



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

EMPOWERING YOUTH WITH & WITHOUT DISABILITY THROUGH NON-FORMAL EDUCATION



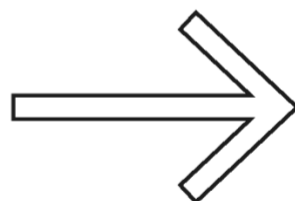
TRAINING MODULE



EBAGEM
Engeli Olan Bireyler
ve Aileleri Gelişim
Merkezi Derneği



**ZAVOD
ODTIZ**



**JUNE
2022**

➤ TRAINING MODULE

Contents

Foreword	3
About the Project	5
Section 1 – Theoretical Part	
1. Non-Formal Education Essentials	7
1.1 Concept of Non-Formal Education	7
1.2 Non-Formal, Informal and Formal Education	8
1.3 Experiential Learning	11
1.4 Learning Styles	14
2. Training Essentials	20
2.1 What is Training and Trainer?	20
2.2 Trainer Competences	21
2.3 Method and Methodology	24
2.4 Program Design	26
2.5 Evaluation	29
3. Thematic Topic 1: Active Participation & Citizenship	31
3.1 What Is Citizenship?	31
3.2 What Is Active Citizenship?	34
3.3 Elements of Being an Active Citizen.....	35
3.4 Ladders of Participation	40
4. Non-Formal Education Tools for Learning	44
4.1 Description of a “Tool for Learning”	44
4.2 What are the Tools And Methods Used in The NFE Trainings?	45
4.3 Example Tools	47
5. Further References	

The European Commission's support for the production of this publication does not constitute an endorsement of the contents, which reflect the views only of the authors, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.



➤ INTRODUCTION

FOREWORD

It is with great pleasure and enthusiasm that we present this training module on "Empowering Youth with & without Disability Through Non-Formal Education" as one of the main outputs of Enable the Cooperation Disable the Barriers project. This initiative stems from a collaborative project dedicated to fostering active participation, inclusivity, and citizenship among young individuals between Turkey, Indonesia, Slovenia and Vietnam.

As Development Center Association of Individuals with Disability and Their Families (aka EBAGEM), we have been operating since our establishment in 2014 in an effort to increase the active participation of individuals with various disabilities and their families into social life to underline the mindset of inclusive societies for all at local, national and international level. In the light of this goal, our special focus is derived on the spreading the message of inclusive approaches in each dimension of our daily lives and ensuring the joint effort to involve various types of stakeholders to deepen the dialogue to be able to mention a society without barriers.

In the following pages, you will delve into the theoretical foundations of non-formal education, understanding its essentials, exploring training methodologies, and delving into the intricacies of active citizenship. Our aim is to equip you with knowledge and tools that transcend traditional educational boundaries, creating an environment where youth of all abilities can thrive.

As we navigate the content, consider this module not just as a set of teachings but as a gateway to empowerment. It is a testament to our commitment to breaking barriers, fostering equality, and providing a platform for both youth with and without disabilities to actively engage in society.

This training module is a stepping stone towards creating a more inclusive and participatory world. We encourage you to approach the content with an open mind, ready to absorb and apply the insights gained. By embracing the principles



of non-formal education, we can collectively contribute to the development of empowered, informed, and active youth.

With this understanding, our “Manual for Trainers” content is designed in the scope of this project to respond the methodological needs of trainers in their further works with people with disability and their families about such topics: Non-Formal Education, Experiential Learning, Active Participation and Citizenship. In this manual, a strong reference is given to the theoretical background of mentioned thematic areas and it’s followed by the practical tools to be used to better engage the target group, empower them and connect with the society.

To all of you who will read this, we hope you find it useful in your further works in disability field across the world.

Zeliha ELDEM

General Coordinator of the EBAGEM



➤ ABOUT THE PROJECT

Welcome to our collaborative initiative, "Enable the Cooperation Disable the Barriers" project which is co-funded by EACEA under Erasmus+ Capacity Building in the field of Youth Action. In partnership with organizations from Turkey (EBAGEM), Slovenia (ODTIZ) Indonesia (SEHATI), and Vietnam (ACDC), our project addresses the challenges faced by youth, particularly those with disabilities.

With 180 million youth globally facing disparities, our project seeks to bridge the opportunities gap, especially in developing Asian countries. Utilizing non-formal education, we aim to empower youth with disabilities for active and sustainable participation. The European Commission (EC) promotes the active inclusion and full participation of disabled people in society, in line with the EU human rights approach to disability issues. Disability is a rights issue and not a matter of discretion. For this matter, The EC has constituted "The European Disability Strategy 2010-2020". Our Project represented a strong potential to reach all project partners' common goal which is "improving active and sustainable participation of youth with disability" and experienced in working with YwD and highly motivated to implement projects at local-national-international level

Our project aims to raise the capacity of youth organizations in Turkey, Slovenia, Indonesia, and Vietnam to facilitate the active involvement of youth with disabilities in local, national, and international youth works.

Our project activities' are focusing on below specific objectives:

1. Encourage active participation of youth with disabilities.
2. Provide international opportunities for youth with disabilities.
3. Build enduring partnerships between program and partner countries.
4. Promote family understanding and support for youth with disabilities.
5. Enhance capacity for youth workers in working with disabilities.
6. Raise awareness about European Programs, particularly Erasmus+.
7. Improve capacity of youth organizations through experience exchange.



8. Promote inclusive involvement of youth with disabilities in all projects and activities.
9. Shift community mindset from "projects FOR" to "projects WITH" people with disabilities.

As results of the project, one of them is a Training Module to show how Non-Formal Education can play important role to enhance above mentioned objectives of long-term cooperation among the consortium members from Europe and Asia. This training module serves as a guide, offering theoretical foundations, practical tools, and essential insights to empower youth with and without disabilities through non-formal education.



➤ Section 1 – Theoretical Part

1. Non-Formal Education Essentials

1.1 Concepts of Non-Formal Education

In educational literature, the study of alternative education systems often mentions “open systems”, “non-formal education”, “distance learning”, “non-conventional studies”, among other terms. In some cases, these are employed as synonyms, whereas in others, there is no agreement as to their meanings, making it impossible to reach a consensus for their concepts. A more precise definition of such concepts is fundamental, as is their possible classification, aimed at better understanding and practical utilization. We shall therefore analyze the concepts of formal, non-formal and informal education, in an attempt to define their features, advantages, limitations and inter-relations.

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.

Non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy in the late 1960s and early 1970s. It can be seen as related to the concepts of recurrent and lifelong learning. Tight (1996: 68) suggests that whereas the latter concepts have to do with the extension of education and learning throughout life, non-formal education is about ‘acknowledging the importance of education, learning and training which takes place outside recognized educational institutions’. Fordham (1993) suggests that in the 1970s, four characteristics came be associated with non-formal education:

- Relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups.
- Concern with specific categories of person.
- A focus on clearly defined purposes.
- Flexibility in organization and methods.



1.2 Non-Formal, Formal and Informal Education

Non-Formal Education (NFE), where the individual participants are the actors actively involved in the education/learning process, specifically differs from formal and informal education. The NFE approach aims to give young people the tools to further develop their skills and attitudes. Learning is an on-going process; one of its crucial features is “learning by doing”. “Non-formal” does not imply unstructured; rather, it refers to the fact that the process of non-formal learning is shared and designed in such a way that it creates an environment in which the learner is the architect of the skills development. The structured and goal-oriented nature of Non-Formal Education is in fact the main differentiating factor between informal and non-formal learning.

Definitions of NFE:

There are several definitions for NFE that sometimes overlap or contradict with each other. These differences stem from the area of focus each thought to emphasize in the definition.

Coombs and Ahmed were the first to define NFE as “any organized educational activity outside the established formal system -whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity- that is intended to serve identified learning clienteles and learning objectives.

Rogers (2005) classified different definitions into the following categories:

- **a system:** a collection of organizations and programs different from the formal education system;
- **a process:** with different teaching-learning relationships than those in formal education, a less hierarchical format;
- **a concept,** a subject worthy of study and writing about;
- **a practice,** a professional activity undertaken by people separate from formal education professionals;
- **a set of educational activities** distinguished from formal education by having different goals or purposes or even separated from formal schooling by being



socially purposeful, usually seen as a part of the radical social transformation movement

According to the European Youth Forum Non-Formal Education is mainly for young people and focuses on the development of soft skills rather than the hard skills, which are provided by the formal education;

“A structured process that gives young people the possibility to develop their values, skills and competencies other than the ones developed under the framework of formal education. These include a wide range of competencies such as interpersonal, leadership, organizational, conflict management, planning and practical problem-solving skills, teamwork, self-confidence, discipline and responsibility”

Non-formal education (NFE) has also been defined (Kleis. 1973) as any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside of traditional schooling) in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the students (or unique situations) in order to maximize learning and minimize other elements which often occupy formal school teachers (i.e. taking roll, enforcing discipline, writing reports, supervising study hall, etc.)

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.

Formal education is properly associated with schools. A more precise definition is supplied by Coombs (1973), “the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded educational system running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programs and institutions for full-time technical and professional training”.

While formal and non-formal education are different, they are not opposites. Both emphasize organized and intentional learning. Both involve structure, professional educators, and choices by learners. Responsibility for learning is



shared among educators and learners. The differences are more a matter of degree in each of these types of education.

<i>Ideal-type models of normal and non-formal education</i>		
	<i>Formal</i>	<i>Nonformal</i>
Purpose	Long-term & general Credential-based	Short-term & specific Non-credential-based
Timing	long cycle / preparatory / full-time	short cycle / recurrent / part-time
Content	standardized / input centred academic entry requirements determine clientele	individualized / output centred practical clientele determine entry requirements
Delivery system	institution-based, isolated from environment. rigidly structured, teacher-centred and resource intensive	environment-based, community related. flexible, learner-centred and resource saving
Control	external / hierarchical	self-governing / democratic

(Adapted by Fordham 1993 from Simkins 1977)

Informal education is even less structured which deals with everyday experiences which are not planned or organized (incidental learning). When these experiences are interpreted or explained by elders or peers, they constitute informal education (Kleis. 1973). Peer to peer learning is a good example for this type of education and learning.

Informal education is quite diverse from formal education and, particularly, from non-formal education, although in certain cases it is capable of maintaining a close relationship with both. It does not correspond to an organized and systematic view of education; informal education does not necessarily include the objectives and subjects usually encompassed by the traditional curricula. It is aimed at students as much as at the public at large and imposes no obligations whatever their nature. There generally being no control over the performed activities, informal education does not of necessity regard the providing of



degrees or diplomas; it merely supplements both formal and non-formal education.

