





















PeaceTraining.eu



STRENGTHENING THE CAPABILITIES AND TRAINING CURRICULA OF CONFLICT PREVENTION AND PEACE BUILDING PERSONNEL WITH ICT-BASED COLLABORATION AND KNOWLEDGE APPROACHES

D 4.1

Novel Concepts and Training Methods to Foster Peace Training



This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under Grant Agreement No 700583.

Project

Acronym: **PeaceTraining.eu**

Title: STRENGTHENING THE CAPABILITIES AND TRAINING CURRICULA OF CONFLICT

PREVENTION AND PEACE BUILDING PERSONNEL WITH ICT-BASED COLLABORATION

AND KNOWLEDGE APPROACHES

Coordinator: SYNYO GmbH

Reference: 700583

Type: Coordination and Support Action

Program: HORIZON 2020

Theme: Conflict prevention and peace building topic 2: Training curricula for Conflict

Prevention and Peace Building personnel

Start: 01. September 2016

Duration: 26 months

Website: project.PeaceTraining.eu

Consortium: SYNYO GmbH (SYNYO), Austria

University of Deusto (UDEUSTO), Spain University of Marburg (UMR), Germany

Coventry University (COVUNI), United Kingdom

Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (KULEUVEN), Belgium Institute for Conflict Research (ICR), United Kingdom

Peace Action, Training and Research Institute of Romania (PATRIR), Romania

World Mediation Organization (WMO), Germany ARGE Bildungsmanagement (ARGE), Austria Baltic Defence College (BALTDEFCOL), Estonia Federal Ministry of Interior (BMI), Austria

Kosovar Center for Security Studies (KCSS), Kosovo

Deliverable

Number: **D4.1**

Title: Novel Concepts and Training Methods to foster peace training

Lead beneficiary: COVUNI

Work package: WP4

Dissemination level: Public (PU)

Nature: Report (RE)

Due date: 31.08.2017

Submission date: 31.08.2017

Authors: David Curran, COVUNI

Nancy Annan, COVUNI

Leila Demarest, KU LEUVEN

Contributors: Andra Tanase, PATRIR

Arnim Langer KU LEUVEN Bernhard Jäger SYNYO Berthold Hubegger BMI Carmen Munteanu SYNYO

Catalina Uzcanga Lacabe DEUSTO

Erin Tunney ICR Gerda Mehta ARGE

Kai Brand Jacobsen PATRIR Patricia Garcia Amado DEUSTO

Svenja Wolter UMR

Ugir Romanovs BALTDEFCOL

Review: Gerda Mehta, ARGE Bildungsmanagement

Acknowledgement: This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under Grant Agreement No 700583.

Disclaimer: The content of this publication is the sole responsibility of the authors, and in no way represents the view of the European Commission or its services.

Executive summary

The following report provides an analysis of the incorporation of novel approaches, content and methods, which may be applicable for Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (CPPB) training institutes¹ across the European Union (EU).

This is the first of four reports, elaborated and delivered under Working Package 4 (WP4), which aims to strengthen capacities and efficiency of the EU for training in CPPB through synthesizing results from previous research (under WP3) and case studies and formulates modern Curricula and training methods. It responds to research undertaken under WP 3, which identified a series of gaps in CPPB training approaches, content and methods. It does this by proposing potential novel case studies which seek to address a number of these gaps. In doing so, the report provides the reader with a range of ideas (some drawn from other fields of enquiry) that may be applicable to the CPPB field. It is therefore designed for trainers and training providers who wish to investigate how their organisations may undergo processes of change at different levels when incorporating new ideas and novel approaches, as well as offering possible ideas to consider when seeking novel approaches.

The chapters of the report are built on three main 'levels' of analysis of the CPPB training field:

- Approaches defined as the broad understanding of what guides, or should guide a CPPB training programme as a whole. This includes incorporation of novel approaches at an organisational level.
 Here, case studies of examined joint training/multi-sectoral cooperation in training programmes, ecological approaches, coaching and sequential approaches to training are considered.
- Content referring to specific ideas and subject areas that are presented through a training
 programme or event. In this chapter, meme awareness is analysed as a novel approach to the need
 to incorporate content which deals with stress management, and urban peacebuilding as a field of
 study to cover learning needs in urban violence and conflict prevention.
- Methods the ways in which ideas and subject areas are dealt with in a training context. Case studies include the incorporation of Arts Based Methods as a form of training delivery, and elearning, which includes a focus on collaborative online learning, sandboxing, gaming and simulation.

Processing Novelty

In addition, the re

In addition, the report offers a contribution through investigating the process that individuals and organisations in the CPPB field undertake in order to adopt novel ideas. Using data gathered at the *Pan-European Workshop on Novel approaches, concepts and methods,* held at Coventry University on 03 July 2017, the report outlines the process of incorporating novelty in the following ways:

Outlining 'push' and 'pull' factors in seeking novel approaches: Here the report identifies what drives practitioners and organisations towards seeking novel approaches. Additionally, it identifies factors that push practitioners from their existing work towards alternative approaches, and those factors which pull (or attract) practitioners towards novel approaches. These factors are then applied to chapters on approaches, content, and methods of training.

¹ For a fuller discussion of the training institutes which this project refers to, please see D3.1

Identifying constraining and facilitating factors for incorporating novelty in the CPPB field. The report builds a three-pronged model to understand those factors which constrain and facilitate the adoption of novel approaches. These are: *Internal organisational factors* - Referring to organisational factors within the organisation that a CPPB trainer may work for; *Factors external to the organisation* - Referring to factors external to the organisation that a CPPB trainer works for, and; *Implementation factors* - practical factors of implementing novel ideas in the training environment.

The report's conclusion identifies the significance of organisational leadership in the adoption of novel approaches. At all levels, incorporating novel approaches requires a degree of entrepreneurship, acceptance of experimentation (including possible failure), and a broader set of structural support mechanisms to be incorporated. Without support in the form of training, finance, space to test new ideas, networking opportunities, the process of adopting novel approaches, content, and methods becomes increasingly difficult.

Table of Contents

1.	Introduction	9
	1.1. On Novelty	10
	1.2. Report Framework	11
	1.3. Data gathering	11
	1.4. Limitations and contributions	13
	1.5. Structure	13
2.	Novelty in CPPB Training	15
	2.1 Introduction	15
	2.2. Why do CPPB training organisations look to Novel Approaches?	16
	2.3. What facilitates and constrains the search for novelty by CPPB organisations?	19
	2.4. Conclusion	21
3.	Novelty in Training Approaches	23
	3.1. Push and pull factors towards novel training approaches	23
	3.2. Joint training curricula	24
	3.3. Ecological peace training	25
	3.4. Sequenced training and coaching in CPPB	28
	3.5. Constraints and facilitators for adopting novel training approaches	31
	3.6. Conclusion	33
4.	Novelty in Training Content	35
	4.1. Push and pull factors towards novel training content	35
	4.2. Stess management and Meme awareness	36
	4.3. Urban violence and conflict prevention - Urban peacebuilding	40
	4.4. Constraints and facilitators for adopting novel training approaches	42
	4.5. Conclusion	43
5.	Novelty in Training Methods	44
	5.1. Push and Pull factors towards novel methods	44
	5.2. Arts-Based Methods	45
	5.3. New approaches towards e-learning: Collaborative online learning, Gaming, Simulation Sandboxing	
	5.4. Constraints and facilitators for adopting new methods	51
	5.5. Conclusion	53
6.	Conclusions	54

	6.1. Reflections from chapters	. 54
	6.2. Constraints	. 54
	6.3. Push and pull — a healthy combination?	. 55
	6.4. The role of organisational leadership	. 55
7	. References	56
	Further Reading on individual Case Studies:	. 60
	Annexes	. 73
	Annex 1: Case Studies and Author Organisation(s)	. 73
	Annex 2: Buildpeace/PeaceTraining.eu Pan-European Workshop on Novel approaches, conceand methods Agenda	•
	Annex 3: Novelty Workshop 'Barriers to embracing Novelty (long-list)'	. 75
	Annex 4: Novelty Workshop: 'What would facilitate novelty in your organisation'	. 77

List of Acronyms

ABM Arts Based Method

CPPB Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding

EFUS European Forum of Urban Security

ENTRI Europe's New Training Initiative

ESDC European Security and Defence College

HEAT Hostile Environment and Awareness Training

ICT Information Communications Technology

MOOC Massive Open Online Course

MMOG Massively Multiplayer Online Game

MMORPG Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Game

OSV Other Situations of Violence

PTSD Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

USAID United States Agency for International Development

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

1. Introduction

Ultimate novelty must be a situation where all boundaries dissolve – T. McKenna

Within a field where creativity, significant change of perspectives and deep cultural shifts are required for any significant change to happen, this report provides an analysis of the incorporation of novel approaches, content and methods, which may be applicable for Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (CPPB) training institutes² across the European Union (EU). This is the first of four reports, elaborated and delivered under Working Package 4 (WP4), which aims to strengthen capacities and efficiency of the EU for training in CPPB through synthesising results from previous research (under WP3) and case studies and formulate modern curricula and training methods. This report is designed for trainers and training providers who wish to investigate how their organisations undergo processes of change at different levels, particularly through the incorporation of new ideas and novel approaches.

In the development of the Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (CPPB) field, the combination and application of novel approaches is an often-recognised need. Novelty permeates all levels of the discipline, from policymakers identifying cross-cutting approaches between sectors, through to practitioners who have to react in novel ways to the different challenges they face on the ground. As the field of CPPB is constantly changing and adapting to new realities, training of CPPB practitioners equipped to handle these challenges similarly requires adaptation and innovation. Still, while the introduction of novel training approaches, content, and methods, occurs in CPPB training, not much theoretical and practical reflection has been done on the process of introducing novelty in CPPB. This report contributes to the CPPB field, through outlining what processes drive novelty in the field, what constraints there are to novelty, and what CPPB trainers and training organisations can do to facilitate novelty in their work. Case studies included in the report illustrate ideas from alternative fields of research with important potential applications in CPPB training.

CPPB training in this report is understood as practitioner-focused training programmes which prepare individuals to conduct conflict prevention and peacebuilding activities in countries at risk of (recurring) violent conflict. These individuals may be staff from international organisations such as the UN or the EU, state governments, or civil society organisations and NGOs. The report does not consider university programmes under the scope of CPPB training. Training institutes in the CPPB field can be state or non-state initiatives. Important examples of the former include the network of the European Security and Defence College (ESDC) and the partners of the ENTRi (Europe's New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management) project, including the Folke Bernadotte Academy, the Egmont Institute, and ZIF. Important non-state training providers include, for example, the Academy for Conflict Transformation (ForumZFD) and Tides Training (Northern Ireland). As the PeaceTraining.eu project focuses specifically on CPPB training in Europe, the report relies predominantly on European examples, although broader links are also made (e.g., to the UN).

_

² For a fuller discussion of the training institutes which this project refers to, please see Wolter, S. & A.M. Leiberich (2017). *Baseline research and stakeholder report on conflict prevention and peacebuilding training*. (Deliverable 3.1). PeaceTraining.eu.

In the rest of this introduction, the report focuses further on the concept of novelty and why it is needed in CPPB training. Next sections introduce the framework used in the report, the methodology, as well as the limitations of the enquiry.

1.1. On Novelty

Novelty is often the focus and preoccupation of practitioners. Generic definitions of novelty refer 'to the quality of not being previously experienced or encountered (Barto, Mirolli, Baldassare 2013, p1), with definitions noting 'different,' 'new,' and 'unusual'. The term 'novel' shares many of the same characteristics, being outlined as something 'different' from what has been done before, 'slightly strange,' 'unusual' and 'new' (OUP 2015, p1055; Longman 2014, p1246; Collins 2001, p1051). Unpacking this definition to understand how novelty is conceptualised represents a difficult task. This has implications on what exactly a novel approach looks like, whether something is novel, and what impact this has on an organisation active in the CPPB field. For the purposes of this report, we define 'novel' in relation to **training approaches**, **content** and **method** as being *an idea not yet 'mainstreamed' in CPPB training but which may offer significant value or relevance to developing the field of CPPB training.*

The extent to which something is novel is subjective, as is the perceived extent to which an organisation is understood to be incorporating novel ideas. As Janssen, Stoopendaal, and Putters (2015, p1975) note, 'What appears novel to some could be more common to others; something can be novel for an individual, a firm, a sector or for the entire world'. Nevertheless, seeking to adapt and change to new and emerging challenges — in effect providing novel solutions — is understood as 'crucial for the long-term survival of both public and private organisations' (Janssen, Stoopendaal, and Putters 2015, p1975).

