Training Essentials

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T-Kit

on

Training Essentials

Welcome to the T-Kit series

Some of you may have wondered: what does T-Kit mean? We can offer at least two answers. The first is as simple as the full version in English: "Training Kit". The second has more to do with the sound of the word that may easily recall "Ticket", one of the travelling documents we usually need to go on a journey. So, on the cover, the little figure called "Spiffy" holds a train ticket to go on a journey to discover new ideas. In our imagination, this T-Kit is a tool that each of us can use in our work. More specifically, we would like to address youth workers and trainers and offer them theoretical and practical tools to work with and use when training young people.

The T-Kit series has been the result of a one-year collective effort involving people from different cultural, professional and organisational backgrounds. Youth trainers, youth leaders in NGOs and professional writers have worked together in order to create high quality publications which would address the needs of the target group while recognising the diversity of approaches across Europe to each subject.

The T-Kits are a product of the Partnership Agreement on European Youth Worker Training run by the European Commission and the Council of Europe. Besides the T-Kits, the partnership between the two institutions has resulted in other areas of co-operation such as training courses, the magazine "Coyote" and a dynamic internet site.

To find out more about developments in the partnership (new publications, training course announcements, etc.) or to download the electronic version of the T-Kits, visit the Partnership web site: www.training-youth.net.

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Introduction

There is a well-known Sufi teaching story, credited to the thirteenth century Persian poet Rumi. A group of blindfolded people is asked to touch an elephant, and describe what they feel. One reaches out and touches the ear and says, it's a fan. Another grabs it's tail, and concludes that it's a rope. Yet another grips a leg, and proclaims it to be a tree. History does not record how long this went on for, but we can be sure that the elephant never forgot.

This story is sometimes used in training to illustrate a number of issues; perceptions and reality, intercultural learning, the nature of teamwork, the seeds of certain kinds of conflict. In a sense it can also illustrate the task facing a team of trainers, designing a course for a group of as yet unknown participants. And certainly it can describe the task facing a team of writers attempting to identify and discuss the *essentials of training*. When this team first met, we had long and detailed lists of important things, quite possibly many shared priorities, but *essentials*? This is not a disclaimer; anyone who has worked in international youth training for any period of time must have been confronted by a massive diversity of aims, targeted issues and groups, ethical frameworks and imperatives, ways of doing and seeing, facilitating, implementing and evaluating. Training is a big and complex elephant. Yet, at the same time, to continue the metaphor, there is an elephant, there are essentials – core considerations, tasks and reflections which undertaking a training activity demands. So this T-kit has attempted to define essential educational, logistical, ethical and experiential elements of training. At the same time, it attempts to leave and encourage space for critical reflection on the part of the reader, and ask, what is essential to your training? The aim of this introduction is to lay bare the choices we have made, the ideas and values on which this publication is based, and to provide some points of orientation for the reader.

An obvious starting point would be, why a T-Kit on training at all? Other volumes in this series tackle topics – intercultural learning, project management, and so forth. These are topics that are often the subject of training, the subject around which an educational process is constructed. This T-Kit exists to shift the focus momentarily, to ask how do we devise the educational processes for exploring and working with these various subjects? It makes the process visible, and tracks the questions that arise from this. If training involves a process, it involves a process between the subject, the trainers and the group, taking place within more general contexts. Each of these factors raise inter-related questions, with educational, personal, ethical and practical dimensions. Therefore while training is commonly seen as the way in which subjects are dealt with in international youth work, with a shift in focus it can be seen as a complex subject in its own right. And training is increasingly dealt with as a subject in its own right, as section *2.1* illustrates, the supply of and demand for training on an European level has never been higher.

Describing training solely as an educational process could be misleading however, as the kind of training dealt with here is neither a neutral process nor a general approach readily applicable to any situation. Training has become something of a generalised concept for ongoing learning in a range of contexts, but it is important to bear in mind that within this generality there exists a diversity of aims, educational approaches, relationships between actors and desired and actual results. In this publication, training is seen as a participant-centred learning process, team-based and within the framework of non-formal education. These terms and their relevance are discussed in detail in the relevant chapters, so suffice to say here that these emphases influence enormously what is included as essential, and what is omitted

They also emphasis the reality that training is not a neutral, invisible process that can be superimposed on any subject. Working in teams, nurturing participants as peer educators, favouring participative and experiential learning processes, and engaging with the demands of being a trainer in an intense and short-lived activity requires reflection on how we train and who we are as trainers. This Kit offers ways of developing skills and competencies, but does so within the larger framework of inviting trainers to consider the lifeworld they bring with them to training, the dynamism they will be a part of, and the learning that we all need to constantly engage in.

This T-Kit addresses itself to trainers working within a European framework. It proceeds by assuming that they will be working with a multicultural group and team, in an activity that demands careful planning and input from them, and in training situations which pose a range of personal and professional questions. While this is the imagined reader we have written for, it does not mean that trainers in other contexts are forbidden from even peeking between the covers. It suggests that they will have to carefully evaluate what is offered in relation to their needs and context, but this is something we hope all trainers will do anyway.

This point is worth bearing in mind while reading this T-kit, as the team of writers was united from the start in their almost grim determination not to produce a 'toolbox'. This is not a recipe book, or ready made do-it-yourself manual with a companion early morning TV show. Every training is different, and each section you will read here emphasises the need to consider and adapt models, theories and methods to your situation, group moment, environments, competencies and values. We suspect that this is something that most trainers do naturally, but we have stated it bluntly, as it is a core philosophy of this work. That said, this is not the *Zen of Training* either, it is a working document for working trainers, who need to be able to consult it on the run sometimes. To this end the text is cross-referenced continuously, making it possible to search for an exercise or refresh a certain area, while noting links and ideas to be revisited. We hope you will see it as a favoured café, where you can drop in for a takeaway, but sometimes stay a while longer for a proper conversation.

Relatedly, this text is cross-referenced to its companion volumes in the T-Kit series, but only to a point. While we have not assumed that every reader has access to the other volumes, this Kit does not replicate material already available. Space is limited, and the other T-Kits deal with training elements that would be at home in several different volumes. In such areas as learning styles, the design and management of a training, and of course intercultural learning, you will find some references and allusions to further or complementary reading in the other T-Kits. This has allowed us to provide a broader range of theoretical perspectives and models for certain issues.

In mentioning intercultural learning, we should make it explicit that this is more than an element in our overall discussion of training. If this T-Kit had a subtitle, it would be *Training Essentials (with an intercultural dimension)*. Intercultural learning provides an overall educational and ethical framework for this text, as we believe that every facet of life and work within activities of this nature possess intercultural dimensions. Intercultural learning is often dealt with as a training module, and is looked at in that way here too. However, training in our context thrives on a richness and diversity of ways of seeing the world, learning, valuing and being, and needs to consider this in every aspect of design and implementation.

A final aside from the authors of this T-Kit concerns theoretical material. While we shy away from simplistic divisions of theory and practice, we have approached theory as orientation, maps that may or may not help you to navigate your training landscape. Engaging with research and innovative material is part of the trainers learning path, but begs two questions; why do we innovate and what is the context of the material? We feel that sometimes there is a pressure on trainers to use something new, that the appearance of an iceberg model in the seminar room elicits the same reaction as from passengers on the Titanic. Each trainer has to evaluate what is presented here and in other publications, and judge for themselves the difference between innovation and novelty.

Relatedly, theoretical models presented here, for instance relating to group dynamics, learning styles, conflict transformation, are developed from applied research within particular disciplines and traditions. Occasionally these models surface in training activities, applied to contexts where at best they make no sense. Therefore we have emphasised the history and context of the materials included, again to allow the individual trainer to calibrate them for her group and situation. This has also influenced our decisions about whether to prefer innovative material to stuff that seems to have circulated the training scene since the middle ages. The result is a mixture of the possibly familiar and the possibly new, but the criteria were relevance, applicability and coherence in the overall design.

The T-Kit takes the format of a training considered from start to finish, admitting of course that certain elements can be considered at different moments, or simultaneously, or on several occasions. *Part 2: training in context* considers the field of training at the moment, and the context from which this publication has emerged. It moves from the environment to the trainers that work within it, and begins a reflection on the questions of roles, ethics and necessary competencies which, we argue, is always a work in progress. The section concludes with an initial consideration of intercultural learning, and how it permeates training as a whole.

Part 3: training in teams looks at the challenge of working not just in a team, but in a multicultural team of trainers. The aim of this section is to provide an overview of issues, with applied activities, which can help teams to build sustainable relationships and pre-empt difficulties by reflecting in different ways on how they work together. The largest section, *Part 4: training in motion*, deals with the often exhausting process of educational and logistical planning. This section works through the educational process from needs assessment to session design and evaluation, and tries to provide a framework for making the organisational side of things as painless as possible.

Once in motion we move to *Part 5: training in action*, a section that concentrates on the processes that emerge during an activity and what they mean for individuals, the group and the subject. It considers issues that require trainers to practice flexibility and ongoing assessment and adaptation, such as conflicts in the group and the need to re-design and plan a training program. *Part 6: after training* deals with the issues of transfer and multiplying, and how to prepare participants for life and work beyond the training course.

We hope you will enjoy using this T-Kit, and look forward to hearing your assessments of how it fares in the world of training. Above all, we hope it can make a contribution to training and trainers, the inspiration for writing it in the first place.

1. Training in Context

1.1 Training , training aims and non-formal education

Open your arms to change, but don't let go of your values.

Dalai Lama

1.1.1 What is training?

Training is present in nearly every field of our societies today, in business and politics, in our public roles and aspects of our private lives. This publication addresses training in the specific contexts of international or intercultural youth work and co-operation, and informal, or non-formal, education and learning.

No general definition for training in youth work exists. Rather, training can refer to a variety of processes and actions depending on the organisational and cultural context in which it takes place and on the aims and values of its organisers. Some general elements are however of relevance to any training in the field of intercultural and international youth work.

As a starting point, The Oxford Dictionary defines training as "bringing to desired standard of performance or behaviour by instruction and practice". What the desired standard is, and how it is achieved can clearly vary. Youth workers, when asked to define, or draw a symbol of training during a training course, have come up with the following definitions:

"Training is about giving tools to others to enable them to achieve certain goals. It is about providing the skills and the ability to act."

"Training is about involving and empowering people."

Training is like "a tree that grows. It is a metaphor for people who develop themselves. The tree becomes a sun, which is the symbol of life."

Training is like "two open hands. The first experience of meeting is shaking hands. It is a symbol of giving, receiving and supporting. You must keep your hands open to receive."

"Training is like "two elements: experience and theory. Theory comes from experience. The further you go, the more you get. There are different experiences and exchange of experience."

"Training is a never ending story. Once you have an answer, at least three times more questions appear."

(Training for Trainers Final Report 2000, p.11)

Looking at these definitions, training encompasses involvement and exchange, and developing a relationship between experience and theory. It requires an openness to giving and receiving support, and aims to cultivate empowerment and growth. It means raising questions, but also bringing participants to a desired standard of practice.

1.1.2 Training aims of European youth worker training

Training multipliers is a long-drawn-out battle for which few resources are available, but the task is a noble one. The task is crystal clear. Sad to say, there are few trainers who dare quite explicitly to give priority to this task: problems of globalisation, the rise in racism and regionalism, the concept of intercultural identity.. (Laconte and Gillert in Coyote # 2, May 2000, p. 29)

Within the European youth programmes, training serves to support the youth programmes of the European institutions and the work carried out by youth organisations, groups and services at different levels. Specifically, "the training courses organised within the European youth programmes aim to enable those actively involved in youth questions to play a more active, efficient and informed role in international and intercultural youth work." *(Council of Europe, 2000, p.2)*. Training thus aims to increase knowledge, skills and competencies, raise awareness and change attitudes or behaviour, in order to increase the effectiveness and quality of the work of youth workers and youth leaders at international level, or at local or national level with an intercultural or European dimension.

Youth organisations and youth projects are places for political, social and cultural initiative and involvement. They are also places for non-formal education and learning. When asked by the European Youth Forum to specify what young people learned through participation in organised youth work, practitioners in the youth field focused on personal and social development. In personal terms they mentioned such effects as increased self-esteem, responsibility, creativity, tolerance and critical thinking, and in terms of social development the cultivation of active citizenship and participation, group and leadership skills, communication strategies and knowledge of social issues *(1999, pp.24-25)*. If training aims to better equip youth workers and youth leaders for their work, then these are the factors that it needs to address. It needs to provide a space for personal and social development, and to empower for political, social and cultural participation.

Training in European youth work is value-based. There is no pretence at a neutral educational process; training should support the work of young people aiming at European societies based on fundamental values. According to the European Commission, these values include solidarity among young people throughout Europe and beyond, intercultural learning, mobility and a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship. This means combating the marginalisation of young people in society, fighting for the respect of human rights and against racism, xenophobia and discrimination. It involves engaging with cultural diversity, our common heritage and shared fundamental values, promoting equality and introducing a European dimension to local youth work. *(2001, pp. 3-4)* These basic values are largely shared by the European institutions and by many youth organisations. *(For more reflections on training and values, see 2.2.1-3).*

Within this framework, training can take various forms. Some youth organisations, services or centres have set up training strategies that continuously train within the spirit and aims of their organisation, which ensures a certain level of competence in the continuous turnover between the 'generations' of youth workers and leaders. Other organisations offer training on a more sporadic basis, based on upcoming or perceived needs and interests. Depending on the objectives of particular activities, training might prioritise results or processes, focus on developing specific skills, facilitate personal development, or plan a specific action being undertaken by the organisation. Training can also be issue-based. For instance, the Council of Europe organised a variety of training courses to empower minority youth leaders within the framework of its Campaign against Racism, Anti-Semitism, Xenophobia and Intolerance in 1995 and is conducting a series of training events on issues of human rights education throughout 2001–2003. *(See resources developed during the RAXI Campaign in the list of references)*

Ideally, the training activities offered by the different actors in the European youth field and at the varying levels of activity should be complementary and subsidiary to each other. This can be visualised by the training pyramid below, which – without attempting to give a complete overview of all training offers in European youth work – focuses on the links between the training offered by the European institutions and youth organisations.

The upper level should offer only what cannot be offered at lower levels, and each training offer should be specific; in terms of training aims and contents, and with regard to its target group and geographical, organisational and cultural context.

TE-1

1. These courses are being implemented by the SALTO-YOUTH training centres of the National Agencies (Bonn, German office "YOUTH for Europe"; Brussels, JINT; London, YEC; Paris, INJEP), which started operating in September 2000. SALTO is an acronym for "Support for Advanced Learning & Training Opportunities".

Suggestions for reflection

1. What is your definition of training?
2. What is the place of training in your organisation?
3. Why does your organisation organise training?
4. For whom do you organise training?
5. What is the content of the training courses?
6. Where and when do you organise training courses? Which resources do you have available?

(Adapted from: WAGGGS, 1997, p.22)

1.1.3 Putting training on the agenda

Training for youth leaders, youth workers and multipliers at European level has only emerged as a priority in European youth work during the last decade. Practitioners active at local level have increasingly become involved in organising international youth activities, which has led to an enlarged demand for training in skills and competencies needed for youth work in international and intercultural contexts. This development has been encouraged by the growth of the European youth programmes.

At the same time, personal development has gained a new importance in the context of increasingly competitive European labour markets, where every personal and professional experience may count for something. Young people are increasingly aware that limiting themselves to the formal education sector limits their preparation for life in today's society.

Informal learning contexts beyond the school are crucial in cultivating the competencies demanded by our increasingly complex environments. The often rapid pace of technological and social change has led to a contemporary emphasis on *life-long learning*. For example, the Youth programme of the European Commission situates itself within this context. This programme aims to contribute to

“.. a ‘Europe of knowledge’ and to create a European sphere for co-operation on the development of youth policy, based on informal education. It valorises life-long learning and the development of skills and competencies in favour of active citizenship.» (2001, p.3).

An interesting result of this concentration on life-long learning and informal education is the re-valorisation of volunteering. Working as a volunteer in a youth organisation or on a project can constitute an important experience, rightly regarded as complementary to school education and professional work. Youth organisations are recognising their role in the continual learning process of their members, through the options they provide and the priorities they lobby for. In recent years the European institutions have joined forces in their efforts to provide more resources for international youth work, and to attain a stronger recognition of the value of non-formal education provided by the youth sector.

1.1.4 Informal and non-formal education

Putting the educational value of youth work on the political agenda has an influence on the aims and structure of training. In the current political debate, the term *informal* is increasingly replaced by *non-formal* when referring to the educational value of youth work. The terms are however not clearly defined, and often need to be understood in the context of usage. Formal education is consistently used to refer to the education system that runs from primary to tertiary institutions, the main actors being schools and the range of institutes of higher education. Non-formal and informal education, on a basic level, define themselves as something other than the formal sector, which all young people participate in to varying levels.

Non-formal education has emerged as a term since the 1970s with the aim of achieving a better recognition of education and learning taking place outside of schools, universities and evaluative systems. The adoption of the term stressed that new educational contexts needed to be recognised, and valued for their different contributions. This is the sense in which the term is used by the European Youth Forum, which defines non-formal education as organised and semi-organised educational activities operating outside the structure and routines of the formal education system. (? Introduction)

Informal education has been defined in many ways, generally as education that happens outside the formal education system. Clearly this can take many forms, and you may see the term applied to describe a variety of activities. Some see it as learning that goes on in daily life; the multiple ways we learn to function and interact in our societies. In this sense of the term informal education describes socialisation, as we can see in the European Youth Forum's definition of it as the non-organised and incidental learning that goes on in daily life (ibid). This is by no means the only common usage of the term, and other definitions employ it to denote more active and engaged forms of learning. Some use it in relation to the 'learning projects' that we take up ourselves in our free time, be it hobbies or new skills. In this context, it is often applied to the learning that comes as a result of being involved in youth and community work. Despite these divergent usages, informal education can be seen as a process where learning takes place (see reference for discussions of learning), and as activities which help people to learn (See Smith, Mark K. 2000). To avoid confusion, we will use non-formal education to describe the world of youth training, while acknowledging that there are still debates to be had on the terminology.

Non-formal education is usually defined against formal education, and this is an important connotation to consider. Many practitioners underline the potential of youth organisations or other institutions to provide alternative means of education, beyond the range and capabilities of schools. However those who emphasise the potential value of a complementary approach between educational sectors (see also 4.2.2) contest this. A complementary approach can involve non-formal education developing and augmenting subjects dealt with in schools, or emphasising a participative approach to learning. It can also involve replicating some of the features of the formal sector in the non-formal, with the aim of accrediting training or similar work. The current approach of the European institutions and the European Youth Forum is to set up quality standards and means of certification for non-formal education at European level, in particular for training. Yet recognising the value of non-formal education is only one side of the debate, as some people involved in youth work fear that youth work and training might lose some of its inherent characteristics in this process. Openness to all young people, voluntary involvement without the fear of assessment of personal achievements, flexibility in structure and planning, learning based upon participants' needs and interests, and the possibility of working at different speeds and in different ways may be diluted by the demands of structures and curricula.

Training: a look at some terms

You cannot teach a man anything. You can only help him to learn

Galileo Galilei

Looking at these debates on terminology reminds us that the language used in international youth work is not self-evident or stable. It is not just that the contents and processes they are used to describe may actually differ, but that when used in different languages and cultural contexts they often carry different connotations, indicative of divergent educational styles and values. Bearing this in mind, it might be of interest to take a closer look at the terms we use in training, and repeatedly in this T-Kit.

Education and learning: Usually, when referring to education, we refer to planned educational activities; that is activities which provide a framework and process for learning to take place. Learning stresses the participants, their needs and interests – it refers to the cognitive process internal to the person undergoing the learning. Learning can occur incidentally and within planned educational activities. People learn in different ways. This recognition, and the ability to plan for it, is of particular importance for training in multicultural settings. (see 4.2.1 -3 for a detailed discussion of learning)

Training, animation, and facilitation: There is certainly room for confusion in relation to these terms. Take the word 'training' itself. In French, for instance, 'former' literally means "to mould or fashion by discipline or education", but can also refer to a process of 'character-forming'. In English 'training' carries a more skills and competencies oriented connotation, as for example with football training, or vocational training. Other terms of interest here might be 'animation' and 'facilitation', which we may hear used almost interchangeably in a training context. The Oxford Dictionary defines 'to facilitate' as "make easy or less difficult; make action or result more easily achieved", while 'to animate' literally means "to breathe life into something". While dictionary definitions do not prescribe the usage of words, it is easy to imagine situations where a range of terms may be used to describe an educational process, or where a range of processes may be covered by a single term. For a multicultural training team, discussing what these terms mean for individual trainers can be a useful and illuminating exercise. For example, how do you use these words? As a trainer, do you animate or facilitate a working group? What do you think is at stake in these debates about terminology? (definitions taken from Smith, Mark K. 2000)

1.1.5 Summing up: some key elements of youth work training with an international or intercultural dimension

To conclude this section, we can suggest some central characteristics for training carried out in our context. It is based on;

- The belief that young people should be empowered to participate fully in their communities and societies in a spirit of respect for the dignity and equality of all. This includes a commitment to the multicultural societies that exist in Europe today.
- Voluntary participation.
- A learner-centred ethos – it takes into consideration the participants' needs and interests.
- Participants' experience and its relation to their situation.
- An action-oriented process, with a specific focus on multipliers.
- The learning of skills, competencies and knowledge and should lead to changes of awareness, attitudes or behaviour.
- Using experience or practice, emotional involvement and intellect (hand, heart, and head).
- A non-vocational ethos. Nevertheless, qualities gained in youth work training can be of value for future personal and professional development. Personal and social development are important elements of the learning process.
- Not usually determining personal achievements by assessment.
- The need to take into account the specific values and perceptions of the responsible organisation, environment and target group.

1.2 Training and the trainer

1.2.1. Different understandings of the trainer

We have seen that there are different conceptions of training, therefore it is no surprise that the word trainer can also have different meanings and associations. To make it even more complicated, participants that come from a range of cultural and educational backgrounds can have different expectations towards the trainer, based on different understandings of their role and place in the learning process. Apart from the basic fact that a trainer is a person who is involved in an educational process where the trainees learn something, much else may be ambiguous. For a team of trainers this is not enough to know. In order to deal with the sometimes unpredictable demands of a training situation, trainers need to think through their roles in relation to each other. The following exercise can give you the opportunity to explore your shared-understanding as trainers in a training.

Where do you stand ?

Note: this exercise is a real methodological four-wheel-drive: you can use it for nearly every subject!

Instructions: Draw an imaginary or real line (tape, rope) in your training room. Place a sign at each end, one with YES and the other with NO written on it. Read (and visualize on a flipchart) the following sentences. Be careful with questions of clarification, as the exercise tends to focus on understandings of the terms as well as the central issues.

Statements

1. Everybody can be a good trainer.
2. Training should be fun.
3. The trainer should help the participants to reach the conclusion that the trainer wants them to reach.
4. The purpose of every training is personal development.
5. The trainer should leave personal values at home
6. Skills and methods are at the heart of training.
7. Training results should be measurable.
8. Practice is the best school.
9. Training is to transmit knowledge.
10. In a training course, participants need to receive recipies.

Adapted from Council of Europe and European Commission *Training for Trainers* 2000

The table below begins to sketch out the 'trainer' in relation to other educational roles, and compares her to teachers and facilitators across a range of factors.

Educational roles	*Teacher*	*Trainer*	*Facilitator*
Process	Less important	Important	Important
Task/content	Central role	Important role	Co-responsible
Educational methods	Often frontal	Methodological mix	Methodological mix
Communication style	Mainly input	Range depending	Minimal input
Power	Absolute	Absolute-shared	Shared
Examples	School teacher	ICL trainer	Conflict moderator

In reality it is obvious that in many cases the different roles can't be separated so clinically. The trainer in particular may be called upon to occupy several roles within a program, from running a training component, to facilitating a group decision process or delivering an input or lecture. That said, the trainer always has to balance these roles with her meta-role as trainer, without confusions arising over the question of power. For example, if a trainer is facilitating a group activity but realises it has become counter-productive to the training process, can she take the decision to end the session, or must she continue in the role of facilitator? (Questions of this nature are discussed in the following sections).

Another interesting blurring of these roles may be observed in the ways that the traditional teacher role has been changing in recent years to integrate more elements of training and facilitation. Contemporary debates in many European countries concerning the school as a place for social learning and not simply for the transfer of intellectual knowledge illustrates this evolution.

Suggestions for reflection

1. Which trainer or trainers have impressed you most in your life? Why?
2. What is your worst educational experience as a participant in a training? Why?
3. Do you agree with the suggestion in the table, that a school teacher has more power than a youth trainer?
4. What kinds of different power may be involved?
5. You are also welcome to answer for yourself the different points of the confrontation exercise.

1.2.2. Trainer values and their impact on training

She who knows the people is a wise person, she who knows herself is illuminated.

Laotse

This T-Kit has been written with certain underlying educational, cultural, political and ethical values. In relation to training in our context, core values should be mutual respect, diversity, empowerment, democracy, participation. This section considers the nature of the trainer's values, their relation to her motivations, and their influence on the training process.

Suggestions for reflection

1. Why am I a trainer?
2. When I'm working as a trainer, what is my favorite role? friend, teacher, educator, partner, manager, organiser, older sister, tutor, coach, supervisor, joker, participant, seducer, thinker, star...*why*?
3. How is this favorite role linked to my personal values?
4. Why did I become a member of the organisation I'm working for?
5. In my organisation, what are the values that we transmit in our training?What are the values that I transmit? Are they the same as those of my organisation?
6. In my organisation, how would I describe the training aims; political, social, educational, cultural, professional, religious...?

In a training situation our core-values guide the way we plan and conduct the training, and also how we conduct ourselves during it. The values we have in relation to training reveal themselves in;

• The choice of training topics.

• How this choice is made, including factors such as the needs assesment (see 4.1) and the degree to which the participants are included in the planning process.

• The degree of training participation made possible by the methodological choices (do we deal with expectations, use feedback and evaluation possibilities and employ active and experiential methods).

Our training values are central to the ways we evaluate and interact with the training process. They have an impact on what we might call our leadership style *(see also Organisational Management T-Kit pp. 46-48).* A trainer in a training situation may be called upon to adopt several roles, and some of these, and the values behind them, may be in conflict.

Consider the following situation:

It is late evening in an intense training course. Many participants seem to be in a training trance, exhausted but intent on carrying on the educational activities. Despite their tiredness, many are prepared to continue, and others won't vote against this as they are afraid of losing face in the group. What does the trainer do?

Should she respect the will of the group, as this is a participative activity, and an authoritarian decision would contradict the very values of the activity? But hasn't she always felt that trainers as leaders sometimes need to make such strong decisions, when activites damage the training process, or when there may even be a physical or psychological danger to the participants? Yet as participants, shouldn't they have the right to decide how they participate? Yet, if her feeling is correct, many do not wish to participate further today, and these rights are being affected anyway.

These questions imply that a very important set of values should also be mentioned here, what could be called professional ethics. Discussions on professional ethics may be familiar to us from the world of politics, or journalism, and it is also a concept that trainers must consider in relation to their own personal list of *do's* and *don'ts* in training.

1.2.3. What makes an ethical trainer?

A woman took her son to see Ghandi who asked her what she wanted. "I'd like him to stop eating sugar" she replied. "Bring the boy back in two weeks time" replied Ghandi. Two weeks later the woman returned with her son. Gandhi turned to the boy and said "Stop eating sugar". The woman looked surprised and asked "Why did I have to wait two weeks for you to say that?", "Two weeks ago I was eating sugar" Gandhi replied.

As can be seen in the tale above, being a trainer (and a leader) can be a very demanding role. Placing ourselves in a training situation means developing an awareness of what we stand for, what we can offer, the limits we set, and importantly, how we deal with the expectations of others.

"I'm always in a public position and a model, whether I like it or not, as a person and a trainer. My behaviour may become an important resource for the learning process. It also means that I can't not not behave *(like I cannot not communicate see e.g. Watzlawick et al 1967).* I must be aware of myself and be able to reflect upon the consequences of my behaviour for the process and the participants. I should be able to participate and at the same time keep a certain distance (have a 'helicopter view'!). I should be open to people even if they seem unsympathetic in the beginning. I should permanently contact participants, even if I'm sometimes just not in the mood. I should stay concentrated even if at the moment I'm just tired or lack energy. I have to realise that I sometimes attract anger which is not actually intended towards me. I am a stand-in for other participants, delicate subjects or general frustrations, and I have to just deal with that when it occurs. I should throw myself back into things, immediately get mixed up with people, processes and problems and recover in as fast way as possible". *A trainer we know, in discussion.*

This is not the job profile for a new generation of supertrainers.

JoWag2001

This incomplete description simply aims to point out that to be a trainer (and leader) is a complex task, and sometimes even a burdening duty. It demands self-awareness, ongoing training and a variety of knowledges in relation to the realities in which we work. It also necessitates relaxation to avoid burning out and diversity to prevent trainings from becoming too routine (lessening motivation and commitment). *2.2.5* deals with active strategies to support our well-being as a trainer. On the question of ethics, there is clearly no right profile, however the following description provides a basis for reflection and discussion.

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)

Clearly, trainers need a certain amount of training-related competencies which allow them to be able to do their job with a high level of professionalism. A significant degree of responsibility for this lies with youth organisations.They are responsible for the quality of their educational activities and must ensure that their trainers have an appropriate training profile before they are entrusted with a group in a complex socio-educational setting. From the trainer's perspective, engaging in life-long learning means that trainers should engage in and seek out further training opportunities and keep informed on emerging educational issues, debates and questions.

The concept of a good trainer is of course quite subjective, and depends on our experiences, preferred learning styles, the values of the trainer, training and organisation, to name but a few factors. With this in mind, the key characteristics below could be a useful starting point for thinking through a training curriculum focusing on core competencies.

- 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 participants 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)

1.2.4 Trainer roles

In our lives we play many roles, depending on the environments in which we are active. In sociological terms, a role is a reasonably fixed set of behaviours, values and communicative codes relating to the environment in which the role is activated. So for example in the home we may be sons or daughters, mothers or fathers, and normally we behave accordingly. If we don't, it will be noticed very quickly. At school or university we may be students or teachers, or particulat types of students and teachers. In our jobs our professional roles tend to be pretty well defined. Lawyers tend to speak and behave in a certain way, and are not expected to suddenly jump on a table and dance, apart from in Woody Allen movies. For a trainer however, the question of roles may be difficult as the contexts they work in and the expectations that others may have of them often fluctuate. The trainer role can become very complex and diverse because it includes many different responsibilities towards the different actors involved in the training process, from preparation to evaluation. Some of these sub-roles could be as friend, teacher, educator, partner, manager, program manager, organiser, older sister, the guy from country X, tutor, coach, supervisor, joker, participant, lover, thinker, star.

In a training, or any other kind of structured learning process, we bring our trainer roles to life with our personal and professional qualities, skills, abilities and interests. The way in which the role lives is influenced by the expectations of the participants and the content of the training itself. And the trainer role alive involves a certain degree of power. All of this suggests that a training team may need to take the time at the beginning to negotiate their roles according to the required profiles and the known expectations of the participants.

Suggestions for reflection

1. What are the different roles you play as a trainer? Do they correspond with the list above?
2. Which is your favorite one?
3. Is one of your favorite roles missing?
4. Is there a hidden role nobody else knows you have?
5. Is there a role you are often forced into (or you push yourself into) during a training?
6. How do you negotiate your role(s) and their power with the group of participants (and your team collegues)?
7. How do you deal with the ambiguity of the trainer's position with regard to occupying a role of authority within a peer group context?

1.2.5. Well-being: also an issue for trainers

The worst you can do is to forget about yourself

Laotse

Trainings, especially youth trainings, can be demanding, tiring and even stressful *(good general information about stress can be found in the Organisational Management T-Kit).*

We have probably all had the experience of coming home after a week-long training feeling exhausted, perhaps happy, perhaps empty, or somewhere in between. It may even happen that a few days off are welcome (if not always possible) to recover and make contact again with our normal life, our partner or our friends and with the rest of the world!

Being involved with the life of a training is not a classic nine-to-five job. For the team of trainers it often means that the day starts with a working breakfast and hopefully stops sometime close to midnight, during or after some social or party activities.

The artificial situation of a training, very often learning *and* living together, can be very supportive for the learning process, allowing the participants to stay in constant contact with each other, sharing formal and informal moments together. Involving ourselves in this process, not to mention dealing with organisational issues and the training programme itself, can become an all-consuming task for the trainer.

On the other hand, a working trainer is not just responsible for the functioning of a training and (within limits) for the well-being of the participants, but also has to take care of herself and her energy levels to maintain (and sometimes improve) the quality of work.

There are many ways to make training life easier – before, during and after the training. The following questions can be seen as a personal checklist for taking care of yourself during a training and before subsequent sessions.

