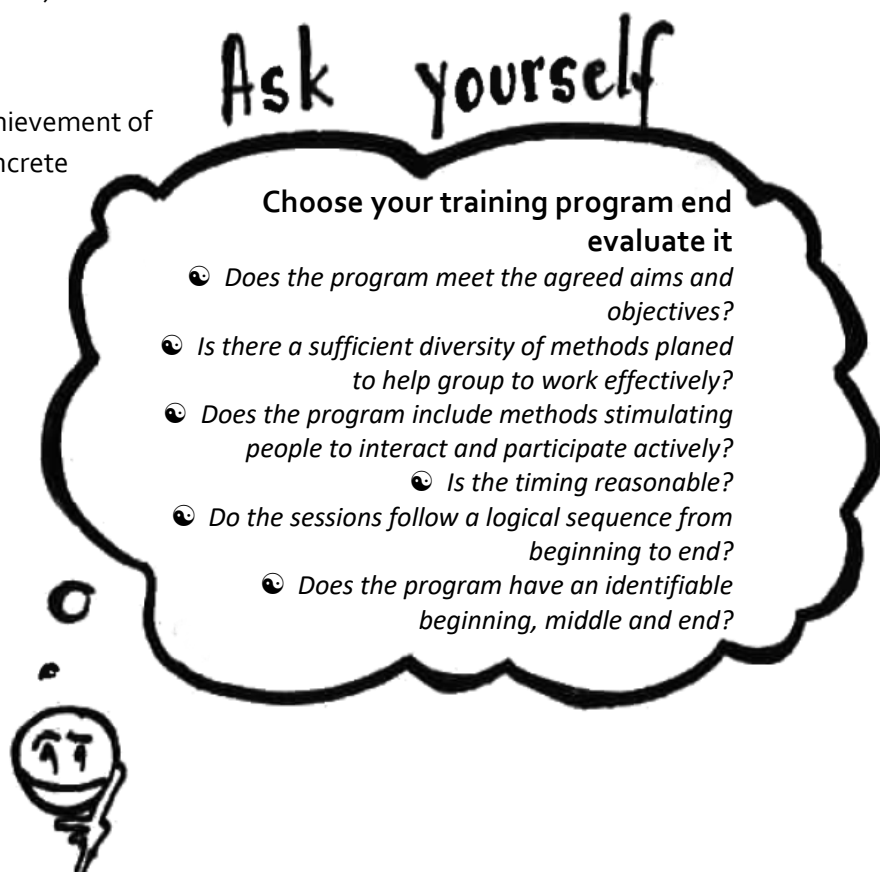
Program Flow

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.



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

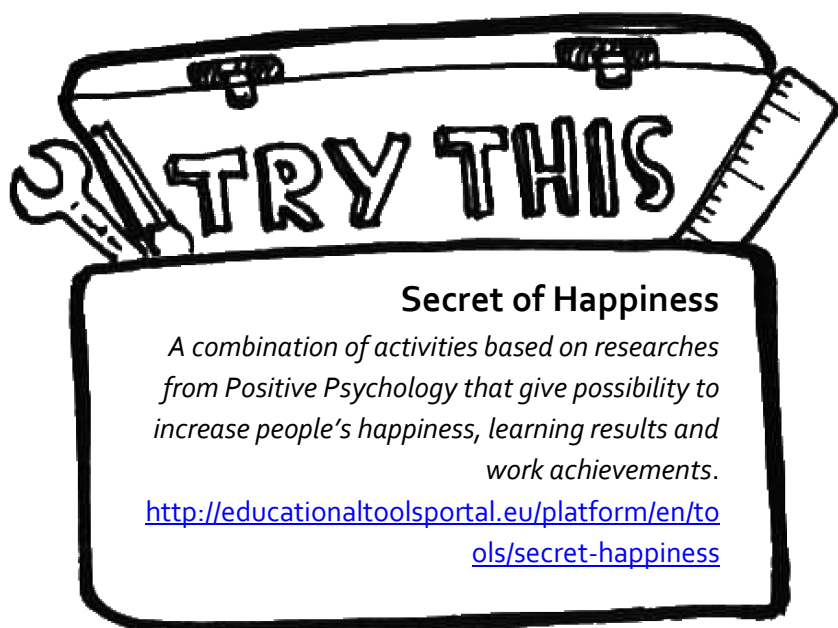
Poster that participants can write resources related to the training (books, movies, web pages etc.). The content is distributed to the group after the training.