Novel approaches appear at different levels within organisations, be it management, policymakers, or practitioners (Frigotto 2017:1). Importantly, these different levels invariably impact each other. Should an innovation in one part of an organisation be adopted, then it may follow that other parts of the organisation may also adopt it. That is why Frigotto (2017) suggests that when understanding the level of analysis, one should look across the organisation as a whole. Jannsen, Stoopendaal and Putters (2015: 1976) expand on this:

What is called an innovation thus represents an underlying process, which the innovation becomes part of, and it is constructed in the course of daily practice. This requires work as such factors as context, interactions and time all play important interactive roles in these processes.

The extent to which a novel idea represents a 'big bang,' the extent to which it is built on existing practice, or the extent to which novel approaches incorporate elements of both is also an important aspect of understanding novelty. Novelty and novel approaches, however, can also be the result of the improvement of pre-existing routines to react to environmental challenges that change over time. Strumsky and Lobo (2015: 1456) outline this, noting that 'Inventions are rarely created anew from scratch; instead, much more often they are constructed — put together — from technological components already in existence'. This has been expanded on in studies which differentiate between 'absolute' and 'relative' novelty. Absolute novelty is notable when 'some of its features have never been experienced before,' whereas something is relatively novel if 'it has familiar features but they

occur in some combination or arrangement that has not been previously encountered' (Barto, Mirolli, Baldassare 2013, p6).

In terms of the CPPB training field, novelty is fundamental to its continued development. From the previous organisational approaches used in management and medicinal fields, significant parallels can be drawn between those organisations, and the training institutes which undertake CPPB training across the European Union. Like all organisations, those working in the CPPB field need to remain relevant to the needs of multiple stakeholders: those within the organisation, those who come to the organisation to be trained for deployment, and those who live in conflict environments who ultimately are the end users of CPPB interventions. Without novelty and novel approaches, the needs of such stakeholders would simply not be met.

It is here where this report seeks to make a significant contribution to the CPPB training field. The report will identify where and how novel approaches can be incorporated at different levels in CPPB training and outline the role of novelty in training approaches, training content and training methods.

1.2. Report Framework

Novel approaches, novel content, novel methods

The report will primarily examine novelty on three interlinked layers: that of approaches, content and methods. They are outlined as thus:

- Approaches defined as the broad understanding of what guides, or should guide a CPPB training programme as a whole. This goes up to and includes the organisation which undertakes the CPPB training.
- Content specific ideas and subject areas that are being presented through a training programme or event.
- Methods ways in which ideas and subject areas are dealt with in a training context.

This report understands that these three levels of analysis are porous, and that one inevitably affects the other. For instance, the approach 'ecological peacebuilding' will both affect the overall approach to training, the content, and the methods. In addition, as Chapter 2 will show through the example of elicitive approaches, sometimes a change in method leads to a change in approach. However, the report sees strength in this model of analysis, as it allows readers to reflect on novelty at different levels, the push and pull factors that may influence the desire for change, and the factors and constraints that impact novelty.

1.3. Data gathering

The report is a result of desk-based research, individual case study research undertaken by each consortium member, and data gathered at the *Pan-European Workshop on Novel approaches, concepts and methods* (hereafter 'Novelty Workshop'), held at Coventry University on 03 July 2017.

Desk-based research that informs this report examines the existent literature on 'novelty' and how people and organisations develop unique responses to existent challenges. Within this is the study of novelty as a process. This has been linked to desk-based research from the broader CPPB field, as well as research into the data gathered, and presented as reports from the *PeaceTraining.eu* project. With this report written one year into the life cycle of *PeaceTraining.eu*, it has been able to draw on

the existing research outputs that have been produced in the past twelve months. Through linking the CPPB field with the existent literature on novelty, the report will make a new contribution to the peace training field, but also act as a signpost for those who read this report to further works, authors, and projects which deal with the idea of novelty.

Case studies were chosen by partners in the *PeaceTraining.eu* consortium, reflecting their own expertise, and their professional curiosity in examining novel approaches, content and methods to develop the field as a whole. The PeaceTraining.eu project benefits considerably from its own membership, which includes academic institutes, policy makers and implementers, and practitioner organisations. A list of the case studies, and the institute(s) who authored them can be found in Annex 1. Moreover the *PeaceTraining.eu* web platform will host the case studies as downloadable briefings.

The third area of data gathering for this report has been through undertaking the Novelty Workshop. This was undertaken with 29 participants from a range of European countries. The list of participating organisations at the Novelty Workshop is as follows:

- Kadir Has Üniversitesi (Turkey)
- Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University (Turkey)
- Xchange Scotland
- The Coordinating Committee for International Voluntary Service (CCIVS)
- Wings of Hope (BiH)
- Young Researchers of Serbia³

The workshop was formed of 9 males and 21 females, with the majority of participants (18) coming from the non-formal sector and CPPB training institutes. The workshop was based around the following three themes/key questions:

Key Question 1: What experiences do you have of learning novel approaches to ways of working? **Key Question 2**: To what extent does your organisation facilitate the processing of new ideas, and what ideas/initiatives would make the introduction of novel concepts and methods easier? **Key Question 3**: What barriers there may be for organisations in their adoption of novel concepts, approaches and methods?⁴

Together, these three forms of data gathering offer the report a solid base by which to examine the role of novelty and novel approaches in CPPB training.

³ Organisations were attending *Buildpeace* workshop. Buildpeace is an Erasmus+ funded project to improve the provision of teaching, learning and training within the peacebuilding industry by bringing together providers from the formal education (FE) and non-formal education (NFE) sectors into a community of practice. More information can be found here: http://www.coventry.ac.uk/research/research-directories/current-projects/2016/buildpeace/

⁴ A full agenda for the meeting can be found in Annex 2

1.4. Limitations and contributions

This report offers a comprehensive overview of novelty, and novel approaches from a range of fields including social sciences, communications and ICT. Nevertheless, the report is also framed by the limitations concerning the scope of the research, the understanding of what is 'new,' and the applicability of the novel approaches outlined.

Regarding the scope of the research, the report's aims are broad: to 'Combine novel concepts and methods for CPPB training from various disciplines including social sciences and Information technology'. Within this, the consortium had the opportunity to look at a large number and range of fields, disciplines, and communities of practice. In the end, however, the consortium chose to focus on a limited number of areas of enquiry. These are based partly on the existing knowledge of consortium partners, as well as their professional curiosity and willingness to research novel fields. Therefore, the report must make two qualifications. Firstly, there are consequent limits in this report as to what 'novelty' is referring to. We have chosen nine fields of enquiry, but are fully aware that there are many more. Secondly, the case studies represent a snapshot of the potential of each of these fields. Due to size limitations, the guidance given to consortium members was to ensure their case studies were kept relatively brief, as opposed to extensive studies of their chosen topic. Therefore, consideration should be given to this when reading case studies. What the case studies aim to achieve is a series of solid pointers to offer practitioners new areas of insight should they wish to engage in further study.

Secondly, one must recognise that what is 'new' or 'novel' at the time of writing this report may not be novel in five or ten years. It is important therefore to understand that this report (much like other consortium reports that have come before it) represents a snapshot of the CPPB field in 2017 in Europe, including the gaps in provision and novel concepts and methods which could help fill those gaps. Being 'new' is a stretchable concept, ENTRi (which this consortium has researched extensively in other reports) has 'new' as part of its title, yet it is now seven years old. However, the legacy of PeaceTraining.eu is that this study represents a commitment to continue to reflect on novel approaches in the field, and to incorporate new and emerging concepts from a range of disciplines.

The final limitation regards the applicability of the case studies which we have examined. The case studies provide an indication to those willing to expand their skillset, or introduce new ideas into the work that they undertake. However, they do not represent a 'magic bullet,' or comprehensive solution to perceived inadequacies in the CPPB field. That is why in the guidance given for case studies, contributors were asked to reflect how, in their view, the CPPB field could adopt the ideas presented. By doing so, the report offers areas of consideration should the reader agree strongly that a particular case study be adopted in their day-to-day work.

1.5. Structure

After this introduction, **Chapter 2** will examine the notion of Novelty in the CPPB training the analysis is based largely on the Novelty Workshop undertaken at Coventry University on July 3, 2017. The Novelty Workshop was undertaken with 29 participants from a range of European countries. The majority of participants were drawn from non-governmental organisations, with a smaller number coming from formal education institutions (Universities). This chapter will establish the analytical framework of the study. It will do this by outlining that drivers of novelty can be categorised into 'push' and 'pull' factors, and will also explore how to categorise facilitators and constraining factors of novelty.

Chapter 3 examines Novelty in training approaches. Here, the report defines three over-riding approach-based needs: firstly, is effective inter-agency cooperation; secondly, local capacities for peacebuilding in a deployment zone; thirdly is to treat training as a *process*, as opposed to a finite event. From this, the report examines joint training/multi-sectoral cooperation in training programmes; the development of holistic and deep-culture approaches, as identified in *ecological approaches*; and the role of coaching and sequential approaches to training.

Chapter 4 looks at novelty in training content. This chapter links to where previous *PeaceTraining.eu* reports have identified gaps in subject areas which are covered within training programmes in the CPPB field. In particular, the chapter examines two areas: firstly, how *meme awareness* can provide a novel approach to the need to incorporate content which deals with stress management; secondly increased understanding of *urban peacebuilding* can address the need for more content which covers urban violence and conflict prevention.

In **Chapter 5**, the report turns to novelty in methods. This refers to new ways of training delivery undertaken by CPPB organisations, and covers two approaches which are seen by the consortium as novel: Firstly, the incorporation of arts based methods as a form of training delivery; Secondly elearning, which includes a focus on collaborative online learning, sandboxing, gaming and simulation.

Finally, **Chapter 6** will conclude with a series of recommendations for organisations regarding how they reflect on novelty, and what they may wish to be aware of when pushing for the adoption of novel approaches.

2. Novelty in CPPB Training

2.1 Introduction

Much of the broader CPPB field itself is a result of novel approaches to significant questions over global governance, international relations, and the existing ways in which peace, conflict, and violence have been understood. The CPPB field has therefore embraced concepts, approaches, and methods from a considerable array of other sciences, academic fields, and organisations. As Woodhouse, Miall and Ramsbotham attest, the enterprise of conflict resolution is an enterprise 'conducted across an international network where scholars and practitioners from many countries share in the common objective of formulating, applying and testing structures and practices for preventing, managing, ending and transforming violent and destructive conflict' (O. Ramsbotham, T. Woodhouse, H. Miall 2011, p62). As Box 2.1 shows, some of the most significant developments in the training field have also come as a result of the need for novel approaches.

Box 2.1 Lederach's elicitive approach as a result of novelty (Lederach 1996, p37)

Lederach differentiates between *prescriptive* and *elicitive* approaches in CPPB training. Whereas in a prescriptive approach the trainer is elevated above the participants as the expert and source of knowledge, the elicitive approach acknowledges the experience within the room, of the participants, and understands the trainer acting as a facilitator. The foundation of this is greater awareness of and respect for *'implicit indigenous knowledge about being and doing'* in the creation and sustaining of *'appropriate models of conflict resolution in a given setting'* (Lederach, 1996; 55). Much of the development of this model came as a direct result of Lederach's experiences of working throughout Latin America as a trainer in mediation. Lederach states that his experiences of attempting to 'teach' North American models of CPPB to Latin American participants (and the comments that the participants made about this process), led him to significant conclusions

My prevailing question is no longer: How do we adapt our conflict resolution model to a Hispanic context? Too often, I have discovered I am really asking: How do we fit Hispanics into our model? Rather my concern is this: How do we foster a pedagogical project that respects and empowers people to understand, participate in creating, and strengthen appropriate models for working at conflict in their own context?