Make Life Easier! Hints and Suggestions

Before the training	• Which environmental conditions (atmosphere, comforts, personal time, sports and hobbies, food) do I need for this training? • What issues from the outside world (my organisation, other projects) do I need to block out or delegate so that I can really focus on the training and not be distracted by other things? • If I am aware that I drink or smoke (too much) during a training, which alternative strategies to reduce my stress could I use? • What "luggage" (health or private problems) do I carry with me? With whom (of the team) could I share it and what kind of support do I need during the training? • Is the program adopted to the climate and are there enough breaks foreseen (even for a siesta)?
During the training	• How can I sleep well during the training? (arrive earlier and check the room and its suitability; is it near potentially noisy environments? Other strategies: use ear-plugs, bring my own quilt and pillow, use relaxation methods when I'm stressed...) • What support do I/we need during the training or for short-term preparation on location (persons, material, books, media...) • How can I share the responsibility for the evenings with my team colleagues to ensure some free evenings or more sleep? • What kind of food and leisure activities do I need to feel good in my body, heart and soul? • How can I stay connected with my partner/friends and the rest of the world?
After the trainings General aspects	• How did I organize my own learning process and professional development? • How do I assess the balance between 'old' and 'new' subjects in my training portofolio? • How do I assess the range of 'simple' and 'complex' training subjects and participants I engaged with during the last year? In what areas am I asking to much of myself, and when is it just the opposite? • When can I be a participant and when a leader? How do I feel in these situations? • What does my life as a trainer and my absences mean to those with whom I'm living in a private or professional capacity? In this context, what is the price I willing or have to pay for this existence? What is the price the others have to pay? • What are the fantasies or fears my partner could have regarding the fact that I meet many people, men and women, in such personal and unusual circumstances? How do we deal with eroticism and sexuality? (see also 5.3.3. about relationships) How do we speak about these and similar questions and fears? • How is my circle of friends? How much contact have I got with different groups, or friends outside of my work context? • With whom can I share difficult professional situations and (personal) problems? • What did I do or read during the last months that was not connected to my professional activities? • How much time do I really have for myself? Is there anything left after commitments to my family or my partner, my job, participants and other people? • How important are sport and leisure activities to my lifestyle? How do I approach nutrition? How central are stimulants, legal and illegal drugs to my life? • As a freelance trainer, how much money must I earn to make a living? Bearing this in mind am I working too much for too little money and/or for too many customers who cannot pay me properly? What do I get from them instead?

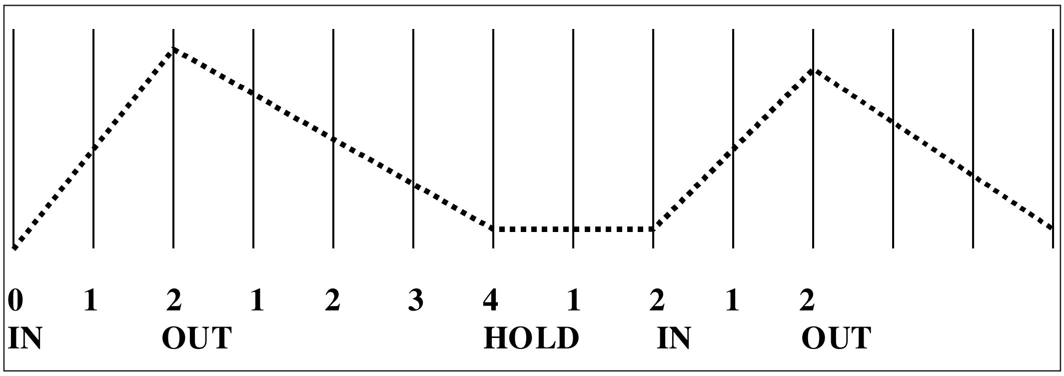
Exercise: breathing and relaxation

Stress has a big influence on our breathing; when stressed our breathing becomes irregular, flat, limited to a small region of the upper part of the chest, and we do not breathe out properly. The result is pretty obvious: the largest part of the body is under permanent tension. The following exercise (which is very easy to learn and can be done everywhere,except perhaps under water) focuses on this symptom. The basic principle is that breathing out slows down our heartbeat while breathing in accelerates it.

2-4-2 breathing

1. Breath in for 2 seconds, into the lower stomach (belly). Use your nose without broadening your chest, concentrate on the sensation of the incoming air.
2. Breath out for 4 seconds, after exhaling continue by using your stomach muscles to press more air out of your lungs.
3. Stay without breathing for two more seconds
4. Repeat steps 1-3 (1 entire breathing cycle at least 6 times: also watch the relaxation of tongue, teeth and chin)

TE-2



1.3 Intercultural Learning and Training

The field of intercultural learning in youth training is addressed by an entire T-Kit (No.4) in this series. However, in some ways, this is also a T-Kit entirely concerned with the subject. In other words, this whole publication is informed by a philosophy of interculturalism, and the various factors in training are approached from this fundamental premise. It is the authors' view that intercultural learning is not just something you do in a workshop, or on a rainy Tuesday afternoon (although it is clearly important and beneficial to deal with it as a subject in specific program components). It is a political philosophy that motivates international youth work, it is a body of educational practice that should arguably be everpresent, and crucially, it is a body of knowledge that demands reflexivity and the development of key skills by the trainer. As outlined in the introduction, this is something to bear in mind while reading very different sections, and intercultural learning is also explicitly addressed in other parts of this publication. The aim of this section is a bit like the blurb on the back of a best-selling novel; giving the basic idea (if there is one), and stimulating the reader to look for these things inside the covers. Learning is considered elsewhere in this resource (4.2.1 – 3), but considering intercultural learning means at some point grappling with that most disputed of terms, culture.

1.3.1 Culture

To put it bluntly, culture is a complex and disputed term. Clifford Geertz, in his celebrated work *The Interpretation of Cultures*, notes that many works which seek to 'explain' culture tend to create more ambiguities in their pursuit of certainties. This is a realisation echoed by Jacques Demorgon and Markus Molz, who argue that attempts to define culture cannot escape the fact that it is itself culturally produced. This is an obvious, yet fundamental premise; as the English writer Raymond Williams illustrates in *Keywords*, culture is a concept with a history, and therefore cannot be approached as a scientific state of being, but instead, as a socially constructed way of conceptualising the way we live.

Approaching culture in this way has destabilised two deeply held notions of the term. Culture has often had a evaluative meaning, relating to the artistic production of a society, or more particularly, a nation. This definition has been subject to much criticism, focusing on the elitism involved and the social power to define which it represents. Another widely held concept was the anthropological notion of culture as a way of life, open to description and analysis by the trained, and normally western cultural scientist. Similarly, this has been weakened by the 'turning back' of cultural analysis on these practices, and by again emphasising the power to describe which was present in these intercultural encounters.

Contemporary definitions of culture *(for a fuller discussion of relevant theories, see the Intercultural Learning T-Kit pp 14-19)* tend to concentrate on analysing culture as the software which allows the human hardware to function, while disputing the levels of influence which the softtware package actually has. The software is loaded by a process of enculturation; we absorb values, customs, normative standards, notions of commonsense, and our ability to read the symbolic environment from influential factors in that environment. In other words, we learn how to interpret and communicate about reality from the reality that we are exposed to and shaped by. Learning through enculturation is a highly naturalised process, often compared to breathing; arbitrary and relative meanings, associations and differences become normal software for us to use in our daily lives.

It is misleading, however, to speak of culture as a kind of closed system, and of enculturation as a straightforward, common process. As a cultural being, you could ask yourself if it is possible to give your culture a label. To do this assumes that all of the processes that influence us are in harmony, and undisputed by us as experiential beings. It is common to hear culture being exclusively linked with national cultures, but even in isolated and apparently homogenous nations, there are many factors of difference and diversity which are important influences. In an increasingly globalised world, such national contexts are more and more difficult to imagine or sustain. Unprecedented human movement (from the privileged mobility of tourism to the misery of forced migration), global communication systems, increased economic linkages and larger international and global systems make it, to put it bluntly, more difficult for us to ignore each other. The repetoire of cultural influences that people are exposed to is constantly increasing, and some writers argue that the world is experiencing the development of *third cultures* through processes of *hybridity*. That is, the constant flow and meeting of peoples, objects, ideas and images are creating cultures that extend beyond the traditional markers of nation, family, ethnicity, religion, and so forth.

In many ways, international youth seminars can be seen in this light. Participants are encultured in different forms, yet it must also be emphasised that they may have many things in common; frames of reference, values, types of educational capital, youth subcultural lifestyles, organisational cultures, political commitments, and the list could be extended much further.

Therefore, while cultures exist, it is arguable whether we can equate people, or ourselves, solely with one culture, and that is presuming that we were able to describe that culture and set limits that differentiate it. The concept of identity allows us to approach these cultural contradictions in relation to our own experiences. Imagine that you are a Russian doll, with endless possibilities to produce another doll from inside the last one. How many would you need to represent the factors that are important to you in your identity? Reflecting on identity becomes a very important component in intercultural learning, as we shall see later on. At this point, it is worth thinking about these theoretical arguments in relation to a training situation.

1.3.2 Culture, Identity and Training.

A difficult question for any trainer to confront is, when is a situation cultural? Say, hypothetically, that *Miguel* constantly arrives late for plenary; how does the interculturally sensitive trainer react? Does she smile tolerantly at her reading of Miguel's southern time management, or read the riot act to the lazy boy and demand the same respect and commitment as that shown by a bunch of punctual northern Europeans with big watches? The example is clearly cliched and stereotyped, but it illustrates a number of points; that we are required to interpret and evaluate information in this context, that we do so in relation to knowledge, experience and cultural information, and that we must negotiate the interaction between cultural beings and the evolving culture of the group itself (Question for discussion: does a training group have a culture, and if so, what notion of culture is being employed?). There is the possibility that Miguel is consciously manipulating the stereotypes which he knows exist, thus introducing the point that people also play roles and articulate their cultures differently, depending on the context they find themselves in. Relatedly, it is argued that people often step into the cultural roles expected of them as a way of dealing with the ambiguities of a multicultural environment.

These processes begin from the one predictable moment in a training – people meeting.

- Reflect on a recent international activity you took part in. When you met others, how did you represent your identity and way of living cultures? Did you think about the clothes you wore, the jokes you told, the type and speed of the information you offered about yourself? Did this differ from person to person? Can you trace the development of your roles within the group? Which of your *Russian Dolls* were public, and at what stage in the seminar?

While we may attempt to control the way we are interpreted by the way we represent our identity, reflecting on the way that we interpret others may indicate how successful this is likely to be.

- Earlier in this section, we used the metaphor of culture as software. Think of some people that you know well from youth work. When you first met, was it possible to 'read' them from very limited contact and information? What stereotypes and categories of interpretation did your software provide? Have any of these interpretations remained the same? Could you read their reading of you, and if so, did you attempt to adapt or reinforce these?

These processes of identity negotiation are central to understanding cultural group dynamics. People with complex socio-cultural biographies simultaneously project and interpret each other – we attempt to identify ourselves and others. We are not used to operating in a vacuum, which is why we can provide learned structures of reading from minimal information. The French sociologist Roland Barthes argued that signs in society have a denotative and connotative level. So, when we see a chair, it not only denotes the everyday object chair, but it also connotes (suggests) every chair we have ever seen, known, dreamed of, sat on, hated. In the same way, complex signs called participants can be immediately interpreted, despite us having little or no personal information about them. Stereotyping is a way of navigating complexity, the problems come when no new or challenging information is inputted into our software.

What this also emphasises is that we are constantly communicating cultural information, and that highly influential communication takes place outside of spoken languages. Yet when people are speaking the same language, similar cultural processes are taking place. Language also works in terms of denotation and connotation, so while a group may share a vocabulary, that vocabulary may have subtle cultural and personal connotations that are very difficult to pinpoint. When people discuss justice, it is not just that they may have differing concepts of justice per se, but also that they way in which they have learned to use the concept justice may differ from one linguistic community to another.

Interpretation always involves some form of evaluation as well. A good example is the way we may interpret people's fashion style. It not only allows us to 'download' information, but information which evaluates them in various ways, for example, a shaved head. The connotations which we carry are not just neutral associations, but also related to our values about the world around us. Our cultural downloads contain prejudices; that is, the possibility to make judgments on limited information. Consider this again in a seminar situation: what types of people are you drawn to initially, and why? Who do you never seek out?

So far, this section has looked at the factors which can broadly be considered cultural when a group comes together. We must also remember that these cultural response patterns are not pre-determined, but highly influenced by the group itself. Stuart Hall has referred to groups as 'discursive formations', meaning that the different aspects of people's identities – the Russian Dolls – articulate in different relations to each other, depending on the context, group life, moment in process, and so on. Important elements in our culture and identity are not in some fixed order, but may shift in importance depending on the way we interpret the situation, and feel our interpretations will be received and valued. Think, for example, of different discussions on the same topic you may have had in different trainings. How have your contributions, ideas or positions varied? What do you think contributed to this?

1.3.3 Intercultural Learning?

In a general sense, intercultural learning may be viewed as a philosophical and educational response to the complexities of cultural situations. A point to bear in mind in relation to the processes discussed above is that our culture, how ever we conceive it, legitimates our interpretations and evaluations of social reality as normal and natural. People do not live in suspended animation; everyday we interpret and process enormous amounts of cultural information, and can only do this by deeply relying on our interpretative frameworks. It is within these certainties that *difference* and *others* may become evaluated negatively, and even seen as a threat. We do not have to search far in the societies around us to see these processes at work.

Intercultural learning operates from the viewpoint that, as Georg Lichtenberg put it, "It would be strange if the true system of philosophy and the true system of the cosmos both came out of Prussia". The education we are involved in, and the larger societies that we live, constantly bring into contact various deeply held notions of the true system of the cosmos. Intercultural learning attempts to challenge the centrality of our naturalised values and interpretations with the possibility to learn other values consciously. For some, intercultural learning is about management; allowing people to navigate their way through tricky foreign assignments, or business encounters. There is a useful body of literature developed in this field *(see, for example, Guirdham, 1999)*. In the youth field, intercultural learning is often approached as part of a political project of building sustainable, participative intercultural societies, and as an educational discourse which allows us to benefit from the processes that take place within international trainings. (Question: how much of this analysis do you feel is relevant to national trainings you have taken part in?)

In further sections *(4.2.5)* we will be looking at ways of reflecting on ourselves as intercultural trainers, the approaches it may be necessary to develop, and discussing intercultural methodology. The table below lists some factors for the intercultural trainer to consider, and links them to more general training skills. It may prove useful for both personal reflection and thinking through the content of your training programmes.

Intercultural training competences and skills

Knowledge	• Awareness of intercultural processes and phenomena • Intercultural learning: understanding the possible stages of intercultural development, familiarity with key concepts and competences. • Intercultural training: – Design issues: session, day and program design – Learner issues: learning in an often ambiguous situation and relation of this to the learner's cultural identity. – Trainer issues: reflexivity in relation to own cultural identity, one's own strengths, weaknesses, preferences, blind spots. – Content: knowledge of central theoretical aspects of intercultural learning and communication, ability to evaluate applicability in training situations. – Educational approach: adapted to the learners's cultural backgrounds, learning styles and training objectives; knowledge of relevant training methodologies and their appropriate sequencing. • Diversity training issues: dealing with questions of power, racism, oppression and socio-economic inequalities to promote positive intergroup relations.
Training Process Skills	• Organisational and learner needs assessment: the motivations of the organisation and of the participants, their learning styles, needs according the group constitution (cultural background, gender, etc.) • Training design: – Aims and objectives (according to the needs assessment) – Content: related to aims, needs and group constitution. – Program design and methodology: selection and sequencing of the methods according the participants' learning styles and needs. • Program implementation: delivering the programme, awareness of trainer roles and group dynamics, adequate debriefing. • Program evaluation: during and after implementation.
Personal skills	• Cognitive and behavioral flexibility: ability to adapt to new ways of thinking, behaving and interacting. • Cultural identity: having a developed sense of one's own cultural identity (and related values, attitudes, beliefs, style of communication and patterns of behaviour) • Tolerance of ambiguity: being able to work with unforeseen situations and contested meanings in training and with participants • Patience • Enthusiasm and commitment • Interpersonal and communication skills (including teamwork) • Openess to new experiences and people • Empathy • Respect • Sense of humor (and an awareness of the complexities of humour in intercultural situations!)
Technical skills	• Theoretical and practical knowledge about presentation, visualisation and documentation • Use of visualisation aids (overhead, flippchart,...)

(Adapted from Landis and Bhagat, 1996)

Suggestions for reflection

1. Could you add a skill/competency which you think is important and is missing from this list?
2. How do you approach your own intercultural learning process?
3. The table above lists several personal competences. Is this fair, do you think? Is it possible to train for these qualities?
4. How important is continuous training of trainers for your youth organisation? Who decides about the topics? How are trainees chosen? How is intercultural learning dealt with?

2. Training in Teams

2.1 Multicultural Team Work

2.1.1. Why work in a multicultural team?

Many training events are prepared, run and evaluated by a single trainer working alone. Provided that this trainer has the experience and competencies required for that particular course, such an arrangement has some clear advantages. The trainer can take the necessary decisions and compose a coherent course structure and methodology according her own approach and working rhythm. Working in a team, on the other hand, takes time and energy. People have different opinions and ways of working, the process of working together can be tiresome and frustrating, the result can be chaotic and the quality of performance inconsistent.

That said, when organising a training course for an international or multicultural group of participants, there are some very good reasons for handing over the responsibility to a multicultural team of trainers.

Working in a team with people of different backgrounds and with a variety of experiences, approaches, views, values and opinions may well involve more disagreements and arguments, and require increased flexibility, tolerance and openness to other modes of perception and behaviour. It requires making efforts to understand the other members' points of view and making compromises. Intercultural teamwork can therefore be highly ineffective, as team dynamics disrupt concentrating on the tasks at hand. If thought through and managed well however, the resources and competencies of the different team members can complement each other to produce a rich and creative process and results that complement the complexity of the task and target group. This is intercultural teamwork as an exciting, stimulating and also highly effective process. Intercultural teamwork can be a deep mutual learning experience for all team members, as well as a source of mutual support in carrying the workload, responsibilities and stress of the training.

Maybe most importantly, diversity within the team suggests that a number of essential issues likely to come up during the training course may be signalled and discussed already in the team. Personal preferences and experiences, cultural differences, different social realities and educational systems across and beyond Europe influence our approaches to learning and training. In common with participants, trainers have different ways and styles of learning, training and working together, set different priorities and prefer different methods. Discussing and finding a balance between them lessens, at least to some extent, the cultural specificity of the training and increases the likelihood of coming up with an approach, or a combination of approaches, that the participants can refer to and will find useful.

Suggestions for reflection

Diversity – what does it mean?

A variety of aspects can be considered when composing a 'diverse team' for a seminar or training course: country or region of origin, ethnic or cultural background, organisational background, age, sex, etc.

1. Which factors do you consider important when selecting members for a training team?
2. Are there institutional requirements of your organisation or service that you need to consider? What are they?

2.1.2. What makes a team a team?

Much of what happens during training courses happens in groups, be it the group of participants, working or evaluation groups, informal groups, or the group of trainers. "Group behaviour has ranged from total chaos to dramatic success, but it is increasingly evident that groups enjoy their greatest success when they become more productive units called teams" (Maddux, R.B. 1990, p.10). Groups and teams are not interchangeable terms, nor is 'team' a feel-good label for what is clearly a group.

A group becomes a team when

– its members feel a sense of ownership for their work and a commitment to commonly established objectives

– there is a shared understanding that personal and team goals are best reached with mutual support

– there is participative decision making

– members can contribute their personal resources, qualities and competencies to the success of the work

– there is a climate of trust and encouragement to express ideas, opinions, disagreements, feelings and questions, where members make efforts to understand each other's point of view

– members are encouraged to develop their skills and apply them during the work

– Conflict is considered a normal aspect of interaction and is viewed as an opportunity for new ideas, creativity and improvement.

(ibid, pp 10-12)

While these principles are quite inspiring, we still need to consider how to make a team really work. The next section outlines some aspects to consider and some ideas for methods to use with your team.

2.2. Team building and team life

2.2.1 Forming the Team

The eventual members of the team depend on a variety of organisational and practical criteria. Are people with a particular function in the organisation to be included? What are the financial means available? Besides those aspects, the course theme and the target group of participants should be important aspects in determining which trainers have the appropriate knowledge, experience, background and approach for the training course. Moreover, the team should represent a balance of geographic and cultural backgrounds and approaches that reflects the composition of the target group of participants. While individual trainer competencies are essential, it is crucial to look at complementarity when thinking about composition. A team works best when competencies and resources complement each other, and are used constructively in relation to the course objectives.

The working languages of the different team members deserve careful reflection. Team communication is clearly essential, and expressive capacity in the working language(s) can severely influence possibilities to contribute and effect power structures within the team. Selecting trainers with a good knowledge of one common working language might therefore be a wise decision. This does not mean that it is not beneficial to have other working languages of participants represented in the team. On the contrary, using different working languages during the training course (maybe only in smaller working groups) creates more equal chances for participation and diffuses the power structures that language may create among the participants. It can also help to visualise the cultural determination of many of the concepts used in youth work.

Once it has been decided who will be the team, the common work can begin. Until the beginning of the training course, the program needs to be developed and the team should be able to find out, how it can work together to run and reach the objectives of the training.

Many essential aspects can best be taken care of in a preparation meeting. The possibility of holding one or more preparation meetings before a training course depends on factors such as financial possibilities or the availability of the team members. Some elements can certainly be discussed and prepared by email, fax or telephone before the beginning of the training course. Nothing however replaces a meeting where all team members meet to share and discuss their ideas and agree upon the basic values, objectives and program of the training. Especially if all or some team members have not worked together before, a team meeting to prepare the training course is also the first experience in working together and getting to know each other as colleagues.

Besides clarifying the course frame, preparing the program and distributing the tasks, some time should be reserved to build the team and to evaluate the meeting. Before ending the meeting, establishing a clear division of tasks with deadlines for their completion is essential. Who should do what by when? What can be done by email, what not? It is useful to decide on a co-ordinator for the process of team communication after the meeting to ensure that the process is actually followed up until the next meeting.

Why not make a team contract for the trainers on your team?

For instance

– We will strive to communicate with each other honestly.
– We are committed to all team meetings
– We will strive to be together during the training course as much as possible.
– We will have daily assessments of each other's performance
– We will not interrupt each other's sessions.
– We will try to contribute constructively during each other's sessions by mentioning at the end of the session any additional learning points that the session co-ordinator might have missed.

(From Guijt et al. 1992)

Which elements do you consider important to make your team work?

2.2.2 Creating a climate of trust, support and personal expression

Team building is instrumental in creating an atmosphere that allows team members to get to know each other and to find their place in the team. It is the basis for creating an open climate of trust and respect which is needed to encourage personal expression and contribution, mutual support and a constructive use of team diversity during the training. Team building should include sharing the trainers'

– expectations of the training course and teamwork
– motivation for being part of this team, and
– prior experiences in youth work and training and other experiences of relevance for the particular course.

Further elements of team building can be getting a first idea of everyone's ways of working and some of their strong and weaker points. Finally and importantly, it should provide an opportunity to enjoy each other's company and the prospect of working together. Yes, it should say, working together can be fun! Team building can be done by talking about these points during the meeting or informally over dinner. Specific exercises can help the team to start working together. They can also be good icebreakers and help the trainers relax into the team. You will find two sample exercises below.

Leading and following: leading each other blindfolded through the training site.

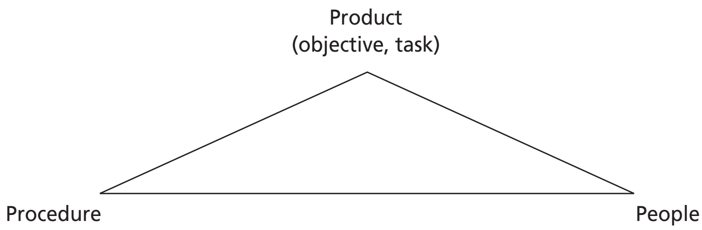
- Aim: Establish trust in each other. Experience following and leading.
- Task: All team members stand in a line facing the back of the person in front of them. With the exception of the first person in the line everybody is blindfolded, and they put their hands on the shoulders of the person in front of them. The first person in line then leads the team through the training site (or the site of the meeting). Change roles after some minutes, so that everyone gets to be the leader. Use your creativity for variations of this exercise: the leader can ask the others to do different things, such as climb over "barriers", talk, sing or draw etc.
- Time: 20 minutes in a team of 4 persons plus some minutes for discussion following the exercise.
- Materials: blindfolds for all team members except one.

What is our ideal trainer or participant?

- Aim: Imagine your ideal trainer or participant for this training course. Find out which elements are shared within the team, and which ones are different. Use creativity and imagination in working together and co-ordinating different ideas.
- Task: All team members sit or stand around one big sheet of paper (e.g. a flipchart paper). Each team member has one marker (in a different colour). On the sheet of paper, draw your trainer or a participant. Anyone can start, the others add elements as they like. This drawing stage should be silent.
- Time: 10 minutes approx. for one drawing and some time for discussion.
- Materials: a big sheet of paper and enough markers for all team members.

Product, process, people: the triangle of the 3 Ps

TE-3



The triangle of the 3 Ps – product, process and people – represents the different poles that any team needs to consider in its work. Many teams tend to focus on the product, on the result to be achieved, as this seems to be the most effective way to work, given that time is always limited. As this text has continuously argued, making sure that the different factors are in equilibrium always enhances a training. Attention to the individual members in the team is important. How do they feel about the work and the team? How does this impact on the team process? Allied to this, to organise its work a team needs some structure, some rules and a division of responsibilities and tasks. Too much of this, however, can be detrimental to creativity and spontaneity. Between the product, the procedure and the people, it is the balance that counts. The model of the 3 Ps can be used in different ways. A more extensive description of it can be found in the *Project Management T-Kit* (pp. 77-78). The *Organisational Management T-Kit* introduces it as a way of looking at leadership (p. 46). This T-Kit takes it up again in a different way in Part 5, when looking at group dynamics as 'theme-centred interaction' *(4.3.1 & 5.1.3)*.

Some suggestions for successful team communication

- Listen to each other and sincerely try to understand what the other person is saying
- Ask questions
- Clarify concepts and understandings (training? facilitating?)
- Deal with emotions
- Offer support
- Give also positive feedback
- Give constructive criticism

2.2.3 Leadership, ownership and participative decision-making

In many cases a team has a designated leader, possibly the person who has called for the team meeting and who is co-ordinating the training event for organising institution or organisation. The co-ordinator usually needs to make sure that the team gets off to a good start and deal with some of the administrative issues.

Clarity about the administrative framework and the conditions, responsibilities and tasks of the team members will lay the basis for the team to begin functioning. What decisions can the team take? What has been decided in advance? What is the situation concerning payment, contracts, institutional expectations? Do all team members have the same responsibilities?

Throughout the work process, there are certain team-leading tasks to be fulfilled. They include, for instance, chairing meetings (ensuring that decisions are taken, that the agenda is followed, etc.), dealing with administrative tasks (such as contracts, invitations to participants, communication with participants), writing reports of team meetings and co-ordinating team communication between meetings. Some of these tasks can be shared amongst the team. This can help create and maintain team ownership of the course and the team itself. It is important to bear in mind that a democratically structured team where members have equal responsibilities also develop certain power structures. Essentially, dealing with leadership in teamwork is a question of how these dynamics and structures are handled. Team members are perceived differently by each other and by the participants, they have different qualities, competencies and personalities. The challenge is to nurture support rather than competition within the team as a result of these differences.

Some questions worth asking yourself are:

- Does your team have a clear leader, possibly to the expense of the other members in the team?
- How are decisions taken?
- Can everyone in the team contribute to her full potential? If not, why is that the case?
- What happens, for instance, if someone is too dominant and if someone else is very quiet?
- Who decides what priorities are set when?
- When does the result become more important than the process?
- How are tasks distributed?
- Who gets the attractive tasks (such as running a nice exercise or giving an important plenary input), and who does the necessary yet invisible, less attractive work?
- What can the team do to create equal chances for participation?

Creating participative and interactive teamwork and decision-making does not mean that every member of the team contributes in the same way. But it does mean that that everyone can contribute to his or her full potential.

2.2.4 Roles in a team: contributing personal resources, qualities and competencies.

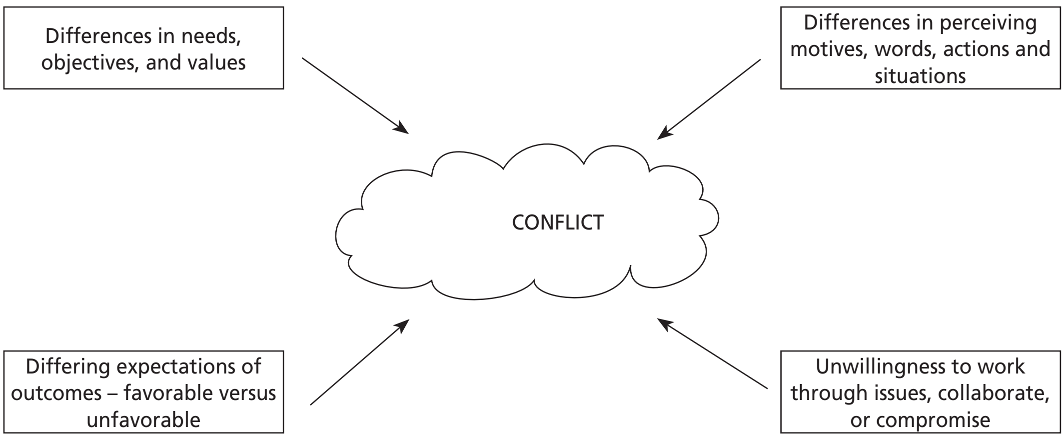
We all know these situations: some people talk a lot, others less. Ideas presented by some people are usually taken up by the team, while other ideas are ignored. Some people have a talent for coming up with creative ideas, while others tend to get stuck on practical details. Some push the team forward and challenge its work, while others ask painstaking questions. Some members have a strong sense of objectives, while others are good at promoting team spirit. There are many roles that people can take on in a team. All of these roles are important and can be complementary for productive teamwork. Depending on the team composition and the particular situation, people might change their roles. Different people bring out different qualities in us and a specific situation can demand specific behaviour and action.

For effective and fulfilling teamwork, it is important that all members can contribute according to their abilities and take on roles that they feel comfortable with and that are recognised and valued by the others. This is easier said then done. Behaviour that is different from our own easily annoys us. Understanding theoretically that people have different needs and ways of contributing is far from being able to accept this situation and to use it constructively. This is especially true for multicultural teams, where personal and cultural factors intermingle in determining team behaviour. Last but not least, good teamwork also depends on how we value the work with our team colleagues as a chance for personal learning and on how the team fosters this development. Reflective team analysis and careful feedback are essential elements in this process *(see 3.3.2)*.

2.2.5. Viewing conflict as an opportunity for improvement and creativity

Sometimes we assume that our team works best when it works harmoniously, without major disagreements. Working in harmony is of course very nice, as long as we are sure that it is harmony for everybody. While not suggesting that everything is not always what it seems, sometimes apparent team harmony is the avoidance of disagreements and frustrations that exist but are not expressed. We would argue that constructive teamwork includes working with conflicts among team members and accepting them as a normal element of team communication.

Conflicts in teams mostly evolve for four different reasons:



Many European and U.S. theories suggest that conflicts are best dealt with if they are addressed openly, consciously and directly. In some other cultural contexts, however, openly and directly stating disagreements and related feelings might not be acceptable and conflicts are dealt with in more indirect ways. *5.2* takes a closer look at dealing with conflicts in groups or teams.

2.2.6. Tolerance of tensions and ambiguity

Tensions and ambiguities are an inherent part of intercultural teamwork. To be able to accept them while still operating often proves to be a challenging and difficult aspect of work with team colleagues.

Fundamental tensions and ambiguities include:

- Tension between individual interests and the collective interest, between 'being myself' and 'serving the whole'. Both sides are essential, and suggest another key element of the balancing act that is team work.
- Tension between the need and challenge of change, flexibility and innovation and adherence to established structures, principles and points of orientation.
- Tension between the wish to set and reach ideal aims and the knowledge that they will never be fully reached.

(Pohl and Witt, 2000)

- Tolerance of ambiguity. Intercultural teamwork requires of its members a continual recognition that there are various *right* modes of perception and behaviour. Different approaches to the same idea are normal, different perceptions and interpretations of the same situation must also be recognised as such.

Facing these tensions and ambiguity can throw us off balance and make us doubt our own views and convictions, make us feel insecure, confused or frustrated. This is also normal, and the process of establishing common values, objectives and basic agreements can provide valuable stability for the team.

2.3 From preparation to practice: teamwork during the training course

2.3.1 Predicting issues

The experience of how the team actually works together in practice only arrives with the start of the training course. In the heat of the training, the pressure to perform in front of the participants can be stronger than good intentions regarding the functioning of the team. It is worthwhile to pre-empt some issues that are likely to arise, and to form team strategies in relation to them.