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:

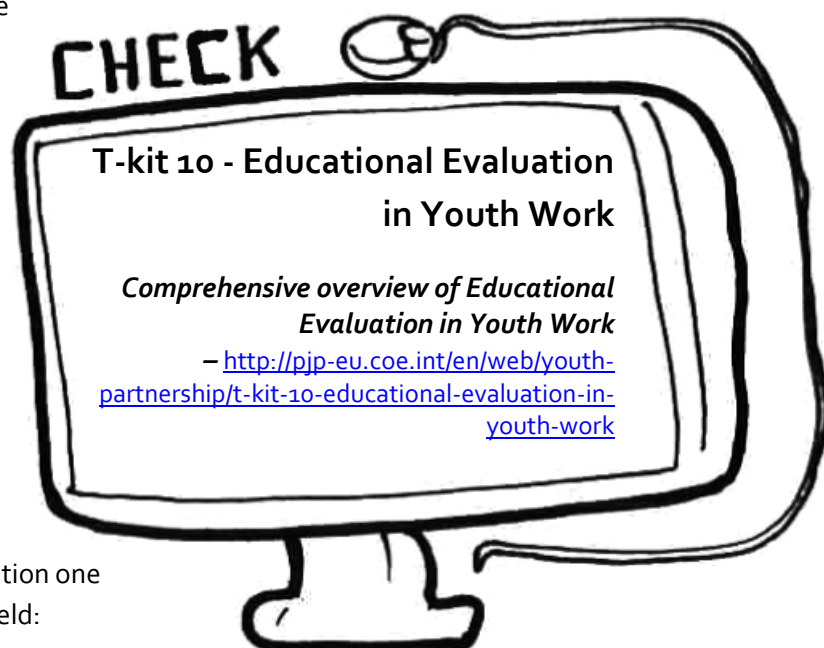
- **Try it yourself** – experience the games and the exercise before you “cause” them to someone else
- **Clear aim of the game** – make sure that you understand well the goals of each activity. If the answer to the question “Why am I playing this game?” is not related to the training/process do not 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.

Training evaluation

Many things can be said and written in relation to the evaluation of the training results and the effect from the training programs. There are many publications on the topic related to the field of youth work and other educational activities. (You can see links to some of them here)

We would like to underline the importance of evaluation of the training results and to stress on the fact that the evaluation process is an inseparable part of the preparation process, the conduction and all activities that follow in a training. Setting evaluation methods begins at the level of setting the aim and objective. During the process of formulating the training objectives we already think of ways to measure their achievement. The evaluation methods are part of the conduction of the training program itself. They measure the results on emotional and cognitive level of the participants during the training and at its end. In the following period the sustainable consecutive results of the training can be measured – confirmed behaviors, realized projects, etc.

Here we will not go into details on the topic of evaluation of the training result. We will only mention one of the most popular models used in the training field:



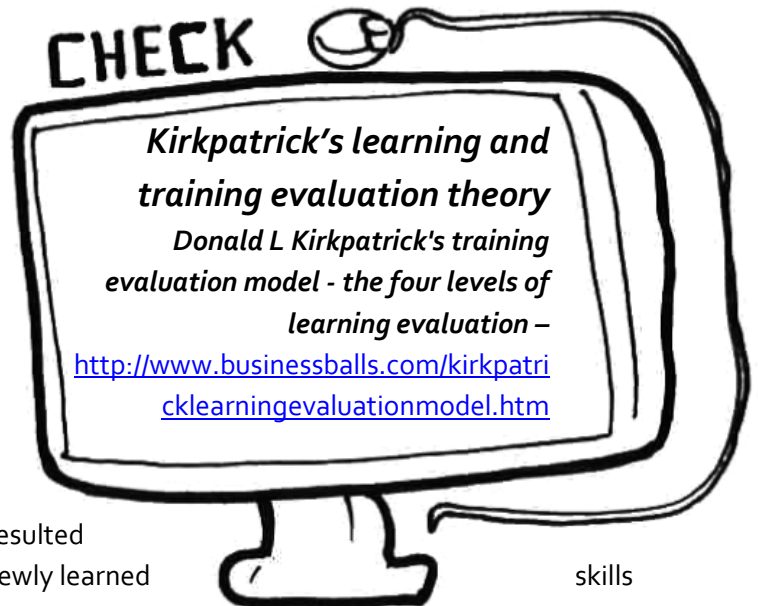
Kirkpatrick's Four Level Evaluation Model

Perhaps the best known evaluation methodology for judging learning processes is Donald Kirkpatrick's *Four Level Evaluation Model* that was first published in a series of articles in 1959 in the Journal of American Society of Training Directors (now known as T+D Magazine). The series was later compiled and published as an article, *Techniques for Evaluating Training Programs*, in a book Kirkpatrick edited, *Evaluating Training Programs* (1975). However it was not until his 1994 book was published, *Evaluating Training Programs*, that the four levels became popular. Nowadays, his four levels remain a cornerstone in the learning industry.