With this in mind, the chapter will analyse broader attitudes towards the idea of novelty amongst CPPB training institutes. It will do this through drawing on data gathered from the Novelty Workshop held in Coventry University on 3 July 2017⁵. Using the outcomes of the Novelty Workshop, the chapter will firstly examine why CPPB training organisations choose novelty. By doing so, the chapter will outline drivers of novelty as being influenced by 'push' and 'pull' factors.

After this, the chapter outlines a three-pronged framework to categorize constraining and facilitating factors for adopting novelty. Again, this builds on output from the Novelty Workshop, where the range of comments to questions regarding what constrains and what facilitates novelty led to three broad areas of enquiry:

- Internal organisational factors
- Factors external to the organisation
- Implementation challenges

-

⁵ For more information about the workshop, please refer to the introduction

This chapter will therefore provide an insight as to what CPPB training organisations feel about novelty, thus providing a solid base for future chapters to go into greater depth on approaches, content and method. It will also develop two frameworks (outlined above), which will be built into future chapters which deal with Novel Approaches, Novel Content, and Novel Methods.

2.2. Why do CPPB training organisations look to Novel Approaches?

Novelty in the CPPB field is not accidental. Organisations and trainers often choose to seek new ideas based on a number of inter-linked factors. The Novelty Workshop asked participants to discuss and reflect on their experiences of introducing novel approaches and concepts into their daily work. The question that guided this discussion was 'What experiences do you have of learning novel approaches to ways of working?'. Within this, participants identified seven 'drivers' of change in their



everyday practice. This is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Novelty Workshop drivers of novelty

In interpreting this set of reasons, this report suggests that they are grouped as 'push' and 'pull' factors. As has been argued in studies of organisational innovation, 'Innovation behaviours' are triggered when members 'recognize either a need for change (usually triggered by the emergence of a performance gap, i.e., a problem or opportunity appears) or a new technology (that promises to enhance organisational performance)' (Zmud, 1984. p728). This way of categorising the range of reasons given for seeking to adopt novelty may seem broad-brushed. However, it is an effective way in which to understand the process of decision making, particularly regarding the question as to why trainers and training organisation seek to develop new approaches.

2.2.1. Push factors

Push factors are those whereby trainers and training organisations identify limitations in their current approaches to training that drive them to seeking novel approaches. These come in a range of forms. First is identified limitations in existing approaches. This was mentioned by workshop participants, who outlined that in their work, they would find that approaches and methods that they use may be inefficient in terms of the balance between workload and expected results; or that the models used did not achieve a significant enough impact on those who were being trained.

Influencing this is feedback given to trainers from those who are being trained. Negative feedback from those partaking in a CPPB training event will logically influence how a trainer adopts future training, including reflection on what works well and what works less well. Practitioners receive such feedback given to them from sessions, and use this as a basis for strengthening training in certain areas.

Another push factor identified in the Workshop is 'boredom'. Workshop participants identified that after a certain time, they may become 'bored' of the methods they use on a regular basis, and seek to try out new approaches. It is not uncommon for practitioners to seek ways in which to improve their own efficiency and effectiveness as being CPPB trainers, and challenge themselves to incorporate new ideas.

2.2.2. Pull Factors

Alongside the push factors are those which 'pull' practitioners towards adopting novel concepts and approaches. Underlying this is professional curiosity, whereby practitioners undertake their own independent research into new concepts, or are part of broader networks which introduce novel ideas. Workshop participants highlighted examples of this process, whereby they had uncovered new approaches (storytelling and an approach entitled the 'human library') whilst in Coventry for the Novelty Workshop. Moreover, when asked later in the session if participants could list more broadly what they thought were novel methods of CPPB training, a considerable list was created (see Box 2.2 below). This indicated that as part of their everyday process, they were constantly exposed to new ideas.

Workshop participants also highlighted the role of developments *outside* their immediate field. In their case, technological advances were highlighted, such as vlogging and online learning. These external advances in more general technology represent the impact of developments in non-CPPB fields and industries on practitioners who work within the CPPB field. It would be fair to suggest that Vlogging was not created specifically with the CPPB field in mind, yet the development, spread, and usage around this innovation has encouraged trainers to adopt the idea and mould it into a useful tool.

Box 2.2. Novel methods identified by Participants at the Novelty Workshop, Coventry, July 3 2017

- Simulation
- Social media
- Art based learning (Fish bowl, story-telling, ID Molecule),
- Walking Tours
- Free thinking: allows for the contestation of social, political or economic boundaries
- Poster writing
- Participatory Action based research
- Ted Talks
- Feminist story telling⁶
- Food workshops
- Use of certified trainers
- Forum theatres-for addressing marginalised groups, to train, campaign and engage
- Moving debates
- Role plays
- Visual techniques/methods
- 'Self-led' learning: eg. Fieldwork, archive work, conferences, literature surveys, case studies, observations
- Reflective practice
- Human library
- Graphic elicitation
- Self-care transformation
- Use of games to engage people and address problems/sensitive issues
- Theatre therapist-working with people/participants to develop their own plays

A possible way of visualising these push- and pull-factors is in Figure 2.2 (below)

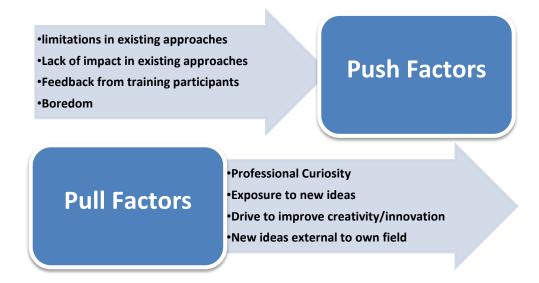


Figure 2.2. 'Push' and 'Pull' Factors

=

⁶ For more information, see: http://www.newyorker.com/books/page-turner/rebecca-solnits-faith-in-feminist-storytelling

It should be noted that both 'push' and 'pull' factors have a symbiotic effect on each other, and it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the two. Workshop participants would often discuss the two interchangeably, for instance through outlining that boredom would lead to exploring new ideas which in turn would make the trainer reflect on the limitations and gaps in his/her field. Nevertheless, when reflecting on one's approach to developing novel ideas in the CPPB context, it is worth identifying 'why' a drive to change is needed.

Additionally, push factors can be easier to define than pull factors. In the case of the Novelty Workshop, this could be because participants used the time together as a means to identify (and complain about) common challenges with peers. However, this also reflects research undertaken by *PeaceTraining.eu* over the past 12 months, including interviews with key stakeholders in the CPPB training field, and research into CPPB curricula, and methods. This research will be outlined in this report's chapters on approaches, content and method.

2.3. What facilitates and constrains the search for novelty by CPPB organisations?

In seeking to adopt novel approaches, organisations and practitioners face numerous challenges. Some of these are relatively easy to understand and adapt to, others are more problematic pushing either the individual members or the organisation as a whole outside the comfort zone or even outside safe spaces. Likewise, practitioners and organisations often undertake activities in which space can be created to embrace new and novel ideas. This section will investigate these constraining factors, and tools and techniques to facilitate novelty, by examining the data from the Novelty Workshop. In the Workshop, participants were asked what barriers there are to adopting novel approaches, and what would facilitate novelty in their respective organisations. The full list of answers is given in Annex 3 and Annex 4. They have been categorised into the following three areas:

- Internal organisational factors Referring to organisational factors within the organisation that a CPPB trainer may work for
- Factors external to the organisation Referring to factors external to the organisation that a CPPB trainer works for
- Implementation factors practical factors of implementing novel ideas in the training environment.

2.3.1 Internal organisational factors

Constraints

Factors internal to the organisation constituted the largest number of responses from workshop participants regarding constraints. These organisational constraints can relate to structural challenges. These include reflections that organisations may lack funding or resources to embrace new approaches (ICT was highlighted), a lack of expertise within an organisation to fully embrace novel approaches, a slow bureaucracy which may mean an organisation is slow to react to the pace of change, and incompatibility between new ideas and organisations' traditional methods of measuring the impact of training. Moreover, pressures on staff time may impact a trainer's ability to learn a new method in a comprehensive manner.

Linked to this is the possible challenge posed by the culture of an organisation, and those who work in it. For instance, workshop participants highlighted 'push-back' or resistance to novelty, 'traditional

mindsets', lack of encouragement to adopt novelty, lack of wider management processes of new technologies, and differing expectations within an organisation as to what the use of novelty can bring.

In the peacebuilding field, these constraints appear within different types of organisations, namely smaller organisations having a lower resistance to novelty yet higher funding constraints and staff turn-over and larger organisations having more financial and resource stability yet having less leverage towards mechanisms of change.

Facilitating factors

Still, considering the CPPB field as a whole, the space for creativity, innovation and change is relatively wide. Ideas here included the creation of 'free spaces' within organisations to assist in new, creative thinking about CPPB training. This can be facilitated through sending staff on training courses and networking events as part of their professional development. Funding would be supportive for this. Participants noted that a degree of funding would be required to allow staff to experiment with new ideas.

2.3.2 Factors external to the organisation

Constraints

Most pertinent to this area was the role of funding. Workshop participants noted that funding challenges can come as a result of the relationship between the organisation and the state. Should an organisation be linked to the state apparatus, then the role of the state and its policies has a noted impact on the organisations' work. Additionally, if not the state, funding may be driven by donors, who see their own priorities for the organisation in question. This is a notable issue, as one Workshop Participant noted 'Without funded projects you cannot continue the work that you do and even attempt new ideas or approaches'. Alongside funding, the location of organisations impacts on their ability to incorporate novel approaches⁷. This can be in relation to ICT approaches, as the lack of reliable access to the internet can hinder sustainable e-learning approaches. Moreover, Workshop participants outlined that local context needs to be taken into account when developing appropriate methods. Partnership is also a challenge. A participant highlighted an important aspect of working alongside other organisations (in this case, Local Government), whereby the partner organisation worked at a slower pace. This meant that the introduction of novelty was carried out at a slower pace than initially envisaged.

Facilitating factors

Externally, workshop participants outlined that the implementation of novel ideas could be facilitated were donors to offer support for new ideas. This would mean that 'better salesmanship' is needed in the marketing of ideas to relevant donors and leadership. This is also true in relationships with state structures (at local or national levels). This could strengthen partnerships and facilitate government backing for incorporating new ideas. As well as selling ideas to external partners, building relationships with partner organisations and organisations was seen as key in creating networks to facilitate innovation and creativity.

_

For data on the level to which Grant-making bodies fund programmes in Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding, please see http://peaceandsecurityindex.org/overall/

2.3.3. Implementation Factors

Constraints

These challenges are more centred around the reflections of the workshop participants, in their own processing of novel ideas. Here, issues of confidence in one's own ability were highlighted. For example, participants identified the fear of looking 'stupid' or standing out, a lack of time to be fully trained in an area, or to get a full theoretical foundation as to why a new idea may be more useful than an old one, and concern over the stress which may be related to incorporating novel ideas. The second aspect of these implementation challenges is where workshop participants outlined the challenges of the training process. Here, challenges identified included learners not being interested in a new approach, related to get learners to buy into new terminologies and concepts. Moreover, participants outlined that barriers in language or 'socioeconomic or personal situations of participants' may influence their perspectives of novel approaches.

Facilitating factors

Regarding this area, participants noted two different approaches to assist the development of novelty. On an individual level, better 'self' management was identified to allow staff to find time to acquire new skills. Additionally, workshop participants noted the importance of developing toolkits to be able to help spread new ideas and their implementation. The role of technology was highlighted here, particularly regarding the idea that applications could be created for smart-phones. Secondly an approach based on 'co-creation' was noted whereby trainers seek to develop novel approaches alongside their trainees.

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the outputs of the Novelty Workshop, and by doing so it has achieved two main objectives. Firstly, it has outlined how representatives from a broad range of European CPPB training organisations perceive novelty, and novel approaches. This first-hand data in itself is intended to spark discussion amongst readers as to the extent to which they agree or disagree with the views presented. Interesting insights can be found. For instance, workshop participants found much greater constraints on them than facilitating factors. This could be testament to the field, which is constantly evolving and is therefore always pushing at the boundaries. However, it could also be a point to be aware off, as at times, participants indicated ambivalence over the requirement to embrace novelty. This will be something that the report turns to in the concluding chapter.