- *Team meetings and team feedback:* Set aside time for regular team meetings, even if there is a program to prepare and run and pressure to spend social time with the participants. In most meetings, the evaluation and planning of the program will determine the agenda. Nevertheless, make sure to take some time to check how every member feels about the course, the team and their own role in it. You might want to reserve some time in advance for team feedback, for instance; 'On Wednesday evening we will have a longer team meeting and take one hour to share how we feel about us as a team'.
- *Experts:* Fragile team dynamics can be upset by the presence of invited experts or lecturers that work with the team for a short while. Discuss how you want to deal with this issue in your team. What role does the expert have? To what extent does she need to be integrated into the team?
- *Time management:* Team members might have different, let's say, relationships with time, especially but not exclusively in intercultural teams.
  – When a team meeting is set for 18.00h, does it actually start at this time? If not, why? Is it okay for wait for each other (or always for the same person) or not?
  – During the program, how strictly do you plan and handle the schedule? What if a working group has not finished its discussion? Do you as a trainer stop it?

Basic agreements on how to deal with time might contribute to a smooth running of the course and give the team members more security in dealing with specific situations.

- *Team and participants:* Team members may have different expectations and attitudes towards their relationship with the participants.
  - How important is it to spend time with the participants during their social time? How much time should be spent with participants?
  - How do we deal with participants' feedback about the course? How important are their interests and opinions in relation to the priorities set by the team?
  - How much responsibility for the program and the course do we want to hand over to the participants?
  - What do we consider a 'professional relationship' between participants and trainers?
  - To what extent do we need to agree on these questions?

Whatever the decisions taken within your team, and whatever the disagreements, a team will receive more respect and be considered more professional by participants when it acts as a team in front of them. This means discussing issues and voicing disagreement and frustrations within the team, rather than in front of the group. Clarify within the team ways of providing support in front of the group, regardless of behind the scene issues. For instance, what do you do if the chair of the day forgets to mention a point previously agreed upon? Should someone else interfere? How?

2.3.2 Evaluation and feedback

Evaluation is a means to improving our work in the future and is therefore a central part of teamwork. The team should evaluate the programme, the participants, how it is reaching the objectives, and also its own work. *4.6* deals with evaluation in general. When evaluating teamwork, it is necessary to consider such elements as team performance and dynamics, leadership, decision making, roles, communication and conflict management.

Here are four ideas of how to evaluate your teamwork:

- *Evaluation rounds:* Many teams decide to have daily or otherwise regular rounds of evaluation during a training course. Sitting together, in a confidential and relaxed setting, might be the most comfortable way to evaluate your work, share concerns and find ways of dealing with critical points. To reinvigorate the dynamics of the team, you might wish to change the space you normally work in for a meeting of this kind.
- *Our teamwork: where do you stand?*

  Step 1: Each member writes one sentence expressing their opinion about the team on a sheet of paper (for instance "the team does not handle its differences constructively"). Everyone can write several sentences on several sheets of paper.

  Step 2: One person puts their paper in the middle of the space and reads out the sentence written on it. The team members then place themselves around it and explain and share their opinions. The less they agree with the statement, the farther away they stand from the paper. One by one, all sentences are read out and team members take a stand on them.

Used in this context, this method should be handled flexibly, allowing time for discussion and sharing of thoughts where necessary and taking the time to address sensitive issues.

- *The triangle of the 3 Ps*. The model outlined in *3.2.2* can form a useful basis for evaluating the priorities your team sets in its work. Where does your team place the focus? Are you forging a balance between these interconnected elements?
- *Questionnaire about team co-operation* (Appendix 1). If the team is working together for a substantial period of time this might be a useful way to begin an analysis. Ask everyone to individually complete the questionnaire. Then share, compare and discuss the results in your team. What works well? Which points would you like to improve? You might want to invite an external trainer to facilitate the discussion following the completion of the questionnaire.

Personal feedback: why, when and how?

How do I see you as a trainer and as a team member? Feedback in a team about each other's qualities and performance is a sensitive issue and should be handled with a lot of care. Even if the focus of feedback is (and should be!) on the role of the trainer and not on the person within the trainer as such, training involves personalities, and means placing part of ourselves into an often dynamic and intense process. And, as with all life-roles, criticism can hurt, create insecurities and strike at hidden issues, even when offered in a constructive spirit.

Negative feedback can be hard to take. Positive feedback is important and very nice to hear, but alone does not help us much to improve our work. Criticism also needs to address our week points, but in a constructive way that helps the person receiving the feedback to improve. If there is enough trust in the team, feedback can be a learning experience and an occasion for self-reflection and self-improvement, helping to create more confidence and better working conditions within the team. The focus of team feedback can be the functioning of the team and the roles that team members are taking on. It can also be the competencies and working styles that the individual team members have shown during the course to date. How feedback is used depends on how far a team wants to go in evaluating its performance.

Some guidelines for giving feedback:

- Consider the needs of the person receiving the feedback.
- Describe behaviour only – do not attempt to interpret.
- Focus on behaviour that can be changed.
- Be specific. Give examples.
- Wait for feedback to be asked for.
- Do not judge.
- If possible, give feedback immediately after the behaviour (if asked for it).
- Allow the freedom to change or not to change.
- Express feelings directly (e.g. 'It makes me insecure when you…').
- Also give positive feedback.

(P. G. Hanson, 1975)

Two ideas of how to give feedback:

Exercise about team work and roles in the team: The vehicle method

Step 1. In pairs or individually, imagine this team as a vehicle. It can be anything you wish, a car, tractor, steamboat or plane. The vehicle should express what you feel is the essence of the team. Make a drawing of this vehicle.

Step 2. Try to place the different team members in the vehicle. Which parts of the vehicle do you see them corresponding to? Who is the sail, motor, compass, seat, brake, global positioning system, and so forth. Why?

Step 3. Explain your drawings to each other.

Step 4. Debrief – What did we get out of this?

Time: At least 1 hour for a team of 4 persons.

Exercise about giving personal feedback: The hot chair

- Find a comfortable space for your team. Sit in a circle, place one chair in the middle. One by one, team members sit on this 'hot chair'.
- From there, tell your team colleagues what you would like to get feedback about: your performance as a trainer, your role in the team, and so on. The other team members will then answer you, bearing in mind the guidelines you have agreed on.
- Set a time limit for each person's visit to the hot chair.
- While sitting on the hot chair, you cannot react to individual comments, but you have some time for reactions and questions once the feedback round is over and before the next team member takes the chair.
- Time needed: at least 20 minutes per team member.
- Attention: this can be a very sensitive exercise. Remember to agree some basic rules for giving feedback beforehand!

2.3.3 Where do we go from here?

Every team works differently, and every new team has to create and nurture its own process. Importantly, we can feed our past experiences into further developing our teamwork competencies. Difficult and problematic working processes can constitute a learning resource. Sometimes, when working in the same team for a second, or longer time, we might have the opportunity to build on the past team process to improve communication and performance. If you want to read more about aspects of intercultural teamwork, you can also consult the relevant chapters in the *Project Management T-Kit* and *Organisational Management T-Kit*. **Appendix 1** is a reflection sheet for team co-operation.

Some principles for successful team work

- Commitment! A team can only work effectively if every member wants it to work.
- Take the time needed to discuss basic approaches and ideas, to evaluate your teamwork and give to feedback to each other.
- Make a contract; everyone is in charge!
- Act on the basis of commonly established basic values and objectives.
- Accept yourself and the others.
- Self-responsibility: I am responsible for my own actions and behaviour.
- Trust in and support each other's abilities and performance.
- Respect everyone's limits.
- Be ready to take the risk to do something new, challenge yourself.
- Accept mistakes as a chance for learning.
- Process-oriented thinking: the objectives are important, but the process is important as well. The team is able to improve itself by examining its procedures and practices.
- Establish some procedures to analyse situations and solve problems.
- Be ready to accept emotions as part of the work process.
- Keep a balance between efficiency and social quality.
- Have pride in the accomplishments of the team.
- Teamwork is also fun! If it isn't, something is wrong.

(Adapted from: Pohl, M & Witt, J. 2000)

Recommendations of the Curriculum and Quality Development Group of the Partnership of the Council of Europe and the European Commission on "Quality standards for European youth worker training" with regard to team work:

- International composition of the team of trainers
- Balanced composition of the team of trainers with respect to nationality, origin, gender and other significant factors.
- The team composition should be reflective of the composition of the participants' group.
- Common working language for the team of trainers
- The composition of the team of trainers should reflect the knowledge and competence necessary to implement the course.
- Preparatory meeting of team of trainers well before the training course.
- Acceptable and fair economic conditions for participants and team of trainers.
- Clear agreements between all actors (team organiser, team of trainers, participants, sending organisations).

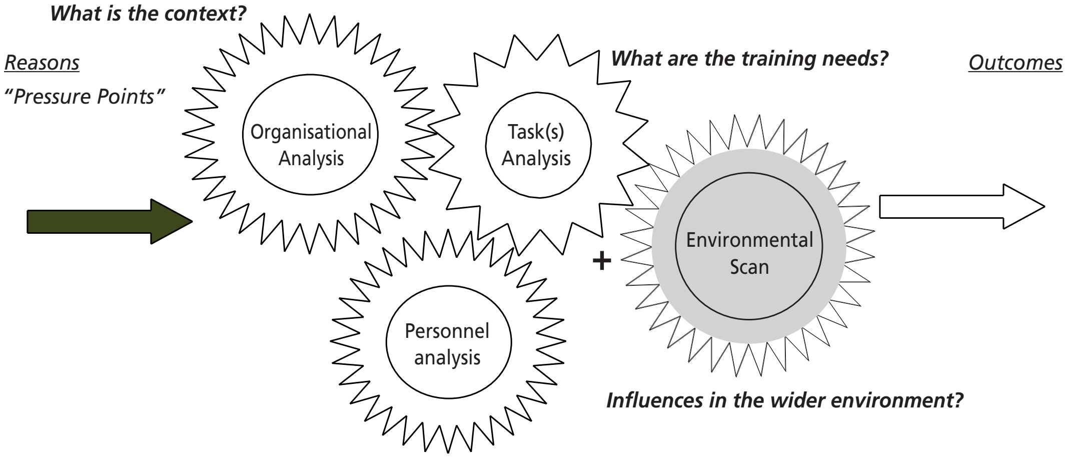
3. Training in Motion

3.1 Needs assessment

Needs assessment is the first step in the process of training, and a fundamental one. It refers to the initial analysis done to determine if a training is necessary and whether or not it answers to the perceived needs. This is a crucial point that often seems to be neglected in youth organisations. Undertaking a serious needs assessment within youth NGOs and their immediate environment requires a lot of effort, knowledge and money. This kind of research should not be confused with research conducted on different issues pertaining to youth all over Europe. In a needs assessment the emphasis is on the needs that that the youth organisations, their active members and their immediate target group have in order to improve and consolidate their work. This section briefly outlines several different aspects of the needs assessment process.

3.1.1 The needs assessment process

TE-4



(Adapted from R.A. Noe, 1998, p.51)

It is important to note that a needs assessment process in organisations ordinarily entails a complete analysis of what the organisation is working on, what its members want to accomplish, and what they need (in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes) in order to be capable of reaching it.

- *Organisational analysis* means considering the framework in which the training will occur. This involves analysing the youth organisation in context, its ongoing developments, its membership, volunteers and staff continuity and turnover. A needs assessment process aims at identifying the organisation's main areas of concentration, the needs this highlights, and the necessary strategy to address the highlighted issues. A brief example is that of a youth organisation which decides to emphasise human rights education during its next semester. Clearly this organisation will need to acquire more knowledge on the subject, and undertake general organisational adjustment to manage the specificity of the subject it plans to prioritise
- *Task analysis* identifies the tasks that must be fulfilled within the organisation in order to achieve its goals. If we continue to use the example from the previous paragraph, a relevant task analysis will identify specific tasks, or work profiles, related to its programme of human rights education. Related to this is an inventory of the skills, knowledge and competencies needed to tackle the work profiles.
- *Personnel analysis* follows logically from the identification of tasks and required skills. It involves an initial overview of current suitability for the activities planned, and also identifies those in need of training, across the spectrum of volunteers, board members, staff or project officers and so forth. The endpoint of this analysis is examining the readiness and willingness for training within the organisation.

So far, we have mentioned three different factors, and these can be found in almost every needs assessment model you will encounter. When dealing with youth NGOs however, it is of crucial importance to add two further aspects:

– The first point is the specificity of youth organisations in relation to the three aspects mentioned so far. Because of the constant turnover in YNGOs, a personnel analysis should be conducted more often than in other organisations. Youth work tends to be very dynamic, and constant change may results in organisational strengths and weaknesses fluctuating rapidly over short periods of time. A simple example is the way in which a change in leadership in the organisation could result in either a huge improvement or disaster.

– The second point is the inclusion of another analytical factor termed the environmental scan (it is already included in TE-4). In other sectors, the environmental scan is considered as a component of the organisational analysis. In the youth sector there is a special need to emphasise this very important category.

• The *environmental scan* is an analysis of the immediate and wider environment of the youth NGO. The importance of this as a separate analysis is because of the significant influence of the outside environment on the work of youth organisations(for example state policy, readiness of major donor organisations, and so forth). This element of the needs assessment maps out the possible collaborators in the field, identifies the relevant competition, maps the key 'actors' in the field and investigates the relations between them.

When working on an international level, it is almost impossible for a youth NGO to undertake a comprehensive needs assessment. This difficulty is not however an excuse not to attempt it at all, as very often happens in today's youth organisations. We frequently hear statements such as 'we need more trainers for youth work' or 'We need X amount of members with negotiation skills', but how frequently do we hear the question 'why' at the same time? Every training event should be preceded by a process of establishing the needs assessment on which it will be based. There is no shame involved in ending up with an incomplete needs assessment. Be very ashamed however, if at the end of all of this you are still not convinced of its centrality in the cycle of creating good and effective training programs!

Suggestions for reflection

How did my organisation decide that topic X was of particular importance to our recent training schedule?

Who has identified the needs, and in what way?

Were the participants of the training really in need of it? How do you know?

Is the needs assessment approach suggested above appropriate for your youth organisation?

Sample exercise: How to do an environmental scan[2]

Rationale: Many training needs in an organisation are directly or indirectly influenced by external factors. Very often the organisation needs more input (supply) for certain training activities that it can afford. The organisation may not have identified a real need in the immediate environment for such training, even discovering that the training under consideration is already being delivered by another organisation. There are plenty of opportunities and threats that can steer the training effort towards success or failure. While the organisational, task and personnel analyses look inside the organisation, the environmental scan focuses on analysing the influential factors external to the organisation.

2. We will concentrate on the environmental scan here as the other analyses described in this section are covered in the *Organisational Management T-Kit* and the *Project Management T-Kit.*

Objective: To precisely identify the external factors influencing a potential or ongoing training activity.

Time needed: 2 hours

Technical needs: flipchart paper, cards or post-it in 2 different colours, markers.

Note: This exercise can be used in various training for trainers courses where participants come from different organisations. In that situation, this is more applicable as an individual exercise, with a common ending for sharing observations and conclusions in groups of 4-8 participants. Of course, this exercise can be used on training courses where all participants come from few or a single organisation. Participants can then be divided into small groups of 4-5, creating one environmental scan per group and at a later stage sharing their observations and conclusions in a plenary session.

Steps for implementing an environmental scan

1. Define the field of analysis; what is the training concerned with?
2. List all external factors influencing your field of analysis; physical, infrastructural, technological, socio-cultural, economic, governmental, non-governmental, inter-organisational, institutional and anything else that springs to mind!
3. Identify the likely or existent influence of that factor. If it seems unlikely, strike it off the list.
4. Identify if the factor has a positive or negative impact on your field of analysis

   – if it is positive, write it on a green card or post-it.

   – if it is negative, write it on a red one.
5. Identify the type of factor, and whether you can have an influence on it or not. Then put the card on the flip chart (see TE-5 below).
   - Classify the factors according to the following zones (see TE-5)
     - Supply – input the organisation has available to put into the training activity (adequate training facilities, experienced trainers, previous experience in organising such events etc.) and what it lacks (funds to implement the training, no appropriate training aids, etc).
     - Demand – Whether or not there is a demand for such training. Depending on the type of training, demand can be both inside and outside of the organisation (volunteers in youth NGOs who have never received that type of training, low awareness among NGOs for the need of such training, high interest for the topic among the volunteers etc).
     - Competition / collaboration – other organisations that are already implementing or are interested in being involved in similar types of training (NGO X is interested in collaborating on the subject matter, NGO Y is already doing similar types of training, the government is looking for partners, etc).
     - General conditions in the immediate environment – check the range of other factors influencing the training project (for a course in Caucasus for example, one should check border situations, current attitudes of the government towards youth work, and so forth).
   - Assess whether or not you can influence each factor. If you can, put it inside the rectangle (see TE-5), otherwise place it outside. If you are not sure put it on the border.
6. Review all the factors now on the chart. Mark those that have the largest impact on your field of analysis.
7. Observations / Conclusions

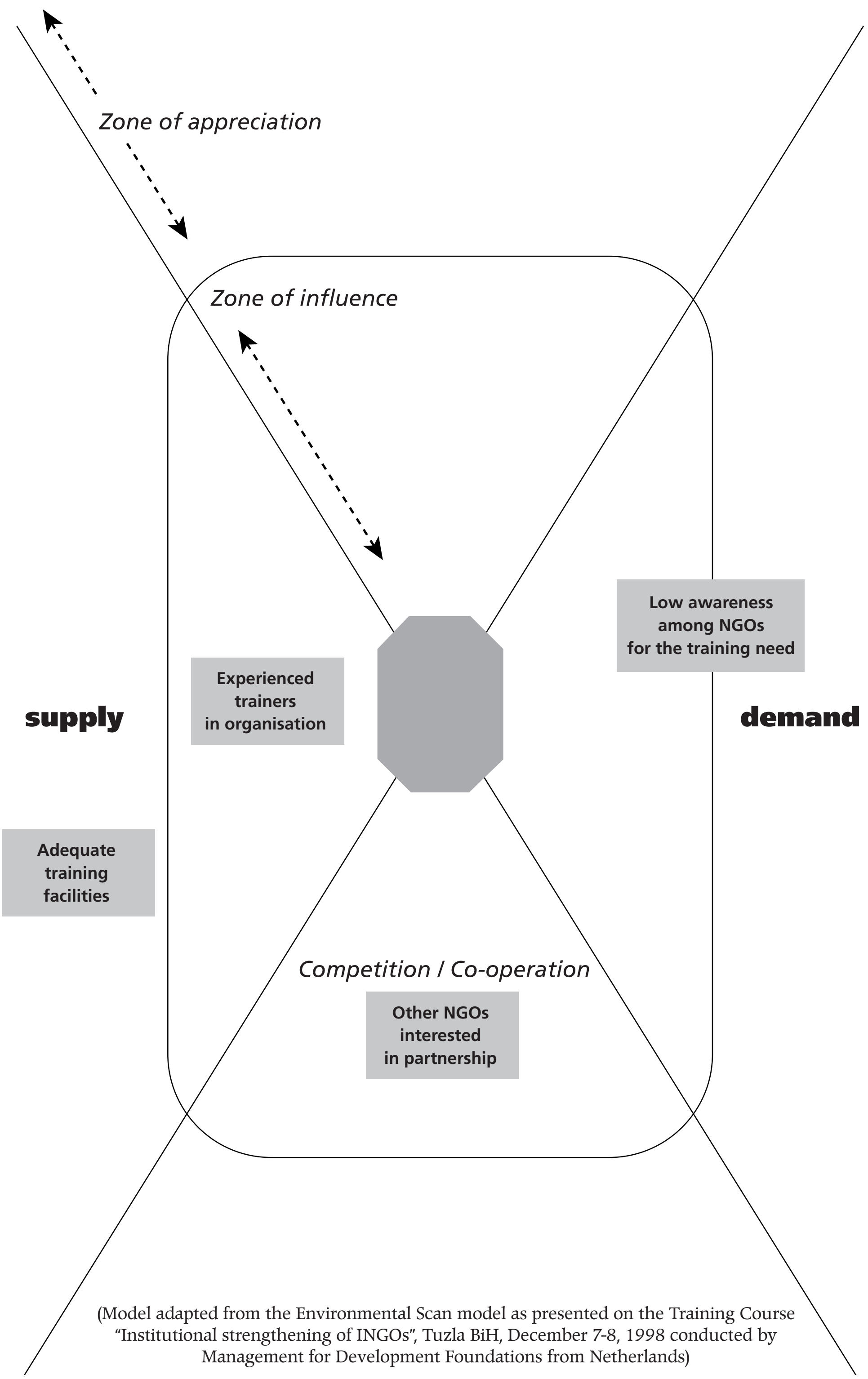
What are the major positive factors? What are the major negative factors?

Which ones can you influence directly and which not? How could you address those factors you cannot influence directly?

Is your training activity feasible? Is there enough demand for this activity? Does your organisation have sufficient capacity?

TE-5 Environmental Scan Graph

(In this version the model is adapted to the assessment of training needs and training provision in one organisation)



(Model adapted from the Environmental Scan model as presented on the Training Course "Institutional strengthening of INGOs", Tuzla BiH, December 7-8, 1998 conducted by Management for Development Foundations from Netherlands)

3.1.2 Sanctioning training

Section 1.1 outlined many of the issues involved in youth training at the European level. This section re-visits the context of training, to link the process of needs analysis to the factors which make a training possible. A training may take place because of a variety of initiatives, and for a range of motivations. This raises some basic questions:

– Who identifies the problems and defines the needs to be addressed by training?

– Who organises it?

– What is the purpose?

– Who receives the training?

Based on the divergent answers that one may have to these questions, a distinction can be made between four different reasons for sanctioning an activity:

To address the organisation's needs (a youth organisation conducts training for its members in order to address some of their own needs)

This situation is very common in non-governmental youth organisations. A youth organisation identifies its own needs and envisages a training that will respond to them. It is entirely responsible for the whole process: identification of the needs, definition of the objectives, providing trainers, fund raising, conducting the training of its own members and evaluating the results. The organisations of scouts and girl-guides, for example, have well-developed schemes for training their members on a regular basis.

Training influenced by the donors' policies

Government agencies, the big international non-governmental foundations and other governmental or non-governmental donor organisations (EU, CoE, Open Society Institute and many others) often engage in their own needs assessment in the youth sector. A frequent response is to identify and sanction the type of training that is needed. The most common strategies that they practice are:

a) Organising the training by themselves. Well-known examples are the training courses of the Directorate of Youth and Sport (CoE), SALTO training courses of the YOUTH Programme (EU), or EU local agencies working on a local level.

a) Funding the training activities of the youth non-governmental organisations, which apply for and may receive grants to conduct the training. See for examples the study session program for IYNGOs administered by the Directorate of Youth and Sports (CoE), and the activities financed by the Open Society Institute in central and eastern Europe.

Training organised for several organisations working in the sector (including participants from the organisation that is conducting the training)

This type of training is quite different from the previous one. In this instance one organisation (or network) applies for funds and conducts the training, while participants from several other organisations take part. This is common practice and donors tend to support it because of its wider reach and potential multiplying effect. Projects supported by the European Youth Foundation frequently fall into this category. A result of the training courses detailed in 2(a) above can often be the development of this kind of training, as members of different organisations meet and find common priorities and possibilities.

Training delivered as a service (the organisation or training agency specialises in delivering training as a service to potentials customers)

Specialist organisations or agencies that offer training services also exist, and may deliver their services free of charge or for a set or negotiated fee. These training agencies are not usually concentrating on the youth field, but have professional trainers with expertise on different topics in which they deliver workshops and training courses. At this point it is also important to mention the individuals who do not belong to any training agency, but simply deliver training to different youth organisations as freelance trainers. Some members of the trainers pools of the European Youth Forum and the Directorate of Youth and Sport operate in this capacity.

Suggestions for reflection

1. Think of the last training activity you have taken part in; who initiated the training?
2. In which of the above-mentioned categories can you place that training?
3. Who has financed the activity? Has the donor had a big say in the definition of the objectives and the outcome of the training? To what extent was the overall aim of the activity related to the vision and mission of the organisation?
4. Who were the participants?

3.2 Learning, learning outcomes and learning styles

The previous section has outlined for us the importance of thinking through the needs that necessitate a training. By linking an analysis of these needs with a stocktaking of what is required to meet them, the first steps have been taken in planning a training session or program. The needs analysis, then, raises the basic point that a training is being suggested because people need to learn something. This section continues by considering the concept of learning, and links it to the practice of conceiving and planning a training strategy and activity.

3.2.1 Learning

As a child, there were two contexts where I would be asked about learning. 'What did you learn at school today?', a ritual question, like asking about the weather. 'I hope you learned something from this' was the other, after another homemade rocket misfired. To this day, I do not remember the specifics of what I learnt in primary school, but I do remember that lighter fuel is inadequate for proper space exploration.

For anyone who cares to look back at such moments, it will be obvious that we learn in different ways, at different times, depending on situations, consequences, and stimulus. We also learn different things, depending on what we interact with in our environment. And it follows from this that we learn according to different motivations, from the conscious need to pass exams, to the almost unconscious socialisation of learning traffic signals. Learning, then, is a differentiated and complex process, responsible for equipping us with knowledge and skills, developing our capabilities, and allowing us to know our own attitudes, values and emotions.

As a trainer, we are charged with facilitating the learning of others. Before we can do this, we need to think about what kind of learning goes on in youth training. Presumably, a training continues people's social learning, as it exposes them to new environments and people, situations and attitudes, even new food and drink. In considering group dynamics (*5.1*), we have looked at how we can create contexts where people can integrate these new experiences. Yet trainings are not just about new ways of being, but are focused on allowing people to learn about subjects, issues, skills, needs, opportunities, and so forth. Crucially, the aim is that people will do something with this learning. While there are many competing definitions of learning, a useful definition of learning in training emphasises this relation; «A deliberate conscious process, the goal of which is some kind of persistent change in behaviour» (WAGGS, *Training Skills for Advisors*, 2.2). Therefore, to facilitate the learning of others, we need to relate the way they learn to a planned process which can achieve the desired changes. A training situation provides a potential range of experiences, and if we add a definition from Kolb (1973) to the previous one, we can argue that learning involves a conscious reflection on those experiences; "Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience. A trainer cannot assume, however, that the training process will automatically provide the stimulus and create the conditions for learning automatically. After identifying the needs that have legitimated the training, the trainer needs to consider two learning-related factors – what the learning outcomes should be, and how to cater for the different ways people will reach those outcomes.

3.2.2. Learning outcomes

"If you don't know where you're going, don't be surprised to find yourself somewhere you never intended." Are you familiar with this saying, or some version of it? Those involved in training for long time will probably groan at the sight of it, not just because it is a cliché, but because it is so often proved to be true. Carefully defining the starting points and end goals that participants will progress through is of crucial importance, and these following sections emphasise a range of factors which need to be considered during a preparation phase (and any subsequent re-workings of the program during its implementation). The first step is defining the *learning outcomes* of the training, and then conceptualising them as *objectives.*

What does a trainer really want the participants to achieve by the end of a training course? What should participants know at the end of a workshop? What should they be able to do? What should they take home with them? These are a few of the endless questions that could be asked regarding the final outcome of a training activity. Clearly, there is an enormous range of unpredictable factors in the life of a training, from the expectations and learning styles of the participants to the ways in which it is evaluated. A flexible approach to the dynamics of training and a thoroughly planned approach are not mutually exclusive however. Thinking through learning outcomes allows the trainer to maximise the kinds of learning which the program can support, and influences planning for this within the training strategy and methodology. The question still remains however – what exactly are learning outcomes?

According to Gagne and Medsker (1996), "Learning is relatively permanent change in human capabilities that is not a result of growth processes». They continue by arguing that these capabilities are related to specific learning outcomes, that is, categories of forms of learning, relating to different aspects of the mind and body. We can see them systematised below.

Learning outcomes

Type of learning outcome	Description of capability	Example
Verbal information	State, tell, or describe previously stored information	In school being asked in history class about significant dates during WWII
Intellectual skills	Apply general concepts and rules to analyse issues, solve problems and generate novel problems	Design a project proposal that meets certain requirements
Motor skills	Execute a physical action with precision and timing	Learn to climb a rope of 20 metres.
Attitudes	Choose a personal course of action	Choose to change your approach to your training sessions after participating in a training for trainers course
Cognitive strategies	Manage one's own thinking and learning processes	Selectively use three different strategies to identify the training needs of a particular organisation.

(Taken and adapted from: R.Gagne and K. Medsker, 1996)

The need to make a distinction between different types of learning outcomes stems from the need to distinguish different levels and types of training provided. If we stick with the scheme outlined in the chart, the most common outcomes in youth training are usually at the level of attitudes, cognitive strategies and intellectual skills. It is usual that in these multicultural and multilingual contexts there is less emphasis on verbal information outcomes, and motor skills seem to be engaged less frequently, although the increasing popularity of outward bound style pursuits in youth training is changing this. Models such as this one are very often boiled down in youth work to KSA; knowledge, skills and attitude outcomes. As a point of reference this is probably sufficient, as it is not the intention here to give an exhaustive overview of different theoretical models. Instead the emphasis is on the relevance of learning outcomes to the initial planning process. Their consideration is central to the definition of training objectives, and also provokes thought on the values and purposes of learning within the training being conceived.

Another very important dimension to identifying the learning outcomes is the question of indepthness. How 'deeply' does a trainer want to explore a particular topic or issue? In other words, trainers need to consider the level of engagement and learning they want their participants to reach, and to speculate on the kind of knowledge they would like to be achieved.

This issue becomes clearer if we look at the box below:

Six Levels of Knowledge

1. Awareness – to recall, recognise, being aware of existence
2. Understanding – to translate from one form to another
3. Application – to apply or use information in a new situation
4. Analysis – to examine a situation and break it down into parts
5. Synthesis – to put together information in a new way
6. Evaluation – to judge based on explicit criteria.

(Adapted from Klatt (1999) and Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964).

The following example illustrates the levels of knowledge in relation to training in general.

Example: What knowledge can a person have with regards to training in general? [3]

– Being **aware** that training as activity exists as such is the lowest possible level, lower then to know **why it** exists and **what the purpose** of it is (being a participant at a course). Knowing **how to** conduct a certain type of training activity (application) means acquiring a higher level of knowledge. Being **able to analyse** and take a training program apart is a further development and refinement of this knowledge. Following on from this is being **able to design** training programs (elements) of your own. And according to this scheme, the highest level is so called evaluation, which reflects the **ability to draw conclusions** and make decisions based on established criteria (e.g. decide whether one training program is more appropriate then the other.).

3. Please note that in the following paragraph, the term evaluation is used in broader terms than in rest of the publication, where the sense is specifically related to training.

The depth of the learning outcomes is important for a number of reasons. It recalls the needs analysis, as it begins to formulate those needs in ways that can be related to the program design. On top of this, it is necessary to consider them in relation to the participant's profile *(see 4.5.4)*. For now, we will concentrate on the process of specifying objectives from the learning outcomes identified.

3.2.3 Defining objectives

Defining the objectives can be seen as operationalising the different learning outcomes identified for a training activity. It should be noted, however, that this does not apply to all of the objectives that may be set for a particular activity. In discussing the types and levels of the learning outcomes, the focus was solely on individual development. In youth work (and in other fields where organisations undertake personnel training), normally two sets of objectives can be defined. The first set is composed of specific objectives on an individual level, outlining the benefits of the training for participants. The second set relates to the organisation that the individual participants belong to, and addresses the potential uses and influences of the learning in the organisation and its environment. If an aim of the course is the creation and motivation of multipliers, this second set of objectives becomes even more important.

This means that the designer of a training activity has two main tasks; translating the individual learning outcomes in training objectives, and secondly, creating objectives that address the organisational improvements that can be expected after participants start using their newly acquired knowledge. These are not easy tasks. The trainer needs a clear idea of what constitutes a training objective, and must formulate comprehensible and achievable ones. Importantly, these must be communicated to the participants as it allows them to negotiate their expectations with the goals of the training.

In our experience, the range of terms which are applied to objectives are counter-productive. Are they aims or objectives? Can we have both, and if so, what's the relationship between them? And what about goals? Or targets? And what happen when we try to translate these into other languages? Instead of getting dizzy, it is easier to see objectives as a set of statements, or projections, which you will try and achieve within the life of the training. TE-6 below suggests the main characteristics of an objective, and guidelines for evaluating them. This is a useful scheme, but there are others, and ultimately each trainer has to decide the format which is most productive for her [4].

[4] A model for writing objectives called SMART is presented in T-Kit on Project Management

TE-6

SPIRO model for writing objectives

Specify	Objectives must be specific (what exactly are you going to do?)
Performance	Objectives must focus on high value results, not on activities (what do you intend to accomplish?)
Involvement	Those involved in implementation need to be involved in setting the objectives. (What is your part in the objectives?)
Realism	Objectives need to be realistic and rewarding. If they are too ambitious, they may lead to disappointment. Yet, objectives must also be challenging or there will be no pride in accomplishing them. (Can it be done given the resources available?)
Observable	Objectives need to be measurable or observable. (How will you know whether you have been successful as trainer?)

From: Pfeiffer J.W. & J.E. Jones (1972) (eds.)