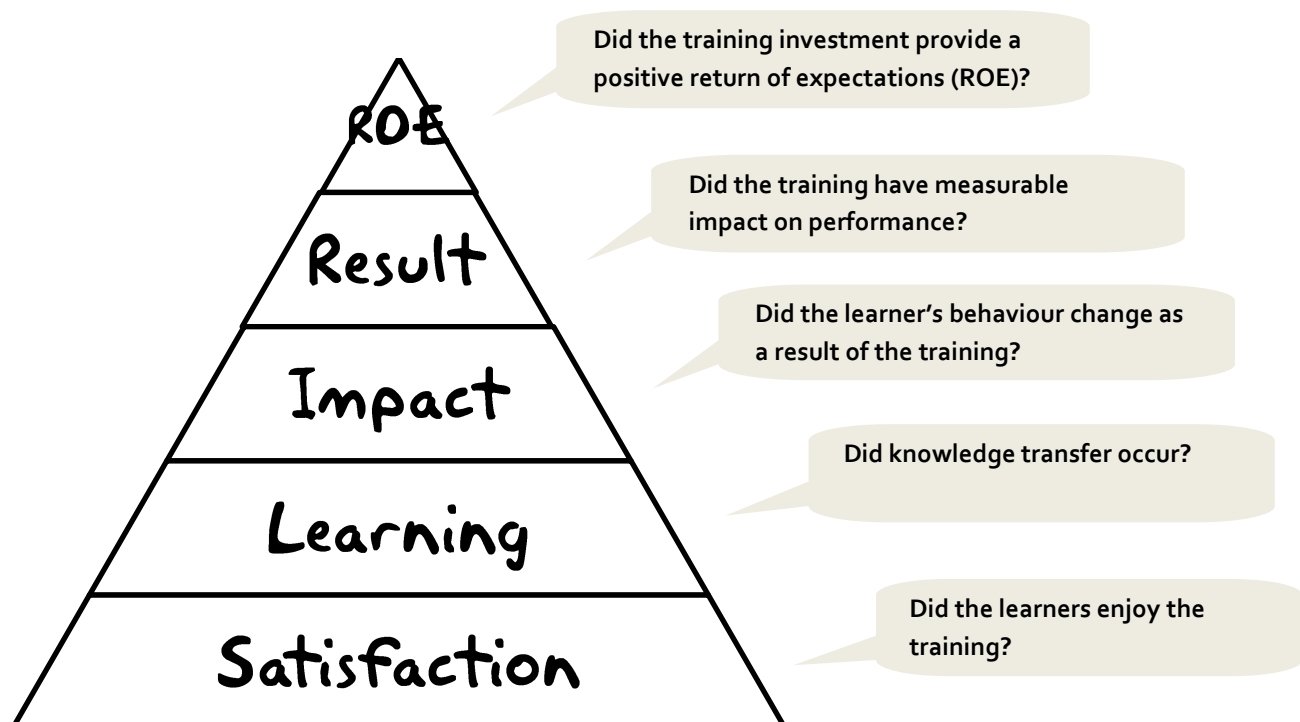
While most people refer to the four criteria for evaluating learning processes as "levels," Kirkpatrick never used that term, he normally called them "steps" (Craig, 1996). In addition, he did not call it a model, but used words such as "techniques for conducting the evaluation" (Craig, 1996, p294).

The four steps of evaluation consist of:

- Step 1: **Reaction** - How well did the learners like the learning process?
- Step 2: **Learning** - What did they learn? (the extent to which the learners gain knowledge and skills)
- Step 3: **Behavior** - (What changes in job performance resulted from the learning process? (capability to perform the newly learned while on the job)
- Step 4: **Results** - What are the tangible results of the learning process in terms of reduced cost, improved quality, increased production, efficiency, etc.?



Kirkpatrick's concept is quite important as it makes an excellent planning, evaluating, and troubleshooting tool, especially if we make some slight improvements as show below.



Tips & Tricks

Morning self-reflection

Participants spend 10 min. time alone writing answers to the following questions related to the previous day:

- 🕒 *What did I learn during the sessions?*
- 🕒 *What did I learn outside the sessions?*
- 🕒 *Which personal competencies (qualities) did I improve and how?*
- 🕒 *What did I realize about myself?*
 - 🕒 *What was missing for me?*
 - 🕒 *What do I want to learn today?*

Training aids

In this part we will pay attention to some methods related to different tools which help us in the enrichment of the learning process. We will have a look at the use of analogies, story-telling, visualizations, video, etc.