The following activities are few examples for informal education:

- visits to museums or to scientific and other fairs and exhibits, etc.;
- listening to radio broadcasting or watching TV programmers on educational or scientific themes;
- reading texts on sciences, education, technology, etc. in journals and magazines;
- participating in scientific contests, etc.;

1.3 What is Learning?

Learning is permanent behavioral changes in human behavior as a result of experiences. For a knowledge and skill to be considered learning, it must provide a change in behavior and the change in behavior must be long-lasting. New learning experiences improve the capacity of people and they become able to perform behaviors that they could not do before.

There are behavioral, affective, cognitive and neurophysiological based learning theories about learning. Behavioral theorists accept that learning develops by establishing a link between the stimulus and the behavior and that behavior change through reinforcement is necessary. According to cognitive theory, learning is an individual's attribution of meaning to what is happening around him. Affective theorists, on the other hand, are more concerned with the problems of learning than with its nature (Lave, 2009; De Houwer, J., Barnes-Holmes, D., & Moors, 2013).



The characteristics of learning can be explained as follows:

- Learning involves change.
- All learning involves activities.
- Learning requires interaction.
- To constitute learning, the change should be permanent.
- Learning is a lifelong process.
- Learning occurs randomly throughout life.
- Learning involves problems solving.
- Learning is the process of acquiring information.
- Learning involves far more than thinking.
- Experience is necessary for learning (IEduNote, 2021).

1.3 Experiential Learning

Dewey's experiential learning theory, which is based on learning experience, emphasizes the importance of individuals being active in the learning process and is based on Piaget's work, which sees intelligence not only as an innate trait, but as a result of interaction between individuals and humans.

These scholars sought to develop an integrated experiential learning process and model for adult education. David A. KOLB is the most widely accepted adopter of experiential learning theory. Kolb defines learning as a process in which experience is transformed into knowledge.

We all learn from our experiences. This learning process, which begins in infancy and later in childhood, actually continues in our youth and adulthood. Almost every day, we try to push our limits, gain new skills and overcome our difficulties. Every experience offers us another experience. We reflect on this experience, analyze it, and observe our own experience and that of others. These analyzes and observations give us new insights and ideas. This implements new ideas and naturally we get new experience from this application. This cycle, which is the natural learning process of human beings, has been integrated into educational processes by the leading scientists of the 20th century.



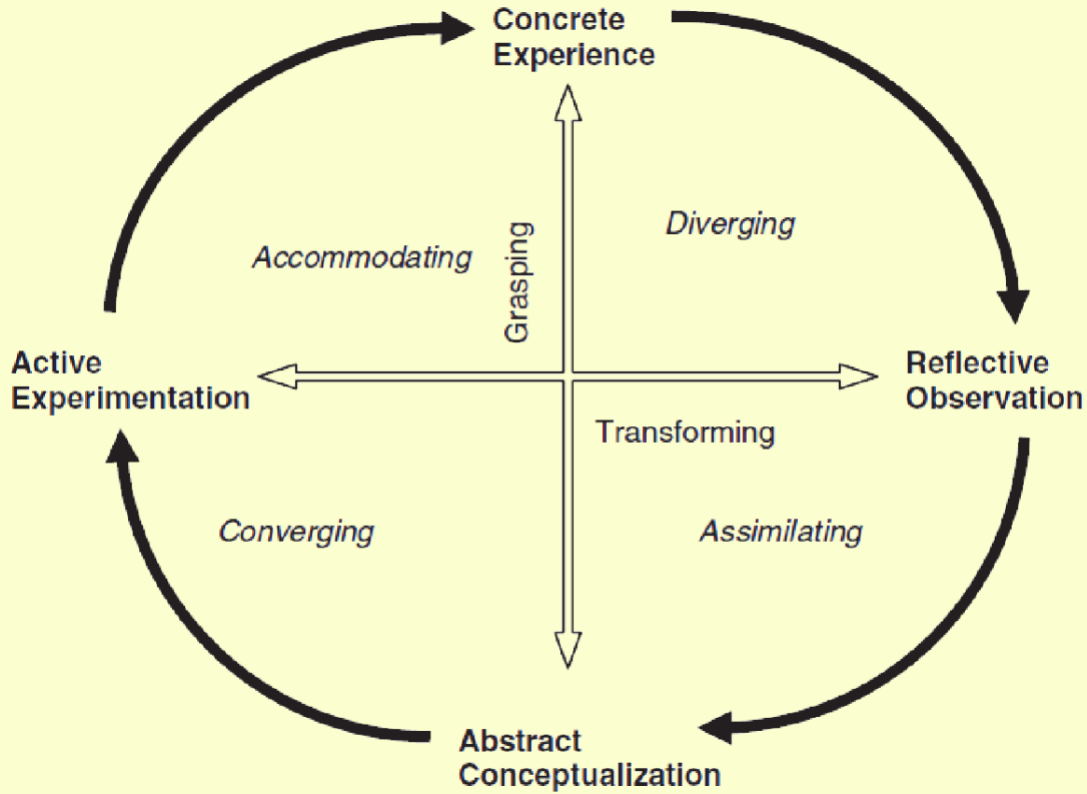


Figure: Experiential Learning Cycle

Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) integrates the works of the foundational experiential learning scholars around six propositions which they all share:

1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes. To improve learning in higher education, the primary focus should be on engaging students in a process that best enhances their learning – a process that includes feedback on the effectiveness of their learning efforts: ‘... education must be conceived as a continuing reconstruction of experience ... the process and goal of education are one and the same thing.’ (Dewey 1897: 79)
2. All learning is re-learning. Learning is best facilitated by a process that draws out the students’ beliefs and ideas about a topic so that they can be examined, tested and integrated with new, more refined ideas.
3. Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. Conflict, differences, and disagreement are what drive the learning process. In the process of learning one is called

upon to move back and forth between opposing modes of reflection and action and feeling and thinking.

4. Learning is a holistic process of adaptation. It is not just the result of cognition but involves the integrated functioning of the total person – thinking, feeling, perceiving and behaving. It encompasses other specialized models of adaptation from the scientific method to problems solving, decision making and creativity.
5. Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment. Stable and enduring patterns of human learning arise from consistent patterns of transaction between the individual and his or her environment. The way we process the possibilities of each new experience determines the range of choices and decisions we see. The choices and decisions we make to some extent determine the events we live through, and these events influence our future choices. Thus, people create themselves through the choice of actual occasions they live through.
6. Learning is the process of creating knowledge. ELT proposes a constructivist theory of learning whereby social knowledge is created and recreated in the personal knowledge of the learner. This stands in contrast to the ‘transmission’ model on which much current educational practice is based where pre-existing fixed ideas are transmitted to the learner.

1.4 Kolb Learning Styles

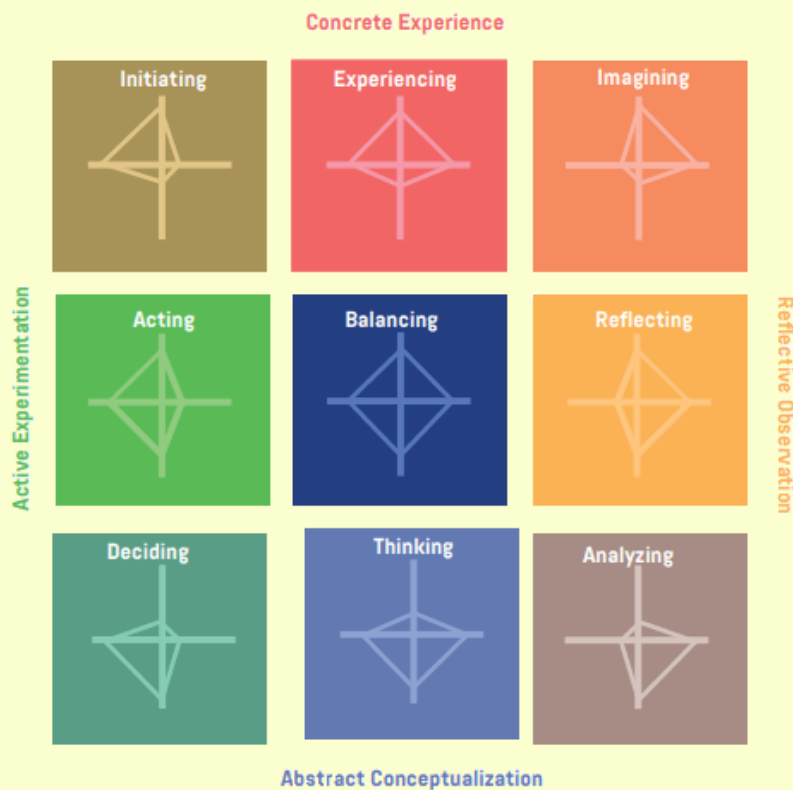
Learning style describes the unique ways individuals spiral through the learning cycle based on their preference for the four different learning modes. Because of one’s genetic makeup, particular life experiences, and the demands of the present environment, a preferred way of choosing among these four learning modes is developed.

Data from empirical and clinical studies over the years has shown that original four learning style types accommodating, assimilating, converging and diverging can be refined further into a nine style typology that better defines the unique patterns of individual learning styles and reduces the confusions introduced by borderline. The new KLSI (Kolb Learning Style Inventory) 4.0 introduces these



nine style types by moving from a 4 pixel to 9 pixel resolution of learning style types as described below.

Kolb's 9 Learning Styles



<p>THE INITIATING STYLE The Initiating style is characterized by the ability to initiate action in order to deal with experiences and situations. It involves active experimentation and concrete experience.</p> <p>The Initiating Style People: They thrive in dynamic learning spaces where they can work</p>	<p>THE EXPERIENCING STYLE The Experiencing style is characterized by the ability to find meaning from deep involvement in experience. It draws on concrete experience while balancing active experimentation and reflective observation.</p> <p>The Experiencing Style People: They prefer learning spaces rich in</p>	<p>THE IMAGINING STYLE The Imagining style is characterized by the ability to imagine possibilities by observing and reflecting on experiences. It combines the learning steps of concrete experience and reflective observation.</p> <p>The Imagining style people: They like working in groups</p>
--	--	--



EBAGEM
Engeli Olan Bireyler
ve Aileleri Gelişim
Merkezi Derneği



<p>with others to get assignments done, to set goals and to try out different approaches to completing a project. They prefer teachers who take the role of coach or mentor in helping them learn from their life experiences.</p> <p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Committing yourself to objectives ➤ Seeking new opportunities ➤ Influencing and leading others <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Controlling the impulse to act ➤ Listening to others views ➤ Impatience 	<p>interactions and ongoing communications with their friends and co-workers. While they may enjoy working in groups, they also need time to work alone to get things done. It is important that they receive constructive feedback on their progress at work and in their personal life. It is important for them to have a personal relationship with their teacher.</p> <p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Building deep personal relationships ➤ Strong intuition focused by reflection and action ➤ Open to new experiences <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Understanding theory ➤ Systematic planning ➤ Evaluation 	<p>where there is open and free flowing conversation where they can gather information, listen with an open mind, and receiving personalized feed-back. They may enjoy situations that call for generating a wide range of ideas, such as brainstorming sessions. They like teachers who take a facilitating role and are sensitive and creative.</p> <p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Awareness of people's feelings and values ➤ Listening with an open mind ➤ Imagining the implications of ambiguous situations <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Decision making ➤ Taking leadership ➤ Timely action
--	--	---



THE REFLECTING STYLE

The Reflecting style is characterized by the ability to connect experience and ideas through sustained reflection. It draws on reflective observation while balancing concrete experience and abstract conceptualization.