The second objective which this chapter has achieved has been to develop a way by which to structure the forthcoming chapters on novel approaches, content, and methods. By interpreting the data from the workshop through 'push' and 'pull,' as well as the three-pronged approach to discussing constraining and facilitating factors on novelty, this chapter has set out the analytical framework to look at novelty in CPPB training in the upcoming chapters. This is not a definitive way in which to examine the development of new ideas, but offers a positive start in examining this exciting and constantly evolving field.

The following chapters will now examine novelty in three separate ways. These were outlined in the introduction, but will be reiterated here:

- Novel Approaches defined as the broad understanding of what guides, or should guide a CPPB training programme as a whole. This goes up to and includes the organisation which undertakes the CPPB training.
- Novel Content Specific ideas and subject areas that are being presented through a training programme or event:
- Novel Methods the ways in which ideas and subject areas are dealt with in a training context.

The proposals for novelty in training approaches, content, and methods are by no means prescriptive. Instead, the report outlines novel ways in which to change approach, content or method, through using examples gathered by the PeaceTraining.eu consortium. Through reflecting on push and pull factors, as well as constraining and facilitating factors, it will allow the reader to reflect as to what may assist or hinder their own development of novel concepts.

3. Novelty in Training Approaches

3.1. Push and pull factors towards novel training approaches

An approach towards CPPB training, or the construction of CPPB training programmes, concerns the broad understanding of what guides the training. Often, such understanding remains implicit and grows from evolving practices within training institutes and practitioner organisations such as international organisations, state governments, NGOs and other civil society actors. Nonetheless, several challenges can be identified with ongoing approaches to training, which push towards the adoption of novel approaches. These include 1) the need for training which links effectively with interagency coordination and cooperation 2) the need for training which respects local ownership and makes effective use of local capacities, and 3) the need for more long-term training commitment rather than focusing on short, topical training sessions (Wolter *et al* 2017, p 37-39, 44-45; Tunney 2017a, p28-34; Wolter & Tunney 2017).

"A complete shift is necessary from a vertical to a horizontal approach. Your focus is on peacebuilding, I'm training now the human rights officer on protection, and the civil affairs officer on civil affairs, and the DDR officer on DDR. Now the horizontal layer: how do these different elements come together in a field operation is most likely missing. Those who operate together must have the chance to *learn together."* **Trainer**

"We need to have people across government and civil society in the same room, learning the same terminology and skills. Peacebuilding really requires this multi-stakeholder approach. Training is also a platform for dialogue and

Firstly, interagency coordination and cooperation in the field, including civil-military relationships, is still seen as an important challenge in peacebuilding practice. This could partly be attributed to the approach taken to training in many organisations. Personnel are often informed of what their own organisation does and their own function within it, but to a lesser extent of what the other does in the same conflict-affected context. In deployment zones, different cultural approaches frequently clash in methods of decision making, accountability, operational and management styles, approaches

to time and success, media styles, and relationships with the local population. The 'infinite variety' of training and professional careers, cultural origins, interstate factors, and differences in communication and language, therefore combine to complicate interactions (Pouligny 2006: 133). As has been argued elsewhere (Tunney 2017a, 29), a joined-up approach to implement peace training programmes across the sectors would encourage cooperation between government and non-governmental organisations, and facilitate cooperation and establish networks. One novel approach to do so is the development of joint curricula across organisations.

Yet coordination and cooperation is not only needed between international practitioners in an external conflict-affected setting. It is also needed between outsiders and local actors. The lack of local ownership in peacebuilding processes is still a commonly heard critique of current CPPB practices (von Billerbeck, 2015; Pouligny, 2006). As argued elsewhere in the PeaceTraining.eu project, 'there is a major gap in EU CPPB training when it comes to course contents, curricula or modules to train and prepare practitioners for developing approaches to programme practice which

"We did a training... to help the internationals understand how to move away from taking action themselves to supporting national actors to act. It's quite subtle skills that you need in terms of acting in support of national actors, and being able to step back and allowing them to take the lead in the way they think it needs to be done." Senior Advisor, NGO

supports and strengthens authentic ownership by local / national stakeholders' (Wolter et al 2017, p38). Within this, research into curricula across the EU training landscape argues that most project management and mission design training are still 'founded on an 'intervention-based' approach to CPPB. This intervention-based model permeates core CPPB training programmes, which sometimes address local capacities for peace, but provide relatively little substance / practical content and guidance on how to move from intervention-based models to support-based models to develop local capacities, ownership and architecture or 'infrastructure for peace' (Wolter et al 2017, p38). With Input from local actors often crucial for understanding the conflict and to

contribute towards sustainable peace, a potential solution could be sought in the training approach, which could look at innovative ways of introducing traditional culture in 'ecological peace training.'

Finally, a challenge can be identified in current emphasis on short-term training courses (e.g., one or two weeks) on specific topics including DDR, human rights in violent conflict, conflict analysis (for example). As outlined in the review of curricula (Wolter *et al* 2017), there is a substantial range of courses available in the training field. However, relatively few of these courses concern themselves with longer-term coaching or mentoring those who would undergo training. The question can be raised over the extent to which such short courses can prepare personnel for CPPB activities. A more long-term commitment to training and sequenced training programmes could contribute more durably to skill development through preparation, application, and feedback and retraining cycles. This changes the role of trainers from short-term experts and facilitators to 'coaches' in CPPB practice.

It is with these factors in mind that the chapter now examines the three novel approaches to training.

3.2. Joint training curricula

It is not the case that the need for interagency cooperation in the field has not made its way to current CPPB training curricula. Indeed, course concepts of the ENTRi programme as well as the European Security and Defence College (ESDC) commonly devote a section of the course to discussing other organisations active in CPPB on the ground. Yet the viewpoint behind this inclusion is mostly in terms of content in the curricula and knowledge of the core functions and structures of other organisations. It is not necessarily a training approach in which staff from other organisations get to know each other.

"We would like to propose that the art of peace training comes about when the appropriate knowledge, personal qualities and skills are woven together in holistic approaches that then better prepare adults for transforming complex and capricious conflicts and equip participants with the capacities for effecting real social change." Tunney 2017b, p10

⁸ The ENTRi Core Course concept, for example, focuses on the EU CSDP mission, the UN, and the OSCE. The course hence prepares personnel for deployment in any of the three organisations.

The latter can be the case, however, in topical courses which actively try to draw participants from various sectors. For example, a DDR course would want to avoid drawing only participants from the UN, but also actively select participants from national governments and NGOs to have a good mix of experiences and backgrounds to draw on in the training. The active recruitment of participants from various sectors is assumed to contribute to a better learning experience, but also familiarises participants with the work of other organisations and the viewpoints of their staff members. The latter is particularly interesting as it can foster interagency networks in the field.

Yet the rationale for multi-sectoral recruitment in training is that it could, indirectly, foster cooperation on the ground, but there is not necessarily an active or direct approach behind it. This is the case, however, in the development of joint curricula, in which practitioners from varying organisations, both civilian and military, are learning together in the same classroom about each other's objectives and functions. The development of joint curricula can be specifically appropriate for organisations active in the same conflict-affected country, region, or community.

Pre-deployment and mission induction training are used to prepare staff to go into the field, and familiarise personnel with their new environment and daily functioning on the ground. The terminology stems from international organisations such as the UN (United Nations 2017) and the EU (Taitto 2015), but it could also be understood to capture preparation activities commonly conducted by civil society actors. Pre-deployment training is to an important extent often generic. It covers knowledge and skills necessary for all staff deployed to the mission regardless of their specific functions on the ground. This includes general knowledge about the organisation and its structures as well as the mission context. Mission induction training familiarises new staff with the administrative and operational context, as well as communication and security rules in place.

In current practice, pre-deployment training and induction training are focused on the specific organisation in which new personnel will operate: who does what in the own organisation and administration, as well as own legal mandates and structures. This can be viewed for example from ENTRi (2014) and UN (United Nations 2009) course notes and information. Yet a shift could occur by emphasising not only what one's own organisation does, but also what others do in the same context. In practice, this would happen by devoting aspects of pre-deployment and induction training to joint training moments. While more detailed knowledge of the own organisation is of course needed for functioning within that organisation, a more detailed knowledge of the other can be gathered by learning about them, but also by learning about them, with them. The latter also offers the potential for more durable network formation and cooperation. Pre-deployment training could bring people from EU and the UN together, but also civil society actors working in the same context. Mission induction training offers the opportunity to expand the scope of 'who does what' training to local actors in CPPB. This aspect would also feed into the need for more local ownership and knowledge and use of local peacebuilding capacities. Social interaction and networking can be enhanced by the use of collaborative approaches or arts-based methods (see Chapter 5).

3.3. Ecological peace training

Aiming to capture the increasingly acknowledged fact that innovation and novelty does not only mean looking forward or creation of new meaning and methods but also means a fresh look into traditions, deep culture and grassroots wisdom, ecological peace training is a novel term and builds upon several other concepts such as: indigenous approaches to building peace, traditional knowledge systems, and ecological learning systems. The term ecological peace training is chosen

because 'traditional peace training' can lead to conceptual confusion as it brings up images of traditional classroom teacher-based learning, which is not meant here. 'Indigenous peace training' might be too closely associated with the realms of anthropology or with an exclusively local approach, which is also not applicable.

Ecological peace training draws upon ongoing work on traditional knowledge systems and traditional peacebuilding. Western approaches and traditional/ecological approaches to knowledge and knowledge formation represent different ways of looking at the world around us (The Living Knowledge Project, 2008; Baker & Rayner). Western science tries to understand the natural world by studying individual parts. It has a fragmented approach to studying the world in different (sub-) disciplines. Furthermore, western science often has positivism, hypothesis testing, and universal truth as guiding principles. In contrast, indigenous knowledge seeks to understand the world in a more holistic way by observing the connections between all of the parts, in a relativist and less-hierarchical manner. Because of these differences, indigenous knowledge has the potential to complement the system of Western science.

The distinction between traditional and Western approaches has also been made with regard to peacebuilding with traditional approaches focusing on the practical experience and the broader context and environment, and Western peacebuilding focusing on the strategic (military) context and sectoral specialization. Combining traditional insights on peacebuilding with Western insights can further the effectiveness of peacebuilding on the ground.

Building on these insights from traditional knowledge and peacebuilding, ecological peace training is characterised by awareness and engagement from the community, a holistic approach to the content and process of training and practical, applicable learning. In terms of content, the approach implies that CPPB curricula include content which is authored and produced locally (see for example Lederach's elicitive approach). Figure 3.1 summarises the different characteristics suggested in this report as a framework for the ecological peacetraining approach, and Boxes 3.1 and 3.2 offer the example of 'Dragon Dreaming' and 'The Telling Project' as a practical example of ecological approaches.

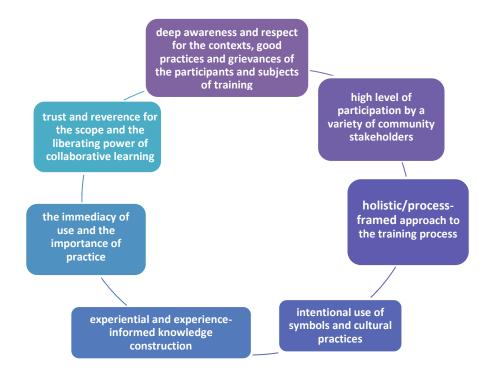


Figure 3.1: Potential framework for the ecological peacetraining approach

Methods used for training could be rooted in traditional practices such as storytelling which brings the whole of the community/training group together and allows for joint reflective practice. It is important to note, however, that ecological peace training does not need to replace Western forms of training, but that the two can be used together and build on each other's strengths.