Examples of objectives:

On an individual level (determined in relation to the learning outcomes)

- To enable participants to prepare, run and evaluate a project
- To develop participants' skills in the areas of human rights education, leadership and program development, project management and intercultural learning
- To increase participants knowledge and awareness of the values underlying European non-formal education
- To increase the participants competence and motivation for dealing with intercultural learning in youth activities
- To provide a basic overview of different concepts of training in non-formal education
- To support participants in assessing their own training needs and in learning from their own experiences
- To develop participant's management and leadership skills

On an organisational level (larger environment)

- To contribute to a marked improvement of communication patterns in the participants' organisations
- To foster the development of innovative local youth projects on participation and citizenship by the participants in their own organisations and environments

Note: In the *Project Management T-Kit* there is a considerable section dedicated to the issue of defining objectives (pp 52-56).

Suggestions for reflection:

What factors do you think are most necessary for learning to occur? Why?
How do objectives contribute to the learning process?
Can objectives always be measurable?
Can you think of effective ways of communicating objectives to the participants?

3.2.4 Learning Styles

In the youth field, it is common to juxtapose formal and non-formal education (see 2.1.4). Formal education, be it school or university, tends to emphasise the intellectual and what is often called 'banking' approach to learning. The teacher is the 'sage on the stage', regarding the learner as an empty vessel to be filled with useful information, and not acknowledging that the vessels are already full in different ways. As opposed to this, training, with the trainer as the 'guide by the side', encourages the learner as vessel to choose the liquid and to fill itself as it chooses. This dichotomy ignores a number of things; the development of pedagogical approaches in the formal sector that are used in the non-formal, the very diversity of the formal sector itself, and the increasing cross-fertilisation of types of education between both sectors. It also presumes that anything carried out under the name of non-formal education should be automatically valued. Remember, somebody in a campaign t-shirt and sandals can bore your head off too.

What does characterise non-formal education is that it is *participant-centred*, and that the participant is usually motivated to be there. The aim is to create a process where the individual can learn from themselves, from the group, and from the training. Given this participant-centredness, training involves an emphasis on personal development (see 2.1.2), and on learning in as many ways as possible. This is often described as the *4H* approach; learning with head, hands, heart and health, and emphasises the interconnectedness of the intellectual, instrumental, emotional and holistic ways of learning. Even without reference to more specific theories, this shorthand description acts as a valuable checklist for any training, as it makes the point that learning is enhanced by continually engaging the different ways that we learn. The rationale of this checklist is that the more dimensions the training addresses, the deeper the level of learning that is engaged. It also suggests that we have to think about the way that we learn, consciously address these different ways of learning, and work on our relevant capabilities.

Thus far we have discussed different ways of learning and related them to experience. It goes without saying that experiences differ, but also that people differ in the ways that they learn. There are many influential theoretical approaches dealing with learning styles, in particular the work of Honey and Mumford is widely applied in the youth field. As their approach is discussed in detail in the *Organisational Management T-Kit* (pp19-22), we will concentrate here on D.A. Kolb's experiential learning cycle, the basis of Honey and Mumford's work.

Kolb essentially breaks down the maxim of 'learning from experience' into distinct yet interrelated stages which form a cyclical process. Learning is related not just to experience, but to what we do with that experience. It needs to be translated into a learning experience and its value distilled in different ways. The cycle moves from doing, to reflecting on what has happened, to generalising and conceptualising the experience and applying the new knowledge to doing once more. The more learning dimensions that are engaged, the more heightened that experience will be. But the experience is useless without reflecting on what has happened, and translating that reflection into practice when relevant. This is what the definition previously quoted referred to as a persistent change in behaviour (4.2.1). To return to the example of my failed space rocket, the experience of a visit to the hospital was wasted unless I reflected on why I was there, and how I could avoid a return trip while still continuing my experiments. An example from a training situation might be a simulation game for intercultural learning, where participants are asked to take part in an organised experience. Crucial to learning from this is debriefing, analysis and transfer, which begins the process of learning about society from a structured learning situation

In many of the theoretical approaches likely to be encountered, an ideal 'integrated learner' would benefit from each stage in the experiential cycle. However, personal reflection may indicate that we all identify ourselves more with some styles than others, although this may vary according to situation, motivation and stimulus. On the negative side, a reliance on one style may benefit us in the relevant stage of the cycle, but prove to be a disadvantage when other skills are required at other stages. A key aim of engaging with theories of this nature is learning to learn; in other words, concentrating on identifying the contexts where we benefit least, and attempting to improve on that. It is worth bearing in mind in relation to this that the concept of style also involves the question of speed – people learn according to different rhythms, depending on their individual pace, the program design, and the momentum of the group. It is important when discussing theories of this nature to re-state one of the fundamental premises of this publication. Theories can only act as orientation, and do not provide a blueprint for training. Nobody fits neatly into these categories, and the actual training reality introduces factors which are unpredictable and influential in terms of people's learning. Categories like these, if overemphasised, can stereotype and limit the scope of learning.

Suggestions for reflection

1. Think of the last training you took part in, and evaluate what you learnt in relation to the *4Hs*
2. As a trainer, have you ever considered the relationship between how you learn and how you train? Consider one of your training sessions in relation to your preferred learning style: does it cater for other styles and approaches? How could you re-design it to maintain your strengths and increase the field for others?

3.2.5 Intercultural Learning

In the brief discussion of intercultural learning found earlier in this T-Kit, it was argued that understanding intercultural situations demands the development of learnt competencies in the trainer. This is because intercultural learning brings into opposition social learning (socialisation) regarding our perceptions of reality, and very often our values, and conscious learning regarding the negotiation of realities and value systems which this kind of education facilitates and values as a positive resource. Many researchers in the field argue that there are indispensable socio-cultural skills that can be learnt, and which are central to a process of learning how to adapt to, evaluate and communicate in intercultural situations. They not only provide a valuable form of reflection for the trainer, but also a set of qualities that a training can actively facilitate:

- *Empathy:* the term involves a number of related meanings. Normally, it is seen as the ability to put yourself in another's shoes, to appreciate the common humanity of the other, and to attempt to understand the processes of enculturation which make you differ. Since the end of the second world war, some sociologists have maintained that increasingly complex modern existences require empathy as a basic condition of living together. As we continually encounter difference that we may have no experience of, *empathy enables us to actively and creatively cope with the otherness of the person with whom we are dealing during an intercultural encounter* (Service National de la Jeunesse, p32). Empathy must be differentiated from sympathy – you can be empathetic without being sympathetic. Reflecting and developing empathy allows us to begin negotiating different values, work with different systems of interpretation, and relatedly, communication. It is also important to consider the limits to empathy; it is not a recipe for understanding, but rather a process of learning and approaching difference.

- *Role Distance* implies attempting to see yourself from the outside, while again recognising the limits to this. Enculturation centres the self; our perceptual, interpretative and evaluative frameworks are normal, natural and stabilising. An intercultural situation (or indeed, any group situation) brings together many such systems of certainty. By de-centering the self we can begin to analyse ourselves as encultured beings – to reflect on ourselves in terms of those qualities which ascribe difference to the other. Role distance should not be confused with cultural relativism; this kind of self-reflection allows us to interrogate our normatives, prejudices and stereotypes, but also to concentrate on those values and cultural aspects which are central to our identity and cannot be negotiated. It is worth considering this skill in relation to the discussion of roles in *5.1*.

- *Tolerating Ambiguity:* an intercultural situation can create a state of flux, where the norms, assumptions and patterns of communication which we take for granted are not recognised, shared or accepted. Yet at the same time, a training situation demands our involvement in a process where communication and interaction must continually happen. Intellectually and emotionally, this kind of process can involve insecurity and frustration and the adoption of defensive positions. Developing a tolerance of ambiguity is a way of reflecting on and operating with uncertainty, it is a prerequisite for ridding oneself of a reassuring vision of the world without immediately providing the security of an alternative vision (ibid, p35). It involves active tolerance and analysis, learning to accept insecurity while putting those elements which create insecurity under the microscope.

In the *Intercultural Learning T-Kit* you will find different approaches to structuring intercultural activities (pp 21-32). The following points are nearly always addresssed by intercultural pedagogies, and a reflexive consideration of them is central to the self-development of these key skills, not to mention facilitating their development in others:

- Learning to know oneself in one's social and cultural context.
- To actively learn about the world and the possible interconnections of different realities.
- To reflect on one's attitudes, values, perceptions and behaviour in relation to both general social analysis and specific group interactions.
- To approach communication as a negotiated cultural process which requires constant attention to both verbal and non-verbal aspects, as well as the development of new skills.

Suggestion for Reflection

Consider TE-10 in section 3.5.3 in relation to your experience of intercultural learning

1. *Comfort Zone:* what makes you define the chosen situation as comfortable?
2. *Stretching Zone:* what stretched you? Can you relate it to any of the factors above? How did you cope with the situation?
3. *Crisis Zone:* How did you react to this crisis? Which of the key competencies outlined above are relevant to the situation?

3.3 Strategies and Methodology

3.3.1 Training strategies

The next step in the building process is to design a training which reflects your desired learning outcomes, and caters for a variety of learning styles and speeds. A training strategy can be looked upon as the way that you plan the flow of the program; the logic by which the content will be developed and the methods assembled with consideration to the development of the group dynamics. There are elements to this which are clearly not rocket science; for example, not beginning a course with a plan for future action, when the aim and project have not even been defined. Yet a training strategy is important, as it brings together for the first time the interconnectedness of the training elements. TE-15 (see 5.1.3), the theme-centred interaction model, illustrates this interconnectedness.

It could be seen as illustrating training in general (5.1.3) but in this context it signals the specific and interdependent elements which need to be considered in a training strategy. The *topic* is the aim of the training, the reason why everybody is there. It represents the themes and form of the meeting. I is each separate person involved in the training, be it team or participant, who bring with them expectations, different learning biographies, knowledges and experiences in relation to the topic, and so forth. *We* is the group, and represents more than just a physical collectivity. It is the group as a collective process; with a cultural existence involving the development of communication patterns, shared assumptions, dialogue on values, atmosphere, roles, avoidances and other dynamics. Finally, the *globe* is the context in which the training takes place, ranging from the physical and material conditions to the organisational considerations and the relation to the 'real world'.

The triangle suggests that within the globe, these different elements of topic, individual and group should have balanced relations. Each axis of the triangle allows us to ask questions which shape the training strategy, the following is not an exhaustive list:

- *Topic – We:* what level of experience of the topic should the group have? What different experiences exist? Is the training inductive (providing framework and orientation to group) or deductive (allowing group to set framework and orient themselves)? What expectations do we have in relation to group contributions to the topic? How do we relate the development of the group to the development of the topic?
- *We – I:* How do we approach individual expectations in relation to the group? What kind of space exists for the individual within the group? Does working time and methods reflect both group and individual needs? How do we deal with conflicts?
- *I – Topic:* what expectations do individuals have in relation to the topic? What do they want to learn? How does the exploration of the topic cater for different learning styles and rythms? What responsibility does the individual have for their own learning, and what possibilities to contribute? Are there individual questions of language competency, or any other factor which needs to be addressed?

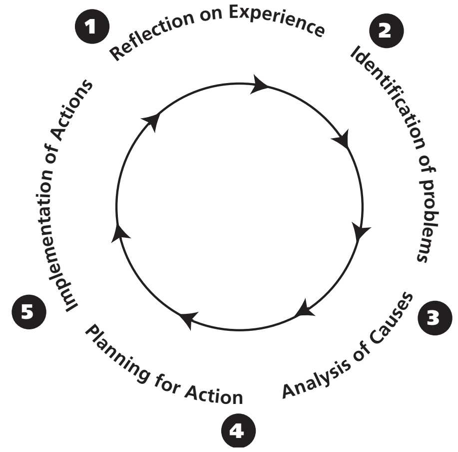
The *globe* must then be factored into all of these relationships; possibilities and limitations of the working space, finances, expectations of the organisation(s), etc.

We can examine a practical example of a training strategy in relation to the globe. The circular diagram (TE-7) illustrates the *Psycho Social Method of Social Analysis*, developed by the World Studies Project (1976:4, in Leahy, Anne 1996:20). This training strategy is based on the premise that knowledge is generated by a reflection on and synthesis of social experience. It therefore incorporates strong mutual relationships between the three points of the triangle; the topic is developed by the group reflections, which are a synthesis of individual experiences, experiences which are more fully interpreted by the benefit of group work and the focus provided by the topic. As the cycle develops through the five stages, the training is advanced by the constant interplay of these elements.

While this particular model has been developed for social analysis, with particular reference to development education, it is applicable to a range of topics if the premises it is built on reflect the training strategy you would like to adopt. Within the strategy, there are still enormous decisions to be made. The strategy provides the flowchart of the training, that flow needs to be realised by introducing the methodology that will facilitate the training.

TE-7

Psycho Social method of Social Analysis



3.3.2 Methods and Methodology

Question – what's the plural of method? Answer – methods, not methodology. This is the first point that needs clarification in this section. A method is an activity which you plan, it gives a framework to a certain part of the program. It could be an energizer, a simulation game, a lecture. Methodology, on the other hand, is the educational logic of the methods chosen. The simulation exercise *Ecotonos* is a method, simulation is a methodology based on a philosophy of experiential learning. Therefore your methodology is closely related to the training strategy, it is the rubric by which the individual methods are chosen. It is the overview of the methods in the program, looking at the balance of types, how they relate to learning styles, individual\group activity, and so on. What this also suggests is that choosing a method is not a simple question of finding activities which will fill the time frame available to you. This section addresses the range of questions which should be considered before a method is decided upon.

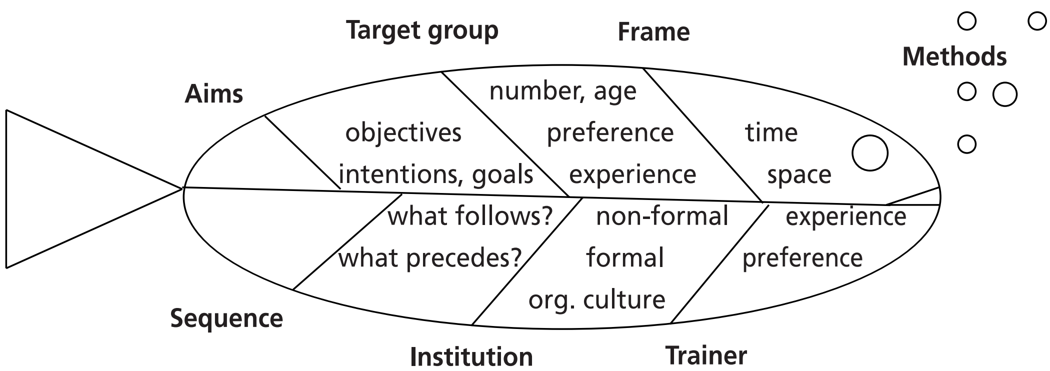
A method is the point at which all of the training planning is presented to the participants. As such, it is responsible for communicating alot about this prior process. A five hour lecture on participation and citizenship without questions or toilet breaks may seem a little odd. The method chosen and the relations between the axes of the triangle which it represents would not seem to fit with the values being espoused by the content or the training. At a fundamental level then, the method must relate to the vision and purpose of the training – in other words, the underlying values, overall aims, and specific objectives. The method chosen must fulfill a specific objective and also represent a system of values central to the whole enterprise. If we begin to collate a checklist of questions which can be referred to when choosing methods, then the initial ones would be:

- Is the chosen method in line with the values that are transmitted in the content and by the aims of the training?
- Can the method deliver the objectives specified for this stage of the training strategy? (Complete this sentence: at the end of this session I would like to say that participants…..)

These questions are also useful for teams to take stock of their shared understandings. Clearly, if team members are answering differently to these questions, a review of the process may have to be undertaken.

To begin relating the methods to an overview of factors, we can, like the ancient Romans, turn to the insides of the fish.

TE-8



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The bubbles the fish breathes represent the methods, these have been generated by passing through the entire body. By looking along the ribs, we can check the factors which have influenced this. We can also relate these to the elements in the globe. Relevant questions to consider in relation to the group may be:

- How does the methodology reflect the reality of the group, in other words, are different methods used in the overall program which respond to different learning styles, needs and speeds?
- What kind of communication does the method encourage in the group?
- Does the method contribute to the process of group building, or is that an issue at this point?
- What levels of trust and familiarity does the method presume in the group?
- How does the method correspond to your understanding of the group dynamics at this point?
- How does the method address the group needs and responsibilities at this point in the training strategy?

Within these group considerations, we can add a further set of questions concerning the individual, and address that axis of the triangular relationship:

- Does the method consider any individual biographical information that may be relevant? (age, education, language, socio-cultural background, previous experience)
- Does the method allow active participation of the learner?
- Does the method engage more than verbal-intellectual skills?
- Does it give time and opportunity to the learner to get into contact with her feelings, interests and thoughts?
- Will the learner realise that she is responsible for her learning and personal development?
- Are questions raised that motivate further investigation, training, exchange or study?'
- Does the method raise reactions and emotions that can be dealt with in the context?
- Does the method presume certain physical capacities on the part of the participant?

The method has an obvious relationship to the topic, it is chosen to advance the exploration of the topic at a particular moment. Thinking back to the training strategy, the method needs to be related to the objectives of the content and the relation of the trainer and group to the content at that moment:

- What prior knowledge does the method assume? (intellectual, emotional, etc)
- How does the method relate to what has gone before and what will come after?
- How does the method value and incorporate the contributions of the group?
- What information is provided by the trainer, and what is left to the participants to supply or find themselves?
- Which elements of the topic are prioritised by the method at this point, and why?

And finally, the globe also suggests a range of factors which have to be taken into account.

- Is the method feasible?
- Is the method secure physically and safe pyschologically?
- Are the necessary materials available and budgeted for?
- How does the physical environment impact on the choice of method?
- Is there enough time, alowing for small delays, to complete the activity and fulfill the objectives?

Note: many of the questions above were suggested by or adapted from a handout "Considerations for the Design of Training Programmes and the Choice of Methods", by Antje Rothemund, for 'Training for Trainers', European Youth Center Budapest 1998, (itself adapted from Gerl, H: «Methoden der Erwachsenenbildung» in Pöggeler, *Handbuch der Erwachsenenbildung*, Stuttgart 1985).

Suggestion for Reflection

1. Having studied this list of questions, can you add any more to the different categories?
2. Are these suggested by particular experiences?

3.3.3 Methods and the Trainer

Ultimately of course, the success of the chosen method depends on the trainer delivering the trainer. Somebody once said that trainers are human, and that is probably true. Nevertheless, like so many other areas of life, some simple precautions can guard against unwanted outcomes. A method which involves a group in an experiential learning situation is not an exact science, and there is great value to be had in unexpected contributions and directions. These can only be valuable however, if the trainer is aware that they are unexpected, and can relate them to the objectives and anticipated flow of the session. Basically, a trainer needs to feel comfortable with the method, and confident in their capability to see it through. The following statements can act as a guide to assessing the suitability of the method to you as trainer. The questions are particularly suited to the process of choosing methods for intercultural learning:

When choosing methods, the trainer should……

– Feel confident and convinced about the method.
– Whenever possible, have experienced the method fully as a participant (or be part of a team where people have had that experience and can workshop it with the rest of the team)
– Be in a position to anticipate the outcomes but also deal with unexpected ones
– Be aware of the place of their own opinions and interpretations, and work with the interpretations and associations of the participants
– Make the objectives of the program unit clear, while avoiding dogmatic facilitation.
– Try not to use methods that might cause feelings in participants or the group which cannot be dealt with during the training.
– Accept that some people may not wish to participate in a particular exercise.
– Have a carefully worked out strategy for debriefing and feedback, which can also be adapted to deal with unexpected outcomes.
– Be aware that learning is change, and that this can be an uncomfortable experience. Participants may make the method (or, indeed the trainer) responsible for their discomfort. The trainer has to carefully analyse whether the discomfort was caused by the method or by the feelings and discoveries elicited by the method.

(Statements adapted from Rothemund, op.cit).

A checklist of this nature can be qualified – it obviously depends on a range of factors specific to the training context. Yet it also raises issues concerning the role of the trainer and trainer's ethics; how she sees her relation and power to the group, what it is acceptable to ask people to do, and so forth (see also 1.2.3).

3.4 Logistical considerations

Organising a training course is like preparing yourself for a journey. One of our grandmothers used to say the better you prepare your luggage, the easier the time you will have. And we think she's right. She never said much about youth work, but a training course is the same. The better you prepare it, the better prepared you are to expect the unexpected. This section takes a conventional division of three phases, and considers the practical and logistical issues you will encounter before, during and after. It is also worth bearing in mind that while the course is usually the most attractive phase, conducting an complete training means placing equal worth on every stage.

The following table is very general and contains the basic elements that need to be considered when preparing and running a training course. It presents the logical sequence of mainly administrative actions that need to be taken. We have avoided suggesting a time frame as this depends on many variables and specific features, from the nature of the training to the size, needs and traditions of the organisation. As a general rule, you could think of our granny, and don't underestimate the time that some administrative tasks may take, such as visa requests.

3.4.1 Before

SEQUENCE	ACTION	CONSIDERATIONS
1	– Needs assessment – Decision on the topic – Decision on date, hosting organisation, types of event and deadlines	Each organisation has it's own structure and its own decision making process, but this is normally the first thing you have to do: investigate and assess the needs and aspirations of your members and identify the most suitable topics for training
2	– Research available grant and necessary conditions [5] – Write the grant application	It is extremely important not to underestimate the length of this procedure, check also the precise schedule for each grant.
3	– Request placed with hosting organisation and confirmation sought	A clear and detailed list of requests and expected support should be submitted to the hosting organisation to allow it to decide if they are willing and able to host the event. Information about facilities for disabled should be sought at this stage. A preliminary date is set for the preparatory team meeting and the seminar. The exact venue is organised by the host organisation, with a confirmation about its suitability being given by the preparatory team and/or the responsible of the event when it has been seen during the preparatory team meeting. In some cases the event venue requires a deposit. Do not forget to ask about a cancellation fee
4	– Selection of the preparatory team	Organisations normally follow their own internal selection procedures, but should pay attention to questions of multiculturalism and gender in the team composition. It should be clearly stated what expectations are held regarding the experience and commitments requested from the team.

5. Different grants are available both at national or international level. At international level in the frame of Europe both the Council of Europe and the European Union provided grant for youth activities under determined conditions. For more information you could look at the following website: Council of Europe: http://www.coe.int, or European Union: http://europa.eu.int

SEQUENCE	ACTION	CONSIDERATIONS
5	– Preparatory team meeting	The preparatory meeting is ideally held at the venue. The invitation to this meeting should include an agenda for the meeting and detailed information useful for the preparation of the event such as resolutions or policies, the funding application, reports from previous events and so forth. During the meeting the objectives, program, session contents, working methods, participants profile, and team responsibilities are decided. The exact dates of the seminar are also confirmed. Immediately following the meeting the responsible of the event sends the report to the planning team.
6	– Possible interpretation staff	When the dates of the seminar have been confirmed the responsible could contact the interpretation company to check their availability, stating what facilities are available at the venue, what needs to be hired, and cost of possible cancellation.
7	– Invitations to experts and external trainers	If expert speakers have been included in the program they should be identified, contacted and briefed by the preparatory team. Do not forget to update them on amendments to the programme and to forward the materials you send to participants.
8	– Invitations to organisations and participants	Following the preparatory meeting, an invitation to the event is written. The invitation is sent to all target group organisation and potential participants. The invitation should contain aims and objectives of the event, working methods, participants' profile, application form (including dietary requirements, language abilities), travel form, visa request, instructions for disabled access and a clear application deadline. Don't forget to mention conditions for cancellation.
9	– Shortlist of applicants and send-out of acceptance letters	Based on the criteria expressed in the participants' profile the preparatory team shortlist the candidates and send them acceptance letters. These normally contain detailed information about the program and venue, how to get there and instructions for payments. Attention should be paid to disabled people who would like to attend. They should be provided with accurate information and all the necessary action to allow them to participate should be taken.

SEQUENCE	ACTION	CONSIDERATIONS
10	– Liase with host organisation on visa requests	Once the visa requests have been received they are sent to the hosting organisation, which issues the invitation to obtain the visa. Attention should be paid to the fact that a lot of countries have particular requests and formalities that need to be respected.
11	– Payment of participation fee	Some organisations require the payment of a participation fee beforehand by bank transfer, others by cash upon arrival. This means that precise bank details should be provided and the relevant currency indicated.
12	– Preparation of relevant documents and materials	Once the number of participants is clear material and relevant documents for the activities can be translated if necessary, and photocopied for the preparatory team and for the participants as appropriate. (This material could also include a certificate of attendance)

3.4.2 During

SEQUENCE	ACTION	CONSIDERATIONS
1	– Preparatory team meeting	It is advisable that the preparatory team arrives before the participants. This is to allow some time to review the program and to consider it in relation to the expectations expressed in the application forms. Last minute tasks and problems (arranging accommodation and meeting rooms as appropriate, finalising the preparation of material and a welcome pack with the necessary information about the venue and the event) can also be dealt with.
2	– A range of administrative tasks, including checking payments, correcting the list of participants, relevant claim forms. Depending on the grant received, there could be the possibility of claiming for loss of earnings, or equivalent claims.	The participants are asked to check their details, then the list can be amended and distributed. Precise instructions should be provided for completing claim forms, in the event that they are provided for in the overall grant.
3	– The daily report	Participants may be responsible for writing a daily report. These reports are later used as the basis for the event report. See *4.4.8* on report writing
4	– ‘On the spot’ reimbursement	If participants need a cash reimbursement, ask them to complete the appropriate expense claim. Attach all receipts or ask participants to forward them as soon as possible. In this case, take a copy!
And	– ALL THE REST!!!	The team shouldn’t be overwhelmed by these administrative tasks, remember there is an educational program as well…

3.4.3 After

SEQUENCE	ACTION	CONSIDERATIONS
1	– Travel and loss of earnings reimbursements, as applicable.	The responsible of the event should pass all the claim forms to the appropriate person in the organisation to proceed with reimbursements.
2	– Thanking the team, venue and hosting organisation (letter, fax or small present as appropriate)	The responsible finds the most appropriate way to thank the venue, the host organisations, the expert speakers, the planning team
3	– The report	Depending on the practice of the organisation, and the grant stipulations, the appropriate report should be prepared and sent to the relevant people.
4	– Evaluation meeting	When feasible, the preparatory team should meet once more to carry out a comprehensive evaluation of the event.
5	– Follow-up activities	Many events foresee a series of follow up activities, which could include projects prepared during the course, exchanges of results or establishing a website. See Part 6 on the follow up phase.

Clearly there are a lot of elements to bear in mind, in terms of both human and financial resource management. It is important that the various responsible parties for the event (the organisation, preparatory team and to some extent the expert speakers and participants also) have an overview of the different elements which contribute to a successful event. With this in mind, it is worth pointing out that team flexibility and preparing for the unexpected are as central to the smooth flow of administrative tasks as they are to the socio-educational elements of the event. May our granny be with you!

Suggestions for Reflection

At the beginning of this chapter we said that the tables suggest a sequence of action (mainly administrative) which could help you when preparing a training event. We deliberately choose not to indicate any timing for the different action so now…it is up to you:

- Think of the size, structure, management and traditions of your organisation. With this in mind, try to allocate on this time line the timing you think is more appropriate for the suggested action sequence (one month before, or one month after, etc).

BEFORE

Actions 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Time line

____ event

You can then repeat this diagram for AFTER.

3.4.4 Preparatory team meetings – Why, when, how long?

The possibility of holding one or more team meetings before a training course depends on factors such as financial possibilities or the availability of the team members. Some elements can certainly be discussed and prepared by email, fax or telephone before the beginning of the training course. Nothing however replaces a meeting where all team members meet to share and discuss their ideas and agree upon the basic values, objectives and programme of the training. Especially if all or some team members have not worked together before, a team meeting to prepare the training course is also the first experience in working together and getting to know each other as colleagues.

Ideally, a preparation meeting should take place several months before the course. The exact time depends on what needs to be done. Will the participants be selected at, or after the meeting? Should experts be invited? This needs to be done in due time.

The length needed for the meeting depends on the nature of the course and on how well the team members know each other in advance, but if possible, a meeting should last at least for two days. Besides clarifying the course frame, preparing the program and distributing the tasks, some time should be reserved to build the team and to evaluate the meeting.

Before ending the meeting, make sure to establish a clear division of tasks and set deadlines. Who should do what by when? What can be done by email, what not? Deciding on a co-ordinator for this process between meetings might be useful to ensure that the process is actually followed up until the next meeting.

3.4.5 Participant's profile

Once the aims and the objectives of the training course are set and the preparatory team start to consider the program (3.5), they should also start to discuss the type and range of participants they are targeting.

An agreed and shared participants profile is fundamental. A comprehensive description of the required profile will help organisations to decide who they are going to send to the course, and will also help the planning team to prepare the program and to foresee the active involvement of the participants. Of course, a profile is just that – a profile which real participants step into and make real. It is not a wish-list, and there are often discrepancies between written appearance and lived reality (notoriously with self-assessment of linguistic competencies). That said, using a profile allows training teams to construct a program based on a certain number of assumptions (see the list below), and this program can be adapted and fine-tuned according to the team's assessment of the group and the expectations and feedback which they receive.

A list of elements that could be taken into account when designing an application form is:

- **Age:** Some institutions implement age limits for their grants. In terms of group education, it is also worth considering the age spectrum in relation to your aims, objectives and working methods.
- **Language:** this is a crucial question, especially important if the planning team should also provide interpretation. It is worth indicating not just the working languages, but what level of competency is required to work in the language. Some forms advise, for example, the ability to fully comprehend and complete the form without external assistance. A recurring problem with assessing language skills from application forms is the practice of forms being completed for participants by others in the organisation. If you're reading this, you know who you are.
- **Experience:** this part should indicate the range and depth of experiences that participants are expected to have in relation to the course topic. For example, if it is an advanced course on project management, the form could stipulate that participants should have been responsible for at least three projects. If the course is aimed at beginners, it could look for some previous involvement and evidence of involvement in future projects. This element is often

useful for recognising and incorporating prior learning processes. The planning team could use this information regarding the participants' experience as a starting point for the program, and build participation on their knowledge and evaluation of previous work.

- **Need and motivation:** 3.1 argued that a *needs assessment* is the starting point for shaping training. It follows that participants should really need the training if the overall aims and objectives are to be targeted. Participants may need the training for a specific reason (new responsibilities in their organisation), or for reasons relating to their general development (an advanced training for trainers for example). Questions on the form may ask participants to state why they need the training and why they feel that it will be beneficial. These questions also address motivation, and while it is a difficult task for any team to assess need and motivations on the basis of a limited input, direct questions of this nature can often provide useful insights.
- **Type of organisation:** this should clarify the type of organisation that is being sought; the form could look for information on the background, aims and structures.
- **Position in the organisation:** the position of the participant within their organisation influences their ability to multiply the course results, and often to implement or suggest changes which the training highlights as necessary. This is especially true of international activities.

Once the organisation has received the application forms short-listing can begin. An important operational principle for this process is that selection does not equal judgement. It is not a matter of judging participants' skills or abilities, but a matter of selecting participants with profiles and needs that correspond to the aims and objectives of the program. This is not always possible; the line between selection and various forms of judgement is thin, and there may also be political or organisational reasons suggested for certain inclusions or exclusions. Teams can limit these elements by setting out clear selection guidelines in advance.

3.4.6 Different types of training courses

A basic step in the preparation of a training course is deciding which kind of course to go for (see also *3.2.3*). This choice will clearly influence the educational process hugely, and sometimes the choice is left to the preparatory team. Very often the framework is provided by the organisation or relevant sponsor or institution which have established the type of course they like to run. The list below provides a far from exhaustive account of the main types of training courses you may encounter.

A LONG-TERM course is planned to last over a relatively long period of time, and is composed of different parts. Normally there are two courses, with a fixed period between them, during which time participants should carry out specific tasks while calling on their experiences of the first course. The results are evaluated during the second course.	**Comments:** this kind of framework is often used for long-term training on project management for example. The process of training, implementation and then evaluation has proved to be beneficial for both trainers and trainees in providing a fuller picture of the training loop.

A SHORT-TERM course, for example a study session, is normally a self-contained course of 5 or 7 days.	**Comments:** Very frequently used. Because of the limited time, trainers should resist the temptation to overcharge the program and allocate enough time for the group to form and begin functioning.