The Reflecting Style

People: They thrive in learning spaces rich in dialogue and discussions, but they are also comfortable learning from lectures, independent projects, and from readings. Because of their preference for deep reflection, they may also need time to reflect and make sense of their experience on their own. They value teachers who provide opportunities for individual and group reflection and who are open to exploring ideas.

Learning Strengths

- Understanding others' point of view

THE ANALYSING STYLE

The Analyzing style is characterized by the ability to integrate and systematize ideas through reflection. It combines reflective observation and abstract conceptualization.

The Analyzing Style

People: They thrive in learning spaces where they can use and develop their analytical and conceptual skills. They may prefer lectures, readings, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through. They would rather work alone than in groups. They prefer teachers who model their thinking and analysis process in their lectures and interactions with them.

Learning Strengths

- Organizing information
- Being logical and rational
- Building conceptual models

THE THINKING STYLE

The Thinking style is characterized by the capacity for disciplined involvement in abstract and logical reasoning. It draws on abstract conceptualization while balancing active experimentation and reflective observation.

The Thinking Style

People: They may learn best in well-structured learning spaces with clear directions and learning agendas. They also thrive in environments in which they can design or conduct experiments or manipulate data. They may prefer to work alone and need time to think things through. A teacher's expertise in their field is of primary importance to them.

Learning Strengths

Logical analysis
Rational decision making
Analyzing quantitative data

Learning Challenges

- Working with people



EBAGEM
Engeli Olan Bireyler
ve Aileleri Gelişim
Merkezi Derneği



<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Seeing “What’s going on” in some situation ➤ Converting intuitions into explicit explanations ➤ Gathering information <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Initiating action ➤ Rumination ➤ Speaking up in groups 	<p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Risk taking ➤ Socializing with others ➤ Dealing with lack of structure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Keeping an open mind about your ideas ➤ “Lost in thought”
<p>THE DECIDING STYLE</p> <p>The Deciding style is characterized by the ability to use theories and models to decide on problem solutions and courses of action. it combines abstract conceptualization and active experimentation.</p> <p>The Deciding Style People: They may learn best in learning spaces where they can experiment with new ideas, simulations, laboratory assignments, and practical applications. They prefer teachers who set clear standards and goals and evaluate with problems and questions that have right or wrong answers.</p>	<p>THE ACTING STYLE</p> <p>The Acting style is characterized by a strong motivation for goal directed action that integrates people and tasks. It draws on active experimentation while balancing concrete experience and abstract conceptualization.</p> <p>The Acting Style People: They learn best by on the job learning through discussions with colleagues and working in teams. They prefer teachers with practical real world experience that they can emulate.</p> <p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Combining technical knowledge and 	<p>THE BALANCING STYLE</p> <p>The Balancing style is characterized by the ability to adapt; weighing the pros and cons of acting versus reflecting and experiencing versus thinking. It balances concrete experience, abstract conceptualization, active experimentation and reflective observation.</p> <p>The Balancing Style People: They tend to be more satisfied in learning environments where they can use all four learning modes: learning from lectures, discussions groups, brainstorming sessions, labs and on-the-job</p>



EBAGEM
Engeli Olan Bireyler
ve Aileleri Gelişim
Merkezi Derneği



<p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Problem solving ➤ Evaluating ideas and solutions ➤ Setting goals ➤ Making decisions <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Thinking “out of the box” ➤ Sensitivity to people’s feelings ➤ Dealing with ambiguity 	<p>personal relationships</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Focused on getting things done ➤ Leading work teams <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Taking time to reflect ➤ Solving the right problem ➤ Gathering and analyzing information 	<p>learning. Because they are able to adapt to the different learning environments, they can learn from teachers with different teaching approaches.</p> <p>Learning Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Flexibility in moving around the learning cycle ➤ Ability to work with diverse groups of people ➤ Creative insights <p>Learning Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Indecisiveness ➤ “Jack of all trades, master of none.” ➤ Sustained commitment
---	---	---



➤ Section 2 - Training Essentials

2.1 What is Training and Trainer?

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 nonformal, 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 organizational and cultural context in which it takes place and, on the aims, and values of its organizers. 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 behavior 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.

2.2 Trainer Competences

Trainers are a core element when it comes to European youth work, particularly in the field of non-formal learning. Their professional expertise combined with their ability to perform within an educational framework affect the quality of training activities in a crucial way. This is why the Competence Model for Trainers was developed as part of the European Training Strategy. The well-thought-out set of competences serves as a dynamic framework to be consulted by trainers as well as institutions and organizations who plan non-formal education training activities.

The European Training Strategy Competence Model defines seven competence areas:

- Understanding and facilitating individual and group learning processes
- Learning to learn
- Designing educational programs
- Cooperating successfully in teams
- Communicating meaningfully with others
- Intercultural competence
- Being civically engaged



Understand and facilitate individual and group learning processes is about and includes:

- Choosing, adapting or creating appropriate methods;
- Creating an inspiring and safe learning environment;
- Supporting learners in identifying and pursuing their learning needs and overcoming barriers in their learning process;
- Understanding and facilitating the dynamic in a group in a way which is favorable to different ways of learning;
- Stimulating active participation, motivating and empowering learners;
- Ensuring creativity, problem-solving and thinking 'out-of-the-box';
- Effectively managing one's own emotions in training situations and keeping ethical boundaries with the group of learners;

Learning to learn is about and includes:

- Assessing one's own learning achievements and competences;
- Identifying learning objectives and pursue them pro-actively;
- Undergoing personal/professional development through feedback and commitment;
- Acknowledging and dealing with unexpected learning;
- Identifying and organizing appropriate resources to support individual learning.

Design educational program is about and includes:

- Developing an educational approach based on the principles and values of non-formal learning;
- Transferring knowledge or values related to the activity to the group of learners;
- Integrating socio-political contexts of learners into the educational program;
- Where relevant, integrating ICT, e-learning and related tools and methods into the educational activity;
- Designing an evaluation process and impact assessment;



- Choosing and designing appropriate ways and methods for collecting, interpreting and disseminating information (topic-related, data, resources, findings, etc.).

Cooperate successfully in teams is about and includes:

- Contributing actively to the tasks of a team;
- Readiness to take on responsibility;
- Encouraging and involving other team members;
- Learning with and from others;
- Being aware of the team processes and how they affect the team effectiveness;
- Dealing constructively with disagreements.

Communicate meaningfully with others is about and includes:

- Ability to listen actively;
- Ability to be empathetic;
- Ability to express clearly thoughts, feelings and emotions;
- Sensitivity to identity-related issues;
- Sensitivity to diversity.

Intercultural competence is about and includes:

- Reflecting acceptance of ambiguity and change;
- Awareness of one's own identity;
- Willingness and ability to look at identity, culture and related aspects and dimensions
- from different perspectives;
- Critically reflecting about and take distance from one's own perceptions, biases, and
- stereotypical constructions of reality;
- Reflecting and making use of diverse ways and methods to increase self-awareness;
- Ability to apply human rights principles.



2.3 Method and Methodology

When a training program is being designed, the desired learning outcomes needs to clarified as the first step, then proper methods and tools should be selected which serves these outcomes best and caters for a variety of learning styles and speeds.

To be able to understand the difference between method and methodology, one can ask this simple question: “What is the plural of method?” The answer is methods, not methodology. 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.

A method is the point at which all of the training planning is presented to the participants. As such, it is responsible for communicating a lot about this prior process. A five-hour lecture on participation and citizenship without questions or toilet breaks may seem a little odd. 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?



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.

In the end, the success of the chosen method depends on the trainer delivering the trainer. 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 analyze whether the discomfort was caused by the method or by the feelings and discoveries elicited by the method.



2.4 Program Design

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:

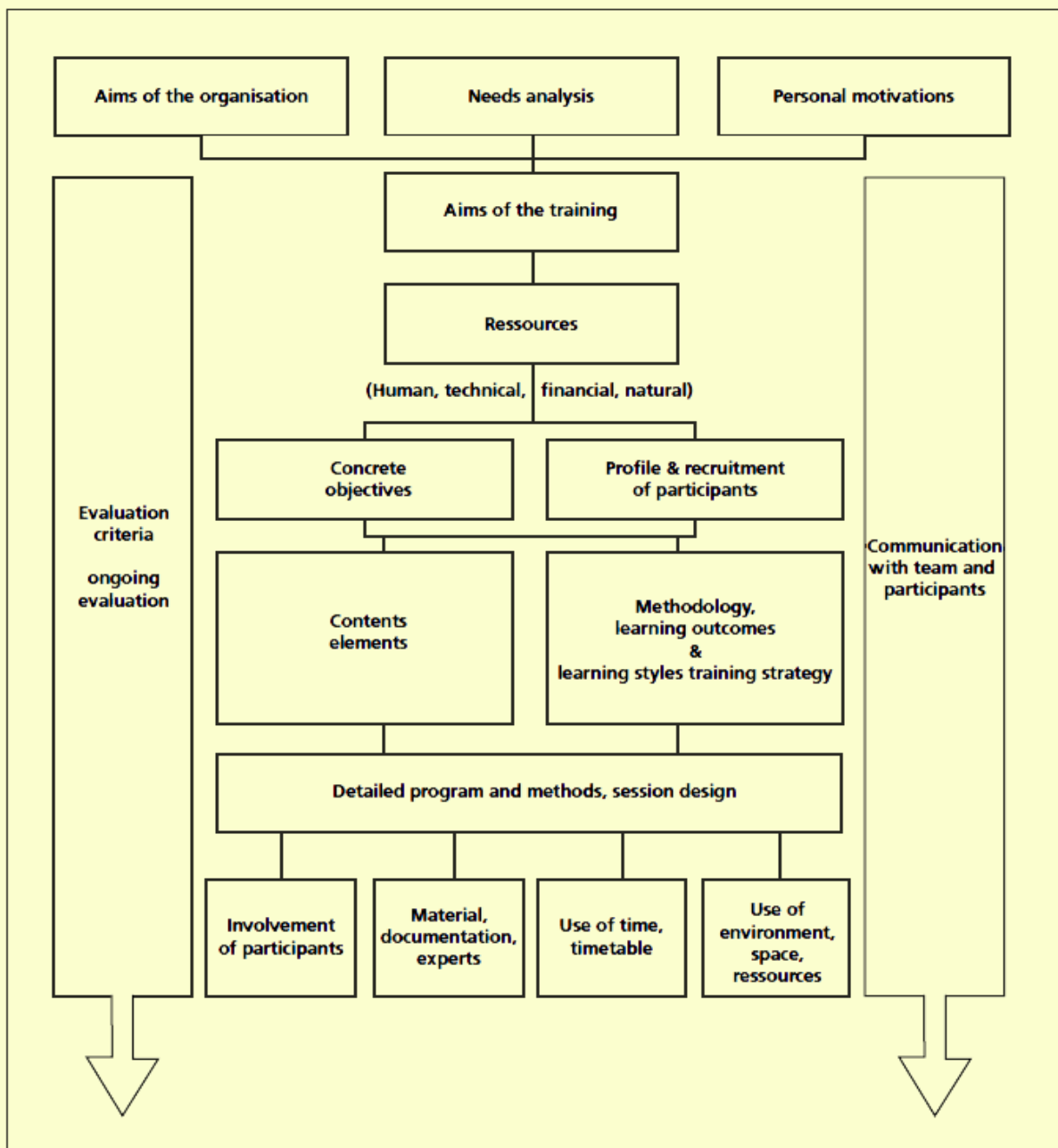


Figure: Program Design (Source: T-Kit 6, Training Essentials)

Every program is constructed within a specific context that defines the purpose of the training. Here are some suggestions for team consideration when laying the basis for program planning:

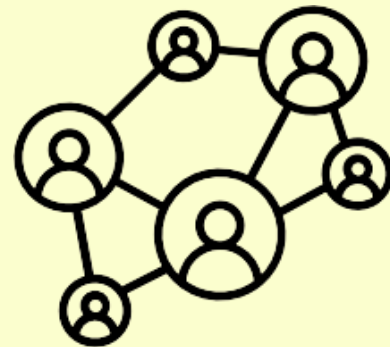
Training aims

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?

After answering these questions, the next task is deciding on content elements which 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, coordinated 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
- Prioritizing 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

2.5 Evaluation

Dictionary meaning of the evaluation is ‘to determine or fix the value of something’ and ‘to determine the significance, worth or condition of – usually by careful appraisal and study.’

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 improvement.

Why is it necessary to evaluate?

For trainers, facilitators and organizations evaluation is a powerful tool that allows the organizers 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 analyzing the likely impact on future projects, on the individual growth of the participants, on the organizations, their immediate environments and possible long-term changes⁷. In basic terms, it allows organizers 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.

When do we 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.

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.
- 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 organizations as well.

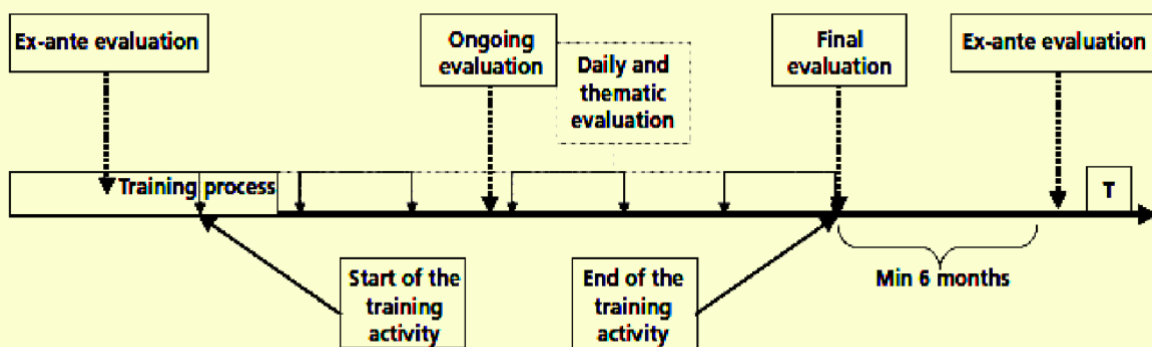


Figure: Points For Evaluation (Source: T-Kit 6, Training Essentials)

➤ Section 3 - Active Participation & Citizenship

3.1 What is Citizenship?

Citizenship means being a part of the political institutions, usually a country. In constitutional countries, people living in that country must be bound to that country by citizenship in order to benefit from the rights promised by the state in the constitution. People who meet these conditions are called citizens. A citizen has the right to political participation.

The citizenship requirements of each constitutional country are written in their constitutions. Today, elements such as nationality, place of birth and culture are at the forefront of these requirements.

Citizenship has a meaning beyond a simple bond established between the individual and the state in the legal sense. In addition to the legal dimension of citizenship, which deals with civil and political rights, there are many other dimensions, primarily social, cultural and psychological. For one thing, being a citizen is a part of one's identity and makes one related to the society in which one lives. In this way, the person adapts to the social and cultural structure of the society he belongs to; In most cases, it adopts the society's language, general value judgments, and perspective on events and life. While the person respects society and social life, he demands respect for himself in return. The individual works and struggles with other people for the benefit of the society in which he lives. However, citizenship is not just a socialization process. Citizenship includes the most basic emotions that create identity such as belonging, inclusion, participation and social commitment. As a citizen, the person who becomes a part of the society he lives in has the opportunity to influence the society, participate in and help the development of the society, and contribute to the welfare of the society. From this point of view, while the citizen is the addressee of a number of rights and obligations arising from the law; He is also an active individual in the society he sees himself as a part of. In this sense, citizens are of equal value in the society they live in (Altun, 2020).

Basic Indicators of Citizenship Awareness



Citizenship is defined as the civil and political rights, duties and obligations granted to an individual when viewed by the state. When it is handled by the individual, it continues in mutual interaction as the loyalty that the individual owes to the state due to the rights granted. Accordingly, we can state that three elements related to citizenship awareness are important. These are listed below.

- Belonging to a certain community
- Having certain rights and duties
- Allowing the community to participate in public affairs within the framework of these rights (Lidström & Schaap, 2018; Altun, 2020).

Types Of Citizenship

According to Marshall, citizenship should be examined in three parts. These are civil, social and political citizenship (Marshall, 1950).

Civil citizenship is a type of citizenship based on individual freedom rights. It is important to promote trust, tolerance, solidarity and cooperation in civic citizenship. Especially when the state of trust develops on the basis of not harming others, as well as protecting self and social interests, it contributes to the formation of collective actions.

Although social citizenship is a concept shaped on the basis of social rights, it is universal and seen as the status that being a full member of a society provides to the individual. According to Marshall's definition, the social citizen is equal in terms of rights and obligations.

Political citizenship is a concept that is mostly perceived within the framework of voting and choosing the power to govern oneself. In addition, it is accepted as a status held under the authority of the state and includes expanded rights to cover political-social struggles (Altun, 2020).

Citizenship, by definition, is a concept that expresses the relationship between the individual and the state of which he is a member. The rights and responsibilities given by law have shaped this relationship. However, in today's societies, it is not enough just to fulfill their duties and be a good citizen; 20th century the concept of active citizenship, which has emerged in recent years,



corresponds to both a state policy to fulfill these requirements and individual efforts towards social welfare. This type of citizenship, in which participatory behavior is at the forefront, aims to eliminate the crises that occur in political, social and civic dimensions. Governance-based practices, behaviors that improve social cohesion and personal rights and responsibilities are the targets of active citizenship policies. These efforts specifically target passive urban dwellers in big cities. Active citizenship, which is one of the modern citizenship types, is an indicator of a struggle that takes place from the bottom up, developing from micro to macro, and the public sphere is the main argument. Active citizens, who should be especially encouraged by states with good social and welfare levels, struggle to make their positions work in the most efficient way by respecting policies at the institutional level and taking part in all processes (Ebersold, 2007; Altun, 2020).

3.2 What is an Active Citizenship?

Active citizenship is more than “learning the rules of the game” or participating in existing institutions and structures in terms of rights and duties. With this new type, which covers social, civil and political citizenship types, it is based on the determination of power relations and structures of the individual in monitoring social participation and justice programs, having the ability to change them when necessary, and most importantly, enabling active learning. It is also about empowering civil society as well as cohesion of people, how social solidarity can promote and thus empowering citizens.

It is possible to define active citizenship as an institutional process that aims to support participatory behaviors with the aim of facilitating access to the political system, determining public policies and sharing responsibilities with broad policy in supporting democratization. Active citizenship can actually be thought of as a bottom-up process in which civil society actors enter and participate in civic and political spheres seeking to 'raise their voices' in terms of the way they shape or express forms of mutual solidarity. In other words, active citizenship is expressed as a demand for democratization and broadening the social foundations for community participation (Altun, 2020).



To be an active individual, it is necessary to have social or scientific knowledge, to be determined to be active and to have power in the economic, political or social context. Knowledge enables social awareness and action in an active society. It is not possible for an unconscious individual to be active. In this context, some features of being an active citizen are given below.

- Traditional political actions (voting, joining a party, running for a political position)
- Voluntary community actions (working with community organizations, fundraising for a good cause, etc.)
- Seeking ways to change the political and social direction (legal activities such as writing articles for newspapers or participating in petitions; illegal activities such as blocking traffic, writing on walls, occupying a place)
- Self-planned actions (supporting financially, being a self-directed student, being a creative problem solver, embracing entrepreneurial values) (Altun, 2020).

3.3 Elements of Being an Active Citizen

To be an active citizen, it is necessary to have certain elements. These are volunteering, responsibility, participation and cooperation. These concepts are explained in detail below:

a) Volunteering

Volunteering is the participation of an individual in an initiative or activity of a non-governmental organization or association that will benefit the society without any self-interest. In other words, they are activities that are based on moral

benefit without expecting economic benefit, without support or coercion on a



social and political basis. It generally includes values such as solidarity, reciprocity, belonging, trust and gaining strength.