Box 3.1: Dragon dreaming:

Dragon Dreaming was first developed by John Croft and his late wife Vivienne Elanta both working for the Western Australian Gaia Foundation that they co-founded. Dragon Dreaming is inspired by social and environmental activism, the new physics, Gaia and Earth sciences, living systems and chaos and complexity theory, and the ancient sustainable wisdom of indigenous cultures and Australian Aborigines. It is meant to unleash creativity and encourage holistic thinking and planning. It can be used to think of creative projects and plan for their success by identifying key challenges and relationships with other factors in the field. www.dragondreaming.org

Dragon dreaming has been put in practice as a peacebuilding projects methodology tool by organisations such as AGEH and Brot für die Welt and the Academy of Conflict Transformation of Forum ZFD. As a methodology, it responds to the many critiques of the linearity of classic project cycle management and project design tools (such as the LogFrame approach). Instead of a sequence of steps Dragon dreaming is seen as a process where each stage is celebrated and attributed to implementers who are open, capable and willing to undertake it. Its four components the dreaming, the planning, the doing and the celebrating are not to be applied in a sequential order and not to be done by the same person, but rather by a team of individuals, aiming to represent a holistic, living-systems theory and practice of turning inspiration and visions into celebrated practice. The process does not have a specific timing constraint, initiatives using dragon dreaming being able to spend as much time in one phase as needed.

Box 3.2: The Telling Project

'The Telling Project is a non-profit national performing arts project that employs theatre to deepen understanding of the military and veterans' experience. Greater understanding fosters receptivity, easing veterans' transitions back to civil society, and allowing communities to benefit from the skills and experience they bring with them. Through this understanding, a community deepens its connection to its veterans, itself, and its place in the nation and the world. Through performance, The Telling Project puts veterans and military family members in front of their communities to share their stories. We give veterans and military family members the opportunity to speak, and their communities the opportunity to listen' (https://thetellingproject.org/about/)

With an increasingly clear and articulated call for learning that is relevant and grounded in the realities of the field, indigenous learning systems represent a valuable source of inspiration and practice. Indigenous practices can bring about cultural-appropriateness, community-centred perspectives, and non-linear and holistic views on conflicts, their effects, and causes. These aspects are highly relevant for the CPPB training arena as they directly address some of the gaps of the field. Their use is at the moment quite limited to civil society programmes, but could also be used in military and police training where the fault line between the peace operation strategies and tactics and the local communities where the peace operations are taking place has been signalled repeatedly (Ramsbotham, p. 16). Through the incorporation of local knowledge into the training curricula as well as the use of practices and methods which come deeply from the cultural reality of communities around the world, the ecological approach can create a greater sense of legitimacy for the practitioners working in the CPPB field, whose capacities to understand, practice and be in highly local contexts increases.

Furthermore, this approach covers a relatively unexplored area of capacity building, namely breaking the power-dynamics behind international intervention as well as the symbolic 'victim-saviour' dichotomy by creating a greater awareness and sense of empowerment and localised peacebuilding. It focusses more on seeking dialogue, listening to stories of each other and focus on space for coexistence. With training concepts, knowledge and methods being directly sourced to local communities, a greater sense of local communities owning the peace processes and peace operations is implied.

3.4. Sequenced training and coaching in CPPB

Sequenced training approaches are not necessarily new to the CPPB field. Military training, for example, relies on sequenced and repeated testing and retraining. Nevertheless, sequenced training has not commonly been used in civilian CPPB training activities. Indeed, the most common training format consists of short practitioner-centred courses on CPPB topics such as human rights in conflict, gender, and reconciliation. Such training, while in general of high quality, does not incorporate a feedback cycle by which participants are prepared, apply new knowledge and skills in the field, and then share and reflect on experiences in order to improve their functioning. While some trainings require prior experience, a 'sequenced approach,' with the same participants following the trajectory from preparation to re-training, is largely missing. In this regard, CPPB training can learn from the field of sports coaching, which puts forth a long-term commitment to training and personal development.

The links between sports and peacebuilding are emerging, with a growing literature outlining the potential impact that sport can play in processes of conflict resolution, peace and development (Dyck 2011; Cárdenas 2013; Guilianotti et al. 2016). This evolution is in itself proof of innovation stemming from cross-fertilisation between fields. In terms of novelty in CPPB training, sports coaching approaches have strong potential as well. Sports coaching can be defined as "the process in which a person or people attempt to improve the sporting performance of an athlete or team in competition, by manipulating the behaviour and creating practice environments that facilitate improvement" (Nichols & Jones 2012 p2). In suggesting the use of sports coaching approaches, it should be kept in mind, however, that a sporting context is confined within a finite time and space, with very limited 'real-world' consequences. This is in stark contrast to the CPPB field, where practitioners' actions may have significant effects on the general wellbeing of those who they are working for and with. It should also be borne in mind that sports coaching — at least at elite levels — is to develop the capacity of athletes to become victorious, or 'win' in terms of their chosen sports. Such viewpoint does not necessarily hold for peacebuilding.

An important characteristic of sports coaching concerns the role of the coach in stimulating the development and potential of training participants. A coach follows his training participants or athletes over time in a personal relationship characterised by long-term commitment. In order to draw out participants' potential and support their development, a coach cannot simply rely on his subject matter expertise in the area of a particular sport. A coach needs a broader range of knowledge and skills often drawing on psychological and pedagogical expertise. This is highlighted in Box 3.2

Box 3.3 Requirements for sports coaches as shown in the Table of Content of Jones & Kingston's 'An introduction to sports coaching: connecting theory to practice':

- Reflective practice in sports coaching: thoughts on process, pedagogy and research
- Pedagogy for coaches
- Skill acquisition for coaches
- Psychology for coaches
- Sociology for coaches
- History for coaches
- Philosophy for coaches
- Ethics for coaches

A sports coach can also attain different levels of coaching development. For instance, the UK's sports coaching framework describes a **first level** of qualification as one that gives coaches 'more confidence' in their abilities. With this level successfully completed, a coach will be qualified to assist more-qualified coaches, delivering aspects of coaching sessions, normally under direct supervision. **Level 2** requires further expertise and is for those who wish to undertake coaching independently. **Level 3** coaching is at a senior level, which 'oversees and contributes to the delivery of programmes over seasons and in specific contexts' as well as managing and developing other coaches. In addition,

Level 4 exists, which is placed at the level of 'postgraduate,' and is aimed for coaches "who would benefit from an extended period of education,' and only for those who can 'demonstrate appropriate breadth and depth of study, critical and self-reflective skills, and a capacity to challenge knowledge and practice" (Sports Coach UK 2013, p4).

A final key aspect of sports coaching that is relevant for CPPB training concerns 'periodization,' a sports coaching approach which allows for the structuring of training sessions into manageable timelines to ensure maximum performance (Bompa and Haff 2009). This approach to training is useful because it provides participants with manageable pace to acquire skills and knowledge in the field as well as manage the load of training and stress related challenges.

In periodization, the training sessions are divided into three: preparatory, competitive and transition. The preparatory phase establishes the foundations for performance where the athlete/participants receives the fundamental knowledge and skills whiles the competitive phase builds on the foundational skills for maximum performance (Bompa and Haff 2009). The transition phase on the other hand helps participants to recover from the stress of the competition and prepare physically and psychologically for the next task or competition (Ibid.)

CPPB training can draw on sports coaching by making a shift between viewing trainers as experts or even facilitators, to viewing them as coaches in a long-term training process. Where trainers see different groups of participants in only short periods of time, the approach requires trainers to follow 'their' practitioner groups over time. It also requires a wider set of skills. Besides a continuous revision of current knowledge on peacebuilding practices in their field, they must also be equipped with the necessary psychological and pedagogical expertise for this task. Not all trainers will necessarily have the same level of expertise and support skills, however. It can be useful to think in levels of coaching development in this regard. Some trainers mostly assist in training, while others develop new programmes or new innovative training approaches. The coaching development levels can be useful to think about standards and qualifications for trainers in the field and differentiation of trainer profiles.

As periodization breaks up a training cycle in different phases, coaches also need to be equipped to facilitate high-level training in each phase. Indeed, training programmes can remain stuck in the 'preparatory phase'. For learners, this can hinder the sharing of new experiences gained after application of new knowledge and skills in the field, learning how to deal with challenges that have arisen, and improving their work in a second application phase. For trainers and training institutes, this can hinder regular feedback on initial preparatory trainings, and the revision of training to deal with challenges raised by participants in a second cycle. Sequencing of training hence ensures an internal evaluation mechanism.

Besides the preparatory phase, the CPPB coach can play a supporting role during 'competition' or deployment when critical questions emerge (e.g., via online communication). In the transition or post-deployment phase, the coach can play a role by supporting stress relief and encourage participants to implement self-care techniques. The knowledge and skills required from trainers can be different from those from the preparatory phase, but need attention as well. Sustainable peacebuilding requires well-trained and re-trained staff with high levels of mental resilience, as well as continuous revision and adaptation of training material to realities on the ground. Drawing from sports coaching can help support these objectives.

3.5. Constraints and facilitators for adopting novel training approaches

3.3.1. Internal factors

Constraints

Whether a constraint can be considered an internal or external challenge depends to some extent on whether training and practice occurs within one organisation or whether training institutes provide training for external organisations including state governments, international organisations, and NGOs. The latter is quite common in the CPPB training field; hence this perspective is taken here.

Firstly, it is important to recognize the significant changes that would be required to overhaul current approaches to training in the CPPB field and to implement either joint curricula, ecological peace training, or sequenced training. Such drastic changes are highly likely to raise strong internal resistance for a number of factors. Current training institute staff functions according to the ongoing practices with an overhaul risking changes in personnel and positions. An important constraint on long-term, sequenced training are current hiring practices for trainers, for example. Many are externally recruited consultants or experts, which are hired for only a short period. Long-term training requires long-term contracts, and commitment, however, substantially increasing costs of training. It also requires trainers with different 'coaching' experiences suitable to support practitioners' development over time.

Furthermore, training institutes cannot necessarily bring about changes in training approaches themselves and are bound by the legal mandates and contracts they engage in with practitioner organisations (see external challenges). For example, the ESDC and the ENTRi project are aimed at providing pre-deployment (and mission induction) training for European missions, and have no say over UN personnel and their training requirements.

Finally, internal disagreement can arise over the content and method for joint curricula, ecological peace training, or sequenced training. Indeed, the change in approach permeates to all levels of training: curricula content, methods, and evaluation. At each stage internal agreement is needed on the form training will take. Discussion can, for example, arise on the wider applicability of ecological peace training over time and space. Indeed, how similar are cultures around the world in their knowledge systems, and what are the challenges of diversity across cultures?

Facilitators

While the constraints for novel approaches stand out in particular, a possible facilitator can be found in ongoing informal practices in training institutes. In particular with regard to coaching, it is important to note that trainers often stay in contact with training participants, for example via social media. This can be the sign of an informal coaching role that could spur further development in this area. It could be argued therefore that were these informal approaches captured and built upon, a 'bottom up' process of change could be developed.

Complementing this is an approach which is from the top-down. Here, the role of leadership in creating a conducive atmosphere towards significant change in approach can be a hugely significant facilitator. As outlined in the PeaceTraining.eu Interview Report, the organisational identity and the overall aims of the organisation determine who provides the training and what training is offered (Tunney 2017a, p20). Should institutional leadership seek to develop new approaches, an

'atmosphere of change' can be created which prioritises reflection on approaches, incorporates existing informal practice, and seeks to identify what staff believe to be new and novel approaches

3.3.2. External factors

Constraints

Important constraints are found at the level of practitioner organisations sending staff for training. Characteristic of missions by international organisations is, for example, the high turnover of staff. Indeed, many mission members are seconded by national governments (e.g., judiciary, police) and are expected to return to their functions. Hence, they are often not mission experts with a range of experience in different programmes and regions. The high turnover undermines sequenced approaches to training, for instance, as many people which engage in preparatory training do not stay in the CPPB field. Furthermore, many people trained do not even leave on missions.

Other challenges can be defined in terms of costs. For example, do organisations want to commit to long-term training of staff, thereby increasing training costs? In the sense of joint pre-deployment and mission training, the sheer logistical challenge also clearly stands out. Especially for civil society and local actors it will be difficult to engage in such joint training moments, effectively pointing out the need for external donor sponsoring.

With regard to ecological peace training, the question can be raised whether the concept and approach will sufficiently be picked up at the political and strategic level. Indeed, in the authorisation and design of missions, local ownership is currently lacking in practice. Can Western actors, however, make the shift to improved local ownership in peace processes? Such a shift can be brought about by new training approaches, yet investment in the adoption of such approaches requires prior interest and engagement on the practitioner level as well. While this is already the case for many civil society actors, it is less so for intergovernmental organisations and national governments.