In a **TAILOR MADE COURSE** the program and the content are specifically designed to meet the stated needs of participants. There are different ways of structuring it. There may be fixed aims and objectives, and the preparatory team designs the program with the participants on the basis of these. Alternatively, even the aims and objectives could be decided with the participants during a facilitated process. A course of this nature may be used in an advanced training on a specific topic for example, or within an organisation working in an area where members need to identify and train for skill or knowledge gaps.	**Comments:** For trainers and participants this kind of course can be highly challenging and dynamic, and requires not just flexibility but the ability to deliver on a potentially wide range of issues and topics. Central to this framework is the process of identifying and interpreting participant' needs, and choosing the best way to deal with them. If the course is to be co-designed by the participants, then the facilitation of this needs to be carefully thought through, in terms of the participatory nature of the methods chosen and the role of team and participants during the process
A **Module based course** is composed of different modules, that is specific units or self-contained training courses. Modules tend to focus on a topic or issue, and can be progressively linked to each other or offered in isolation.	**Comments:** Quite useful when participants are together long enough to deliver a number of modules (module length is clearly relative), and lends itself to both 'building block' training or addressing a range of unrelated topics.
ON THE JOB TRAINING is a specific training on definite subject relating to the task or job that the trainee should fulfil.	**Comments:** The main advantage is that the content of the training is immediately applied and that the trainer has an immediate feedback from the trainee.
A COMPULSORY TRAINING course has set aims and objectives and is part of a system or framework within an organisation. Participants are encouraged or required to take part in the course in order to gather specific knowledges and skills related to their tasks.	**Comments:** These kinds of courses are common in organisations such as the Guides and Scouts where specific training precedes specific roles or positions. The training system of the organisation is based on its training needs, however attention should be paid to review these needs and to revise the system periodically.
A MIXED DESIGN course gathers together aspects of the courses above, designing a composite course addressing specific needs.	**Comments:** This kind of course is dictated by the context, and attention should be paid to the educational process between elements of the overall course. An example might be a module based course where one module deals with on the job training and other modules are tailor-made.

Suggestions for reflection

Consider the training courses you have been involved in over the past year.
- Which kind of courses were they?
- Were they mentioned in the list?
- If yes, what would you add to the comments above?
- Thinking of the evaluation/results of the course, would you have chosen another type of course? If yes why?
- Are there other courses would you add to the list? How would you describe and evaluate them?

3.4.7 Training Aids

In the section on learning styles (3.2.4), it was emphasised that people learn in different ways, at different speeds, and in relation to different stimuli and the skills that are engaged. As well as reflecting this in the methodological choices of a training course (3.3.2), the physical structuring of sessions and the ways in which material is presented have a significant influence on communication and the facilitation of learning. While it is not worth agonising over a flipchart versus a whiteboard, the choice of training aids needs some consideration.

This choice is based on different elements:

- Number of participants and their background (particularly but not only in an international context)
- Physical environment
- Training approach and strategy
- Subject and content of the session
- Materials available
- Competencies and skills of the trainers

In considering these elements it is worth remembering that training aids are not in themselves methods of training, they remain tools which do not replace the trainer. It is useful to employ a variety of aids, but variety (or technology!) is not an end in itself. It may be flash to set up video-conferencing between different floors of the training centre, but it might be easier to have a good old-fashioned plenary. Relatedly, it is advisable to practice your session to check that the material you are using is really an aid and not a virtuoso showpiece. As 1.2.4 argued, the way we train can relate to our self-image as a trainer, and aids can be an extension of that.

You may find the table below a useful guide:

AIDS	COMMENTS
Visual aids • OHP • Slides • Short clip or film • Pictures • Flipchart • Coloured card • Post-it • Handout • PowerPoint presentation	Make sure that the setting of the room is adequate and that all participants can properly see the point of focus. This involves checking the lighting, in general and for the screen position. It is better to limit your aids to essential details and avoid distractions. Choose an appropriate layout, with an appropriate lettering size. Space letters adequately and prefer taller letters to wide ones. If you choose colours pay attention not to over combine fade colours.
Audio aids • Music • Microphone	Music is often used to relax participants or to help the trainer to create a different atmosphere. Talking in a microphone is not always straightforward, rehearse to find the right distance form the mouth and to avoid feedback.
Physical materials • Balls • Available sports equipment • Materials for role-play, disguises etc • Material to mould and create visually	During the training participants will appreciate physical move ment and energising, whether it is a simple game or a creative exercise with clay or some similar material. Make sure that you have adequate amounts of all materials needed for a particular exercise, and that where relevant the safety and security of the training environment should be considered

Physical setting • Placing the chairs in a **circle** is informal and contributes to an atmosphere of exchange and even intimacy. Everybody can see each other, and there are no preference seats. • Placing the chairs in a **row** so that speakers are in front of participants is useful for visual presentation, as long as everybody can see. As opposed to a circle however, it sets up an obvious power relation. Placing the chairs in a **series of small circles** is useful when you create working groups to carry out small exercises or tasks during the session. The speaker can be accommodated on a raised platform at the most appropriate point in the room.	The physical setting is important for group dynamics and has an impact on the learning process. Participants should be physically at ease, be able to hear and see adequately and there should be enough room for the planned activities. The room should have sufficient air, and attentive participants prosper in regulated temperatures; that is in rooms that are not tropically hot or numbingly cold. Participants and trainers should be informed and aware of the location of fire and emergency exits.

3.4.8 The report – why, by whom and whom for?

After a long and tiring course, the planning team normally has one more task to carry out – writing the report. While the report may often seem like the last stop prior to embracing exhaustion, it is worth asking the weary team why they are writing it in the first place. A report could be written for a variety of uses, and used in different ways, so it is important to know the purpose before writing it. Reports can be produced as souvenirs, as contributions to resource development, to live up to the name and keep a report of an organisation's activities for future reference, to gather dust, as a grant requirement for donors, and so forth.

Equally, reports may be written in a variety of ways. The team may be responsible and plan it as part of the event process, with a reporter nominated for each day or module. Alternatively, with big events or where the emphasis is on producing a publishable resource, an outside rapporteur can be engaged. A common practice is involving participants in the report writing as a way of producing a common resource. This often takes the form of a daily report, which when combined with the written material used during the session provides the basis for the final report. In all of these cases, or when a combination of approaches is used, it is useful if the structure and headlines of the report of the report are decided in advance. With participant reports, providing a report format can allow them to participate in the session while noting down relevant material.

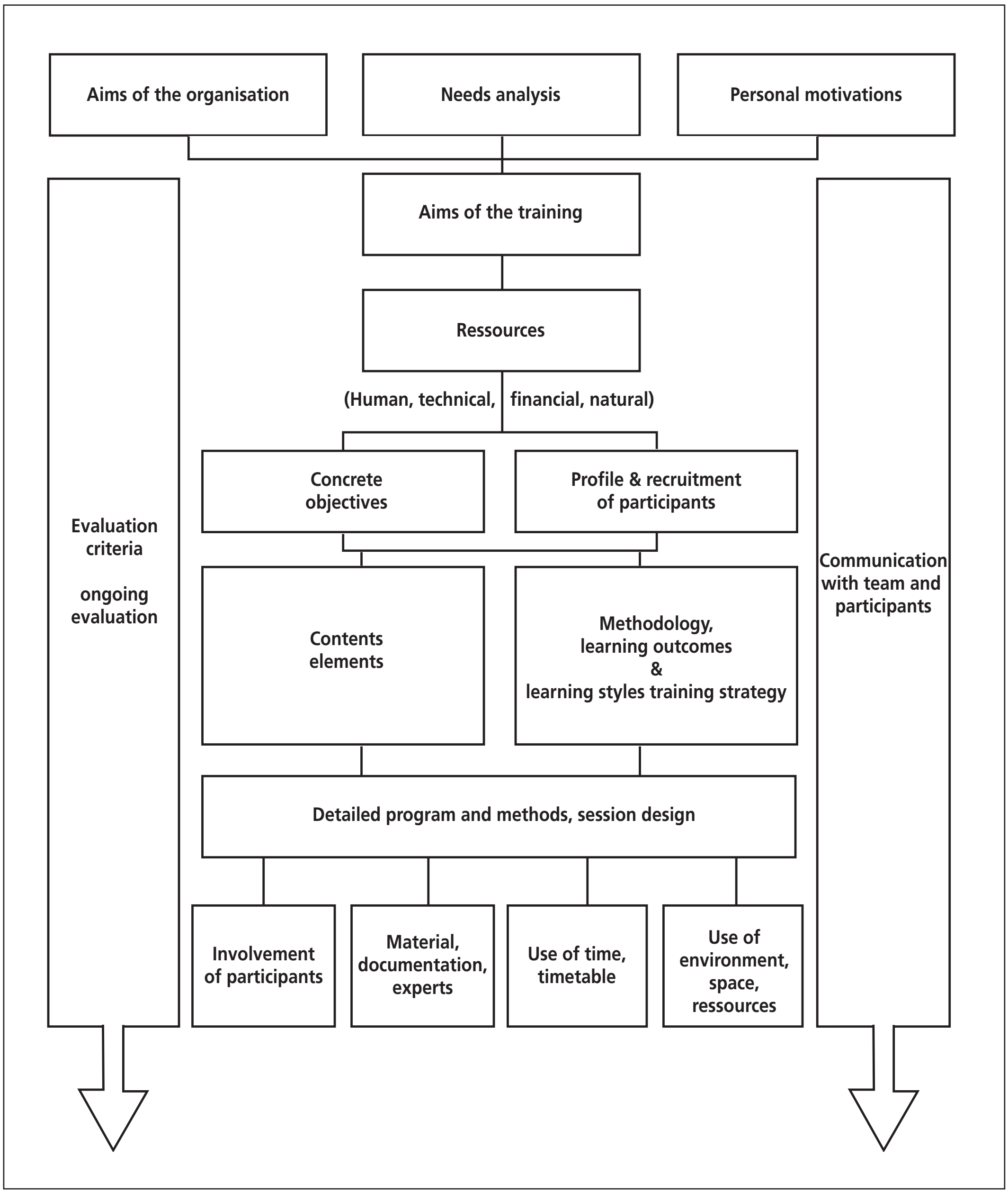
Another pragmatic issue is the timing. The report should be completed for circulation within a reasonable period after the event, or at least that is the hope. Efficient circulation goes down especially well with the donors or institutions that gave the grant, and many impose deadlines for submission anyway. With a resource report, quick provision to former participants builds on the energy generated by the training and allows them to use it in their organisations and multiplying activities. When resource reports are aimed at a wider public than the participant group, it is worth bearing in mind that vignettes and allusions to specific personalities or incidents may be of great nostalgic value, but for those who weren't there it can be, well, irritating. Some reports are written in general form and with a confidential section included at the discretion of the author, the report can then be circulated as appropriate to relevant target groups with or without the confidential section. A resource report can be referenced to where more detailed information on the subject can be found, as well as to related previous reports or relevant documents on the same topic.

Appendix 2 provides a sample outline of three kinds of report: a brief outcome report, a resource report and an evaluation report. Ultimately, the context, organisation and team must decide where the focus lies and the aspects they would like to highlight in the final text.

3.5 Program design

The previous section dealt with the technical aspects the preparation process. This chapter focuses on content elements and the preparation of the educational program. The planning and preparation of a training program needs to take into account a variety of elements. As a trainer, you might have a number of subjects and methods in mind, which you would like to include. But will they fit your target group and the specific program you are planning to run? The scheme below gives an overview of all elements that program planning needs to consider.

TE-9 Preparing a Training Program



3.5.1 Clarifying the frame and purpose of the training

Every program is constructed within a specific context that defines the purpose of the training. The elements determining this context have been outlined in the preceding sections, and need to be defined and clarified by the training team as an initial step. Here are some suggestions for team consideration when laying the basis for program-planning:

Needs assessment, personal motivations, and organisational aims/institutional context:
These factors indicate the general social and political frame of the training course.

- What training needs have been expressed, and by whom?
- What needs exist for the kind of training being organised?
- Why is the organisation or institution running this training course?
- What are your personal motivations for being the trainers of this course?

Training aims

- What are the general aims of the training?
- Do you, as a training team, have a common understanding of these aims?

Resources

- What financial and material resources are available to implement this training course?
- What are your resources as trainers, your knowledge, capacities and abilities, the level of energy and time you can invest?

Objectives of the training

- What is it that this particular course can and should do to?
- What specifically do you want to reach with this training?
- Which outcomes and results do you expect?

Profile of participants

- If your training course addresses youth workers or youth leaders, what then is the specific profile of the participants that this course wants to reach?
- What kind and level of experience, background, needs, motivations and interests should the participants have?

3.5.2 Defining program content elements

Deciding on content elements is usually the first 'real' step of drafting the program. What subjects should the training course address? Focusing on the contents of the training in a team process, where different ideas need to be considered, co-ordinated and structured, can be difficult. Ideas may be lost in the discussion because they are not taken up and properly discussed by other team members. It is therefore helpful to keep track of ideas visually, on a flipchart for everyone to see.

Usually, the process of defining the contents of the program includes several steps:

- Listing possible content elements
- Discussing content elements – what do we actually understand by the contents?

- Agreeing on content elements
- Prioritising content elements – which are the most important elements? What do we want to spend most time on?
- Putting the content elements in order – creating a program flow which incorporates a consideration of group dynamics and the training strategy.
- Creating a day-by-day program of content units
- Creating session plans for all units

The exercise below is one way of facilitating team discussion and definition of content elements.

Collecting contents elements on post-its to create a program

Step 1:	All trainers write down the content elements they wish to see in the program, one element per post-it. All post-its are then put up on the wall for the whole team to see.
Step 2:	Clarify elements, where necessary. Group similar elements together.
Step 3:	Make titles for the groups of elements on different colour post-its. What is it that makes them a group?
Step 4:	Take off all post-its except those with the titles and put them aside. The remaining post-its (with the titles) will be your program content elements.
Step 5:	Discuss the outcome. Are you happy with these elements? Is anything missing? If needed, have a look at the original post-its again.
Step 6:	Arrange the elements into a program flow.
Step 6:	Draw up a day to day program based on this program flow.
Materials:	Post-its in two colours, markers for all team members, a large wall to group the different papers.

3.5.3 Creating a program with opportunities for learning

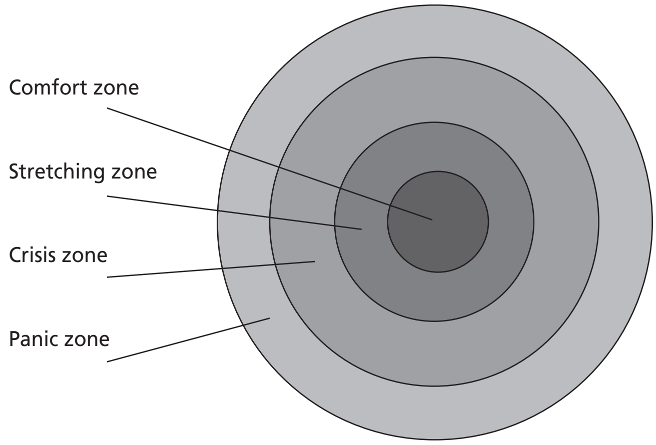
It follows that the next essential task of program planning is defining the educational approach. How do you want to deal with the contents? Which methodology will be the most useful for the participants and help you best to reach the training objectives? How do you like to work?

The methodology and methods you choose should serve to create learning opportunities for the participants. One way of thinking of learning opportunities is to look at *zones* that participants might enter during different moments of the training course. As visualised by TE-9 below, the zones indicate the degrees of personal challenge that the course may create for individual participants.

In the *comfort zone*, no specific challenges are encountered. It may be a new experience, and new knowledge may be received, but personal values, convictions and perceptions remain relatively untouched. Learning is comfortable. A participant enters the *stretching zone* when she will reflect about others' and her own perceptions, attitudes or behaviour. In the stretching zone, questions are raised and changes of perception, attitude or behaviour are possible. In this stage, participants can become uncertain and vulnerable. If the stretching goes too far, then participants might get into the *crisis zone*. It is possible that particularly sensitive points have been touched, convictions and perceptions have been weakened and a high tolerance of ambiguity is called for. In the crisis zone, participants are very vulnerable. But we also learn from anxiety, and crisis can be a valuable learning experience when its energy is channelled constructively. However, from crisis to the *panic zone* is only a small slip. When people panic they block, fall back on comforting certainties, and learning becomes impossible. At this stage, participants might undergo emotional processes that cannot be contained and dealt with in a training course.

This model suggests that our program will be most effective if participants reach the stretching zone, and possibly even the crisis zone, at certain moments during the training. But we need to keep in mind that while experiential learning should stretch and challenge participants, crises should remain an exception and participants should not be made panic. Teams need to be able to support participants during moments of personal challenge, don't open something you can't close!

TE-10



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Suggestions for reflection

1. Different levels of experience among the participants will make it more difficult to create learning opportunities for the whole group. How do you read the diversity of your group? How far can you go with your group?
2. Have you encountered panic in a group you have worked with? What caused it? How did you deal with it? Did your team have the capacities to deal with crisis and panic?

3.5.4 Focusing the program on the participants

Considerations of content and methodological approaches have to be grounded in the needs of the participants and group, and a reflection upon their roles and responsibilities in the running of the program. The following factors provide a basis for working this through:

Participants' needs and expectations: The needs, motivations and expectations of the participants for the training course give you important information for measuring the relevance of the training for the people taking part in it. Needs and expectations can be identified before or at the beginning of the training, but allow for the possibility of them changing during the activity (*see 4.4.1*). Looking at the participants' needs and expectations also encompasses considering how the experience of the training will relate to their reality. How, or to what extent, can it be ensured that the participants can use the training experience in subsequent work?

Recognition of the participants' prior knowledge: Keep in mind that participants come with a training history and range of experiences. Depending on the levels of experience present in your group, recognising prior knowledge and using the resources of participants in the course can be an essential element for actively involving them in the training process and facilitating peer education. Create spaces where all participants have the opportunity to share their experiences. Participants with relevant knowledge or skills might contribute in specific ways, for instance by giving inputs or running a workshop.

Responsibility for the learning process: On the one hand, people might only take in what they want to learn and what they feel they need. On the other, they might have learning needs that they are not immediately aware of. What do you consider to be the respective responsibilities of the participants and trainers for the learning process? Who can and who should determine what the participants need to learn?

Group size and development. When planning a program, the size of the group provides an immediate framework. For instance, creating an intense experiential learning process for a group of 50 participants might be a very difficult undertaking. A group also undergoes different phases during a training course, so adapt your content, methods and program flow to the relevant stages of group development (*see 4.3.2*)

Use of the environment, space and resources of the group: How can you make use of the environment in which the training takes place? Or, asked the other way around, what environment do you need for your program? How can you use the city, local youth structures, youth organisations and projects, forests or fields around the training site in the program? And how can you work best with the resources present in the group itself? For instance, if you want to work on cultural perceptions and images with a group of participants, do you run a simulation exercise, work with what happens in the group, or send the group into the streets to observe and report?

Structure and flexibility in the program preparation: Working with the resources present in the group and involving the participants' needs and expectations demands a certain readiness flexibility in preparation. Sometimes you can only isolate the real learning needs and most valuable contributions during the training course. Discuss within the team the extent to which you can be open and flexible. How much structure do you want to provide? Which elements need to be settled in advance to target the objectives and to feel comfortable with the program? (*See section 5.4*)

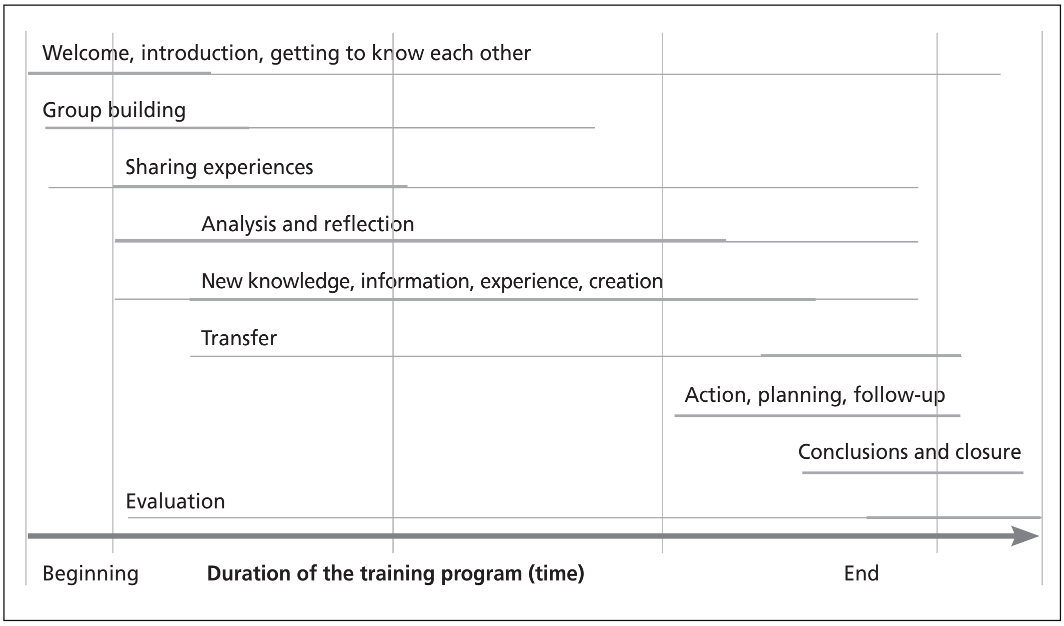
Time planning: Time is always limited, how can you best use what is available without overloading it? How does the program balance free time, social time, and working time? How can you deal with unexpected events during the training course? Section *4.4.6* takes a closer look at time management.

3.5.5 Program phases and program flow

Some phases are common to almost every program, regardless of the specificity of context, objectives and content. Every program needs to work with the resources, dynamics and development of the group, introduce new knowledge and create possibilities for new experiences and applied transfer. These generic program phases are informed by group dynamics, theories of learning styles and cycles, and common training strategies. All of these phases constitute essential parts of a program. As is visualised in the graph below, some of them can be quite flexibly arranged throughout the entire program, others come more logically towards the beginning or end of an activity. Sharing experiences, analysis and reflection and gaining new knowledge, skills and experiences are integral parts of the whole training process. Transfer and evaluation should also be ever present, to support and monitor the learning process. The process of the group is integral to determining your program flow, as it is likely that the group will be in various stages of cohesion and motivation throughout the activity. Whatever the order, it is important to create a program flow in which all of the component parts build, and can be seen to build, on each other.

The **welcome, introduction and getting to know each other** phase is, let's say, useful at the beginning. Participants are welcomed to the training course, personal, technical and thematic introductions are made. This period overlaps with a concerted **group-building phase**, essential in laying the foundations for integration, trust and genuine participation. Group building is also the first step in recognising, valuing and working with the differences and resources present in the group. **Sharing experiences** compounds these aims by giving participants opportunities to share their backgrounds and realise the scope of the resources present in a multicultural group. What are their former experiences with intercultural learning, youth work or project development? How is the situation of young people and youth work in their countries or communities? How does their organisation work? How does this relate to the training course? While sharing experiences should be an ongoing characteristic, focusing on it at this stage reflects the principle of working from the particular to the general, while also providing a space for identity negotiations within this temporary collective.

TE-11 Program flow



Receiving new **knowledge**, learning new **skills** and undertaking new **experiences** is the essence of training. The body of the training is built on specific content elements, methods and exercises aimed at involving participants in meaningful learning experiences. A general emphasis **on analysis and reflection**, as well as focusing through debriefing and specific program components, is essential in driving the learning process. It helps participants to supply political and social contexts to their training knowledge, and to become more conscious and reflexive about their personal learning process. This is necessary if a training event is to be relevant to the participants' life and work situations. **Transfer** involves fitting the experience of the training to their realities, and adapting the newly acquired ideas and skills to their own work. The transfer phase is not limited to the physical end of the activity, as the internet creates increased possibilities for participants to pose questions and reflect with the team and together for a certain period after the training. A regular aim of training is to facilitate, as far as is practically feasible, **action planning**, and **follow-up**. How can participants be encouraged to follow up the training concretely? What action should they take? Are they expected to implement actual projects? How do they incorporate what they have learned to their organisation or project group? Addressing the question of follow-up also mentally prepares the participants for going home. As well as striving for results beyond its own lifetime, training activities need to consider their **conclusions** and effect **closure**. Are there final conclusions to be made, a final report or recommendations to be drafted, final decisions to be taken by the group? Closing the program also means closing the circle of the training. It can include recalling the training process, its main learning points and experiences. Allied to this, **evaluation** helps the trainers assess the impact of the training course, and the participants to focus on what they have learned. As such it constitutes an element of the learning process itself (adapted from Ohana, [2000] pp. 45-48). Proper evaluation is ongoing, with a final concentration at the end of the course.

A training process which is relevant to multicultural groups should include different levels of learning and work with the classic elements of head, heart, hands and health. When creating your program flow, reflect upon how you, as trainer and in your team, see learning happening. For instance, what relation exists between experience and theory? What place should emotional learning have? Do you give enough space to reflection?

3.5.6 Types of programs and program components: some examples

While we have argued that most programs contain similar phases, this does not mean that all programs are any way similar in type, not to mention their components. This non-exhaustive section looks at major choices with regard to the program type, their relation to educational objectives, and briefly considers how to cater for a diversity of learning styles and needs within a group

Planning a program in advance or developing it with participants?

Much of the focus of this T-Kit has been on developing a **structured training program**, prepared to a large extent in advance. This is an overwhelming common approach, although clearly within this general frame a variety of different program flows can be created. An important advantage of preparing a program in advance is that it ensures that important elements are included. Allied to this, it can be presented with clarity to participants while providing a clear frame and stability to the team. As has been pointed out in other sections however, preparation rarely has access to a crystal ball to foretell the future, and a highly detailed program may prove inflexible and unable to respond to particular group dynamics and training needs that emerge during the process. That is why many trainings do not just reserve space for participant input and consultation, but also build the program around the **experiences and resources of the group** (further information on all of the strategies outlined here can be found in the reference section).

- **Group experiential learning** prioritises group development and stated needs, and training is built on the evolving situation. Participants are involved in deciding the program from day to day, and can learn at their own speed. Reflection with other participants and trainers on the experience constitutes an essential element of the learning process. This approach of content as process and process as content can create an intensive and charged learning environment, and conflicts may need to be handled by the group. For the trainers, this type of training demands a high degree of personal involvement, inner stability and the confidence to deal with constant evolution.

- **Open Space Technology** is a way of creating ‘open’ units in the program where participants can bring in their resources and interests. It usually lasts for at least one whole day, and is run according to some basic rules and under a broad theme. Within pre-defined time-slots, participants can offer to run discussion groups or workshops on subjects of their choice. An essential aspect of Open Space is that it puts the responsibility for the learning process on the participants, in that individuals and the group create their own optimum conditions. Rules such as ‘whoever comes are the right people’ and ‘when it starts is the right time’ reflect this.

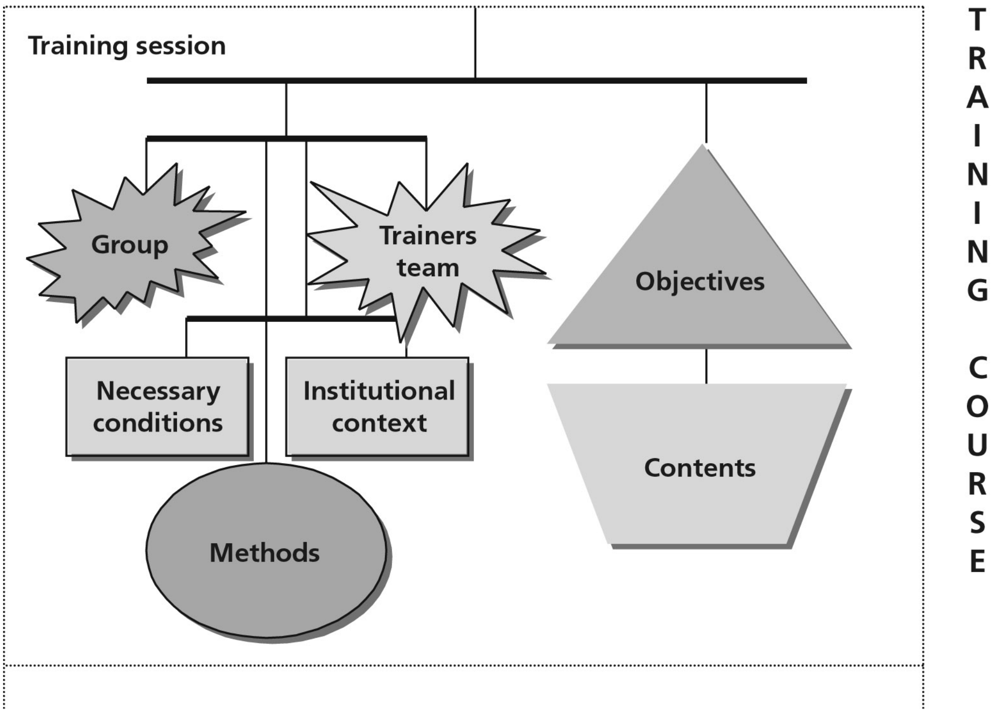
- **Future Factory** involves envisioning and planning strategies for tackling problems in society. In a widely replicated three stage formula, participants draw up problems they are concerned with, put them on cards and on a wall. They then envision their ideal picture, where these problems have been thoroughly addressed. They then bridge these images by reflecting on strategies, actions and developments that can power a transition. A future factory can last a whole day and provide space for participants to grapple with a complex situation and developing feasible solutions.

Creating spaces for in-depth learning for a group with diverse interests and needs involves subdividing into smaller working groups for periods of time. This can be done in different ways, depending on your training objectives and the group dynamics you want to create.

- **Mini-seminars** give participants the chance to deepen a specific subject with a small group. The subjects can be defined by the team or by the participants themselves, in line with existing needs and interests and the objectives of the course. Dividing a group for a longer period of time runs the risk of creating subgroups, therefore feedback and sharing of the results is important. From the trainers, mini-seminars demand expertise in the subject matter and the capacity to work with different training processes simultaneously.
- **Workshops** create smaller hands-on training spaces. A round of workshops generally lasts for one to two training sessions and are suited to addressing the development of particular skills and competencies. Workshops need relatively little time, can be used flexibly and targeted at specific interests. For the trainers, workshops can be relatively work-intensive to prepare, while providing a chance for in-depth work with a small group. Workshop rounds need to be well co-ordinated to allow participants to attend a range that correspond to their interests.
- **Creation groups** can have several purposes: preparing actual youth projects, simulating the process of making a project or a project application or preparing a workshop for other participants of the training course. In creation groups, participants create a product of their own and present it to each other. The groups can be formed by the trainers but free association creates stronger ownership of the work. Creating a common product can be a very empowering experience. Creation groups tend to be challenging, involving and creative, but as an intensive learning situation it can be stressful and at times frustrating. It needs to be well debriefed after the groups have finished. The team needs to be clear about the purpose of these groups; is the focus on creating an educational process, developing a real project, experiencing group dynamics or all of these?

3.5.7 Session design

TE-12



(Graph adapted from: Mewaldt & Gailius, 1997, p. 25)

Once the overall program content and flow are defined, detailed planning can begin. A session is a time-slot in the program. Usually we count four to five sessions per day – two in the morning, two in the afternoon, and possibly another in the evening. Preparing a session involves concentrated planning with an eye on the whole process. How does this session fit in with the ones before and after? What do we need in this session to maintain a balance of methods and learning points? Every session should be prepared like a miniature program, with clear objectives, content and methodology, and an awareness of trainer competencies, the group, environment and institutional context. As is shown in TE-12 above, the objectives and content of each session need to be balanced against all the other factors determining the specific context of the training session.

A checklist for designing a session within a larger training framework:

Objectives: What are the specific objectives you want to reach with this training session? What learning outcomes would you like to see?

Contents: What is the essence of the subject you are working on? Can you reasonably connect subject and objectives? What should the participants experience during this session? How does this subject fit into the process and overall content of the training course?

Trainers: What are your experiences as trainers in working on this subject? When working with other groups, what was positive, and what would you like to avoid? Which methods do you value as trainers and feel capable of using?

Group: What is the present situation of the group? What needs and interests have participants expressed? What prior experience do the participants have in this subject and approach? How is the interaction within the group and between the group and the team at present?

Conditions: What are the working conditions? What limitations do the environment and space present? What materials do you have, what do you need? How much time do you have?

Institutional context: What outside requirements exist? Are there any expectations from the side of the organisation or institution responsible for the training? Are there any legal restrictions?

Methods: Which methods are suitable in this context? Which methods do you know? What methods could you adapt? What have you used already, or are planning to use later during this training course? What is the attention span of the participants?

(Adapted from: Mewaldt & Gailius, 1997, 25)

Some elements to consider when designing a session

– Make the objectives and role of the session in the program clear to the group. Understanding why an issue is being dealt with in this way at this point will help the participants to stay with the process.