Şentürk et al. examines volunteerism in six sections according to its application areas (Şentürk et al., 2016; Altun, 2020):

- **Online Volunteering:** Developments in the technological field, especially in the 70s-80s, were effective in the emergence of this type of volunteering. In this type of volunteering, the supply of technological devices is sufficient for online communication, which includes global high communication networks, and thanks to these technological devices, fast and easy communication networks can emerge on a voluntary basis. It has an important effect on social change. In this type of volunteering, practices based on creating social awareness draw attention.
- **Corporate Volunteering:** Activities that take place especially in the private sector and non-governmental organizations. These activities carried out by employees or members of the organization are part of human resources policies and cannot become an active action unless supported on an institutional basis. These activities can take place online as well as face-to-face.
- **International Volunteering:** Coming from different countries and cultures, doing voluntary work for the public well has become a developing volunteering model in recent years. An example of this is the aid organizations that go from EU and Turkey to help individuals who have been victims of the recent crises in the Middle East.
- **Social Innovation:** Social innovation to provide a sustainable life for people, society and planet; to bring innovative solutions to existing social, cultural, economic and environmental problems and to put them into practice. Social innovation can be achieved by social entrepreneurs, for-profit or not-for-profit companies, public institutions and associations.
- **Volunteering Activities of Public Institutions:** Training courses opened by municipalities, social assistance and solidarity foundations led by district governorships are among these. It is known that cooperatives have achieved very successful results, especially in women's organization and empowerment, and women's participation in the economy.



- **Pro Bono:** It is used especially for free legal support and clinical services. This is a type of activity where volunteers offer their professional knowledge and experience to non-governmental organizations or individuals free of charge. This voluntarism, which is very effective in regulating the disrupted works within the state mechanisms, is widespread in the USA.

b) Liability

As with volunteering, responsibility is one of the important elements of being an active citizen. The act of taking responsibility, which we can think of as a different dimension of election and participation, is a model that will be beneficial in the development and more efficient functioning of certain political, economic or social services. Taking responsibility is supported and encouraged in many government policies. Informing the citizens to be a part of something or to be individuals who advocate the understanding of responsible society is related to the more efficient operation of such processes. Citizenship is not an automatic right; earned by fulfilling responsibilities. Therefore, naturalization is a personal responsibility. Personal responsibility is more than an ideology. Below are some types of responsibilities that an active citizen should have.

- **Economic Responsibility:** As a member of a state, citizens are expected to be insured against savings or future welfare expenses. As the number of citizens who take responsibility for their own welfare financially increases, their access to public services increases.
- **Democratic Responsibility:** It includes the experience of taking responsibility for helping people in need, good management of institutions or, more generally, creating social cohesion. If all people can contribute some of their time to their responsibilities to govern, then their strong desires for democracy have been fulfilled.
- **Developmental Responsibility:** It is the type of taking responsibility for one's own developmental needs. Such responsibilities include receiving training to move up the career ladder, service users who are aware of their own ailments and are conscious of disease management, or democratic citizens who know how to engage.



- **Care Responsibilities:** This is the type of taking responsibility for managing care, both for oneself and for family or community members.
- **Consumer Responsibilities:** Citizens are expected to take responsibility as junior helpers of governments in helping reform processes beyond making choices and making their voices heard. This type of responsibility corresponds to the type that contributes to the administration of the state (Barber, 2003; Altun, 2020).

c) Participation

Participation concept, which started to be discussed especially after the 1980s, is seen among the basic elements of active citizenship such as volunteering, cooperation and responsibility, which are at the center of public policies today. These policies provide important opportunities for citizens to develop legal reforms, express their opinions, and be effective in determining social services. From the perspective of welfare states, public safety issues, social segregation, deficiencies in livability and most importantly, citizen participation in dealing with local issues continue to be important and valuable today.



It is a known fact that a good citizen also fulfills the elements of democratic citizenship by actively participating. Participation shows a citizen's willingness to learn not only about political processes, but also about the views and interests of others. A good citizen respects the rule of law and accepts their obligation to treat others ethically and morally, although exactly what this means is often disputed. Thus, participation, which acts as a key to being a good and effective citizen, is necessary for all political, civic or social collective activities (Steenekamp & Loubser, 2016; Altun, 2020).

Below are some types of participation.

- **Political Participation:** In modern democracy theory, political participation is accepted as a tool for individuals to learn the process of fulfilling their civic



duties. Political participation broadens the perspectives of individuals and enables them to realize that there are public issues besides their personal interests. While most democracies in today's mass societies are representative, participation in decision-making is still seen as an important element of democratic governance. Since democracy can operate in different contexts and at different levels, participation is central to influencing processes and decisions. Participation is an important contribution to representation and has a compensatory feature in societies where social inequality exists (Lombard, 2013; Altun 2020).

- **Civic Participation:** The concept of civic participation is an expression that varies in today's sociology as a dimension that varies between social and political participation. Because the lines drawn between economic, social and political relations are not completely clear. As the relationally between the state, economy and society changes, so does the extent of civil society and participation. Civilian participation has a wide scale, including non-state religious groups, the press, charities, schools, trade unions, trade unions and campaign organizations.
- **Social Participation:** It corresponds to the level of participation of citizens at the neighborhood or city level, in order to overcome the religious, economic and social crises that occur with the change of the social order. This type of participation has been following an increasing trend, especially due to the recent development of communication technologies. It is a type of participation based on environmental regulations, neighborhood relations, getting familiar with the environment more quickly and gaining awareness at a general level (Altun, 2020).

d) Cooperation

The most important argument for the realization of the three types of participation mentioned above is cooperation. Without cooperation, individuals cannot be expected to actively engage in social, political or civic participation. When we consider its relationship with solidarity, it is known that cooperation has a feature that makes sense of the connection between social ties and political organizations.



Collaboration can be between public, private and voluntary organizations, as well as between different levels of government or different government agencies, and most importantly between citizens. The emphasis is on collaboration, from competitiveness and outsourcing to building the public sector and maintaining long-term relationships based on trust as well as contracts with stakeholders.

Today, the most important tool for effective cooperation is the existence of non-governmental organizations. These organizations, which are very important for the development of civic consciousness, the protection of the common good and the development of democratic culture, increase the power of volunteering and play a role in the development of the public sphere (Altun, 2020).

It is important for active citizens to act together with civil society when it comes to civic participation and action. It is critical that as active citizens cooperate freely and voluntarily in such activities. In order for civil society to be an area of freedom, solidarity and plurality in terms of active citizenship, it is important to be included within the framework of a democratic welfare state and to establish a mechanism that can support the individual responsibility and participation (Çakmaklı, 2015; Altun 2020).

- Some examples of active citizenship are given below.
- You can read and support local newspapers.
- You can participate in city council meetings.
- You can e-mail local newspaper editors about social issues.
- You can create a blog about local issues.
- You can organize a community for specific topics.
- You can organize awareness activities on a subject that concerns the society.
- You can read the constitution of the country where you are a citizen.
- You can carry out activities for legislators to change some laws that you think are unfair.
- You can support local organizations. Local event programs, environmental clean-up, etc.
- You can attend school board meetings.
- You can organize or attend events to get to know your neighbors better.



3.4 Ladders of Participation

In the last decade youth participation has often been referred to as a right (the so-called “rights approach” to youth participation). UNICEF, for example, sees participation as a human right and therefore the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child underlines children’s right to participate. Roger Hart (author of the concept called the “ladder of participation”) says that participation is a fundamental right of citizenship because it is a way of learning what it means to be a citizen. In the Council of Europe, youth participation is perceived as “the right of young people to be included and to assume duties and responsibilities in daily life at local level as well as the right to influence the processes of their lives democratically”. Participation being a right also means that all young people can exercise this right without discrimination – no matter where they come from or what language they speak.

Youth participation can also be seen as a form of a youth-adult partnership. “Partnership is about doing things together. It is about listening to everyone’s voice and taking different ideas seriously”. In practice this means that aims, objectives, roles, responsibilities, decisions, etc., are negotiated and agreed upon, and that young people and adults know precisely:

- where they are going;
- what is expected of them;
- what they expect of others;
- how they are going to do this;
- what kind of support they are getting and from where.

The advantage of youth-adult partnership is that it brings together the skills and talents of young people and the experience and wisdom of adults. It also ensures that all individual contributions are recognized and valued, thereby motivating the partners to undertake more initiatives and projects.

While we discuss participation as a right for young people, we might also argue that young people choose not to participate, or we can determine their level or degree of participation. It is not enough to say that young people do or do not



participate. There are different degrees to which youth can be involved or can take over responsibility, depending on the local situation, resources, needs and level of experience. Roger Hart proposes a model of the so-called “ladder of children’s participation”, 8 which illustrates the different degrees of involvement of children and young people in projects, organizations or communities.

Roger Hart defines eight degrees of youth involvement, each of the degrees corresponding to one rung of a ladder:

Rung 8: Shared decision-making

Projects or ideas are initiated by young people, who invite the adults to take part in the decision-making process as partners.

Rung 7: Young people led and initiated

Projects or ideas are initiated and directed by young people; the adults might get invited to provide any necessary support, but a project can carry on without their intervention.

Rung 6: Adult-initiated, shared decision making

Adults initiate projects but young people are invited to share the decision-making power and responsibilities as equal partners.

Rung 5: Young people consulted and informed

Projects are initiated and run by adults, but young people provide advice and suggestions and are informed how these suggestions contribute to the final decisions or results.

Rung 4: Young people assigned and informed

Projects are initiated and run by adults; young people are invited to take on some specific roles or tasks within the project, but they are aware of what influence they have in reality.