Facilitators

While many mission and project staff members do not stay in the CPPB field, several do, and become veritable experts recruited for different missions and organisations. This can bring cross-over and exchange between organisations in an informal manner. Such exchanges can facilitate the development of joint curricula, for example.

Moreover, communities of practice have emerged on an external level which facilitate cross-fertilisation of ideas. In particular, when looking at joint approaches to designing training, organisations such as the International Association of Peacekeeping Training Centres (and the European Association of Peacekeeping Training Centres) offer a strong example of a shared desire to develop more comprehensive shared approaches. The IAPTC is constituted of military, civilian and police organisations, as well as organisations, academics, and individuals invested in training practices. This provides a forum for developing training practices.

In addition, external factors can create more conducive environment for the incorporation of ecological approaches to peacebuilding. As has been argued elsewhere, the wider CPPB field is being affected by the impact of Information Communication Technology (ICT) in such a way 'that traditional distinctions between national, international and local levels of activity are being eroded and the basis for a global partnership for peacebuilding is being constructed' (Ramsbotham, Woodhouse et al. 2005: 330). As increased communications technology develops, so will increased

knowledge about alternative and complementary approaches to preparing and training in the field of CPPB. This will facilitate funders' willingness and donor acceptance of approaches seen as less 'traditional'.

3.3.3. Implementation factors

Constraints

Potential constraints could arise for institutes implementing different approaches than what learners are used to such as storytelling or dragon dreaming (see ecological peace training). What is novel can come across as strange or even inappropriate to some. For instance, joint training moments could be negatively perceived, and hence ineffective, due to negative perceptions participants have of each other's organisations and work in the field, or even bureaucratic in-fighting between departments of the same organisation. Another potential constraint concerns sequenced training. When following a long-term training programme, this also requires more substantial engagement from the participant in maintaining contact, and communicating and interacting with the coach.

Facilitators

In current practice, training participants are positive about having a mix of backgrounds to draw on during training. This could support the development of joint curricula. As part of their training, certain organisations already incorporate trainers from different backgrounds in the same training session. The relative success of this partnering indicates that there is potential for an organic 'partnering' at a more strategic level. The same potential is there for implementing ecological approaches. As well as partnering with traditional partners and Subject Matter Experts in peace training, opportunities exist for engaging with those who live and work daily with alternative approaches to CPPB, and partnering with them for training purposes. Again, in this second area, increased use of ICT can assist co-creation.

Furthermore, as some training participants engage informally in more long-term social networks of exchange, explicit forms of coaching could be well-appreciated. Coaching does not necessarily need to happen in a physical environment, and trainers can look to broader forms of coaching without the necessity of meeting in person.

3.6. Conclusion

Current training approaches in CPPB face several important challenges which form push factors for the search for novel approaches. A first challenge is the lack of inter-agency training, which could enhance coordination and cooperation in the field. This chapter has investigated the potential of joint curricula to overcome this weakness. Secondly, current peacebuilding practice continues to neglect local ownership and capacities for peace. This could partly be attributed to a lack of training which takes local and traditional knowledge systems into account. To promote holistic approaches to peace, the chapter has advanced the concept of ecological peace training. Thirdly, CPPB (civilian) training is commonly based on short-term courses that insufficiently recognize training as a long-term process. The field of sports coaching can provide important lessons on viewing the trainer as a 'coach' with a range of knowledge and skills beyond specific expertise, and the sequencing of training in several phases: 1) preparation, 2) application, 3) stress relief, review, and feedback.

It is important to recognize, however, that novel training approaches require significant changes in current practices in CPPB training and therefore face considerable challenges in their adoption.

Furthermore, change would not only be required at the level of the training institutes, but also the level of practitioner organisations which send staff to training. An important aspect concerns hiring practices, for instance, or mission design which allows for sufficient national ownership. Nonetheless, the innovative ideas proposed in this chapter provide a solid base for discussion on how to adapt current training systems to face the push factors that are clearly perceived to undermine sustainable peacebuilding on the ground.

4. Novelty in Training Content

4.1. Push and pull factors towards novel training content

Content for CPPB training across the EU has undergone several reviews and updates. The process of reviewing and updating is constantly conducted by training institutions and organisations as different conflict dynamics emerge in the field of practice. Whilst these assessments are essential in developing comprehensive training content that best addresses current and contextual needs of both practitioners and beneficiaries, gaps have been identified in two main areas. The first gap is the lack of coherence in core concepts and content. One NGO Trainer highlights the lack of coherence in CPPB training in EU:

"There are too many people in the mission who have not followed any training or who have followed a different training." Standardizing training requirements could ensure that the people deployed from different European countries have same knowledge" (Tunney 2017a, p26).

The second is the limited inclusion or non-existence of emerging and relevant modules. This chapter will examine two of these gaps: stress management, self-care and well-being; and urban peacebuilding (Wolter *et al* 2017). Both of these have been selected firstly because they represent existent gaps in content, and secondly because PeaceTraining.eu consortium members specialise in these areas.

While some literatures acknowledge the utility of these concepts in other disciplines, there are very little discourses on their inclusion and relevance in CPPB training. For instance, while stress management seems to be highly utilised in the psychology and psychiatric disciplines, it is rarely mentioned in the CPPB training context. As was identified in a review of CPPB curricula, few organisations specifically offer training for practitioners addressing needs for stress-management, self-care and well-being in the field. Moreover, there is also currently no specific ENTRi or ESDC course on the topic (Wolter *et al* 2017, p35).

Urban peacebuilding on the other hand, is still an emerging concept yet to be understood and mainstreamed in the CPPB practice. Despite the emerging increasing dynamics of urban violence and unrest in most societies, the concept is yet to take centre stage in discourses among academics and practitioners (Wolter &Tunney, 2017, p42). As a result, recent discourses are calling for more innovative ways to incorporating stress management and urban peacebuilding into CPPB training contents.

In advancing novelty in CPPB training contents, this report emphasises the importance of including stress management and urban peacebuilding in EU CPPB training in order to reflect current dynamics and trends in the field as well as adequately prepare practitioners in mitigating challenges in the field and effectively deliver CPPB.

4.2. Stress management and Meme awareness

4.2.1. Stress management

Stress is a normal human reaction to any form of threat or discomfort. It is defined as "any demand or change that the human system (mind, body, and spirit) is required to meet or respond to" (Balone 2007, p140). Particularly in peace interventions, the impact of stress and its related challenges is exacerbated due to the violent and hostile context within which peace peacekeepers and practitioners operate. Since it was first revealed in 1979 by the Norwegian Peacekeeping Operation psychological trauma or what was called "peacekeeper's stress syndrome" continues to be a fundamental problem in international peace operations (Shigemura and Nomura 2002, p484). Peacekeepers and other practitioners have been noted to suffer from mental health issues, According to Shigemura and Nomura (2002), a research conducted among American peacekeepers in 1997 revealed that 8% suffered from post-traumatic stress disorders (PTSD). Similar studies in Canada highlighted 15% PTSD during peace operations in former Yugoslavia (Shigemura and Nomura 2002, p484). Furthermore, research conducted on Italian peacekeepers revealed that those posted outside of their home territory experienced more stress than those based in Italy (Balone 2007). Likewise among the Norwegian forces, stress was one of the factors which accounted for the extensive use of drugs and alcohol by the peacekeepers (Mehlum 1999). These challenges have been noted to persist before, during and after mission. As Shigemura and Nomura (2002 p486) rightly note:

PTSD often persists for years after exposure to stress has ceased. Military studies have shown that psychological stress in multiple and cumulative forms persist long after deployment is over. For example, stress levels of Gulf War veterans increased significantly during deployment and remained high for a considerable time afterward....[this] pointed out that returning home soon after the end of the tour of duty can produce a variety of social and personal problems....Consequently, the opportunity to put their deployment experience in perspective and obtain closure before re-entering civilian life is lacking.

While most of these figures mainly focus on military practitioners, the experiences of police and civilian practitioners may not be substantially different as they both experience relatively similar threats and conditions in the field of practice. In fact, research conducted by Zif on *Stress Management in Peace Operations* revealed that civilian personnel equally experience immense stress before, during and after mission (Wiesenthal and Rößler 2015).

Several factors have been associated with stress among CPPB practitioners. Wiesenthal and Rößler (2015), for example underscores four categories of factors which causes stress among peacekeeping personnel particularly the civilian component. First is the situational factors which include issues of "insecurity, threats on personal well-being, demands in host country, poor facilities, health risks" among others that peacekeepers deal with on daily bases (Wiesenthal and Rößler 2015, p6). The second is on job-related factors which borders on the "difficult living conditions; social, cultural and spiritual dislocation, heavy work load or inactivity, tense relationships with team, job insecurity" (ibid). Third is organisational management factors highlighting issues around "preparation and follow-up, management issues, unclear program roles and objectives, sector culture 'macho,' abusive or weak leadership, corruption" (ibid). The fourth factor looks at personal risks which includes "limited contact/pressure, lack of experience, unrealistic expectations and motivations, psychological history, re-entry syndrome" (Wiesenthal and Rößler 2015, p6). Shigemura and Nomura

(2002) on the other hand highlights five categories of stress (identified by Bartone et al 1998) that peacekeepers or by extension practitioners experience in peace support operations. These are issues of isolation, ambiguity, powerlessness, danger and boredom. The authors propound that the uncertainty of leaving their homes, families and friends to an unknown location; the duration of the mission, intense poverty and poor infrastructures, security threats, as well as idleness and redundancy causes stress to peacekeepers on the field. Figure 1 highlights these categories in detail.

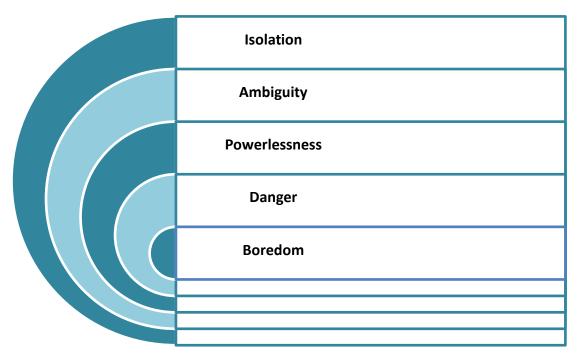


Figure 4.1: 5 Categories of Stress (based on Shigemura and Nomura (2002, p485))

Despite these growing trends, stress and its related issues are given limited attention in policy, practice and training in peace intervention. For instance, although the EU has a Critical Incident Response Mechanism addressing stress complications in the field, it is however short of adequate

staff counselling capacity (Wiesenthal and Rößler 2015). Other reports of this project have equally revealed that EU training courses often lack stress management as part of its module content (Wolter & Tunney 2017). Ultimately, the CPPB field has been lacking in the area of stress management. This therefore calls for a renewed thinking and approach not only in the provision of stress management facilities but also adequate and robust training of personnel before, during and after mission to

"Training can offer new techniques to reach behaviour and attitudes, to review stereotypes, prejudices and to grow an alternative to violence and winning interest driven behaviour in conflicts" Trainer, Government

prepare them in dealing with such challenges in the field and afterwards. It has therefore become imperative for the EU and international peace intervention organisations to look at new approach and training tools on stress management that can be useful for CPPB practitioners. This report thus recommends meme awareness or mind mapping as one of the novel and emerging training module that can be useful in CPPB training across the EU and beyond as part of stress management.

4.2.2 Meme awareness/Mindmapping

Practitioners in the field are faced with constant personal needs, dilemmas and fears which requires that they develop adequate coping mechanisms to withstand any accompanied stresses in such volatile contexts. Meme awareness or mind-mapping is an emerging tool that is set to enable practitioners deal with psychological and emotional stress through a *mentalising strategy* or process where they are able to analyse situations and find strength within themselves to address internal and external threats (Bateman and Fonagy 2012).

Recognising these internal fears and external threats is the starting point for finding appropriate means to addressing it. Individuals' inner fears and external experiences in life provide them 'cultural scripts' which enables them to deal with stress and other imminent threats. Memes are "cultural items, which have become representations for forming our actions and reactions to events and experiences". Likened to "genes" by the likes of Dawkins, memes enable individuals to address loss and neglect where needs are lacking. It is a repair and recovery exercise which enables individuals and groups to engage in inner self reflections to utilise lessons from their past experiences to mitigate future ones.