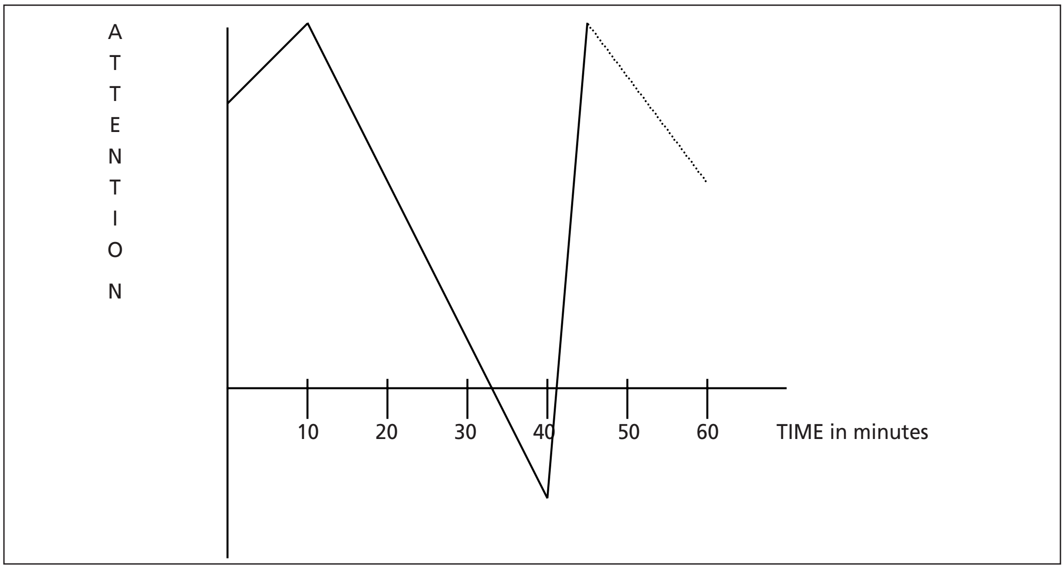
– While avoiding showmanship, use a variety of methods within one session. It will help you get the participants involved and keep their attention.

– Conclude the session. Usually, the participants' attention is high during the last minutes of a session, so underline the main learning points and make realistic links to the overall framework.

– Be aware of normal attention spans when designing your session. It will help you see what methods you need to use to keep the group involved. The graph below is basic and not a universal guide, but it does indicate likely fluctuations in attention and suggests that a trainer needs to pace the session and consider the impact of environmental and group factors on attentiveness.

Appendix 3 contains a session design sheet.

TE-13



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3.6 Evaluation

The only man I know who behaves sensibly is my tailor; he takes my measure anew each time he sees me. The rest go on with their old measurements and expect me to fit them.

George Bernard Shaw

3.6.1 What does it mean to evaluate?

One of the commonest and trendiest words in youth work (along with reflecting and sharing) is evaluation. It is so in vogue that it might be time to evaluate if we have already forgotten its original meaning. A quick look in our trusty pile of dictionaries reveals that evaluation means 'to determine or fix the value of something' and 'to determine the significance, worth or condition of – usually by careful appraisal and study'[6]. Ok, one might say, that's the dictionary, and as somebody once pointed out, if you go in looking for a true meaning you'll never come back out. Nevertheless, how can we connect the concept of evaluation and our own training activity? What should one look for when asked to evaluate a training course? How can a definition of this kind be translated into the applied world of youth training on a European level?

Evaluation in the context of training usually has two basic meanings. Firstly it means assessing whether or not the training was justified and if similar or extra effort should be invested in it. Secondly, it represents the first step on the journey of improving on the training activity itself and possible future activities. It means looking back at the activity and assessing its quality, as well as identifying the factors for improve-ment. In the 'profit sector', the evaluation of a training activity focuses on whether or not the training has brought more profit to the company, or whether the environment has been protected while maintaining the same level of production. It asks if more skilled workers have started producing in relation to their training, if managers are managing better and so forth.

This sounds very logical, but can or should the same approach be used in youth training?

6. Webster English Dictionary

3.6.2 Evaluation in the context of organising an European youth training course

One of the challenges of European youth work in general and for the organisations involved in particular is to look very critically at the strengths of non-formal education, and to ascertain what alternative systems can be developed for the evaluation and assessment of learning outcomes. The approach implies that the tools of assessment (and evaluation) have to be developed with three distinct aspects in mind: content of the training programs, personal development of young people and evaluation of the educational process as such. Crucially, this will only work if the young people are involved in their assessment. They should be encouraged to reflect, describe, analyse and communicate what they experience during the activities in which they participate (Vink, 1999). Given the nature of youth training and the values it embodies, it is reasonable to suggest that assessment involves a certain degree of tolerating ambiguity. One should be prepared to cope with the fact that there will not be definite answers when faced with the challenge of even defining evaluation in the context of youth training activities.

The only definite statement we can make is that the approach and methods used in the profit sector are unsuitable for direct use in the assessment and evaluation of youth activities. The measurable financial or business objectives of this sector are replaced in the youth sector with goals and objectives that often possess a degree of intangibility, and as such can be difficult to evaluate and, if necessary, measure. In relation to this, the fact that the working methods and approaches of non-formal education are often better researched and described than the learning elements and outcomes means that defining the aims, criteria and mechanisms of evaluation in youth training activities becomes a challenging task.

3.6.3 Why is it necessary to evaluate?

For trainers, facilitators and organisations evaluation is a powerful tool that allows the organisers of a training activity:

a) To look back on the activity and identify the strengths and weaknesses of the program, to identify the benefits to the participants, to assess the educational and methodological approach, and to determine in general whether the course was appropriate and justified the efforts invested and money spent. During an activity evaluation allows us to adapt the program if necessary, afterwards the emphasis is on the extent to which the stated objectives were achieved.

b) To look forward to future activities and use the results of the evaluation to enhance planning for future training activities. This involves analysing the likely impact on future projects, on the individual growth of the participants, on the organisations, their immediate environments and possible long-term changes[7]. In basic terms, it allows organisers to identify mistakes and areas where improvement and innovation are needed.

c) To give the participants a constant opportunity to comment, adapt and control their learning process.

3.6.4 When to evaluate?

The most common mistake regarding evaluation is the belief that it comes at the end of a training activity. Meaningful evaluation takes place during every stage. It shadows every development of the training activity (similar to a project cycle – in this sense a training activity can

7 See Project Management T-Kit, p. 87

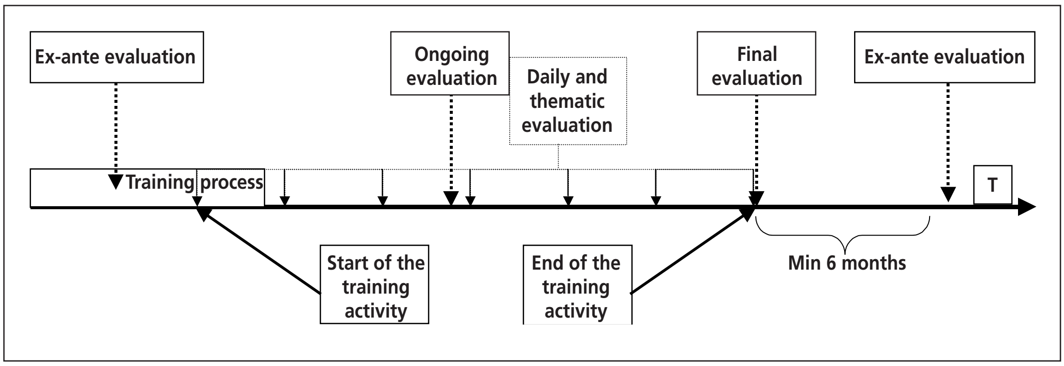
be perceived as a project. Check the *Project Management T-Kit* for an in-depth discussion of pro-ject evaluation). There are 4 key points where evaluation of training activities should be implemented:

1. **Ex-ante evaluation:** This is evaluation carried out after identifying the training needs and designing the training program for the activity. At this stage the assumptions and needs on which the program is based and the program design itself should be evaluated and if necessary adapted or fine-tuned (examples: needs assessment [3.1], program design assessment etc.)
2. **Ongoing evaluation:** This evaluation is done during the training activity. The program is reviewed on a daily basis to see if it answers the needs and succeeds in reaching the defined objectives (examples include daily evaluation groups, mid-term evaluation, oral and written feedback from participants, etc.)
3. **Terminal (final) evaluation:** Implemented at the very end of the training activity. The main focus is the reactions of participants, their appraisal of the learning outcomes, evaluating the attainment of the goals and objectives, and so forth (examples include evaluation questionnaires, presentations by participants, oral evaluation, visual evaluation, planning team evaluation)

4. **Ex-post evaluation:** This evaluation is also known as impact evaluation. It is performed at least 6 months after the activity and mainly focuses on the perceived personal development of the participants. The main goal is to check the kinds of impact the training activity had on the participants and how that impact is reflected in both personal terms and its registration in their organisations as well (examples include in-depth research, evaluation questionnaire, assessment of entire organisations etc.).

TE-14

Points for evaluation



3.6.5 What to evaluate?

For every trainer at a course, evaluation is the conflictual encounter of self-perception, the perception of others and what actually happened – verified by objective indicators.

A lot of factors influence the success of a training activity: the group dynamics, degree of intercultural learning, conflicts in the group, the way in which the topic is explored, and many more. Each of them has a certain impact on the final outcome of the training activity. This implies that the crucial question in every evaluation strategy is, what to evaluate? The answer depends on the type of training activity, the organisation(s) and the purposes of the evaluation. The information collected during evaluation can usually be grouped into different categories or levels.

The analysis can be done according to several different models. Similar to other elements of training, there is no one dominant approach to evaluation. The following table brings you four different evaluation models[8]:

Model	Training Evaluation Criteria Further explanation & comments
Kirkpatrick model	*Four levels:* 1. Reaction – were the participants satisfied with the activity? 2. Learning – what did the participants learn from the activity? 3. Behaviour – did the participants change their behaviour based on what they learned? 4. Results – did the changes in behaviour positively affect their organisation?
CIPP model	*Four levels:* 1. Context evaluation -are the chosen goals the right ones for this activity? 2. Input evaluation – is the program well planned? Are there enough resources to implement the activity? 3. Process evaluation – how was the course flow? The participant's feedback? 4. Products (outcome) evaluation – were the objectives reached?)
Brinkerhoff model	*Six levels:* 1. Goal setting – what is the need? Are these the real needs? 2. Program design – what is required to meet these needs? Is this design going to meet the needs? 3. Program implementation – how do we evaluate the program in practice? 4. Immediate outcomes – did the participants learn? What did they learn? 5. Intermediate or usage outcomes – are the participants implementing their learning? 6. Impacts and worth – did it make it a worthwhile difference to the participants' organisations and their personal development?
Systems approach (Bushnell)	*Four levels:* 1. Input – what goes into the training effort? (trainee qualifications, trainer's ability, resources etc). 2. Process – how are the planning, design, development and implementation of the activity? 3. Output – what are the participants' reactions, knowledges, skills gained, behaviour reflected on, attitudes changed? 4. Outcomes – what are the effects on the participants' organisations?

It is noticeable that these four models have many common features, but also some different emphases. Their use depends on the contexts, evaluation needs and 'depth' of evaluation that the training requires. It would be possible to provide an extensive list of similar evaluation models, but at this point it is more important to illustrate a detailed implementation. The Kirkpatrick evaluation model is a straightforward yet highly effective model that is widely used in the trainers' community. The following section expands on the basic structure given above.

3.6.6 An evaluation model in practice

The Kirkpatrick model suggests four different points of focus: the reaction of participants, learning, behaviour after training and the results achieved as a result of the changed behaviour. In comparison with other models it has one clear flaw – not evaluating the actual training process.

8. Adapted from J.J.Jackson, Training and Evaluation and R.L. Simone and D.M. Harris, Human Resource Development

That said, if evaluators are aware of this weakness and consider the process separately, it provides a strong framework for approaching a youth activity.

Level 1. **Reaction** – Were the participants pleased with the activity? Did the participants like it?

Level one measures feelings, energy, enthusiasm, interest, attitude and support. However, *what is reflected at this level is words, not deeds* (usually in evaluation forms or oral evaluation). As with any exercise in interpersonal feedback there is a possibility of dissonance between what people say and what they eventually do.

The daily evaluation groups, mid-term evaluation and final evaluation form are the most common methods used for evaluation on this level. Some examples of final evaluation forms and a design for daily evaluation groups are presented in **Appendix 2**.

Level 2. **Learning** – What did the participants learn in the activity?

Assessing learning in non-formal education and in youth training is a rather complicated task. On these training courses the knowledge and skills transferred are very much interrelated with the changes in awareness, attitudes and reflection of the participants. For formal training courses, tests and various certified forms are used. In non-formal youth training based on voluntary participation this can have counterproductive effects.

In non-formal contexts the evaluation of participants (whether they have learned a certain theoretical concept, or a certain skill) can be implemented by giving opportunities to the participants to demonstrate their knowledge and skills. It might be in workshops run by them, role-play and simulation, accompanied by reflection and feedback.

Level 3. **Behaviour** – Did the participants change their behaviour based on what they learned?

Levels 3 and 4 focus the evaluation on the participants' reality. It is not easy to analyse behavioural change in participants. In youth work especially, where short training cour-ses are an everyday reality and funding organisations are not eager to finance ex-post evaluation, this situation is heightened. During many youth training activities, the focus is mainly cast on self-realisations and self-knowledge, and their relevance in the context of European youth work. This is very hard to evaluate. How can we tell whether somebody has *become* a trainer after participating at a 'training of trainers' course? Is it even a question we can ask? There is a continuous need to track the participants' development and achievements. The only reasonable thing that can be done is ex-post evaluation, where after longer periods of time the trainer or the organisers of the training contact the participant and co-assess developments in the meantime. Usually this is done by a questionnaire, due to restrictions of finance and time. Without these restrictions, direct observation or in-depth interviews with the participant would generate more useful data.

Level 4. **Results** – Did the changes in behaviour positively affect their organisation?

This level of evaluation focuses on the participants' organisation and the benefits of trained participants to them. Did the participants implement the knowledge gained during the training activity? Did they make an impact on the overall work of the organisation or conditions of their target group?

The main disadvantage at this level is the near impossibility of singling out the long-term impact of the specific training activity as opposed to other learning experiences and stimuli. Participants follow their own path and in the process of their development learn new things which consolidate, refine and challenge what has gone before. It is also important to bear in mind that an impact on an organisation cannot be accomplished by a lone individual, but by people collectively involved in the whole organisation. In this context it is problematic to try and indicate the exact impact of individual participation. **Note:** *A long–term training gives an opportunity to evaluate between sessions which can include evaluation on levels 3 & 4.*

Final comment

Levels 1 & 2 can be found in the evaluation designs for almost every training activity today. Levels 3 & 4 are clearly more complicated and time, effort and money consuming, but ultimately crucial in assessing whether a training has really made an impact or not. Therefore, with the environment and limitations of youth work training in mind, evaluations on level 1 and 2 should be executed as a normal standard. Partial coverage of evaluation on level 3 is achievable, in the form of a questionnaire distributed some time after the activity for example.

It is important to be aware of the existence of evaluations on levels 3 & 4 and whenever possible to implement them. Available results can indicate huge justification of the training program and inform a needs assessment for future training activities.

Two tips for future evaluators:

- Be aware that in youth training results are not always measurable, at least not straightforwardly so. This does not mean that they do not exist. They exist and the goal of the evaluation should shift towards making them more visible.
- An ultimate evaluation design does not exist. Every evaluation has its limits. In youth training the two most important limits that should be taken in consideration are a) that participants are not only source for evaluation and b) the limits of the training activity itself – they are very often too short to produce in-depth results

Points for reflection

- Think about your last training activity. What types of evaluation did you do? In your opinion, can some of the evaluation models presented above?
- Do you find evaluation worth of involvement as suggested above?
- Can you think about other approaches to evaluation that you have used and are not mentioned in this part? What is typical for them?

3.6.7 Daily and ongoing evaluation

One method is to ask participants to meet in small groups for 20 minutes or so, and hand out some key questions about the day. The questions should be straightforward and limited to 3 or 4.

- What I have learnt today?
- What I have not understood?
- What would I have done differently? Why? How?

A group composed of one representative from each evaluation group meets with the preparatory team. Together they decide whether to make changes, and to consider the kinds of changes that could be taken the following day to improve the program. Actions could be very practical or relate to working methods and processes.

The other participants can be made aware of the discussion and its results by a morning feedback session on the evaluation and consequent changes to the program. If the evaluation group representative that works with the planning team rotates daily, then every participant has the opportunity to be involved in the program to some extent.

A variation involves the team members ‘visiting the evaluation groups after they have answered the questions. Once they have collected the comments and queries, the team can consider eventual changes to the program. This second option is less participative for participants but possibly less demanding for the team.

Clearly, evaluation is less valuable if it is slotted in between packing and a farewell party. Daily evaluation facilitates useful two-way communication. Regular evaluation groups, facilitated or working alone like the groups in the exercise above, are popular as they allow groups to develop understandings and criteria for their evaluations. In some training courses these groups also function as self-evaluation groups, tracking the progress of individuals and providing a space for reflection and transfer. If this is the case, it is important to delineate the functions of the group, and keep them separate. Evaluation groups should not be just aimless talking shops, or worse, consumer relations exercises. They need clear frameworks, and a realisation that evaluation that comes from the group must also be reconciled with central training objectives. In shorter activities, a single mid-term evaluation could substitute daily feedback. **Appendix 4** contains a variety of evaluation formats.

4. Training in Action

4.1 Group life and the training process

4.1.1. Group life in a training

From an educational point of view, people being trained together while very often sharing the same accomodation encourages them to live an unique experience which can support their learning in many ways.

The advantages include:

- Learning together and sharing experiences
- Learning from each other. In peer-group education people share their experience and as positive models can also shape the behaviour and attitudes of their peers.
- A protected learning context in an artificial situation.
- Improving the communication in an organisation when people from one organisation are training together.
- Encountering new people and creating new networks.

This form of residential existence is beneficial for the training process, provided a few guidelines are followed. It is necessary to ensure that all the participants are staying overnight at the same place to enable everybody to participate in the same way. A common problem for trainees at an international event in their city or town is removing themselves from their normal routines and avoiding personal or professional distractions. In terms of optimum participation, it is also important to control the group size and to use a range of methods suited to working with different group sizes. The box below gives a general overview of this point. As we shall see however, no group is static and from the beginning of its existence is developing and in a permanent flow. As with all typologies, the ones offered here can only be verified by the reality of the group you are working with.

Group size and participation

Size	Communication in the group	Group structure/methods
3-6 people:	Everyone speaks	Buzz groups like method 66 (6 people share for 6 minutes about a subject), working groups.
7-10 people:	Almost everyone speaks. Quieter people say less. One or two may not speak at all.	Working groups, small thematic workshops
11-18 people:	5 or 6 people speak a lot, 3 or 4 others join in occasionally.	Workshop, plenary session
19-30 people:	3 or 4 people potentially dominate	Plenary session (presentations (results, film), short theoretical input, evaluations) working groups
30+ people:	Little participation possible	(the bigger the group, the shorter the plenary meetings)

Adapted from Rogers (1989)

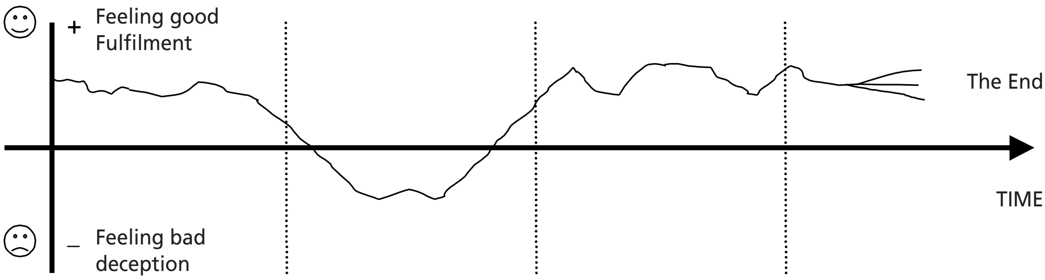
4.1.2. Stages of group development

As a basic starting point, each training group is different. Every group is constituted by different individuals, coming from perhaps many different organisations and a range of cultural, social and educational backgrounds. People arrive with their professional and personal expectations, with their values and prejudices, their hidden agendas and their personal luggage which may be packed with more or less important things that keep them connected to their 'normal' world. All or any of these aspects can have a big influence on the group, the training process and the dynamics and evolution of group life. If every group is different, it follows that there are as many group dynamics as there are groups.

That said, models based on the observation of groups argue that there are typical stages of group development which are likely to be passed through. *The T-Kit on Organisational Management* (p.47-) deals with this in relation to team development and details the main stages observable in the development of a training group.

TE-15

Typical emotional 'fever curve' and stages of group development in a training



Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Arrival Defreeze Orientation	**Fermentation And clearing**	**Learning/working motivation and productivity**	**Departure and Transfer (and sometimes mourning)**
Participants are nervous and curious, arrive as individuals or subgroups, carrying degrees of personal 'luggage'.	Individuals or subgroups start to know each other, the training frame and the trainers. First power struggles, the roles of the individual participants become defined, sometimes explicit behavioural and communication rules are needed.	Group starts to work on the training subjects, a group 'culture' has been established, participants can be highly motivated and sometimes need to be reined in.	Participants are proud of the learning process and results, they also know that the end of the training is near and that they leave the group to become individuals again which brings mixed emotions.

4.1.3. Theme-Centered Interaction (TCI)

As part of the discussion on training strategies (3.3.1) we considered the Swiss psychologist Ruth Cohn's theory of group and learning processes, Theme-Centered Interaction (TCI) (1981).

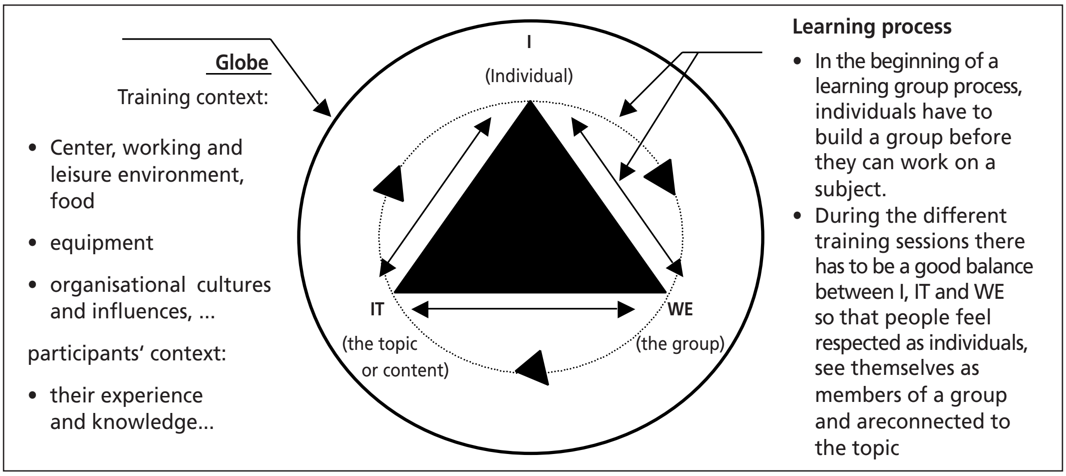
Each learning situation can be seen as determined by four factors:

- *I (individual)*: the motivations, interests, personal histories and levels of involvement of the individual participants, as well as the by now infamous luggage they may bring with them. the relationships and cooperation in the group
- *WE (group):* the relationships, dynamics and types of cooperation within the group.
- *IT (topic):* the subjects and content of the training.
- *Globe:* the training and organisational environment (also partly represented by the participants)

A crucial goal for the trainer and team is to create a harmony and balance between the individual, the group, the topics explored and the environment in which all of this takes place, while recognising that this balance is dynamic. There is a continuous flow and counter flow from the individual needs to the group needs to the topic to the individual, and onwards.

TE-16 Theme-Centered Interaction

The interdependance of the individual participants,
the training group,the training subject(s) and the training environment



Adapted from Cohn, 1981

Disturbances result from disjunctures in these relationships; for example if a participant is not well integrated into the group or is not interested in the subject, then this will become obvious in the group life. Treating these relationships as dynamic means realising that priorities can be different at different stages of growth; an obvious example is the need to allow time and space for a group to form before the training subjects can be introduced in depth. 'Balance' is a notion that takes on meaning in relation to each individual group, trainers need to maintain balance by focusing on the neglected aspects of the group and learning process at any one time, while realising that not everything imported into the training environment can or should be dealt with.

In relation to this Cohn provides a set of postulates and rules aimed at improving group interaction and communication which place the emphasis on personal responsibility in inter-relations with and contributions to the group.

Postulates

1. Be your own chairwoman. You are responsible for yourself and your actions in the group. Be aware of your expectations and what you could suggest. Clarify your motivations and don't expect that others will do it for you. Be aware of your own feelings, thoughts and actions.
2. Disturbances take precedence. If you can't follow the learning process because it is too difficult for you or you are tired, bored or angry make it visible to the others. Bear in mind that this does not mean that the trainers' team can deal with anything at any time, or indeed that it should. They must also set their priorities, time management and limits. Note the possibility of a cultural and individual dimension to this postulate: if participants or trainers value harmony or do not wish to lose face, this could make it more difficult for them to express themselves.

Communication rules

3. Talk about yourself; say I instead of we or one.
4. Your questions should include the reasons why you are asking them, it helps avoid an interview replacing group dialogue.
5. Side talks take precedence. Disturbances and not just distractions, they wouldn't happen if they weren't important.
6. Just one person should speak!
7. Be in contact with your thoughts and feelings and select those which are important and supportative: being reflective allows you to find your way between undifferentiated openness and fearful conformity.
8. Be attentive to the body signals (body language) of you and others in the group.
9. Speak about your personal reactions and be careful with interpretations.

Adapted from Cohn (1981)

Rules??

The section above suggests communication rules. For some trainers this makes perfect sense, others recoil from the idea of introducing series of rules to participatory education. Rules of this kind are seldom attempts to implement new laws, but rather to set clear guidelines for common life and conduct within a shared learning process. As with all questions of ethics and group dynamics, there are no ready-made answers to be found here. The following exercise suggests a facilitation method for allowing a group to define its own rules, in this case in relation to communication. An exercise of this kind at the beginning of a training also addresses expectations with regard to the group process and individual contributions. A mutual process allows people to identify themselves with the rules, and reflects key tenets of empowerment by shared responsibility.

Exercise: Communication breakdown

1. In small working groups the participants collect 10 actions/behaviours they judge most contributory to a communication breakdown and visualize them on a sheet.
2. From these possibilities they select the 3 'best' ones in a ranking order. The best one should be represented in a living statue (body sculpture) for presentation in plenary, yet it should not be named. (20-30 minutes)
3. Every group reports on it results and presents the human sculpture. The other participants have to interpret it.
4. From this pool of destructive behaviours, participants and trainers can create a set of rules for group communication and discuss individual commitment to them.
5. Some other issues for discussion in this manner could be:
   - Mutual respect
   - Smoking and non-smoking
   - Alcohol and closing time of the 'bar'.
   - Noise levels in the evening
   - Absence from the training

4.1.4. Managing the training process

Staying connected to the group, the learning process and personal experience is crucial, though it is often difficult to step back in certain situations. The following reflection points are intended as an aid for monitoring the ongoing processes during a training.

General observations

- What is developing in the group? Which of these processes should I leave alone, support or slow down?
- What or whom struck me as needing a closer look during the next session?
- In relation to course objectives and team planning, what changes are necessary to the topic and the methodology?

Focusing on the session

- What is my most intense feeling after this session? How did it develop? What could it mean?
- Which thought occupies me most after this session? What is the connection to the subject and the process? Does it include a new subject?

Focusing on the discussions

- Which interactions were special? Which thoughts and problems appeared and disappeared without being completely developed? What connection is suggested to the next subject or linking introduction?

Focusing on the participants

- Who attracted my special attention? What consideration should I give this? What different relationships do I have with the participants and how is this visible for me? What open or hidden messages have I received and how should I interpret them?

Focusing on the program

It may happen that there is a gap between the logic and flow of the prepared program and the actual needs of the participants in context. If the next topic cannot be just modified, what does the group need next?

- A calm or a meditative element
- Movement/action
- Focus on experiential methods
- Interaction and contact through a game or an exercise
- Time to review the work to date, not the introduction of a new subject
- Activities which connect theory to practice
- A change to another element of the topic, or a new subject.

In-depth focus on the group (for team meetings)

- Which stage of group development are we in now?
- Which participants will be 'easy'?
- Who looks as if they are having difficulties at the moment?
- Who could make contact with me easily, for whom did it seem more difficult?
- Which participants have been 'invisible'?
- What roles have been taken up and allotted? How comfortable do people seem with them?
- What biases and prejudices have I already formed?
- How closely do my/our hypotheses about problems in the group correspond to reality?

To get an instant personal sociogramme of your relationship with the group, the following exercise may be useful:

Put your name in the center of a sheet and the names of the participants around yours. Draw a line from your name to the name of every participant you have had contact with. Use different distances to express the level of connection you have with the different people. Use + and – symbols to express the kind of relationship you have.

Debriefing questions

1. Which names did you forget at first? Why?
2. Whom did you write down first, those far away or those nearby?
3. What will you do with your graph? Will you introduce your findings/suppositions to the group and to your team? How?
4. If you have completed this in several contexts, do any patterns emerge?
5. What can you learn about your behaviour and interaction from this? How can you change it?

4.1.5 Group dynamics and spoken language

Working in an intercultural training environment often means that many participants have to use a foreign language to communicate. Increasingly English is the normal shared medium – the lingua franca, if you'll forgive the irony. Unsuprisingly, this frequently results in native speakers and fluent second language speakers gaining a certain power in the group.

They are more visible and involved than other participants because they can express themselves in a more differentiated ways. This verbal power allows them to take positions in the group others can't inhabit. Sometimes there also is an element of power and position in translating or speaking for participants that don't speak the working language at all (it still happens, even if invitations always demand competency in the working language). Nevertheless, this is the reality of international work, and the issue for trainers is to incorporate linguistic considerations into their methodological planning. The table below outlines the common strategies employed, and some questions to bear in mind in relation to them.

…/

Communication strategy	Pros	Cons and dangers
One common language	• Training process is faster (real time) • More spontanity is possible • Participants (and trainers) are experienced in a holistic way	• Non-native speakers are often disadvantaged • Be aware of the complacency of a shared language – the same words often have a different meaning or resonance in diverse cultures and linguistic communities. (*see also 1.2.3*)
Simultaneous interpretation	• Allows people who don't speak a common language to participate, as long as they are not blocked by the fact that they have to push a button to speak • Communication about technical or more intellectual subjects is made easier • Proceedings are more or less simultaneously received.	• Often very expensive • May create an official environment • The headset and microphone installation (even if mobile) limits the scope of the training activities • Interpretation is not an exact science – discrepancies can create misunderstanding and possibly conflict • Spontaneity limited by technology and the interpretation process • Creates an illusion of effortless communication
Consecutive interpretation (in 1 or 2 languages)	• More people have the possibility to be involved in the training • People are visible in their own language and non-verbal expressiveness (even if this also requires interpretation!)	• Doubling or tripling of the training time • Similar ambiguities of translation, language and culture • A long painstaking process – can deplete the energy of the group • Limits the methodological choice • Less spontaneous for everybody • All verbal visualisation in two or more languages
Mixture of consecutive and simultaneous interpretation and common language groups	• Combines the positive aspects of the three approaches • Allows a better methodological mix • Allows work in smaller groups, which is not always possible in a simultaneous or consecutive interpretation setting	• Needs to be carefully planned with interpreters, who are often engaged solely for simultaneous translation. • It can quickly become unfair for some participants to act as interpreters, detracting from their learning process. Again, this needs careful management.

4.2 Dealing with conflicts

The Italian writer Umberto Eco once remarked that crises themselves are not a problem; it is the way that we react to them that counts. In a way, this is also true of conflicts, and particularly so in a training situation. People from diverse backgrounds and experiences come together to share a committed and often intense period of learning. It would be remarkable if this dynamic didn't produce 'conflict' of one form or another. Indeed, peer education often thrives on the creativity and invention which results from differences, oppositions and clashes. Yet, as a trainer, how do we distinguish between the normal and the destructive? When and how do we intervene? What roles are open to us? The aim of this brief section is to suggest ways of analysing conflict situations, and deciding how to approach them.

We could start with a fundamental question; *when is a conflict a conflict?* Defining human situations is always tricky, and especially so here. At a basic level, a conflict involves opposing parties, and different combinations of needs, aims, strategies, motivations and interests. Perhaps of more use to the trainer than a rigid definition is a sense of when a conflict has shifted from being a normal, and perhaps energising process, to a potentially destructive one. Like its potential solutions, the definition of a conflict must come from those involved. Yet the trainer may also have to decide whether or not a situation needs to be declared as a conflict, and addressed by the team and the parties involved. This demands careful analysis, beginning with looking at the type of conflict which is unfolding, and the motivations for involvement.

4.2.1 Types of conflict

While a conflict involves two or more opposing parties, their levels of involvement may be very different, and these levels of involvement are intimately related to the reasons for the conflict. In *Community Conflict Skills*, Mari Fitzduff identifies possible types of conflict, listed below. In a wide variety of international trainings with political and social themes, these different levels of conflict may be present simultaneously, and different manifestations may emerge as the situation intensifies or changes.

- *Intra-personal:* during an intense process, we may often encounter internal conflict about our behaviour, values, ideas. This in turn may inform our involvement in external disagreements.
- *Inter-personal:* conflict between personalities. Despite the energy spent on group building, there is no rule or guarantee that participants should like each other, and this is a normal state of affairs. Sometimes, however, individual animosity can have a negative group effect.
- *Inter-role:* in a training, people play formal and informal roles in relation to each other. The assignment or adoption of these roles can be a source of friction.
- *Inter-group\organisational:* conflict which occurs between groups or between individuals as representatives of those groups., for example, between members of opposed political youth organisations.
- *Inter-community:* again, between groups or representatives of those groups that can be defined as communities, be it ethnic, religious, political, and so forth.
- *Inter-national:* conflicts between nations which, like inter-community situations, may motivate citizens of those nations present at a training to engage in conflict.