Analogies in learning

The analogy method in learning is the teaching of a new topic by connecting it with familiar information. For example, we might rely on portraying the white blood cells of our body as soldiers in our defence system. Here we use the analogy of soldiers (known information) to help teach the concept of white blood cells (new information).

How does the use of analogies help?

Using analogies is an effective strategy as learners tend to find it easier to understand a topic when trainers form connections between the new content and what has already been taught.

Imagine explaining the function of white blood cells as “the white blood cells are part of the immune system. When a germ micro organism enters the body, the cells are triggered to ingest these microorganisms through action of various enzymes.”

It is simpler to explain white blood cells as “soldiers defending our body from invading structures and instead of using bows and arrows or guns, they use enzymes.”

As we make use of analogies that are familiar to students, we increase retention and retrieval of information and thus improve and strengthen the learning process.

How does learning take place?

While using analogies, the trainer is trying to superimpose the traits or similarities of a familiar topic on to an unknown one. “It is like this” or “this is similar to...” are some examples on how we can use analogies to explain concepts. Learners who are familiar with the known information (vehicle) will try to comprehend the new information (topic) by understanding the similarities between the two. The use of analogies makes information more concrete, provides a structural framework for learning the new schema and helps in the assimilation of the new information.

Points to consider

While teaching with analogies, trainers should consider the nature and characteristics of the topic and the vehicle, their similarities and if there is more than one vehicle for a particular topic. In other words, a topic may have several analogies that will help explain it, but it is up to the trainer to choose the one that explains it best. Research tells us that learning is at its best when at least two vehicles are used to teach a topic.

Another important aspect is how you introduce the vehicle in relation to the topic. You can use the vehicle before going on to the topic (pre-topic), or talk on the topic directly and bring the vehicle in later (post topic), or intertwine the two. Using analogies creatively can greatly enhance learning and retention.

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.

Why encourage students to learn through stories?

Storytelling is a powerful and enduring means of communication that has widespread appeal. It crosses cultures and communities; in fact, many of our earliest learning experiences most likely involved stories, some told to us directly, others read and, still more, played out around us. Even before we had the ability to articulate what we knew, felt and thought, we learned to make sense of our world through stories. Although educators have always used storytelling, until recently these stories often occurred spontaneously and were not considered integral to learning and teaching activities. The perception in some quarters was that storytelling was lightweight, soft, not a real learning tool.

As a consequence, stories tended to have a narrow focus and were frequently used to:

- convey information;
- express views;
- share experiences;
- entertain;
- connect with others.

In recent years, the reflective movement has done much to advance the notion that we each carry within us creative learning capabilities. Storytelling is one of these capabilities and when it is used in thoughtful, reflective and formalised ways, significant learning is possible (Clandinin and Connelly, 1998; McDrury and Alterio, 2002; McEwan and Egan, 1995; Pendlebury, 1995; and Witherell and Nodding, 1991).

When educators support learners to share and process their practice experiences in these ways, storytelling can:

- encourage co-operative activity;
- encompass holistic perspectives;
- value emotional realities;
- link theory to practice;
- stimulate students' critical thinking skills;
- capture complexities of situations;
- reveal multiple perspectives;
- make sense of experience;
- encourage self review;
- construct new knowledge.

Storytelling is an ideal teaching and learning tool, for it takes seriously the need for students to make sense of experience, using their own culturally generated sense-making processes (Bishop and Glynn, 1999). Storytelling also has the capacity to support and enhance the relationship between students creating new knowledge and learning from others. In addition, sharing and reflectively processing stories provides students with opportunities to develop authentic relationships with their peers.

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.

Why you need to use Storytelling for Learning

(Connie Malamed)

1. Stories are the emotional glue that connects the audience to the message

Much of what people remember from a learning experience are the feelings of the underlying message rather than a multitude of small facts (which are better reserved for job aids). Stories are an important way to tap into the heart of the audience, providing a channel for conveying a deeper message based on emotion.

2. Information presentation should be constructed around a story

Any kind of presentation—whether it be online training or a live presentation—will benefit from a story construction. Organizing information into a format with a beginning (setting the stage), middle (the challenge) and ending (new reality) can work for many topics.

3. People want to know about origins

When we watch or read about a superhero, we always remember the person's origins. We know where they came from and the circumstances that created their super powers. People are defined by their origins and people are curious about where people (or fictional characters) come from, how they change and how they evolve. Include this type of information in your next story.

4. Stories reshape knowledge into something meaningful

For centuries, people have used stories to pass on knowledge. When information is embedded in the context of a story, it is transferred to a listener or reader in a unique way. According to the presenter of this session, new research shows that 70% of what we learn is consumed through storytelling.