Memes such as "Tomorrow everything will be fine again"; "No pain, no gain," "first work, then play"; "an (Indian) man never feels pain "better late than never"; "when it is time to marry, life will be perfect again"; name a few helps in dealing with loss and transferring negative situations into positive energies and outcomes. Ultimately, memes are proverbs and motivations from daily experiences which provide positive justifications to unfavourable situations. They are essentially useful both in everyday life and in preparation for peace intervention as it enables practitioners to identify their strengths and resilience in tackling extreme and difficult circumstances. In advancing novelty, this concept presents a dynamic and new way of training and preparing practitioners on stress related challenges and ways of mitigating them prior to deployment. In practice, the meme exercise involves the following procedures:

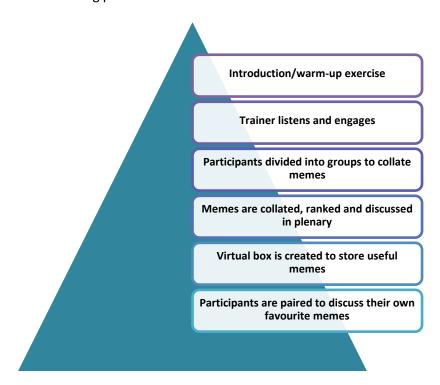


Figure 4.2: Meme Awareness Procedure

- Introduction/warm-up exercise: Here trainer can begin with a warm up or introduction where
 participants travel down memory lane to engage with their 'inner' past experiences such as first
 job, graduation, early childhood, their likes and dislikes as well as difficulties they faced in using a
 gadget, amongst others.
- The trainer listens attentively to identify the obstacles and challenges within narration as well as
 adds some engaging questions based on participants' experiences. These questions are raised to
 encourage interaction between trainer and trainee on the best approaches to addressing the
 latter's challenges.
- Participants are divided into groups and asked to collect proverbs that the colleagues, parents, the neighbours, the siblings, friends, books, the authorities, media on how to address difficult challenges and situations. Here, participants are allocated 10 minutes to engage with each other.
- Memes are collated and ranked based in plenary on their relevance to adult life situations which then leads to discussions on their usefulness and endurance in addressing challenges
- Create a virtual box where useful memes are stored and can be accessed whenever needed to address situations of extreme discomfort.
- For positive impact, participants can be paired to discuss their three most favourite memes.

Moreover, meme is not only for psychologically oriented participants but also those that are less akin to psychological issues. For such participants, the exercise 'The Storms of Life" can be recommended.

Box 4.1: The Storms of Life

There are always storms in everyone's life. (Externalise the problems in the client's life by referring to problems as 'storms' or 'bad weather' the narrative therapists in the tradition of Michael White would say.)

You can talk about: Whose fault is the storm? What effects do the storms have? How do we respond to storms? What can you do during a storm? How do you prepare for stormy weather knowing their potential strengths? You can also point out that it is not stormy weather all of the time. What are the times when there are no storms? What is different then? When prepared for the storms and nothing happens for a long, long time — how do you feel then?

One can ask next: when and what is the understanding, explanations of the stormy weather good for? What is better to concentrate on, when handling the situation is in demand?

This introduction can help create a shift from diagnosing or victimisation to bringing out skills and knowledge the person has to 'handle storms and the very storm one is in'. Being able to do something when the storm hits can reduce the impact of the storm. Past experiences help to handle current challenges.

Then one can collect examples of what helped each individual in the past and what are the principles one has learnt? What is still a guiding principle in one's life and what should be re-evaluated or discarded as it no longer fits one's experiences?

Then you can collect in the group other examples and also deconstruct them in a similar way; the effect should be that everyone has access to more methods when something is overwhelming. One can proceed with exercise for group setting as above.

In CPPB training, mind-mapping or memes awareness could be a useful pre-briefing exercise because it would strengthen participants 'inner agency' in dealing with limitations and transforming them into strengths; identify different ways of handling situations and learning new routines for similar situations in the future; address anxieties; and build on past experiences to develop a resilient approach to present and emerging challenges. Ultimately, this exercise could form part of preparatory awareness trainings such as the Hostile Environment and Awareness Training (HEAT) or complementing stress management training modules in CPPB.

4.3. Urban violence and conflict prevention - Urban peacebuilding

Urban peacebuilding is another module which is noted to be lacking in CPPB training across EU and perhaps elsewhere. The changing dynamics in conflict requires that CPPB training contexts constantly evolve to reflect these changes. Situations of violence, civil unrest, electoral violence, gangs and mafia networks which are increasingly occurring in urban communities across the world are proving to be a worrying trend. This trend is further exacerbated by the growing population of urban inhabitants which is expected to augment to 66% by 2050 (United Nations, 2014, p. 1). As a result, there is a need for expanding understanding from traditional peacebuilding as we know it to include the emerging urban dimensions which has been lacking in the field; both in policy and in practice (Lucchi, 2013, p. 4; Bosetti, Cooper, De Boer, & Munshey, 2016). Whiles traditional peacebuilding and peacekeeping requires practitioners to be trained on DDR, SSR, Gender Mainstreaming, among others, they are hardly trained on how to address the surging urban security dilemmas. Moreover, many of the practitioners and organisations are yet to incorporate urban peacebuilding approaches and content into their training modules. It is only recently that the impact of "Other Situations of Violence" (OSV) have been emphasised by the United Nations, in the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (UNGA, 2015); nonetheless, there was no mention on ways of dealing with urban specific challenges.

The concept of urban peacebuilding which was introduced by Scott A. Bollens (1999) demonstrates how urban policies affecting the control and use of urban land, the distribution of economic benefits among the population, the participation in policy-making, and the manifestation and protection of group identity could either heighten or reduce urban conflict. This concept has been further expounded by Björkdahl (2013) through her peacescapes which encourage a homogenous public identity and intercultural integration as part of building peace in urban spaces. For Björkdahl (2013) building a peaceful urban society is hinged on inclusivity. While this proposal might be perceived as utopian and vague, research have attested to the centrality of transcultural inclusion or integration in CPPB particularly with the multiplicity of actors involved; urban spaces are therefore no exception (Gusic 2013).

It is important to indicate that despite the limited attention given to urban peacebuilding, there have been some initiatives in the past towards its utility in peacebuilding. The establishments of the European Forum of Urban Security by the EU in 1987 and the Stronger Cities Network by the UN in 2005 are cases in point (see Box 4.2).

Box 4.2: the EFUS

In 1987 the European Forum of Urban Security (EFUS) was created under the auspices of the Council of Europe. Over 250 municipalities are part of this network sharing their knowledge and expertise. EFUS bases its initiative on prevention, sanctions and social cohesion a varied dimension of violence, ranging from domestic and youth violence to radicalisation and terrorism. In 2005 the Stronger Cities Network was launched during the UN General Assembly. Led by the Institute for Strategic Dialogue it is "the first ever global network of mayors, municipal-level policy makers and practitioners united in building social cohesion and community resilience to counter violent extremism in all its forms" (Strong Cities Network). However, we can find within the EU an earlier example of cities networking on the prevention of violence.

In spite of these initiatives and the growing recognition of urban peacebuilding in academia, there are still very few current training contents and scenarios which are structured around urban setting. These include MINUSTAH operations to control Cite Soleil's gang warfare in Port-au-Prince (Haiti) (Peirce, 2007; Dorn, 2009; Dziedzic & Perito, 2008), protection of civilians in Bangui (Central African Republic) (Barbelet, 2015) or peacekeeping operations in Mogadishu (Somalia) (Williams, 2009; Freear & De Coning, 2013; Barnes & Hassan, 2007; Sheikh, 2010). Expanding on these training scenarios and developing a well-structured module on urban peacebuilding in CPPB training will be useful in presenting practitioners with novel ways of intervening in current and future conflicts. More importantly, including urban peacebuilding in CPPB training will not only help in identifying and mitigating the growing urban fragilities but also build on the resilient capabilities in urban setting (De Boer, Muggah, & Patel 2016). De Boer, Muggah, & Patel (2016) underscore seven factors of urban resilience which must be assessed and integrated perhaps in CPPB training and strengthened in order to build safe and secure urban communities.

Box 4.3: Urban Resilience Factors

- 1) greater income and social equality;
- 2) effective policing and judicial mechanisms;
- 3) micro-economic security and social protection;
- 4) provision of basic services and infrastructures;
- 5) social cohesion;
- 6) social networks and social support; and
- 7) strong community to government and inter-governmental cooperation

Source: De Boer, Muggah, & Patel (2016)

Finally, CPPB training must take into consideration the specificities of the structural environment, and the challenges arising from densely populated areas, with greater mobility and compressed inequality, common features of the urban realm. What urban peacebuilding proposes is a spatial

situation of peace efforts understanding the city structure and dynamics that may hinder or reinforce peacebuilding which could be useful for CPPB training.

4.4. Constraints and facilitators for adopting novel training approaches

4.4.1 Internal Factors

Constraints

The vision and policy direction of the organisation can pose a constraint in including stress management and urban peacebuilding as part of their training focus. As seen in previous reports produced under WP3, there is an overwhelming trend in the CPPB field to focus on a series of 'mainstreamed' topic areas, and although significant work has been undertaken on stress management in other fields, organisations — and their staff — will need to develop a greater understanding of this area. The logistical aspects of developing training in these areas will also affect this. Both Stress management and urban peacebuilding trainings may require extra facilities and tools which may be very expensive for some CPPB organisations to implement.

Facilitating factors

Nevertheless, organisations can begin to develop comprehensive stress management modules that will equip practitioners with techniques and skills of overcoming mental and psychological stress before, during and after missions. This can be linked with wider networks of coaching, pastoral care (including counselling services, and charities aimed at providing emotional support to those in emotional distress), and stronger links with organisations which work with Post Traumatic Stress Disorder.

CPPB organisations could also undertake further research on the utility of urban peacebuilding in order to mainstream the concept and its approaches in CPPB training, This would require a dedicated operational approach that would translate extensive academic research into tangible strategies that enables integrated assessment, programming and evaluation, adapted to the city.

4.4.2. External Factors

Constraints

The first constraint is that of collaboration. The development of new training means that organisations who undertake this are effectively 'alone' in the early stages of the endeavour. Partners in the field may therefore not be well technically or materially equipped to effectively collaborate in implementing stress management and urban peacebuilding approaches in that context.

With the introduction of new course content, organisations may also be constrained through partner's willingness to fund training programmes in new fields. Regarding stress-management, the course may not at first glance appear to be 'mission critical' to some (in comparison with subject-specific areas such as DDR). However, its importance cannot be understated in maintaining the health and wellbeing of practitioners. Similarly, with Urban Peacebuilding, the significance of the topic is clear to see, however, the introduction of new course content into a well-populated field may mean it suffers.

Facilitation

Acquiring knowledge on stress management and urban peacebuilding is fundamental in developing the right training content that best suits their context. Not doing so may limit the effectiveness of the training programme Multi-sectoral consultations are essential in the planning, design and implementation of such training modules. This can include those with experience of deployment, professionals from the medical sciences, psychologists, and other professionals who work in traumatic environments (for instance, fire-fighters). Much of this relies on increased networking, cross-field communication, and the professional curiosity of those willing to engage in further training in this area.

Likewise, the role of external actors in integrating and mainstreaming the concept of urban peacebuilding in CPPB training is important. Here, there is a noted role for academic institutions, and policy organisations, who undertake research in to urban conflict transformation and resolution. Additionally, research from the humanitarian field can have a positive impact on developing urban peacebuilding content.

4.5. Conclusion

Advancing novelty in CPPB training requires that content of modules and courses provided are holistic and comprehensive in equipping practitioners with the tools and capacities to effectively implement CPPB in the field. This means that CPPB training must consistently identify novel approaches and concepts to address the changing nature of conflict. While this may be a frustrating and de-motivating activity for CPPB organisations, integrating novel concepts into CPPB training contents helps enrich the knowledge and skills provided as well as produce well qualified and capable personnel for CPPB projects. This chapter has underscored, stress management (including meme awareness) and urban peacebuilding, two of such novel concepts which have extensive utility in CPPB training contents but are lacking at the moment. Stress is a fundamental challenge for CPPB practitioners particularly those in conflict societies. This report thus proposes meme awareness as a novel concept for stress management in CPPB training. It further recommends the assessment and integration of urban peacebuilding in CPPB training as conflicts and violence are increasingly taking urban dimension. Overall, the report enunciates the importance of integrating these novel concepts in CPPB training contents across the EU and beyond.