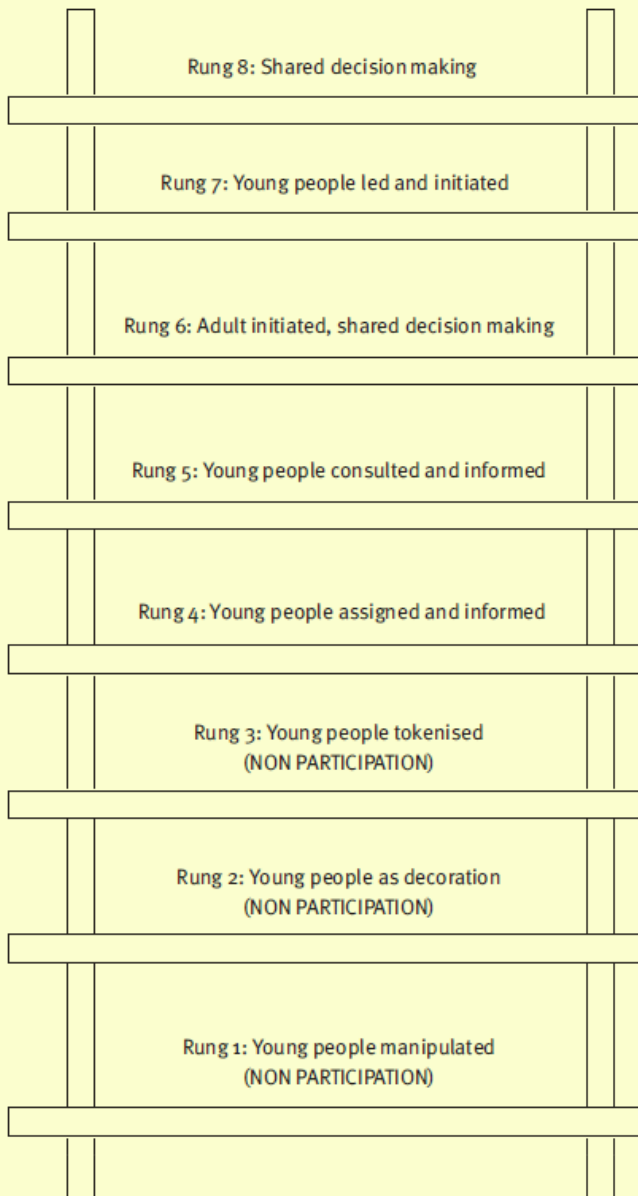


Figure: Adapted from: Hart, R., Children's participation from tokenism to citizenship, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, 1992

Rung 3: Young people tokenised (tokenism)

Young people are given some roles within projects but they have no real influence on any decisions. The illusion is created (either on purpose or unintentionally) that young people participate, when in fact they have no choice about what they do and how.

Rung 2: Young people as decoration

Young people are needed in the project to represent youth as an underprivileged group. They have no meaningful role (except from being present) and – as happens with any decorations – they are put in a visible position within a project or organisation, so that they can easily be seen by outsiders.

Rung 1: Young people manipulated

Young people are invited to take part in the project, but they have no real influence on decisions and their

outcomes. In fact, their presence is used to achieve some other goal, such as winning a local election, creating a better impression of an institution or securing some extra funds from institutions that support youth participation.

The ladder of youth participation can be a very useful tool for practitioners, who want to look critically at how participatory projects or initiatives work in their own communities. But this model can also falsely suggest a hierarchy of degrees of youth participation⁹ and can encourage efforts to reach the highest rungs at



any price. It is therefore important to remember that the degree to which young people are or should be involved depends on the local situation, on what needs to be achieved, what experience exists, etc. It can sometimes be rather difficult to see precisely what the level of participation is within a project, either due to its complexity or to the fact that there are no clear borders between different rungs. The degree of involvement can also evolve over time.

➤ Section 4 Non-Formal Education Tools for Learning

4.1 Description of a “Tool for Learning”

The concept of “Tool for learning” has been an ongoing debate amongst the people working in the field of non-formal education and youth work. The learning tools and methods are usually referred to as “activities” because the participants are mentally active and usually physically active as well. However, they are more than just activities – something to do to fill the time: they have clear educational goals and we use them with a purpose. Sometimes activities are called “games”. This implies that the activities are also fun, which they are! Unfortunately, some people associate the word “game” with what little children play and they forget the serious underlying educational value of games.

Miguel Angel Garcia Lopez’s (trainer and evaluator) working definition of “educational tools”, which had been used in the youth field:

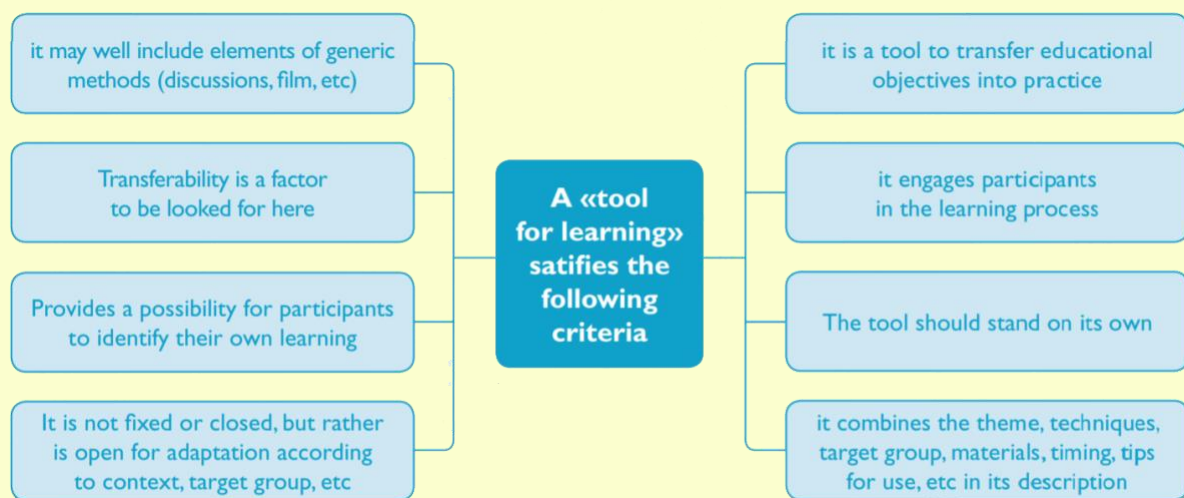
‘An educational tool could be defined as an instrument to transfer and implement educational objectives into a practice, which engages participants in the learning process. An educational tool should «stay on its own». This means that it should shape a, maybe short, but complete learning process with its theme, techniques, target group, materials, timing, evaluation, tips for use... It can be a simulation exercise, a creative workshop, a role play, an outdoor activity etc... A tool «staying on its own» does not mean that it should be something



fixed or closed. When using it in another context it should be adapted, further developed, combined... Transferability is indeed one of the inherent characteristics and ultimate aim of any educational tool.

For the purposes of this document, a Tool for Learning is...

- An instrument to realize an educational or learning objective
- Something that engages participants in a learning process
- An element of a learning process or a complete stand-alone learning process
- Something which can be adapted to different situations and learning objectives



4.2 What are the Tools And Methods Used in The NFE Trainings?

A method is the point at which all of the training planning is presented to the participants. As such, it is responsible for communicating a lot about this prior process. At a fundamental level, 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.

There are various types of tools and methods which we use when we design our sessions. We can list these tools as energizers, icebreakers, group dynamics and team building activities, role plays, simulations, drama techniques, case studies, group discussions etc.



Energizers, Ice Breakers and Team Building Activities

Whether it is an informal setup, a youth exchange or a large training seminar, participants always need to feel that they have established some commonality with others. By creating a warm, friendly, and personal learning environment, people will participate more and learn more. In other words, as facilitators and trainers, it is our job to prepare the participants and introduce them to their new learning environment. The most fun and interactive way to do this is to incorporate group activities, such as icebreakers, team building activities, and energizers.

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

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

A **team building activity** is designed to help groups form bonds and become a team. Team building activities differ from icebreakers in that the group members already have learned each other's names, and perhaps some personal information, and the focus is on making the group become more cohesive and starting getting accustomed to working and learning together.

Often an icebreaker, a team building activity and an energizer overlap. For example, during an activity in which participants are asked to line up in alphabetical order by first name, participants will learn each other's names (typical of an icebreaker), they'll work together as a team to form the line (teambuilding), and become invigorated by being able to get up and move around the room (an energizer).

The main difference between these three tools derive from the planned objectives of the session and the timing of the tools. Energizers are mainly used for bringing some movement, sounds and fun way to liven up the group, while



icebreakers are mainly used to serve the purpose of “getting to know each other”. Team building activities might involve both of these tools however it differs in terms of the experiential learning experience. Team games are concrete experiences for the participants where they enjoy working and playing together as well as developing team spirit and increasing the group dynamics. Therefore a team building activity must be concluded with a pre-planned debrief section at the end of the experience where participants can have the space to reflect on their learning experiences.

4.3 Example Tools

Energizers

Fruit salad: The facilitator divides the participants into an equal number of three to four fruits, such as oranges and bananas. Participants then sit on chairs in a circle. One person must stand in the center of the circle of chairs. The facilitator shouts out the name of one of the fruits, such as ‘oranges’, and all of the oranges must change places with one another. The person who is standing in the middle tries to take one of their places as they move, leaving another person in the middle without a chair. The new person in the middle shouts another fruit and the game continues. A call of ‘fruit salad’ means that everyone has to change seats

Connecting eyes: Participants stand in a circle. Each person makes eye contact with another person across the circle. The two walks across the circle and exchange positions, while maintaining eye contact. Many pairs can exchange at the same time, and the group should try to make sure that everyone in the circle is included in the exchange. Begin by trying this in silence and then exchange greetings in the middle of the circle.

Banana game: A banana or other object such as a bunch of keys is selected. The participants stand in a circle with their hands behind their backs. One person volunteers to stand in the middle. The facilitator walks around the outside of the circle and secretly slips the banana into someone’s hand. The banana is then



secretly passed round the circle behind the participant's backs. The job of the volunteer in the middle is to study people's faces and work out who has the banana. When successful, the volunteer takes that place in the circle and the game continues with a new person in the middle.

Football cheering: The group pretends that they are attending a football game. The facilitator allocates specific cheers to various sections of the circle, such as 'Pass', 'Kick', 'Dribble' or 'Header'. When the facilitator points at a section, that section shouts their cheer. When the facilitator raises his/her hands in the air, everyone shouts "Goal!"

Icebreakers

Three truths and a lie: Everyone writes their name, along with four pieces of information about themselves on a large sheet of paper. For example, 'Alfonse likes singing, loves football, has five wives and loves PRA'. Participants then circulate with their sheets of paper. They meet in pairs, show their paper to each other, and try to guess which of the 'facts' is a lie.

Names and adjectives: Participants think of an adjective to describe how they are feeling or how they are. The adjective must start with the same letter as their name, for instance, "I'm Henri and I'm happy". Or, "I'm Arun and I'm amazing." As they say this, they can also mime an action that describes the adjective.

Line Up : This is a quick ice breaking game where players have to form an orderly line without any discussion, or any verbal cues or help at all. The line is formed by predetermined criteria (like height, or color of each person's eyes etc.). The tasks can get more complicated the more familiar the group is. This icebreaker helps develop team collaboration and non-verbal communication. In the short group challenge, participants must organize themselves in a line according to a certain criterion (like height) without speaking. The activity promotes non-verbal communication and teamwork. Simpler versions of the activity can be used in



early stages of group development while more complex versions can be used to challenge more established groups.