Tips & Tricks



Personal examples and stories

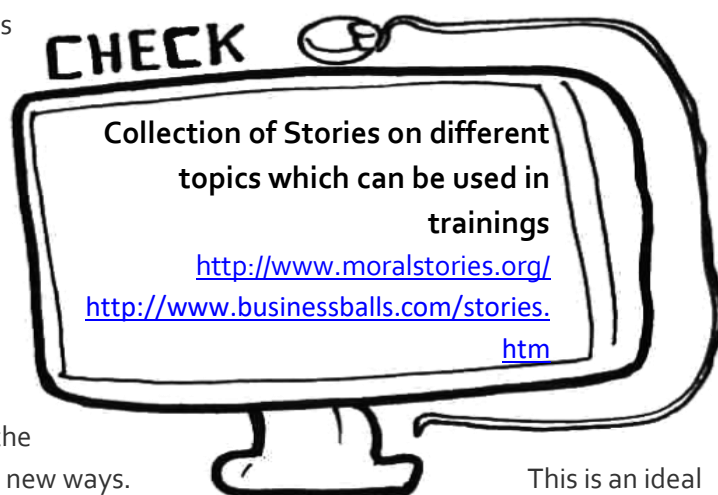
These are two very important tools in the work of the trainer. The use of PERSONAL examples give credibility to the material taught and increases the authority of the trainer. It makes the students believe in their practical experience and creates the feeling of expertise of the trainer. The examples allow us to talk on the grounds of PERSONAL EXPERIENCE and not because "this is what is written in the thick books". The stories are a very simple way to visualize abstract theoretical information. By demonstrating a theory with the help of a story in a clear picture is constructed in the brain of the student of what is described in the theoretical model.

5. Stories make people care

When you know your audience—their pains, frustrations and joys—your stories can reflect their emotions and experiences. As learners begin to see themselves in the story and begin to identify with it, they start to care. Nancy Duarte, author of *Resonate*, states that a story serves as a moment of emotional appeal.

6. Stories transcend one's current environment

Good storytelling can transport learners out of their stuffy meeting rooms and offices into an adventurous world away from the workplace. In this altered reality, the mind becomes more open to perceiving and thinking in new ways. This is an ideal position from which to learn.



7. Stories are motivating

Stories can motivate an audience toward a learning goal. They are ideal for attitudinal training because when an audience is motivated, they no longer need to be persuaded. An encouraging story will inspire someone to take action.

8. People take time for stories

Have you ever noticed that even the busiest of people will stop to listen to someone's story or to tell one of their own? Stories are why people are drawn to novels and movies and gossip magazines. If you want to maintain an audience's attention, you're more likely to do it through storytelling.

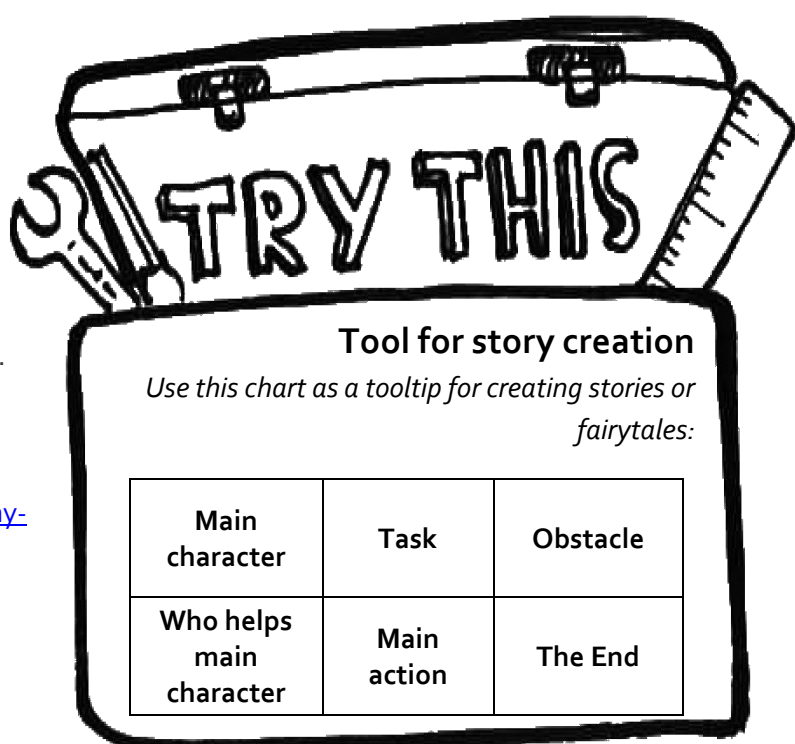
9. Stories are more likely to be shared

Because we are so attuned to stories, people love to share them. They are like hooks that draw people in as they are passed from one person to the next. If you have any doubts, check out the thousands of [Facebook Stories](#). This is where people share how they use Facebook and the meaning it has in their life. Do you need to spread the word about something? Put it in a story and see if it gets shared.