4.2.2 Why do conflicts occur?

Clearly, no two conflicts are ever the same, but we can attempt to group the kinds of motivations which are likely to be present. At a very fundamental level, we could argue that conflict arises from people's *needs* and *desires*, which may often be incompatible and therefore in conflict. Needs can range from questions of material survival and subsistence, to those of security and comfort, to issues of identity and self-worth. Unless the food is really medieval, it may be safe to assume that primary needs will not motivate conflict in a training seminar. In an intercultural group dynamic, it is also safe to assume that any of the other socio-psychological needs may arise. Closely related to these kinds of needs are people's *values*, the guidelines by which they live their lives and interact socially with others. A training offers multiple situations where values may come into opposition, suggesting that a key role of the trainer is to facilitate a safe forum for the potentially valuable exchanges that may result. Yet what happens if values are so deeply held that exchange and compromise becomes impossible, and parties insist that theirs should predominate?

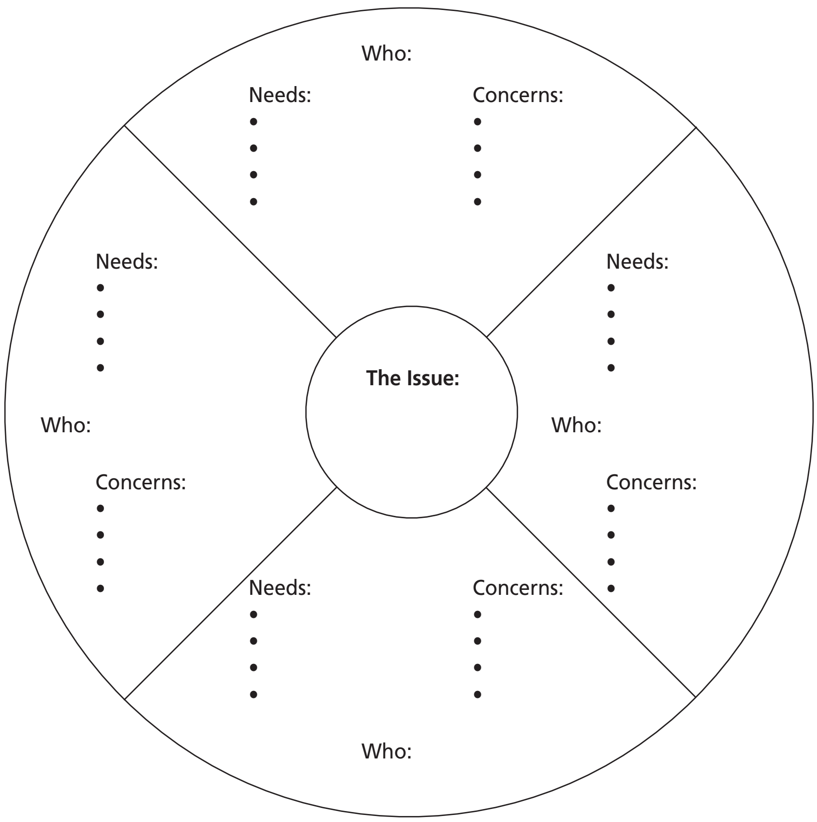
To complicate matters further, needs and values are not always visible and declared. If we dust off the beloved youth work iceberg one more time, we could put it that needs and values lie under the waterline, while *positions* are what are visible as the conflict is played out. That is, a position is the way that people have chosen to defend or attempt to obtain their needs. The position may be motivated by the needs, as yet unspoken, but may only be expressed in relation to the focus of the conflict and the issue that is in the group domain. [For a further discussion of the concept of needs, you could refer to the *Organisational Management T-Kit*, pp 48-51]. It is not surprising that conflict parties rarely voice their needs or interests directly. The dynamics of a conflict demand the adoption of positions; these can be defended. Needs, particularly emotional or personal ones, may be interpreted as displaying weakness in a charged situation, or it may be more strategic to keep them hidden. Needs are not always easily articulated – people may not have a clear focus on their needs, and may have become so concentrated on strengthening their position that the needs involved become more obscured.

To illustrate this, let's consider the circle below. This resource is based on the widely-held premise in conflict transformation theories that groups and individuals must be persuaded to move from an exchange of positions or possible solutions to an analysis of the needs themselves. Solutions are often phrased as if they were needs; "I want him to stop interrupting me in the workshop". The need is to be respected, and there may be many solutions possible to meet that need. By addressing the underlying reasons, a process of conflict transformation has begun.

TE-17

Mapping

In the centre circle, define briefly the issue, the problem area, or conflict in neutral terms that all would agree on and that doesn't invite a "yes / no" answer e.g. "Filling", and not "Should Sal do filing?"
In the sectors of the large circle, write the name of each important person or group.
Write down each person's or group's needs. What motivates him / her?
Write down each person's or group's concerns, fears or anxieties.
Be prepared to change the statement of the issue, as your understanding of it evolves through discussion or to draw up other maps of related issues that arise.



"Conflict Mapping" by The Conflict Resolution Network, Australia.
In the diagram, the term *concerns* is used in the same sense as *positions* in the above discussion.

Suggestions for Training:

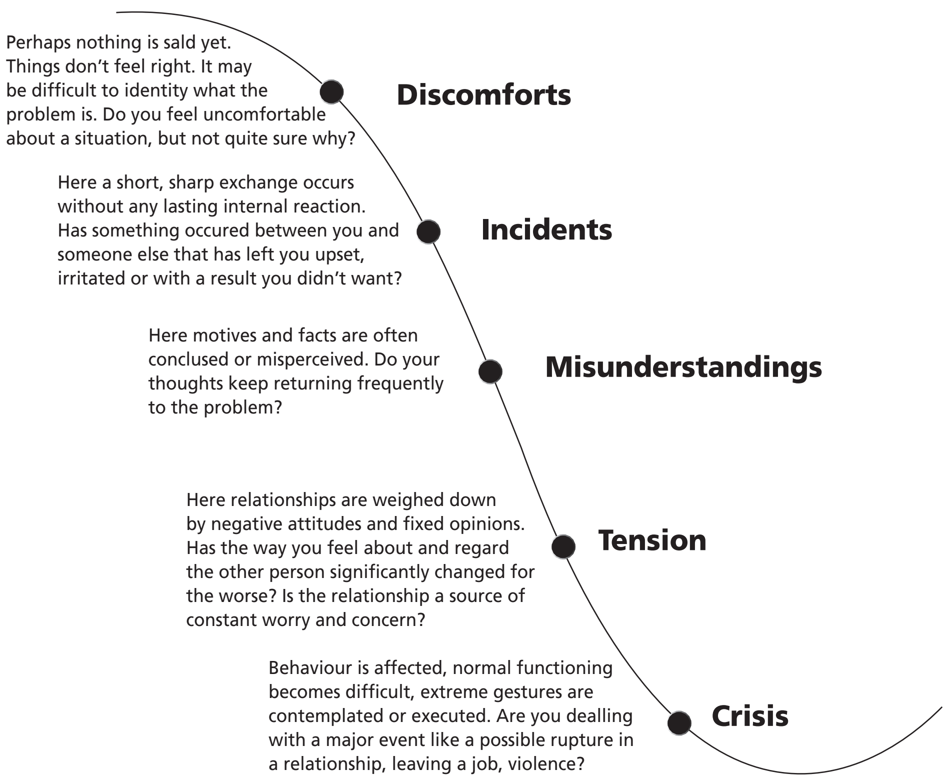
Use the mapping diagram* for personal reflection on a conflict you have been involved in during a training, perhaps one with no satisfactory resolution. Give careful consideration as to how far you can presume to 'know' the needs of others. Having analysed the conflict within this form, would you have attempted different solutions? Why?

4.2.3 Conflict Escalation

Each conflict has a history; it has developed from somewhere. In the chart (insert here *levels of conflict*, the Conflict Resolution Network) it is evident that the crisis point may not emerge immediately. This may not always be the case, but within the dynamics of a seminar it is quite possible that highly charged incidents act as a release for tensions which have been building in a number of ways, over time. The longer these factors go unnoticed, the more difficult they become to solve. In the same way, if the conflict itself remains unaddressed, then the danger is that positions become more entrenched, opposing stereotypes become hardened, and meaningful communication becomes difficult. This is complicated by the ambiguity of communication in a multicultural environment, where both group and individuals are still negotiating the forms and values of communication.

TE-18

Levels of Conflict



"Levels of Conflict" by The Conflict Resolution Network, Australia.

4.2.4 Ways out of conflict

The area of conflict studies is loaded with terminology; is a conflict resolved or transformed? What does it mean to manage or intervene? A vast range of theoretical models for engagement with conflicts exist, to be chosen in relation to the kind of analysis we have undertaken above. We have space here only to outline possibilities open to the trainer, and to suggest resources for further study.

Negotiation

An important point to bear in mind is that a conflict can only be resolved by those involved. Arbitration (a solution imposed by an agreed third party) is rarely completely satisfactory, and ill-suited to the peer philosophy of youth education. Negotiation, on the other hand, allows all parties to define the situation in which they find themselves, and to build solutions built on an open analysis of the needs involved. That said, negotiation is also open to manipulation, depending on the strategies employed by the people involved. *Concession-making*, for example, while necessary, may allow for agreement without addressing the underlying needs in a sustainable fashion. Given the bi-polar nature of negotiation, it can also lead to the hardening of basic positions, if a process of *contention* is allowed to develop. Currently, there is an influential body of work advocating the idea of a *win\win approach*; a philosophy and practice of joint-problem solving that attempts to help both parties to achieve their goals. Central to this strategy is a combination of moving from positions to needs, *active listening*, and creatively designing options that can be pursued. What this move from positons to needs also involves is a fundamental focus on the conflict, rather than opposing actors, as the problem. This is easily said, however, as a crucial and unpredictable factor in conflict is emotion, and the trainer involved in a conflict with a team member or participant may find it difficult to implement a careful negotiation strategy while managing their own emotions and dealing with the anger and insecurity which surrounds them . That is why negotiation is often accompanied or superseded by:

Mediation

Mediation involves the use of a third-party to aid agreement and faciltate the process of conflict resolution. An appropriate metaphor is that of the mid-wife, easing the birth of something that the mediator did not create. She is not the fire service, arriving to solve the problem. Instead, mediation involves decision-enabling, and is a skilled process demanding experience and reflexiveness. According to the Mediation Network for Northern Ireland, the key functions of mediation are:

- To facilitate communication
- To improve understanding
- To support creative thinking
- To explore accomodations

Given the often intimate nature of a training, one of the challenges of mediation is communicating neutrality and fairness. Trainers may be called upon to perform what Pruitt and Carnevale have called *emergent mediation*; that is, mediation where the mediator has an ongoing relationship with those in conflict, and is involved in the context of the dispute (1997:167). Therefore the mediator also has a history in relation to the conflict, and is not operating within a formal system of mediation. Guidelines and principles of the process must then be agreed, and consistently applied by the trainer as mediator. Where this question of intertwined histories is important is in relation to the notion of bias. Clearly, biased mediation is as useful, or even less so, than openly taking sides in a dispute. Equally, objectivity is a fiction, in this kind of context the trainer may have views and opinions on the matter being negotiated. Clear guidelines can facilitate an impartial process, but in facilitating this process it could be argued that the mediator needs to be transparent concerning their understanding of the problem. This allows the conflict participants to build a more complete picture of the process, and minimise the possibility of distrust.

4.2.5 Using TCI in conflict analysis

The TCI model, outlined in *4.1.3*, can be used to identify the reasons for a range of conflicts that may emerge in a training situation. As the model advocates achieving balance between the needs of individuals, the group and the topic, recognising imbalances may indicate the roots of certain problems. For instance, a so-called 'difficult' participant, disruptive to the training process, might not feel part of the group, or is a member of a (cultural) subgroup which is not integrated. She may feel that she has not had enough time to introduce herself or build up trust towards the group. Disturbance could also be a sign that this participant doesn't like the subject, the methods used or that the process is too fast for her. In any case, this suggests that a transformation strategy would be to intervene on the level where the imbalance exists. Equally, the emphasis of this model on process allows us to focus on relationships and power within the groups, and not just on the issues which form the catalyst and fuel for the conflict. The chart below details some conflicts which may emerge, and the relevant TCI factors. The data is based on our observations, and serves solely as an illustration

TE-19

Conflicts as a result of imbalances in the training relationships

	Individual	Group	Topic
Individual		• Individual or cultural subgroup is not integrated	
Group	• Conflict among individuals in the group		• Group doesn't like/value the topic or the methods employed
Topic	• Subject not yet finished • Individual doesn't like theme	• Group work is under-developed • Sessions too long • Inappropriate methods	
Globe	• Personal 'baggage' • Negative personal experiences • Internalized organisational values or taboos	• Different organisational or cultural understandings	• Poor preparation by the sending organisation(s) about the topic • Differing expectations • Training environment effects the work

4.2.6 Developing personal practice

In common with the general philosophy of this T-Kit, it is worth emphasising that conflict transformation practices are not custom made. Even well-researched and elaborate strategies for intervention must be carefully analysed and adapted in relation to the situation at hand. A big heart and well-meaning action are not enough; conflicts can quickly destabilise a group process, and dealing with them demands the same levels of preparation as any other factor in a training. Inherent in this preparation is the reflexiveness and the confidence of the trainer in relation to their intervention. The trainer as mediator needs to look at how they get in, what is expected of them, what they feel they can deliver, and how they can get out if the situation is beyond them. An emergent conflict must be taken seriously, even if it is not evaluated as being so from the outside. Important to remember also is that not every conflict can be solved, perhaps we can only aim to limit the damage to the overall situation. The resources described in **Appendix 5** are interesting places to start building an understanding of conflict dynamics, and to consider strategies for dealing with conflicts that are suited to your skills and competencies as a trainer.

4.3 The roles, the group, the team and their responsibilities

4.3.1 Possible roles

The classical team-building and group dynamics literature often present various typologies of group roles; the clown, the aggressive one, the talkative one, the know-it-all and so on. These approaches may sometimes be helpful, but clearly run the risk of sterotyping people by labelling complex behaviour. This is heightened by the context of intercultural work, where we must be aware of the criteria we use in interpreting behaviour we only have limited exposure to.

More useful are approaches which focus on the different roles a group needs to perform well enough to achieve its goal. These include both task roles – those which help to achieve the aims of the group, and maintainance roles – those that help in the process of performing these tasks (see also the *Organisational Development T-Kit*, p.45 about useful people to have in teams). A categorisation which can help raise awareness for training groups and that differentiates between task, process and blocking roles is presented below.

Task	• **Initiator** – introduces new ideas or new approaches • **Opinion-giver** – provides pertinent observations • **Elaborator** – builds on suggestions from others • **Clarifier** – gives relevant examples, restates and reformulates the problem and probes for meaning and understandings.
Process	• **Tension-reliever** – uses humour or suggests timely breaks • **Compromiser** – is willing to yield a point of view • **Harmoniser** – mediates, reconciles • **Encourager** – uses praise and support • **Gate-keeper** – keeps channels of communication open, encourages others and may act as a filter (in a positive or negative way)
Blocking roles	• **Aggressor** – deflates the status of others or disagrees aggressively • **Negator** – criticises or attacks others • **Blocker** – holds on to positions, mentions unrelated experiences or returns to already resolved themes • **Withdrawer** – will not participate (may have private conversations or take notes) • **Recognition-seeker** – boasts or talks excessively • **Topic-jumper** – changes the subject • **Joker** – diffuses the energy by telling jokes • **Devil's advocate** – presents the other point of view (this role can play a positive part also)

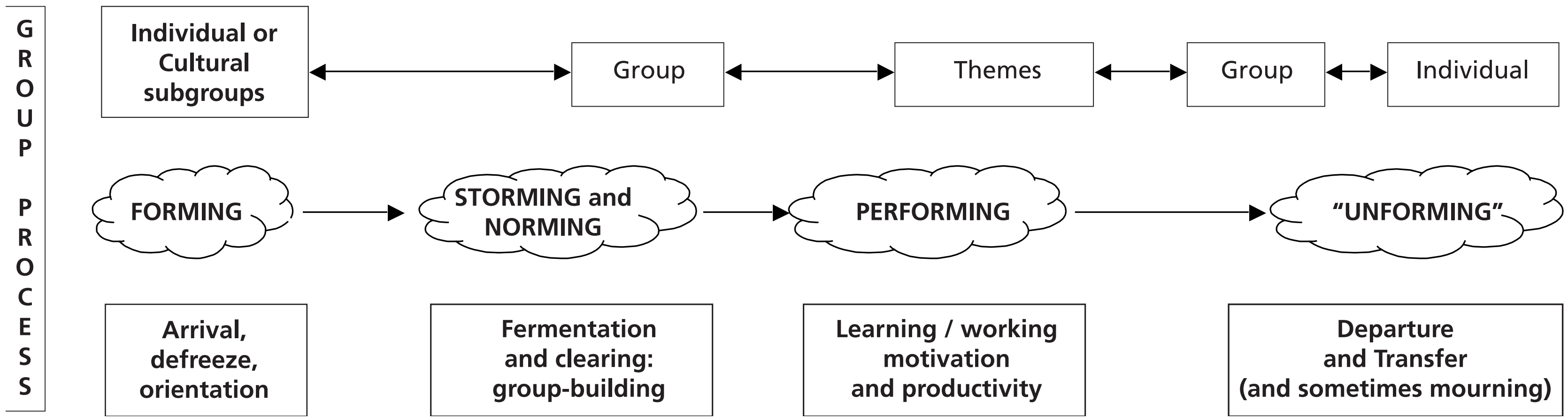
The appearance of blocking behaviours is very often a symptom of imbalances between the fundamental training elements. In a systematic approach, such as the TCI model we have considered, behaviour of this kind is a signal that there are problems with the group process, and is not just the isolated idiosyncrasies of individuals. An interesting article about blocking roles and ways of dealing with them can be found in *Coyote 3*.

4.3.2 Group dynamics and program planning

It is a reassuring feeling for the trainer to have a well-planned program with interesting subjects and methods in her pocket – the frame for the training is secure. While the content is being put down on paper however, it is crucial to design with some general rules of group dynamics in mind, and to consider the methodological strategy in relation to the different stages of group development. ET- shows the integration of some basic methodological elements corresponding to the stages of group development and the learning process. While methods and methodology are tackled in Part 3, it is worth reiterating that a method is just a tool to trigger a learning opportunity, to reach a certain training goal by creating an environment in which individual participants and groups feel free to experience, reflect, learn and change.

TE-20

Group-learning process, group development and the choice of methods



Welcome Name games	Energizers Flashlight	Energizers Flashlight	Energizers Flashlight
Ice-breakers Personal, organisational 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) *Excursions or visits* Sharing and debriefing in the plenary sessions Daily evaluation	Personal evaluation Cultural group evaluation Bye bye ritual(s)

Evening activities: work, games, party/disco, cultural nights, free time etc.

(From Georges Wagner 2000: Unpublished training material)

Bye-bye rituals

Not only the forming but also the *unforming* of a group has to be considered in your methodological planning. This is even more true if the training experience has been very intense or personal for the group. We consider rituals like the ones described below very useful to help the group to become individuals once again, individuals who have to leave and are perhaps emotional at the end of it all.

You will do it!

The group stands in a circle, arms on the shoulders of their neighbours. Each participant who wants to express a wish or to speak about a personal goal (perhaps even unrelated to the training) for the future speaks and is supported by a collective 'You will do it!'. This continues as long as people want it to.

You've earned it because…

In the event that participants receive a certificate after the training, it is nice when all stand together in a big circle to distribute them. One of the trainers starts by randomly selecting a certificate, and when she is presenting it to the participant she speaks briefly about why that person has earned it, what they have contributed, and so forth. This person then randomly selects one and carries on the process.

Suggestions for reflection

With regard to TE-20

1. How far did you consider the group process in your most recent programme-planning?
2. Do you think it is useful to put an excursion or visit in the middle of a training?
3. Did you leave sufficient time for the special interests of the participants?
4. To what extent did you focus on the *unforming* process?

4.3.3 Responsibilities during a training

Responsibilities of the team of trainers

The trainers are responsible to different actors involved in the entire preparation and training process:

- To the organisations involved in the preparation process and in sending their members
- To the funders
- For the training environment – the accomodation, the state of the training facilities and materials.
- For minor participants: it is useful to be covered by appropriate insurance and to be informed about the host country's minor laws concerning responsibilities during youth events.
- Towards the participants (within limits) for their 'mental' and physical health.

- For the training:the subject of this T-Kit – for large elements of the content, facilitation of the process and for various organisational aspects.
- For themselves and the trainer colleagues

Responsibilities to participants

- It is important to demystify your role as trainer. Unless the group understands your role, they may view you as an authority figure and may not see that they have to take responsibility for their own learning process. Keep reflecting back to the group the need to take responsibility for their learning.
- Remember that you cannot expect your own emotional needs to be fulfilled while working as a facilitator. Do not be tempted to use the power delegated to you by the participants to meet your own needs, such as asking for attention or respect, or making friends.
- Being a facilitator does not mean that you are qualified to be a psychotherapist, either at a group or on an individual level. Take care when participants reach out to you, either directly or indirectly, with their emotional needs.
- It is essential that the group understands what you are doing with them: what your goals are, how you expect to meet their needs, what you can and cannot give them, and how you are going to do it. It is the group's right to hold you accountable for what you do with them.

Adapted from: Auvine et al. (1979)

Participation and responsibilities of the participants

As we have seen, an explicit goal of youth training is to facilitate the empowerment of the participants. Besides the resources trainers bring to their work, empowerment can be supported by including, from the very beginning, the young people in the training process.

This means that from the beginning of the training power is shared with regard to the content, though this power balance can shift during the training. If a team makes a serious commitment to work in this way, power and the issues raised by it need to be made visible and discussed in the very initial stages, and modes of decision making need to be thought through also. Power is not a dirty word; it results from the range of cultural, structural and organisational positionings that a training involves. Power is neutral, it can be used or abused. The more trainers and participants unmask power and openly discuss how it works, the more they will be able to channel it into empowering the group. Of course, sharing control of the training process also means shared responsibilities. The nature and scope of these responsibilities need to be carefully worked out.

There are many different ways of including the participants in the training:

- Participating in the program orientation can be achieved to some extent by asking about expectations and group resources.

- Daily evaluation groups or other feedback possibilities allows the expression of opinions and feelings about the training. The team should be clear about how it uses the feedback it recieves.

- It is useful to create committees who are in charge of different aspects of the training:
  - A social committee responsible for different cultural and social activities.

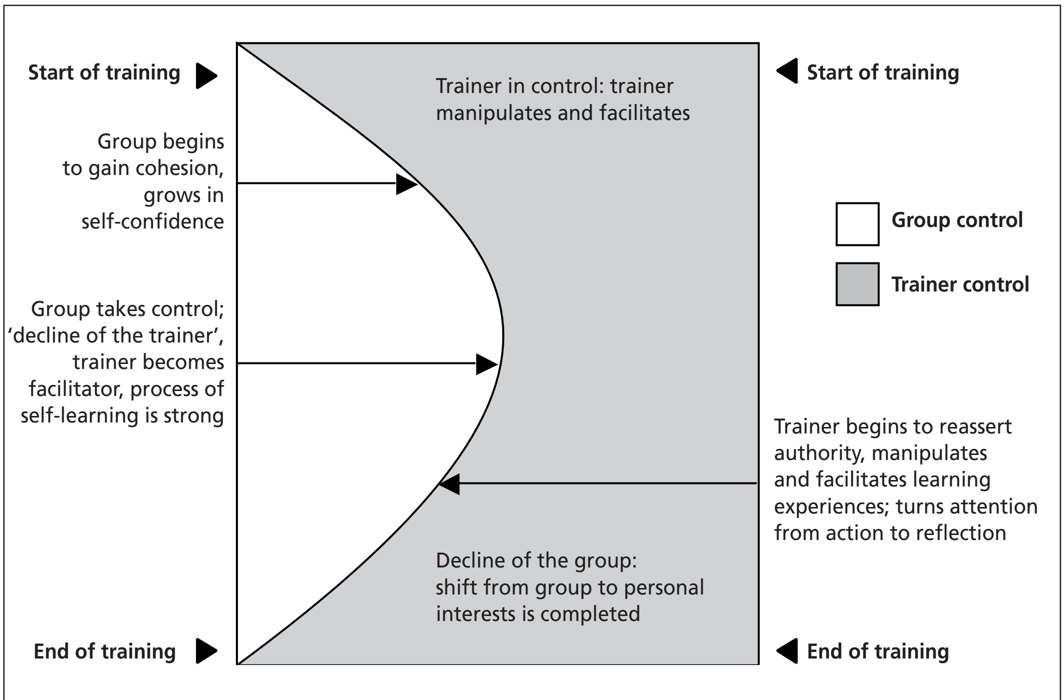
– A report committee responsible for the daily training report (this does not mean that this committee should write everything, it can be responsible for coordination and delegation).

– Daily evaluation or reflection groups (with or without the trainers) that reflect upon the day or training sessions gone by, and perhaps make further program suggestions.

– Program planning methods or decision-making initiatives which involve the group in substantive decisions concerning the program (see)

TE-21

Stages of control in the training process



Adapted from: Pretty et al (1995)

4.3.4. Group-team interaction and decision-making

One of the more empowering aims of training is peer education; sharing responsibility for the training process and content to allow the knowledge, experience and interests of the participants space to develop as common resources. Often this is done by leaving some free space in the program to be filled by the participants' stated needs and suggestions. But how is this space filled? Empowerment doesn't just mean that participants gain from different learning experiences and new forms of knowledge, but also that they learn from active participation in decision making. Group decision making is a complex and at times infuriating process, and trainers need to consider the way that want decisions to be made, and even what constitutes a decision. The chart below details different decision making modes which can be employed in a training, depending on the nature and needs of the group.

Decisions, decisions…

Majority decision making

A vote is taken and the majority choice becomes the decision. A normally efficient form, and one we have been thoroughly socialised to accept. That said, there may be hidden subgroup votes (gender, culture, social or educational status), and in a group that has engaged in teamwork and participative processes a straight vote may be crude. The majority has to consider how to incorporate the needs of the minority, or run the risk or people opting out or becoming disillusioned.

Consensus (or collective) decision making

This form is based on an agreement to reach an agreement, supported by the group as a whole, on all decisions. This mode is highly participatory, drawing on the collective wisdom of the group and encouraging each group member to take responsibility for all decisions made. It can be a painstaking process, but with practice groups find their own rhythm. The pressure to reach consensus can cause some participants to compromise for fear of holding up the group as a whole, and it can also provide ample space for a range of blocking roles.

Individual decision making:

One person decides on the behalf of the whole group. This style is acceptable for emergency decisions and certain routine ones, otherwise it is detrimental to the development of participation and responsibility-sharing in the group. May give the team insights into emerging leadership roles.

Sub-group decision making

Decisions are made in sub-groups by key people designated to do so (using majority or collective decision making). This can be helpful for specific tasks or areas of responsibility within the training as a whole.

In a training it is probable that a combination of these different modes are employed, depending on the group, the focus of the decision and the context. For very important decisions pertaining to the group life (like common rules or program elements), collective decision making is most appropriate, as it corresponds to the values of youth training and gives individuals shared ownership of their training experience.

Relationships with participants or: she loves me, he loves me not..

Good trainings are different from good movies; they can do without the love interest. The question of relationships between trainers and participants is an important professional consideration that not all trainers handle in the same way. In some training for trainers courses it is even not mentioned. In some youth organisations we are confronted by a real taboo. But how do we deal with love in the time of training?

During an international youth training, Jana (23), one of the trainers, begins a relationship on the third night of the training with Peter (21), one of the participants.

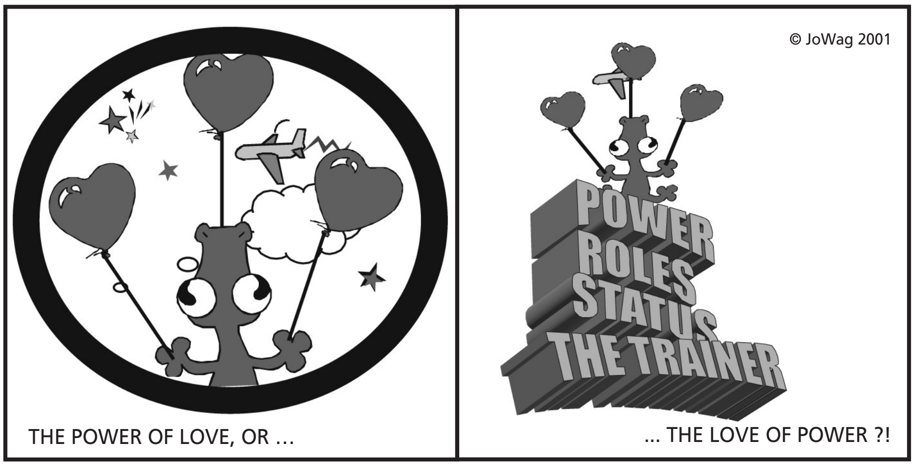
The next day, the new couple is not quite visible to the participants, except that they talk alot together and sit next to each other during meals. Jana seems a little tired and distracted, but is in an excellent mood and very happy.

The same day, during a team meeting, one of her colleagues, who senses that ‘love is in the air’ asks her about her intuition and Jana is very glad to share her new happiness.

- How should the team deal with this new situation? Think about different solutions.
- What problems could this cause in the group if the relationship became public?
- How would you react if the trainer was not Jana, but Jan?
- How would you react if Jana was 10 years older than the participant?

It may seem difficult to give an appropriate answer to a fictional case study. Many people answer instinctively, or in principle, ranging from a radical no to a resounding yes. Providing the participant is over 18 you could argue, love strikes where it strikes, and one should not repress one's own feelings. Clearly, a whole range of values, experiences and normative expectations can be applied to this dilemma.

If we abstract the dilemma for a moment, we could pose another question; what have professional roles like teachers, psychologists, psychotherapists and trainers got in common? One important aspect is that they all involve entering structured relationships with people who are to some extent dependent on them because of different levels of knowledge and status. Crucially, power is ever-present in these relationships, from the institutional power of the teacher-pupil relationship, to the power of need fulfillment and interpretation that exists between psychologist and client. In a range of these professions, notably in psychotherapy, more or less explicit professional codes forbid these kinds of relationships.



Trainers, despite or perhaps even because of the participative framework in which they work, also inhabit complex relationships of power and dependance with their participants. On top of this, a professional view of limits in trainer-participant relationships also suggests some obvious reasons concerning the quality of the training offered .

Given that the trainer is responsible for the training process, all participants and herself, it follows that attention and 'love' should be given to everybody, not just to one person, without mentioning the impact on group dynamics. The added intensity of a love affair within an already consuming training can deplete the mental and physical resources of the trainer. This question of intensity is important; it could be argued that the artificiality of a training situation, where people become very close and reliant on each other in a compressed period of time, mitigates against the idea that true love can just strike in a seminar.

Psychological research has shown that 'power is sexy', true not just for clambering adults but also for young people. Being the lover of a trainer can have many psychological gains: a boost for one own's self-esteem and an increase of one's status amongst training group peers. Naturally there are trainers who abuse their power position and live their sexual and relational needs during the trainings because of personal and work-related reasons, we should try and understand them, but just say no. Perhaps future quality guidelines for European training should address the question of limits, and advise that the subject is dealt with in training for trainers courses.

By the way, if you fall in love with a participant, there is nothing forbidding you to meet again and live your love, after the training!

4.4 Adapting and running the program

If the training team chooses to actively involve participants during the course, ways of achieving this should be prepared in advance, and a flexible programme is a necessity. Adaptation is not a question of consumer preferences, it involves scheduling ways of facilitating participant input into the learning process. While there are a number of possible approaches open to pursuit, we begin here by considering the value and use of expectations and feedback, elements that are normally present in some form in international trainings.

4.4.1 Expectations

It's usual, at the beginning of an event, that participants are asked to express their expectations of the course. Sometimes this even begins in the application forms. Routine questions include:

- Why are you here?
- What are you expecting from this course?
- What would you like to take home from this?
- What are you prepared to share and to give?

Expectations are a common opening ritual, lots of nice coloured post-its filling the air. Many teams have confronted the less colourful realisation however, that after a while they're not sure what to do with all of these colourful scraps of idea-filled paper. Prep teams should be able to welcome these expectations, to discuss them with the participants and amongst themselves, and to consider them as an input in the overall programme. The challenge is to integrate them meaningfully, as gathering expectations and leaving them unaddressed is a dangerous token gesture.

Great expectations?

Here are two ways of gathering expectations at the start of a course.

Small group. After introducing the aims and objectives, ask participants to express their expectations of the course. It is important to make the link with the aims and objectives because this is what participants are going to live, play, share in the next few days. Clarify that we are not talking about life expectations!