Title: Human Knot

Type: Icebreaker, problem-solving, team building

Goal: To make participants work together in order to find a solution for a problem

Number of participants: 10-20

Time: 5-30 minutes (depends on a number of participants)

Tools for methods/conditions: None

Rules: Participants stand in a circle shoulder to shoulder. Then they are asked to close their eyes, slowly move towards the center of the circle and find a hand across that circle. Eventually every hand should have a pair. When everyone is paired they can open their eyes and see the situation. The main task of this activity is to try untie the human knot without letting go off any hands and everyone should end up standing in a circle connected by hands like in the beginning.

Recommendations: Best and more difficult knots are made when participants aim for hands which at first are as far from them as possible. Also, to increase the difficulty level some of the participants could be either blindfolded or asked to be completely silent in general.

Title: Yarn Game

Type: Icebreaker, getting to know each other

Goal: To get more various information about one another, build connection and trust

Number of participants: 5-50

Time: 10-15 minutes (depends on a number of participants)



Tools for methods/conditions: Woolen yarn/rope

Rules: The whole group makes a circle, one person holds a yarn and tells his/her name, age and country where he/she is from. Then that person throws another piece of yarn to the next person in a circle, preferably to the opposite direction, not too near, while still holding a piece of yarn. The next person, now holding a yarn too, also tells a name, age, country and passes a yarn to another person and so the game goes on. The game is completed when each person of the group has hold a piece of yarn once and introduced himself/herself. It results in a wide 'spider web' where everyone knows each other a little bit better, feels more connected.

Recommendations: To encourage participants the facilitator can start the game. The type of information participants share can also be changed accordingly to how well the facilitator knows a particular group as more personal questions can be given (dreams, goals, hobbies, family etc.).

Title: Ninja

Type: Energizer

Goal: To create positive energy and break the ice in the group

Number of participants: 5-50

Time: 5-20 minutes (depends on a size of a group)

Tools for methods/conditions: None

Rules: Participants stand in a circle and the facilitator starts the game by putting his/her hands in front pointing at someone in the group and saying Hi; the participant who was pointed at should move his hands up by saying Ha; the two participants standing next to the one holding the hands up should 'slay' him by saying Ho. The participant who said Ha should continue the game by pointing at someone else in the circle again and saying Hi. The game continues like this until someone makes a mistake or takes too long to respond. When this happens that person is eliminated from the game and it continues until there are 3 people left.



Recommendations: At the beginning of the game the facilitators should demonstrate how it is played, so others will catch the idea and learn faster. Nobody should be eliminated from the game at the very beginning as it takes a little time to get used to it. If the game gets too slow, the facilitators should encourage participants to move faster because only then it gets interesting and even funnier.

Title: Catch the Finger

Type: Energizer

Goal: To make a group more dynamic, connected, focused

Number of participants: No limit

Time: 2-3 minutes

Tools for methods/conditions: None

Rules: Participants stand in a circle, left hand palm up, right index finger pointing up and touching on neighbor's outstretched palm. When the facilitator counts to three participants have to do two things: grab the finger on their left hand and prevent their right finger from being grabbed. It needs to be repeated several times.

Recommendations: Participants should be encouraged to put a lot of effort and energy into the game as it never fails to get everyone's attention, bring people back to present moment to the fullest. Also the game can be played with a different trigger word, e.g., "Cheese".

Title: Broken Telephone

Type: Energizer, icebreaker

Goal: To create positive energy and break the ice in the group

Number of participants: No limit



Time: 20 min

Tools for methods/conditions: None

Rules: Everyone stands in a circle and someone starts the game by whispering a sentence into the ear to another person on the left. Then this person on the left has to whisper the same sentence that had just heard into the ear of another person on the left. The passing of the sentence goes on in a circle and the last person to hear it finally says it out loud, so everybody can check if they heard and whispered same words or not. In the end it becomes clear if the telephone “broke” or not.

Recommendations: To make this game more difficult longer sentences or even in foreign language can be passed on.

Title: Zombie

Type: Energizer, icebreaker

Goal: To create positive energy and break the ice in the group, learn group member’s names

Number of participants: No limit

Time: 20 min

Tools for methods/conditions: None

Rules: People make a circle. In the middle of that circle there is one person – A ZOMBIE - who tries to catch one person that’s randomly chosen. All other people must shout out the name of that person zombie is trying to catch and if they do it all together and on time that person is saved from zombie. If zombie catches the chosen person, they switch places.

Recommendations: Before playing this game, it is important to learn each other names even a little bit.



Human Bingo: You'll need to create a name bingo sheet, so basically a 5 x 5 (or bigger) grid of personal statements such as "has long hair" or "has more than 5 siblings" or "has travelled overseas" etc. Hand these human bingo sheets out to each person and give them a pen, and then send them off to mingle and find people that fit in the gaps. Each player can only use another person once on their sheet. So the game can either finish when someone collects a name for the entire grid.

Team Building Activities

Bottle in the middle: Put a water bottle in the middle and ask participants to make a circle around it. The task is easy; they need to count to 20 one by one while they keep their eyes on the bottle only and not talking to each other. If two people say a number at the same time, they need to start over. When someone says a number, the people next to them cannot say a number otherwise they have to start over again. After 10 minutes of trying and fail, facilitator asks the group to come together and talk.

Minefield: The team have come to a battle field that has been laid with mines. One person at a time must attempt to cross the battlefield without stepping on a mine. Once a team member steps on a mine, they must return back to the start. Minefield (8 x 8 squares) set out in giant chess/checkers mat, tarpaulin (with taped squares), carpet tiles or even cones. Route Card is prepared beforehand and held by the facilitator.

Minefield: Only one person is allowed on the Minefield at any time. Every person must step on the mat and attempt to cross, if unsuccessful in their attempt to cross they must go to the back of the line and the next person must try to cross. Once a participant is on the minefield, the rest of the team must be silent. Active participants can only move one square at a time. A move can be in any direction. Only the facilitator knows which squares are safe and will indicate appropriately.



Mission Impossible: Facilitators prepare a list of tasks which needs to be fulfilled by the whole group. The tasks can be written on a flip chart paper or A4 paper and given to the group. The group needs to get together and make their plan. They are given a certain amount of time and they need to come back with the proof of their accomplishments. The tasks can encourage participants to leave the training facility and discover the city or outside as well as gaining more information about the group such as age average, favorite colors, singing a song together etc.

Magic Carpet: Ask the group to stand on a “magic carpet” (tarp or blanket group size is important). The entire group must be on the tarp completely. Once everyone is settled, advise the group that they are going on a magic carpet ride. Tell them that they have already risen 100 feet in the air and are ready to go. Unfortunately, the instructions on how to steer and land the carpet are on the other side of the carpet. They must flip the carpet over while standing on it. No one is allowed to step off the carpet at any time. If a group losses a member due to a mid-air disaster/fall they must start over again.

Tools for Group Work

Group work is the foundation of many of the exercises; it happens when people work together, combine their different skills and talents and build on each other’s strengths to complete a task. Group work:

- Encourages responsibility. When people feel they own what they are doing, they are usually committed to the outcome and take care to ensure a good result.
- Develops communication skills. People need to listen, to understand what others say, to be responsive to their ideas and to be able to put their own thoughts forward.
- Develops co-operation. People soon learn that when they are working towards a common goal they do better if they co-operate than if they compete with each other.
- Involves decision-making skills. People quickly learn that the best way to make decisions is to look at all the information available and to try to find a solution



that satisfies everybody. Someone who feels left out of the decision-making process may disrupt the group's work and not honor decisions which are made by the rest of the group.

It is important to note that successful group work must be task-orientated; there needs to be a clear question that needs answering or a problem clearly stated that requires solutions. It is not productive to tell people simply to “discuss the issue”. Whatever the topic, it is essential that the work is clearly defined and that participants are focused on working towards a goal that requires them to feedback to the whole group. This is not to imply that the product is the only thing that matters! The point is that by working together within a clearly defined framework the participants are better able to learn through the process.

Discussion activities:

Discussions are an integral part of NFE because through discussion people learn to analyze information, think critically, develop communication skills, share opinions and learn from experience, which is why “debriefing and evaluation” is a core part of every activity.

There are many different ways of holding a discussion and some ways, especially those that involve a degree of co-operation and participation, can justifiably be considered as activities in their own right. We will divide discussion activity examples into two groups depending on the group size; discussion in large groups and discussion in small groups.

Example Tools for Group Discussion Activities

Discussions in large groups

Buzz groups: This is a useful method if no ideas are forthcoming in a whole-group discussion. Ask people to discuss the topic in pairs or small groups for some minutes and then to share their ideas with the rest of the group. You will soon find the atmosphere “buzzing” with conversations and people “buzzing” with ideas!



The statement exercises: This technique enables participants to express an opinion without necessarily having to justify it. It is a gentle way to encourage people to be self-confident to share their opinions.

Prepare some statements (4–6 should be sufficient) about a topic or topics you want to explore with the group. Make two signs, “I agree” and “I disagree”, and place them on the floor about 6–8 meters apart. If you wish to, you can place a rope or tape on the floor between the two signs to symbolize the continuum between the two extremes of opinion.

Read out one of your prepared statements and ask participants to position themselves between the two extremes according to their opinion; those who are undecided stand at the center point. Invite participants, if they wish, to explain why they are standing where they are. Encourage people to change their position along the line if they change their opinion as a result of the arguments they hear. A variation is called “Points of view”. Make four signs to stick on the four walls of the room: “I agree”, “I disagree”, “I don’t know” and “I want to say something”. As before, people place themselves according to their response and they can change position at any time.

Fish bowl: This method is a helpful way of getting participants to address their comments to each other rather than to the facilitator or teacher. Invite a few – ideally between four to six – participants to sit together in a small circle in the middle of the room to discuss a topic while everyone else sits around the outside and listens to “the fish in the bowl”. When one of the observers wishes to contribute to the discussion, they come forward and position themselves behind one of the “fish”. This “fish” then has to swap out and join the listeners.

There are several benefits to using this method, the main one being that the participants have control over the discussion in as much as a person may come forward to speak when they themselves decide to, but also other members of the group can shut someone up who is making long speeches or repeating themselves by forcing them to swap out.

Debates: Traditional house debates are useful, especially in a classroom where there are fewer possibilities for using other discussion methods. If the whole class is to discuss, for instance, “This house believes that human rights are a Western invention and not universal”, then let one of the pupils, rather than the teacher, be the chairperson.



Discussions in small groups

Discussion activities are often best carried out in small groups because then everyone has a better chance of contributing. Not only do people feel more confident expressing themselves in smaller groups but each person gets a greater share of the available time in which to talk.