10. Stories give meaning to data

Many people perceive data as meaningless numbers. This happens when the data is disconnected from anything important in their experience. But when the data is placed in the context of a story, it comes alive. One of the most well-known examples of this is Hans Roling's presentation (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jbkSRLYSojo>). If you haven't seen it yet, take the four minutes to watch.

Source: <http://theelearningcoach.com/elearning2-o/why-you-need-to-use-storytelling-for-learning/>



Seven Ways to Use Visuals as Teaching Tools

A visual image in the hand of an artist is merely a tool to trigger a mental image.

Roy H. Williams

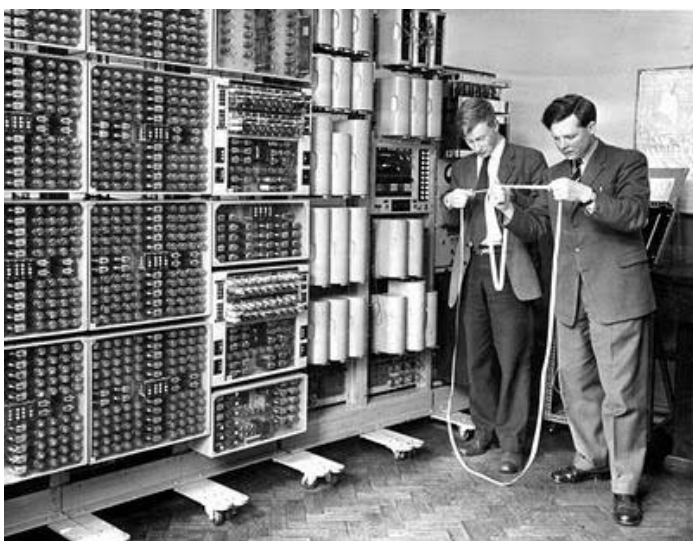
Visuals can be a very powerful teaching tool. Teachers can use visuals to strategically engage, inspire and educate their students to create a very fun and exciting experience.

If you don't have the technology such as a digital projector or a document camera, printing pictures and handing them to students can be just as effective. Sometimes I print a collection of pictures, put them in an envelope, and give them to students to organize into categories of their choice. This teaching strategy encourages the students to use higher level thinking such as synthesis, evaluation, and justification (see Taxonomy of educational objectives) in order to sort the pictures into specific groups.

My point is, there are lots of different ideas to integrate visuals into your instruction. Below are some of my favourite ways that I use visuals in my classroom:

1. to tell a story of a particular person or event
2. to spark a conversation
3. to stimulate inquiry
4. to reach visual learners
5. to reach struggling readers
6. as an assessment
7. for higher level thinking such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation

I am going to provide you with an example of how I use visuals in my classroom. I am going to be modelling the teaching strategy, *Picture-Based Learning*, using a teacher guide provided by the [Library of Congress](http://www.loc.gov/rr/education/pbl/). Picture-Based Learning is great for stimulating inquiry. I would display this picture to my students and have them observe, reflect, question and investigate the visual in their groups.



*Wired.com: <http://tinyurl.com/lccdmb>

Observe: Have students identify and note details

- What do you notice first?
- Find something small but interesting
- What do you notice that you didn't expect?
- What do you notice that you can't explain?
- What do you notice now that you didn't earlier?

Reflect: Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the source.

- Where do you think this came from?
- Why do you think somebody made this?
- What do you think was happening when this was made?
- Who do you think was the audience for this item?
- What tool was used to create this?
- Why do you think this item is important?
- If someone made this today, what would be different?
- What can you learn from examining this?

Question: Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.

- What do you wonder about ...
- Who?
- What?
- When?
- Where?
- Why?
- How?

Source (adapted from): Author - [Bradley Lands](https://www.thelandscapoflearning.com/2011/12/how-to-use-visuals-as-teaching-tools.html); *The Landscape of Learning* -
<http://www.thelandscapoflearning.com/2011/12/how-to-use-visuals-as-teaching-tools.html>;

Teaching with Visual Aids

A picture is worth a thousand words.

Keeping students motivated and actively engaged in their classes can be a challenging task. However, there are some simple strategies we can use to help enhance our students' interest and keep them involved. By using visual stimuli we are more likely to maintain student attention and encourage active participation. We can also cater for **different learning styles**.