Select pertinent questions, and gather the results. Different colour post-its for different questions is a favourite, but feel free to innovate. After an appropriate time expectations are shared in plenary, including those of the planning team. Following this, a group discussion should concentrate on highlighting expectations that are 'in line' with the content of the course, those which are not strictly in line but could be integrated, and expectations that the course, in all its flexibility, is unlikely to be able to deliver. The results of this discussion can constitute a working agreement, sometimes called a 'training contract'. This agreement links the central aims and objectives which need to be fulfilled with a mutual consideration of the participants' expectations. It can be referred back to during the course, and used as a basis for feedback.

Large group. The second example uses a two step approach to deal with a large number of participants. After having asked the group to express their expectations a sub-group composed of some trainers and some participants is formed. They work on gathering and grouping similar expectations, and present the results in plenary. Participants should be available to answer questions or to clarify their expectations while this group is working. Then the discussion proceeds as in the previous case, working towards the same result.

Whatever method you choose, the phase of taking participants' expectations into account is very delicate. We said that it occurs at the beginning of the course when the relationship between trainers and trainees is being fostered, which implies that the team must pay attention not to appear to be the exclusive owners of the course, who welcome and deal with the participants ideas just as a favour.

Even when participants express expectations that the course can clearly not satisfy, clarifying that this is the case should be handled with care. These expectations are rarely outrageous, and the expectation can be sidelined without invalidating it as a learning objective in itself, or making a participant feel that their needs may be marginal.

Treated in this way, expectations can act as a basis for evaluation during implementation. If they are considered as the result of an agreement, team and participants should be able to recall them at each stage or phase of the course. During the course of a session reference could be made to how proceedings relate to certain expectations, but attention should be paid not to create false links and stretch associations.

4.4.2 Feedback

Participants give feedback constantly during any given day, through their reactions and behaviour. How they react when an activity is proposed, their level of attention, the kind of questions they ask, if they are on time or always late; there is a constant stream of indicators open to the attentive trainer. Several program elements normally ask them to feedback explicitly as well. Giving, receiving and evaluating feedback is a constant necessity for every trainer. It's importance lies not only in establishling certain relationships between trainers and participants, but also in fostering inter-participant learning. There is no need to rush to an in-depth team meeting every time feedback is given, but it is up to each trainer to be able to keep her eyes and ears (and heart?) well open and act according to what is seen, heard and felt. Feedback is very easily misused, or misunderstood for various reasons.Giving and receiving feedback is a special form of communication between two people. It involves critique and solidarity, and dealing with all of the inadequacies of inter-personal communication in a sensitive situation. Therefore clear communication guidelines should be agreed in order to limit areas of confusion or the exchange of nothing more than opinion. The following inserts detail a feedback procedure and a step-by-step guide for giving useful feedback.

Step 1: X informs Y of the impressions X got of Y's actions (behaviour).

Step 2: X describes the reactions that Y's behaviour provoked in X.

Step 3: X clarifies whether her observations are correct or not.

Step 4: Y reacts on the feedback received (optional).

Note for the feedback receiver: Take the feedback without comment! Just listen, take it as it is and clarify points if necessary. It defeats the purpose to argue or react immediately.

WHAT FEEDBACK SHOULD BE	WHAT NOT TO SAY	WHAT TO SAY
Descriptive	This is bad!' or 'This is good!' Don't say that something is good or bad, criteria for this judgement are subjective and other people can read it differently.	'Your loud talking during the role play made me feel stressed' Just describe what happened and what you felt at that moment. Leave it to the other person to decide what to do with the received feedback.
Concrete	'You are dominant!' Unhelpful and confrontational	'While making that decision, I had the impression that ..'
Appropriate	Feedback is not: 'What I want you to do' (my needs)	Feedback is: 'What I see as your needs
Useful	If a person is unable to change something, do not mention it.	
Wanted	Feedback is most effective when wanted by the receiver. With some people it is actually the only time when it will work.	
At the right time	If possible, feedback should be given as soon as the impression was made.	
Clear	Ask the other person (receiver of feedback) whether she has understood what you meant.	

(from Participants' report of TC3, 1997)

Points for reflection

Think about the last time you have given feedback to somebody.

1. How did it relate to the procedure and rules presented above?

Think about the last time when you received feedback from somebody

2. Did you ask for it?
3. The rules above are pretty strict. Do you agree that feedback should not contain judgements? Is it really possible?

Exercise for practising feedback

Suitable for groups of 10-15 participants. If you have a larger group you can split it in sub-groups. This exercise works best if the participants are already acquainted with each other.

1. Distribute the rules for giving feedback (in a form of a handout, as presented above)
2. Ask the participants to form a circle. Trainer should join the circle.
3. Tell the participants that each of them (in a domino style) is going to give positive feedback to the participant on their left side. They can choose whatever they find appropriate from the past days at the seminar as a subject.
4. Trainer gives positive feedback to the first participant on the left. Participant continues the feedback circle.
5. The trainer interferes only to point out judgements and help with rephrasing it into proper feedback.
6. When the circle is finished, the trainers ask the participants to repeat the exercise, but now by giving negative feedback.
7. An optional step can be added by asking them to repeat it once again, this time by passing a judgement on their neighbour. It can be negative or positive.
8. In debrief, trainers ask the participants about how they felt when giving feedback (positive and negative) and when they listened to a judgement related to their behaviour. Discuss how they found the implementation of a feedback procedure with specific guidelines

4.4.3 Facilitation Skills

Introducing (new) topics

Without resorting to circus tricks or meaningless stunts, finding an appropriate and interesting way of introducing a new subject can arouse curiousity and motivation for a new session. The only limit to finding a way in to a subject is your own fantasy, and a few methodological criteria. An introduction should:

- prepare people for the new subject, possibly on an emotional as well as intellectual level
- give orientation for what is to follow, without going into details or pre-guessing the results to be reached
- be timed appropriately – suggested maximum is 30 minutes, depending on the importance and complexity of the training session or topic
- activate and motivate

Chairing plenary sessions

Plenary sessions are important and exhausting:

Important
- for briefing and debriefing time
- for sharing organisational information about the training programme
- for sharing results with the whole group
- for the participants to experience themselves as a group

Exhaustive
- because of minimal participation
- because concentration and discipline is required to work through interpretation, the big circle, bad air...

This means that the facilitator has to foster a balance between individual and group needs and the training process. She has to be aware of her communicative position, group energy and the length of the plenary session. Working in a team makes life easier for everybody by allowing a rotating chairwoman, including participants if it is in context. It is also possible to work as a chairing team: one facilitator responsible for content and another for the discussion process. This co-facilitation is helpful in the event of conflict between the content facilitator and a participant; the process facilitator can lead the problem-solving as she has been focused on the build-up.

A few deadly sins every chairwoman should avoid like the plague:

- Not being sufficiently prepared, and asking the wrong questions during debriefing.
- Concentrating too much on the personal feelings of participants.
- Being patronising, if you understand what that means.
- Using jargon.
- Interpreting points to further her own agenda, dictating the agenda.
- Entering into a dialogue with one person, favouring certain speakers above others.
- Continually giving mini-lectures, or generally talking too much.
- Not listening, and talking too much.
- Not watching the time and energy levels.
- Making an inaccurate summary, or none at all.

(List adapted from *TTC 2000* p.39)

How to chair a lively discussion!!

It's always great when chairing a plenary feels less like being a dentist, but sometimes discussions can become too spirited and fast when many people want to talk at the same time (and the interpretation is collapsing).

In that scenario it's useful to introduce a speaking procedure or ritual:

The Talking Stick: originally used by Native Americans, the stick allows the holder, and only the holder, to speak. It is passed from speaker to speaker.

The Flying Microphone: a little ball with a coloured tail can be used instead of the Talking Stick. The main advantage is that it can be thrown from place to place, with less consequences than if you do that with the stick.

Speakers' list: useful when there is a constant flow of speakers, if possible limit it to 5 at any one time to avoid a disjointed discussion.

Any of these methods allow you to apply a speaking limit, if necessary

Encouraging participation

Freedom is not sitting on the top of a tree, freedom is not the flight of a bluebottle, freedom is participating.

G. Gaber, Italian singer-songwriter

In these discussions of different training methods and styles, it is worth bearing in mind that all of the choices we make are then mediated by our personalities bringing them alive in a training. In all of these facilitation practices, encouraging participation is a fundamental requirement. There is no formula for this, it is a matter of the attitudes conveyed, body language displayed and the degree of naturalness we can attain. Encouraging participation is a matter of creating a comfortable space for participants to inhabit.

4.4.4 Debriefing

At the end of any activity comes one of the most important task for a trainer – the debriefing. Without this the session is incomplete and its results confused and possibly prejudiced. Debriefing is the moment where trainers analyse an experience with participants in order to focus on and compound what they have learnt from it. It is a moment to take a step back, review the objectives for the activity and spend time drawing ideas, conclusions and questions from the experiential component. In short, it is like taking somebody by her hand and guiding her through the experience, stopping to collect what has been learnt.

Debriefing is normally built on a series of questions which relate to each other. These questions can correspond to the learning cycles discussed in Part 3, working from the experience to abstract considerations, and back to experience:

- How do you feel now?
- Has anything changed since the beginning of the activity? Why? Why not?
- What have you learnt?
- What have you not understood or appreciated?
- Does this relate to the situation in…?
- If you were to do this again, what would you do differently?

If there is a magic debriefing rule, it is to always refer to concrete instances of what happened when making a point, particularly in summation or in making links to abstract or theoretical material. Debriefing loses its meaning if it is exaggerated; a 2 minute energiser hardly needs a 10 minute debrief. Key sessions and main activities during the event require this kind of process, to help participants to focus on what they have experienced, and to make the links between the different program components and in the training strategy.

Suggestions for reflection

- For which activities do you usually foresee a debriefing?
- Which questions do you ask? Why?
- How could your debriefings be improved?

4.4.5 Time Management

It is not too little time that is our problem, but the time we do not use properly
Seneca

If there is no time then you have time for everything. You are never in a hurry. That is true freedom.
Native American saying

These sayings come from two different cultural and temporal contexts, but remind us that the apparently simple concept of time can be the basis for a wild 'culture clash' in a training or in a team. (See also see the *Intercultural Learning T-Kit* for a discussion of enculturated time, and the *Organisational Development T-kit* for a similar discussion and a look at 'thieves of time', p. 29 ff). The Native American view focuses more on the spiritual – time as a process, while Seneca underlines a task and goal-oriented perspective. This latter view has become naturalised in the industrialized countries where the cultural onus to perform or reach goals have become core values. Contemporary theories also argue that globalisation, by compressing time and space, is altering the way we look at time once again. Despite these interesting debates on the nature of time, youth trainings will probably remain Senecan in aiming to reach training goals that allow participants to improve their performance in their normal environments. Therefore we have to use our time in a fairly controlled fashion, which asks a certain degree of punctuality from everybody involved. This should be made clear from the beginning, and the team could also prepare a strategy for addressing time as a potential problem.

Here are a few suggestions, relating to both the preparation and implementation phase of a training, which could make training life easier by reducing time pressure.

During preparation:

- Don't create a program where every moment is planned. Sometimes, less is more! It is also true that certain learning styles need a more structured program, so strike a balance.
- Try to find a balance between formal (program or task-oriented) and informal (leisure or fun but nevertheless process-oriented) time. The informal time allows people to share personal experience, to meet in a relaxed environment and supports the group-building process and informal learning.
- Include time for ad hoc activities or subjects proposed by the participants.
- Include the daily team meetings in the program at times when the group is less likely to need you.
- Using methods you have experienced already gives you some ideas of the timing, but that is not the primary factor in this decision.
- Take care that the evening activities do not damage the next mornings program
- Reserve space for free time which allows the possibility to retire from the group to simply relax or sleep (see also *1.2.5*).

During training:

- Keep the points above in mind when making program changes, or clearing time for conflict management.
- Watch the following 'time bandits' in trainings:
  - during exercises: reviews or debriefings, room changes, preparations and presentations
  - transportation to visits and field trips
  - meals, especially in restaurants.
- When giving a time limit, never say 'You have 20 minutes for group work', but express it in relation to the actual time 'We meet again at three in the plenary'.

Reflection points.

- How is time treated in your culture/environment?
- When you meet a friend at 5pm, what would be an acceptable degree of lateness?
- When you have a professional meeting at 5pm, what would be an acceptable degree of lateness?
- What type of program do you prefer, minutely detailed or 'bare bones'? Why?

5. After Training

5.1 Transfer and Multiplying: How to use the training results and how to pass it all on…

"So the journey is over and I am back again where I started, richer by much experience and poorer by many exploded convictions, many perished certainties. For convictions and certainties are too often the concomitants of ignorance. Those who like to feel they are always right and who attach a high importance to their own opinions should stay at home. When one is travelling, convictions are mislaid as easily as spectacles; but unlike spectacles, they are not easily replaced."

Aldous Huxley, Jesting Pilate

A major aim of European youth training programs is to motivate and equip an increasing number of young people for international co-operation by using the potential and contacts of their international organisations and networks. Another aim is to enable practitioners from national or local youth organisations, services or groups to give a European dimension to their work by building up co-operation with like-minded partners abroad. Yet another aim is to give youth workers and youth leaders tools to be better able to deal with the realities and challenges of the multicultural environments they encounter in their own communities and countries. Some training courses focus on providing participants with the skills and knowledge to implement their specific projects, while others aim more generally to enable young people to organise youth projects or issue-based work in international or intercultural settings.

Whatever the focus or theme of a particular training course, participants are expected to take action when they return home. A constant question is how to best enable participants to use and spread their learning experiences from training courses in their own working environments. Using knowledge or skills gained during a training event in the home context is often called 'transfer'. Passing knowledge and skills on to other people and projects is often named 'multiplying'. As learning experiences are made within the specific frame of a particular training activity, in a setting that can only create moments of sharing and simulating different realities, the challenge of transfer and multiplying is the greatest for international training activities, but the task is essential for every training.

The question of transfer is important in particular in view of the priority that is given in European training programmes to working with 'multipliers'. The word refers to people that work in a position that enables them to spread training experiences in their own environments – their organisation or service, their youth group or project. Training should not only benefit the person taking part in it, but also be passed on by that person to other young people.

5.2 Multiplying – what are the possibilities?

"The course has increased my motivation because I know that other people are motivated towards similar goals whereas in my organisation the focus is on local events..."

"The course greatly increased my confidence that I can fully undertake and develop an international project."

(Participants, Training Course on Euro-Mediterranean Co-operation, Strasbourg 2000)

When asked to evaluate their learning process after a training course, participants often express how much the training has increased their motivation for international youth work. Increasing participants' motivation and confidence in their own abilities is a major result of most international training events and, if channelled and supported, a strong factor in encouraging follow-up action after the training.

A stronger involvement in international youth work is certainly one major multiplying effect, but follow-up should also take place at local level to bring the benefit of the international experience back to peers, the organisation and the community. Multiplying a training experience can happen in different ways and involve different levels of activity.

Type of multiplying	Examples
Action: Take some action following the training course to use and pass on some of the training outcomes within your own environment	– Inform your own organisation about the training and its outcomes. – Use your strengthened confidence and motivation to present your new ideas to your own organisation, service, group or project. – Use some of the methods experienced during the training with your own group of young people back home. – If there is a course report, make it available and hold workshops on its use as a resource.
Actors: Enable other people to use experiences from the training course	– Organise a workshop for other youth leaders in your environment in which you run a simulation game that was run during the training and discuss with your colleagues how it could be used in your work. – Invite youth leaders or youth workers from your area to a meeting where you inform them about funding programs you have learnt about during the training. Discuss how you can spread and use this information. – Train some of your colleagues or of the young people in your group on some of the skills learnt at the training (e.g. how to prepare and manage an international youth project).
Project: Pass on the experience of the training by creating a project that is implemented after the training (with or without your involvement)	– Run a specific project that was developed during the training, possibly involving other course participants, after the training course (such as a youth exchange, a work camp, seminar, voluntary service project, etc.) – Present a project that you developed during the training to your organisation, even if you cannot follow it up, and perhaps someone else can takes it up and implement it.
Model: Organise new activities using the model of activities experienced or developed during the training	– Adapt a particular method from the training, or the training course itself, for use in your own context, possibly publish and distribute it. This method or course may in turn be used by other people. – A youth exchange, the first for the organisation, is organised following the training course. Another youth exchange is run a year later, following the same model and based on the experience and expertise acquired in the meantime.
Follow-up: Projects or actions developed, or methods acquired during a training course are implemented following the training and give rise to new ideas for new projects, actions, methods, and so forth.	– After you have organised a youth exchange following the training, the two organisations involved decide to exchange volunteers to get to know each other better and benefit more from each other's experiences. – After you have invited people in your environment to an information day about the funding programs you have learnt about during the training, some people decide to organise another such information day for another community they work with. Some people decide to apply for a project.

5.3 Preparing participants during a training course for transfer and multiplying

"The course opened up my mind to opportunities that never felt too close and reachable."

"It's quite impossible to sum up how many things have changed in these few days for me..." *(Participants, training course on Euro-Mediterranean co-operation 2000)*

One of the strong effects of international training events is that they are very intensive emotional experiences. This intensity is created by the residential setting, the group process and the contents and methodology of such activities, where a focus is put on participation, active involvement, sharing of thoughts and feelings, learning by doing, group work and intercultural learning. The creation and facilitation of an intense group dynamic is an educational approach which uses the group as a learning resource and enhances the intercultural learning process. Another element is the excitement of meeting and living with like-minded and equally motivated people from different parts of Europe for a short period, and then having to disperse again. At the end of a one-week training course, participants often find it difficult to return home and leave the others behind. Minds and hearts are filled with strong new impressions, beliefs and convictions have been challenged and shaken, and many new ideas have been encountered and absorbed. Not surprisingly, participants often wonder how to make people at home understand the experience they have lived.

Participants often express at the end of training courses that they expect to encounter difficulties at home:

"It is a question for me how to share the information with other members of my organisation and pass on successfully the skills, knowledge, motivation and enthusiasm to co-workers in my organisation."

"How can I identify the motivated people among my partners?"

"Convincing the director of my organisation to accept the changes in my project and get real support for the project from my superiors will be difficult."

"I need to know how to persuade my co-workers that the changes made in the project are beneficial and necessary."

"I'm afraid of feeling isolated in my organisation."

"I will need technical help to implement the project, the help of the trainers."

(Participants, training course on Euro-Mediterranean Co-operation, 2000)

The question for trainers, given their awareness of the emotional challenges of such training situations, is how to manage closure so that the distance or even rupture between participants' realities and the reality of the training situation is softened. An important aspect is to maintain a constant focus on the participants' home environment during the different phases of the training. Designing concrete links to the participants' working situation and environment is an important element of the preparation phase, as well as during the implementation, evaluation and follow-up phases of the training.

Suggestions for reflection

Preparation phase

- Consider the participants during the preparation: what are their needs, motivations, interests, expectations and fears regarding the training? How do they expect to use the experiences of the training? You could include questions relating to these aspects in the application form or deal with them at the beginning of the seminar. *(see 3.4.5 on participant's profiles, and section 3.5 on program planning in general)*
- Involve the participants' organisations in the preparation: make sure that the organisation or service knows about the participant's participation in the training and is willing to support her. You could ask for a support letter from the organisation specifying its expectations and interest in sending the participant to the training.

Implementation phase

Design the programme in a way that takes into account the participants' expectations and needs. Create possibilities for participants to link experiences during the training to their home environment, for instance by:

Using active methods that encourage participants to try out actions by themselves.

Creating regular spaces for feedback from the participants to see if they find the training useful in view of their own work. *(see 4.4.2 on feedback from participants)*

Asking participants to develop possibilities for follow-up during the training, by developing a project, creating or adapting a method, developing an action-plan etc. *(See 3.5.6 on program elements)*

Providing spaces for personal or small group consultancy, where participants can reflect upon and discuss possibilities for using and spreading the results of the training at home and the difficulties they might face.

Evaluation and follow-up phase

- Evaluate the usefulness of the training for the participant, if possible also some time after the training. See how you can involve the participants' organisations. You could send an evaluation form to the participants and to their organisations several months after the training asking how training results have been implemented until then and how the organisation has benefited from the training.
- Create a support system for participants during the experimentation phase after the training, for instance by:
  - Creating an email network where participants can easily contact each other and the trainers, or an email hotline for specific questions. Could each trainer act as a contact person for some of the participants? In relation to this, bear in mind the possible differences in access which may exist in the group.
  - Creating a long-term training course with a follow-up or evaluation phase that brings people together again after several months to discuss and evaluate the process following the first course phase.

(Adapted from Comelli, pp. 176-177)

Which possibilities could you integrate in your training course to create spaces for dealing with transfer and multiplying?

Creating support structures for participants after a training course is certainly one of the most difficult and limited aspects of especially international training courses, partly because of the nature of short-term activities and partly because of the high costs involved for communication at international level. Nevertheless there are possibilities to work in a way that makes it easier for participants to face reality back home and that enhances the effectiveness of the training. Transfer and multiplication are essential aspects in ensuring that young people can use and make others benefit from their strengthened confidence and motivation, their acquired skills and knowledge, and their new awareness and ideas for international and intercultural youth work.

5.4 The impact of training: some participants' experiences after a long-term training course about intercultural and international project development

Dear friends,

"…Going back in my mind to the days of the training course, I really think it has been for me the most exciting experience I have ever had. I discovered realities, issues, and places which I didn't even know existed. On some aspects, the course opened my eyes, giving me new topics for reflection, but at the same time new interests and new ideas for projects have grown in me. But if I close my eyes, the best memory I have, without any doubt, is the great intercultural atmosphere I breathed in those days. Coming back home and starting again my work has not been easy, the main difficulty I have is how to make available all the knowledge I got, but for sure my work and in particular the quality of my projects has benefited from it…" (Multiplier *1999*, p.28)

"…After leaving Strasbourg it was quite strange for me to start work back home, because as soon as I had arrived I realised that I was not the same person as before the training course. People around found me challenged and improved. I was so enthusiastic about my project and when I talked with my colleagues about my new ideas, I got full support from them, and that made me much more willing to establish that Youth Information Centre, because I saw the same excitement in their eyes. But unfortunately there were a lot of other things to do, and I couldn't find the time to deal with my project. As the time passed, things cooled down and I have decided to look for financial support without losing more time…" (Multiplier *1999*, p. 32)

"…It was hard to understand, during the time after the training course, that my project didn't work. I had to cancel it, I really felt like a fool – having got such a lot of training and not even being able to set up my small project. Well, in March I completely unexpectedly met a group of animators who tried to organise a European youth camp, but they had no European partners and nobody who had ever experienced a multilateral project. So we decided to work together, and this work has become a very fruitful co-operation…" (Multiplier *1999*, p. 33)

Appendix 1

Team Co-operation

This questionnaire can be useful to help you recognise, and if you wish also change, the dynamics of co-operation in your team. There is a six-level scale between the opposite statements. Each team member should circle the number that corresponds to her own estimation.

1. My ideas and suggestions never receive adequate attention.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	My ideas and suggestions always receive adequate attention.
2. I do not have the feeling that the team leader is interested in my ideas.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	I feel that the team leader is very interested in my ideas.
3. There is not enough good co-operation and too few reasonable agreements are taken in this team.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	The team co-operates well and makes reasonable agreements.
4. The team members are not involved in the decisions that concern them.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	The team members are involved in the decisions that concern them.
5. I feel uncomfortable talking in the team about the mistakes I have made.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	I feel so well in the team that I can talk about mistakes I have made.
6. Our team is not able to openly address conflicts and to learn from them.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	Our team is able to openly address conflicts and to learn from them.
7. I do not receive enough responsibility to perform well and further develop my work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	I receive enough responsibility to perform well and further develop my work.
8. Discussions during our team meetings never reach a satisfying result.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	Discussions during our team meetings always reach a satisfying result.
9. We never discuss about how everyone in the team feels about the team co-operation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	We often discuss about how everyone in the team feels about the team co-operation.
10. We never evaluate our teamwork.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	We regularly evaluate our teamwork.
11. There is a low level of quality and performance in our team.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	There is a high level of quality and performance in our team.
12. The team members never exchange preparation or background materials for our work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	The team members often exchange preparation or background materials for our work.
13. This organisation practices too many rules and restrictions for me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	This organisation has adequate rules and restrictions.
14. The organisation/team leadership controls my work too often and too much.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	The control of the organisation/team leadership is reasonable and gives me some guidance and orientation.

Translated and adapted from Philipp (1992) pp 104-105.

Appendix 2

Suggested Report Outlines

Brief outcome *report*

Target group:

For info:

Aim: To briefly inform about results and outcomes of the seminar, and to raise issues and make specific recommendations concerning the theme of the event

Proposal for headings:

- Aim, objectives
- Achievement and specific outcome
- Future challenges and concerns referred to the topic of the event
- Recommendations clearly addressed to

Optional Attachment

Outline of the program

List of participants

Resource *report on seminar*

Target group:

For info:

Aim: To provide training resource material on the theme of the seminar

Proposal for headings:

- Background information on the topic of the event
- Tools and relevant materials prepared for / arising from the event
- Methods used during the event
- Groups dynamic process
- Details of where to seek further information on the topic (Organisations / resources / internet)
- Expert input (speeches / specific session outlines etc)

Optional Attachment

Outline of the full program

List of participants

Evaluation *report on seminar / event theme.*

Target group:

For info:

Aim: On the same line with the outcome report this will inform about the results achieved during the course but will contain as well elements of its evaluation

Proposal for headings:

- Aims and objectives
- Achievement and specific outcome
- Evaluation of the event, which could be used for future event on similar topic, or should be considered as part of the culture and background of an organisation.

Optional Attachment

Outline of the full program

List of participants

Appendix 3

Training Sheet: Session Design

Watch your flow of energy!

Completing this training sheet can be helpful when preparing a training session. What are your objectives? What methods do you want to use? How much time and what materials do you need? And how much energy, do you think, will the participants need to be actively involved in the activities?

Session:

Time:

Activity	Objectives	Method	Time needed	Materials needed	Supposed energy level of the activity *(from 1 (very low) to 5 (very high)* 1 2 3 4 5
1					
2					
…					

Appendix 4

Evaluation

Level 1 Evaluation Forms

ONE MINUTE FEEDBACK

This is for is a quick check of the "temperature". It is also useful after some striking emotional moments. The group may feel at easy after writing down some impressions that were in the air.

One minute feedback

So far I am finding this training course (workshop etc.) to be (circle your response)…

Uninteresting	1	2	3	4	5	Interesting
Too slow	1	2	3	4	5	Too fast
Too difficult	1	2	3	4	5	Too easy
Irrelevant	1	2	3	4	5	Relevant (to my interests)
Disorganised	1	2	3	4	5	Organised
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	Relaxed

Please provide brief comment for improving this workshop:

SESSIONS HIGHS AND LOWS

This form is very convenient for gathering feedback at the end of a workshop, session, day, half-day.

End of session Feedback

I was most energised today when (please be specific)…

I was least interested today when (please be specific)…

Comments and suggestions for improving the session (workshop)…

DAILY EVALUATION – DAILY HIGHS AND LOWS

This is very convenient form for encouraging he participant to write down their everyday feelings and feedback. It can be organised as a diary during longer training courses (> 7 days) and it should serve as a daily participants' own feedback (not to be given to the trainer).

End of the day Feedback

My feelings today:

My learning points:

Relation of the training to my work (organisation):

DAILY EVALUATION – EVALUATION GROUPS

These groups are very frequently used during longer training courses (> 7 days).

Aim of the T-Groups:

– To provide space for a reflection about the training course. It is a moment to step back, give feedback to the trainers and analyse the training course

– To have place of confidence where people can share their feelings about the training and their emotional experiences during the training.

These T-Groups are composed of 5-6 members. They meet at the end of the each working day for 30-45 minutes during the course, with a team member assigned to a group. The members of the team in the groups present the aims of these groups.

Example method for the first meeting:

1. One of the trainers asks the participants to take something from their luggage that illustrates a characteristic of them, which they would like to share with the others. In the T-group they will present what they brought with them and tell in which way it describes them.
2. The participants draw a face (smile, angry, tired etc.) which describe best the feeling about the day and then they discuss the day.

TAILORED AND QUANTITATIVE EVALUATION

The following example is tailored to a program aimed at developing workshop and training – program leaders. Quantitative evaluation allows the trainer to compare reactions among the participants in a given event and across different training courses and workshops. Asking "why" after each response helps clarify the ratings.

Training for workshop leaders – *Quantitative evaluation*

Rate the following questions on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 low, 5 high) and briefly outline "why" you have circled a particular rating.

1. How would you rate this workshop in terms of its value to you individually?
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
2. How would you value this workshop in terms of the value to your target group (young people that you are working with):
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
3. I received useful feedback following the workshop I have delivered
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
4. My confidence as a workshop leader or trainer has improved
   1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
5. I received valuable insights, models and suggestions for
   Planning workshops 1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
   Design workshops 1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
   Organising workshops 1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________
   Evaluating workshops 1 2 3 4 5
   Why? ______________________________

   Other comments:

TAILORED AND QUALITATIVE EVALUATION

The following example is also tailored to a training program aimed at developing workshop ad training-program leaders. It uses superlative adjectives (e.g. most, least, worst) to test the boundaries of participants feedback and seeks help for improving the training program. It also solicits participants' suggestions on how they can continue to develop as workshop and training-program leaders.

Training for workshop leaders – Qualitative evaluation

1. What did you like most about this workshop?

2. What did you like least about this workshop?

3. What are the three ways this training can be improved?

4. What would you most like to improve about how you lead workshops?

5. What three things are you going to do to further develop your skills as a workshop leader or trainer?

CRITICAL INCIDENT

This approach is designed to gather descriptions of specific incidents where participants felt their strongest reactions during the workshop (e.g. helpful actions, puzzling actions). It encourages description as well as evaluation. Thus, it is an excellent tool for assessing workshop leader performance and for understanding and appreciating participants' emotions, involvement and learning.

Critical Incident Evaluation

At what moment during the workshop did you feel most engaged and enthusiastic about what was happening?

At what moment during the workshop did you feel most unresponsive and disinterested in what was happening?

What action (by anyone) during the workshop did you find most affirming and helpful?

What action (by anyone) during the workshop did you find most puzzling and confusing?

What about the workshop surprised you (e.g. your own reactions, what someone did or said)?

Appendix 5

Selected readings on conflict and conflict transformation

- *Uprooting Violence, Building Nonviolence*. Pat Patfoort. For the author, violence is not only manifested physically, but is a larger concept defining the kinds of social relationships we are acclimatised to engaging in. Many different kinds of social relationships can be characterised by what is termed here the Major\Minor system – unbalanced and often competitive interaction motivated by the maintenance of various power dynamics. The author examines wider questions of social education and constructing relationships built on equivalence, and offers strategies of intervention built on unmasking the foundations of conflicts.Cobblestone Press (1995)
- *Negotiation in Social Conflict*. Dean G. Pruit and Peter Carnevale. This study offers a review of socio-pyschological research on negotiation and mediation in a range of contexts, and may act as a detailed overview for deeper involvement in the area. Open University Press (1997)
- *Sitting in the Fire*. Arnold Mindell. According to the author, facilitating groups involves precisely what the title suggests; placing oneself in the conflict and reflecting on the demands it places on the facilitator as well as the conflict unfolding. Lao Tse Press (1995)
- *The New Conflict Cookbook*. Thomas Crum et al. The authors apply the principles of the Japanese martial art Aikido to unmasking anger, aggression and our reactions in conflict. It is written as a parent/teacher guide for work with young people, but you may find it highly adaptable. Aiki Works (2000)
- *Games for Actors and Non-Actors*. Augusto Boal. Role play is a popular and useful method of conflict analysis. The Brazilian theatre director Augusto Boal has developed an entire arsenal of people's theatre, where issues can be physically staged, unmasked and transformed. Facilitation possibilities range from improvised situation analysis to carefully staged representations of the conflict situations, which are then transformed by the interventions of the group. Routledge (1992). For further references, and a description of the methods within youth work, see "Theatre of the Oppressed and Youth", Peter Merry and Gavan Titley, *Coyote* Issue 1.

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As a passionate cook he constantly develops his 'world kitchen' and tries to keep his interior child alife. And he is the proud father of our crocodiles. docwag@gmx.net

Training Essentials

T-KIT No.6

In 1998, the Council of Europe and the European Commission decided to take common action in the field of European youth worker training, and therefore initiated a Partnership Agreement. The aim of the agreement, which is laid down in several covenants, is "to promote active European citizenship and civil society by giving impetus to the training of youth leaders and youth workers working within a European dimension".

The co-operation between the two institutions covers a wide spectrum of activities and publications, as well as developing tools for further networking.

Three main components govern the Partnership: a training offer (long term training for trainers and training on European citizenship), publications (both paper and electronic versions of training materials and magazine) and networking tools (trainers pool and exchange possibilities). The ultimate goal is to raise standards in youth worker training at a European level and define quality criteria for such training.

European Commission

2000

Council of Europe   Conseil de l'Europe

www.training-youth.net

The Big Family Strasbourg