AAA BBB CCC: This is a very useful technique when you want people to develop their knowledge and understanding without you “teaching”. People work in small groups to develop their expertise about an aspect of a topic. The groups then re-group and share their knowledge. Prepare a statement or question card for each group about an issue you wish to work on. Each group is to work on a different aspect of the same issue. Get the participants to form three small groups; one group is group A, the second is group B and the third group C. Give each group an agreed length of time in which to discuss the question or problem. Then re-group them so that each of the new groups contains one member from each of the original groups; in other words the new groups are constituted as ABC, ABC and ABC. Give the ABC groups the task of solving a problem or coming to a consensus that requires input from each member.

Statements in a hat: This technique is a sensitive way to introduce a topic, to get people talking or to generate ideas. Make some statement or question cards and put them in a hat. Either pass the hat round or place it in the middle of the circle. Ask people in turn to take out one card and to comment. Instead of the facilitator making the cards, he/she can ask the participants to make their own statement or question cards. In this way questions can be put to the group anonymously, which is useful if discussing issues that may be sensitive.

Case studies: Case studies are short “stories” about people and events that illustrate a problem. Like statement cards, they are useful tools for presenting information in a non-didactic way. They are also valuable because they create a distance between the participants and the problem, which makes discussion of the topic less threatening. For instance, if there are bullies in the group and you want to tackle the problem, you can present a story about bullying that contains parallels to the real situation. Participants read the case story, analyse the problem and try to make suggestions for resolving the problem.



Drama

Another important tool for learning is drama techniques. Exploring ideas and issues through drama can provide people with an outlet for emotions, thoughts, dreams and creativity that they might not otherwise be able to express. Drama involves the whole person, their heads, hearts and hands and thus involves not only the intellect, but also the senses and emotions, making it a powerful tool. Furthermore, it is a most efficient technique because it appeals to people of all learning styles, that is, to auditory, visual and kinesthetic, or tactile, learners.

Debriefing is especially important after activities based on some form of drama, including role plays and simulations. Players may need time to come out of role before they go on to discuss their feelings and why they chose to take the actions that they did.

Role-playing

A role play is a short drama acted out by the participants. Although participants draw on their own life experiences to role play a situation, role plays are mostly improvised. Role plays can improve understanding of a situation and encourage empathy towards the people who are portrayed. They enable people to experience challenging situations but in a safe atmosphere.

Role plays need to be used sensitively. Firstly, it is essential that people have time at the end to come out of role. Secondly, everyone needs to respect the feelings of individuals and the social structure of the group. For example, a role play about disabled people should take into account the fact that some participants may suffer from disabilities themselves (maybe not visible) or may have relatives or close friends who are disabled. They should not feel hurt, be forced to be exposed or marginalized. If that happens, take it seriously and apologize and explain.

Also, be very aware of stereotyping. Role plays draw out what participants think about other people through their “ability” to play or imitate them. This is also what makes these activities great fun! It is useful in the debriefing to ask, “Do you think that the people you played are really like that?” It is always educational to make people aware of the need to constantly review information critically;



ask participants where they got the information on which they based the development of the character.

Simulations

Simulations can be thought of as extended, structured role plays (they do not involve the same degree of improvisation) that take the participants into unfamiliar situations and roles. In other words, “simulation is a kind of role play with the only difference that learner use realia, that is real object to support teaching learning process” Solcova (2011).

Example Tools for Drama, Role Play and Simulation

Forum theatre is an interactive form of theatre that encourages audience interaction and explores different options for how to deal with a problem or issue. Forum Theatre (also known as Boal’s Theatre, “Theatre of the Oppressed” or “Theatre for Development”) was created in the early 1970s by Augusto Boal, who wanted to empower his audiences.

Forum theatre is a form of role play. The audience watches a short play in which a central character encounters an oppression or obstacle which he or she is unable to overcome; the subject-matter is presented in a way that it relates to the lives of the audience. When the play has been performed it is repeated and members of the audience can take to the stage and suggest alternative options for how the protagonist could have acted. The actors explore the results of these choices with the audience, creating a kind of theatrical debate in which experiences and ideas are rehearsed and shared, generating both solidarity and a sense of empowerment.

Forum theatre is a very useful tool for delivering HRE, for example, when exploring ways of solving problems or resolving conflicts. It allows people to take the stage and explore different possibilities. In this way, the event can be used to rehearse for an imminent event, or to uncover and analyse alternatives in any situation, past, present or future.

Baranga is a card game is useful when trainers want to show and let participants experience what means exclusion, acceptance and adaptation, be new in a



group, be different and try to understand distinct environment understanding in multicultural community. Attitudes adopted in this game are similar to real-life situations.

Baranga is a game located in a casino. Each table in the casino has its own packet of cards, papers and pen and its own written rules. Groups are firstly studying rules and setting up a strategy. They try to play few turns. When they get used to it, they are forbidden to speak, they are just allowed to use paper and pen – no words. They continue playing. After a while the trainer announces that winners from each table move clockwise to another table, and the game continues. It's highly important to keep silence. It's good to let enough time for the game even for subsequent discussion. The necessary materials are rules instruction, packet of cards, papers and pen for each table.

Table Rules for the card game:

Each player receives 4 cards

Table 1: The person who wins the trick, plays the next card

- 1- The dealer can be anyone at the table, the person right to the dealer starts the game
- 2- Ace is the highest card, there is no trump.
- 3- The first player for each trick may play ANY suit. All other players must follow suit (play a card of the same suit). For each round, each player plays one card.
- 4- If a player does not have that suit, a card of any suit must be played. The trick is won by the person with the HIGHEST card of the ORIGINAL suit
- 5- Who has won the trick, plays the next card.

Table 2: The person who wins the trick, plays the next card

- 1- The dealer can be anyone at the table; the person right to the dealer starts the game.
- 2- Ace is the lowest card, diamonds are trump.
- 3- The first player for each trick may play ANY suit. All other players must follow suit (play a card of the same Seminar Activity Writing Template suit). For each round, each player plays one card.



4- Only if a player does not have that suit, trump should be played, if the player does not have trump, a card of any suit must be played. In this case the trick is won by the person with the HIGHEST card of the ORIGINAL suit.

5- Who has won the trick, plays the next card.

Table 3: The person who wins the trick, plays the next card

1- The dealer can be anyone at the table, the person left to the dealer starts the game

2- Ace is the lowest card, clubs are trump.

3- The first player for each trick may play ANY suit. All other players must follow suit (play a card of the same suit). For each round, each player plays one card.

4- Only if a player does not have that suit, trump should be played, if the player does not have trump, a card of any suit must be played. In this case the trick is won by the person with the HIGHEST card of the ORIGINAL suit.

5- Who has won the trick, plays the next card.

Table 4: The person who wins the trick, plays the next card

1- The dealer can be anyone at the table, the person who has the lowest trump start the game.

2- Ace is highest card, clubs are trump.

3- The first player for each trick may play ANY suit. All other players must follow suit (play a card of the same suit). For each round, each player plays one card.

4- Only if a player does not have that suit, trump should be played, if the player does not have trump, a card of any suit must be played. In this case the trick is won by the person with the HIGHEST card of the ORIGINAL suit.

5- Who has won the trick, plays the next card.

Table 5: The person who wins the trick, plays the next card



1- In the first round the dealer can be anyone at the table, starting from second round the dealers change, the person sitting next (clockwise) to the dealer of each round be-comes the dealer. Dealer of each round starts the game.

2- Ace is the lowest card, there is no trump.

3- The first player for each trick may play ANY suit. All other players must follow suit (play a card of the same suit). For each round, each player plays one card.

4- If a player does not have that suit, a card of any suit must be played. The trick is won by the person with the HIGHEST card of the ORIGINAL suit

5- Who has won the trick, plays the next card.

After the first round:

- Whoever wins the most tricks will move clockwise to the next table
- Whoever loses the most tricks will move counter clockwise to the next table
- Everyone else stays at the same table
- Ties are resolved by paper rock scissors

A Debriefing should follow after playing a number of rounds. Ideally by the end participants should be aware that they were playing by different rules, and a set of questions can be discussed.

Questions:

- If you could describe the game in one word, what would it be?
- What did you expect at the beginning of the game?
- How did you feel at the new table?
- When did you realize that something was wrong? What did you do/feel?
- When you realized the rules were different what did you start doing? How did you deal with it?
- How did not being able to speak contribute to what you were feeling?



5. REFERENCES

<https://www.salto-youth.net/tools/toolbox/>

Dib, C. Z. (1988, October). Formal, non-formal and informal education: concepts/applicability. In *AIP conference proceedings* (Vol. 173, No. 1, pp. 300-315). American Institute of Physics.

Coomb sP.H., Ahmed M. *Attacking Rural Poverty: How non-formal education can help* / P.H. Coombs, M.Ahmed. - Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1974.

Rogers A. Looking again at non-formal and informal education - towards a new paradigm [Electronic Resource] / A. Rogers. - 2004.

Definition made by the European Youth Forum, 2013: Manual on a Framework for Quality Assurance of Non Formal Education

Klöcker, S. (2009). Manual for facilitators in non-formal education involved in preparing and delivering the programme of study sessions at European youth centres. Council of Europe.

Solcova, B.P. 2011. Teaching Speaking Skills. Published Thesis. Masaryk University Faculty of Arts.

Martinelli, S., Gillert, A., & Taylor, M. (2003). Intercultural learning T-kit (Vol. 4). Council of Europe.

Bowyer, J., & Martinelli, S. (2004). *Organisational management T-kit* (Vol. 1). Council of Europe.

Titley, G., & Buldioski, G. (2006). T-kit on training essentials (Vol. 6). Council of Europe.

Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2009). Experiential learning theory: A dynamic, holistic approach to management learning, education and development. *The SAGE handbook of management learning, education and development*, 42, 68.

Evanski, J. (2008). *Classroom activators: more than 100 ways to energize learners*. Corwin Press.

Boal, A. (2000). *Theater of the Oppressed*. Pluto press.

Bergstein, R., & Evrard, G. (2014). A set of competences for trainers working at international level.

Hart, R., *Children's participation from tokenism to citizenship*, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, 1992. This model has been based on S. Arnstein's "ladder of citizen's participation", published as "A ladder of citizen participation", JAIP, Vol. 35, No. 4, July 1969, pp. 216-24.

SALTO-YOUTH Training and Cooperation Resource Centre. (2012). Recognition of youth work and non-formal and informal learning within the field of youth: current European developments.

https://www.salto-youth.net/downloads/4-17-2694/GP_Tools-For-Learning-in-non-formal-educ_GB_130912_HD.pdf