In this month's issue we look at three different types of visual resources:

- **Cartoons**
- **Drawings**
- **Online audio/video (AV) resources**

Using cartoons

Using humour in class is a 'valuable teaching tool for establishing a classroom climate conducive to learning' (Kher,1999). One way of introducing humour into our classes is by using cartoons.

There are a number of benefits to using cartoons in teaching because they can:

- motivate students to engage with the lesson's teaching point
- arouse interest in a particular idea or topic
- grab and maintain attention
- strengthen analytical and critical thinking skills
- give an insight into the world around us and help students think 'outside the box'
- encourage students to use their imagination
- help interpret meaning that is otherwise difficult to explain
- make students laugh and smile, which can relieve their stress and anxiety
- help teachers build a closer rapport with their students by being able to laugh together
- help students retain information through a visual and memorable stimulus



How to use cartoons

Let's take this cartoon as an example. It can be used:

- as a warmer or icebreaker to the lesson/lecture
- as an energizer to change focus
- to initiate classroom discussion and debate about the ethical issues involved in scientific research
- to introduce a new concept or to reinforce a suitable teaching point e.g. researchers must not be biased

You can also get students to:

- create their own captions from suitable cartoons
- match captions with a selection of cartoons
- analyze the language in the captions
- analyze different cultural and/or social behaviour
- reflect on current events

Where can I find suitable cartoons?

There are a large number of professional cartoon sites available online that provide cartoons for educational purposes. Not all are copyright free so make sure you understand the relevant terms and conditions.

<http://www.benitaepstein.com/index.html>

<http://www.sciencecartoonsplus.com/pages/gallery.php>

<http://www.cagle.com/teacher/>

http://www.cartoonstock.com/directory/h/higher_education.asp

Using drawings

Dr. Olivia Leung from the Department of Accountancy shares with us how she uses drawings with her students to teach abstract ideas or concepts.

On top of delivery, our goal is to arouse students' interest and promote their lateral thinking. How do we keep students engaged and motivated inside a classroom, especially when the topics are not easy to grasp from the students' perspective?

To effectively expose students to abstract concepts or theories, I employ the following 4 steps:

1. Introduce terminology before the theory itself.
2. Describe the procedure and environment in which the theory applies.
3. Illustrate the formulation of the theory.
4. Organize the materials and explore beyond the theory.

For each step, I make use of hand-drawn pictures to facilitate learning and to arouse students' interest and imagination. Here are some examples of drawings utilized for each step above in some of my financial and managerial accounting classes.

Diagram 1 is a comic story of a banking activity. Since many students are not familiar with the internal procedures of banks, let alone the effects of those procedures on a company's accounting records, this drawing can familiarize students with new business procedures and arouse their curiosity and interest in the topic.

Diagram 1

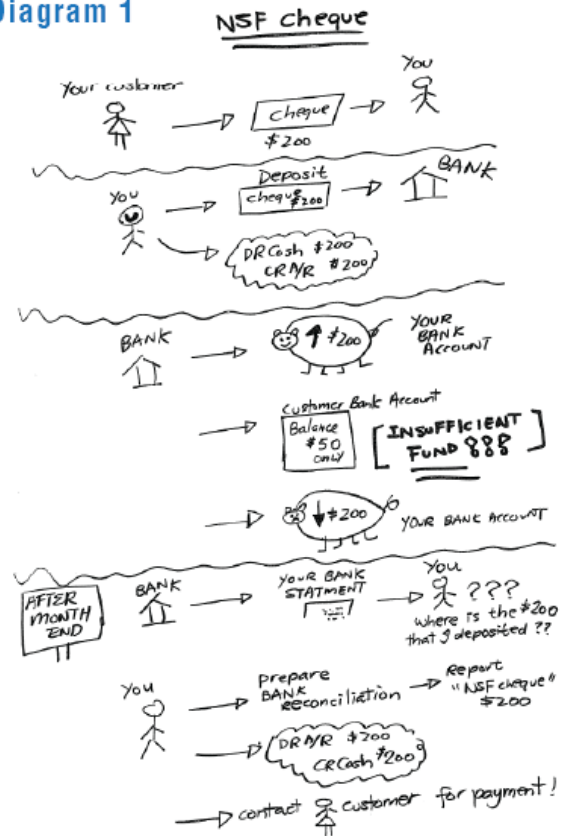
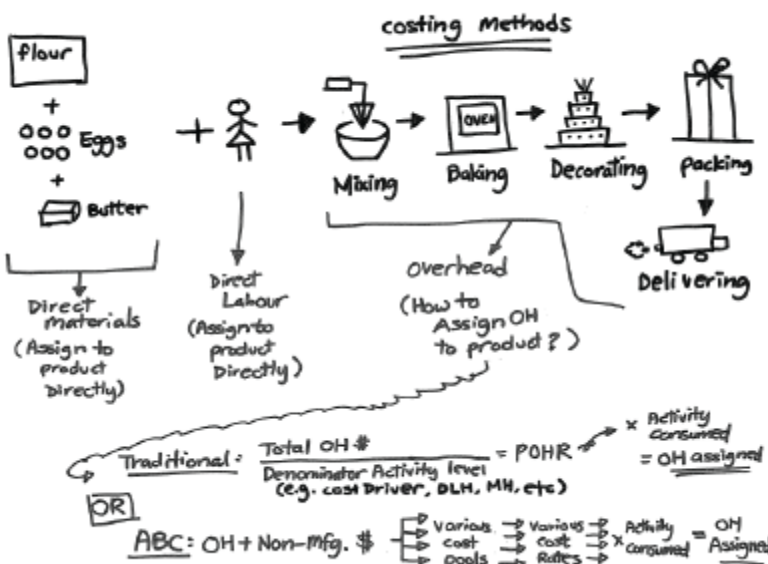


Diagram 2 is an illustration of the production line of a virtual cake shop that students and I operate in our managerial accounting class. Not only does this illustration familiarize students with the production process of a manufacturing company but it also helps them to identify various production costs and to visualize how these costs could be allocated to each unit of product produced under different costing theories. With the help of the

Diagram 2



illustration, many students find it easier to reflect and think 'out of the picture/box' to identify and explore unknown alternatives.

You do not have to be a talented illustrator to utilize pictures effectively in your classrooms. The key success factor is to get students involved and engaged with your drawings, to encourage them to imagine and visualize what is in the picture and, most importantly, what is not.

Have fun drawing with your students!

Using online audio/video (A/V) resources

Dr. Ahmar Mahboob, a recent visiting fellow here at CityU, discusses how he uses online AV resources.

Few things catch the attention of our students like the planned use of online AV resources in our teaching. Students today spend a considerable amount of time online. We too can also tap into this world to find useful resources that we can build into activities and integrate into our own teaching.

Over the years I have used online AV resources to achieve a variety of goals. These include getting students to:

- start thinking about the topics that will be introduced
- in class better understand the topic by providing access to it using different modalities and technologies
- see how the same topic can be understood, described and explained in different ways
- explore the applications of a particular topic in real life
- see how others present their ideas using a range of AV and other resources
- develop their critical thinking abilities
- see that learning is fun!

You can achieve these goals by using a range of activities that are relevant to the course that you are teaching. Here is an example of an activity that has worked for me. In teaching a module on World Englishes, where I want students to understand how we can study phonological (sound) differences between speakers of English from around the world, I ask students to:

1. Visit The Speech Accent Archive (<http://accent.gmu.edu/searchsaa.php>) and complete a short activity.
2. Listen to speakers from 2 different regions of the world and look at the transcriptions of the texts provided on the website.
3. Make a list of differences between these speakers on a worksheet.
4. Share their findings with their classmates in groups and I then proceed with my lecture.

This short activity using online AV resources introduces the students to some of the key ideas that I cover in my lecture and keeps them engaged with the topic. This makes our students engage with texts in ways that they are familiar with and can assist in making our teaching a success.

"...video production in the classroom enables the development of media literacy, higher order thinking skills, project based learning experiences, real world relevancy experiences, and a deeper connection to the curriculum being explored." (Nikkos Theodosakis, 2002)

More examples of how videos can be used

- Show real-life situations to highlight the use of questioning techniques, communication skills, negotiation skills and presentation skills, e.g. job interviews, medical patient consultations, manager and team working situations, a sales person and customer.
- Show science or laboratory experiments to help students more easily follow and understand procedures.
- Pause a section of the video to reflect on the content then continue to the next section then pause and reflect again.
- Get students to find or create their own YouTube
- Videos to illustrate class content or concepts.

Source (adapted from): Teaching Ideas Gallery – A collection of teaching ideas -
<https://sites.google.com/a/gapps.cityu.edu.hk/gallery/issue003>

In every real man a child is hidden that wants to play.

Friedrich Nietzsche

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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. European Training Strategy in the field of Youth - <https://www.salto-youth.net/rc/training-and-cooperation/trainingstrategy/>
8. 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>
9. Competence Model for trainers in the youth field to work at international level - <https://www.salto-youth.net/rc/training-and-cooperation/europeantotstrategy/trainercompetences/>
10. Policy Paper on NonFormal Education: A framework for indicating and assuring quality - https://www.jugendpolitikeneuropa.de/downloads/4-20-2490/0009-o8_NFE_FINAL.pdf
11. 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
12. 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 Zen - 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=ZE2oylESsY4>
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=BQ4yd2W5oNo>



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.*

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