5. Novelty in Training Methods

5.1. Push and Pull factors towards novel methods

Training in the CPPB field is not only associated with the transmission of knowledge or skills, but often also with the creation of networks between practitioners and their learning from each other rather than the trainer as such. Methods play a crucial role for this training goal. Indeed, training institutes in the field commonly put forth participatory learning methods, such as group work, class discussions, and role-play (for

""Training is one aspect, the network that you provide and help create is another, and it is at least as important as the contents of training." – Trainer

example). These have been extensively studied in previous PeaceTraining.eu reports (Tunney 2017b; Wolter & Tunney, 2017). The ENTRi project and its partner institutes adhere to this methodology, for example, and make it a requirement for the certification of CPPB courses. Theoretically, the preference for interaction between participants draws on adult (Knowles, 1984) and collaborative learning (Hmelo-Silver et al., 2013). Both paradigms hold that training participants learn better when engaging in discussion and working together with others than when only attending expert-based lectures.

The two case studies presented in this chapter may not at first glance seem a likely pairing. Arts Based Methods to CPPB, and the role of E-learning come from distinctly different fields. However, there are two important similarities which indicate a degree of compatibility. Firstly, both have been highlighted during this project and elsewhere as being new and exciting methods in delivery of CPPB training. This was highlighted in the case of E-learning in a previous report, which stated 'new technologies such as computer simulations and other forms of eLearning are rapidly developing, and the field should consider standards to ensure quality, determine when eLearning may or may not be appropriate, and best practice when implementing eLearning (Tunney, 2017b, p61). Secondly, both case studies speak to the idea of collaboration with participants in a training programme. In the case

"If participants just want to gather knowledge, sure, e-learning is no problem. But the major advantage of in-person training is the networking and the interactivity, the discussions with participants and trainer, and between participants." – Trainer

"If e-learning is modelled to increase human interaction, yes. For people who are geographically apart, it can enhance interaction and dialogue. Technology should enhance these types of spaces" — Trainer

of ABMs, it is physical communication, in the case of elearning it is virtual. With the importance of interaction between participants outlined above, the similarities between these two areas at least balance out the differences.

As positive group interaction does not come about automatically among people in a classroom, trainers often play a crucial role in supporting interaction by using icebreakers, discussion, and group work. Nonetheless, not everyone always participates equally in such training activities, for example due to introversion or shyness. The challenge of engendering social interaction forms an important push for seeking out new methods. In this regard, this chapter looks specifically at the use of Arts-Based Methods in engendering interactivity and fostering the development of social skills. The use of arts-based methods has been used effectively in the closely adjacent field of

peacebuilding, where it is used to bring together divided communities and creating a space for understanding and reconciliation. These methods can also be used to prepare practitioners for missions and projects in conflict-affected settings.

Another crucial training method in which interactivity has arisen as a major challenge, is e-learning.

Indeed, e-learning is by many associated with an individual learning experience, in which a participant goes through PowerPoint or pdf-files online that contain the learning content, but do not engage with other participants. This creates a push towards innovative methods for online collaborative learning. Indeed, a major pull factor of e-learning in the first place is its ability to bring together a range of people which are otherwise geographically apart. A second major challenge with current e-learning approaches in CPPB is that they are insufficiently focused on skills versus

"I prefer residential training for interaction, because I learn a lot through experiential methods and using all senses, not just looking at a screen or hearing someone. Sitting in front of a PC I don't have the same experience." — Peacebuilding practitioner

(factual) knowledge (e.g., organisational structure, legal rules). This challenge pushes for experiential e-learning, for instance through gaming.

5.2. Arts-Based Methods

In peacebuilding practice, the use of broader Arts-Based Methods can in itself be regarded as an innovative approach. The approach builds in part on the pioneering work of Allport (1954), who argued that by bringing two (opposing) cultural groups into contact with each other, people get to know 'the other' as a person, which reduced prior prejudices. The contact hypothesis has since received substantial support in empirical research (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). The approach also allows for emotional healing next to its potential for bringing people together.

Box 5.1 Musicians Without Borders

An example of the use of arts-based approaches is found in the work of Musicians Without Borders, who travel to conflict-affected communities and through music create positive spaces for traumahealing and reconciliation, in cooperation with local musicians and youths.

"Music creates empathy, builds connection and gives hope." www.musicianswithoutborders.org

ABMs entail the use of creative expression, through music, dance, theatre, painting, and sculpturing (amongst others) to deal with difficult or taboo subjects and negative emotions (Shank & Schirch, 2008). Through creative expression, positive emotions, healing, and reconciliation can be fostered. The approach is based on a fundamentally human-centred view on conflict and peace, including their psychological and emotional dimensions versus a strategic view focusing on economic and political power structures. Furthermore, the use of arts often associates closely with ongoing traditional practices for coping with negativity. As such, it also fits into an ecological approach to peacebuilding (see Chapter 3). ABMs in the CPPB field are increasingly used and funded, for example by USAID, the World Bank, and UNDP (Wood, 2015).

Yet, ABMs also hold potential in the area of CPPB training to help prepare personnel for deployment. Indeed, the use of these approaches in classroom trainings can help the development of durable

relationships between participants and mutual understanding. In CPPB activities, cooperation between staff from different national or sectoral backgrounds, within one organisation or across organisations, is crucial. Hence, intercultural communication is an important, but still insufficiently incorporated subject (Wolter *et al* 2017, p40, 44), in CPPB training. Besides the necessary training content for a mission or project, Arts-Based Methods can function as a method to 'teach' social skills & communication. It could potentially be more effective than current participatory approaches such as group work, to build self-confidence among training participants and to engage in public debate and exchange. Furthermore, the use of ABMs can be an innovative approach not only in preparing personnel for deployment, but also for debriefing and feedback upon return from conflict-affected settings by creating spaces for emotional healing and /or stress-relief (see Chapter 4).

Finally, the use of Arts-Based Methods can be used as a method to bring international practitioners and local communities together by building trust with local communities and integrating internationals into the local context through facilitating understanding of local conceptions of peace and identity.

Box 5.2 offers a range of examples of Arts Based Methods in operation. These examples were drawn from the work of the Institute for Conflict Research.

Box 5.2: Arts Based Methods in Practice. Examples from ICR (Northern Ireland)

ISSUE	INTERVENTION	OUTPUTS & OUTCOMES
Racist incidents on a housing estate between white and recently arrived residents from south India	Project with musicians from Indian and white community with a professional jazz drummer to develop shared understanding and address conflict through a series of musical workshops and facilitated dialogues around prejudice.	Public performance of musical composition and participation in multi-ethnic festival Police have reported a reduction in racist incidents in the estate.
Dealing with the legacy of conflict in Northern Ireland	Two separate projects with former members of security forces and former prisoners to design and produce free standing stained-glass window.	Stained-glass window launched at an event by Irish President and displayed in public venues in Northern Ireland, London and Dublin.
Lack of respect and understanding of culture and identity of marginalised Traveller (gypsy) community.	Storytelling project with Traveller women and a poet and photographer to help women record their stories and convey their culture and experiences.	Production of a book which has been made available in all libraries in Northern Ireland. The libraries provide a reader for any non-literate people wishing to access the book.
Anti-social behaviour by young men as part of preparations for annual festival involving burning a large public bonfire.	Project involving the design and development of street furniture utilising materials that had been collected for bonfires.	Potential for expanding the project into a social economy business. Discussions with local councils and police to expand and extend the programme.
Engage with young men at risk of radicalisation.	Accredited training programme involving music and theatre workshops, and including engagement with former members of security forces.	Play performed at Belfast International Arts Festival and at Holocaust Memorial Day. Young men have continued writing own plays in local community.
Lack of engagement between women from different ethnic communities in rural areas	Photographic programme to explore the impact of conflict and divisions on local history and sense of place.	Exhibition displayed as part of an international summer school.

5.3. New approaches towards e-learning: Collaborative online learning, Gaming, Simulations, and Sandboxing

Although e-learning can be considered as "the use of information and computer technologies to create learning experiences" (Horton, 2006, p.1), the ways in which e-learning is implemented can vary widely. In many instances, training institutes make use of Learning Management Systems (LMS), such as Blackboard, to distribute learning materials (e.g., texts, video's, podcasts) to individual participants (Piña, 2013). The materials can be distributed in a blended learning format, combining online and offline or classroom learning (e.g., Bonk and Graham, 2006; Singh, 2003), or a fully online course (e.g., Massive Open Online Course or MOOC). Challenges with e-learning, both in terms of interactivity and level of learning attained, have brought about important new developments in e-learning with strong potential applications in CPPB training.

5.3.1. Collaborative online learning

For educational specialists, the increasing use of e-learning has posed challenges towards the principles of collaborative learning. Often, scholars and trainers found that e-learning consisted basically of syllabus text put online (e.g., PowerPoint presentation), where participants can click through (Caplan, 2004; Mason, 2001). This raised concern on the quality and effectiveness of training. A lack of interactivity or a sense of community can lead to low student performance, satisfaction, and attrition, for example (Haythornthwaite et al., 2000; Morgan & Tam, 1999; Rovai & Jordan, 2004). Indeed, online courses have substantially higher drop-out rates than traditional courses (Clow, 2013).

With the goal of fostering interactivity in e-learning, novel approaches have drawn on developments in online social networks. 'Web 2.0' or 'social web,' including blogs, wikis, social networking sites (amongst others) offer multiple opportunities for creating engagement between course participants online (Du et al., 2012; Rodrigues, Sabinou, and Zhou, 2010). Yet incorporating such online tools does not automatically create interaction and collaborative learning (Kreijns, Kirschner, and Jochems, 2003). While many online possibilities exist, more guidance is often needed on how to make effective use of them. Factors such as accessibility and intuitiveness of design naturally play a role in the takeup of e-learning and collaborative online tools by users. Yet specific attention should also be devoted to online moderators or facilitators.

Emphasis on the role of an online facilitator draws on practices in online communities (Lazar and Preece, 2002; Preece, Nonnecke, and Andrews, 2004). Online communities or networks are created around certain topics that interest users (hobbies, support groups) and also by businesses as marketing tools. They do not necessarily have learning goals. Facebook is well-known as a social network site which allows users to create online communities. While many online communication tools exists, they often take the form and guiding principles of discussion boards. Nonetheless, many rarely show user engagement and eventually die out.

'Lurking' happens when members of an online community never post or rarely contribute to the conversations within the community (Lazar and Preece, 2002; Preece, Nonnecke, and Andrews, 2004). While some members might not have the intention to post, but rather look for information, research suggests that many 'lurkers' do not engage in interaction because they lack a sense of community with the group. They do not 'feel' a member, but an outsider, or are shy about posting online. A highly active community therefore requires good interaction support and moderation. Moderators are commonly recognised to play crucial roles in online communities. They enforce

discussion rules (e.g., no inflammatory language or off-topic conversations), but also actively facilitate discussion by engaging new members, guiding conversations, or posting new content. Some

of these tasks can also be taken up by community leaders, who are experienced members and guide newcomers, make them feel welcome, and explain posting rules or software specifics.

Drawing from the role of the moderator in online communities, the role of the online facilitator in training contexts has been increasingly recognised (Baran, Correia & Thompson, 2011; McPherson and Nunes, 2003; Salmon, 2003). A main task of the online teacher is to create a sense of community between participants who do not meet face-to-face. This can be done by making space for participant introductions and making use of online 'icebreakers' in order for participants to feel comfortable with each other. Unless all course participants are highly engaged by themselves, which is rare due to personality (e.g., shyness) and attitudinal (not as interested in topic) differences, being an online tutor requires continuous engagement with participants in order for them to interact with other participants and also have meaningful exchanges. Online facilitators can also make use

In a virtual classroom, an online learning environment is created which can take the appearance of a classroom, or café (Childress & Braswell, 2006). Such a virtual classroom (e.g., created via the Second Life platform) can be a place for users to communicate via chat and for the teacher to leave instructions, but also to engage in synchronous collaborative learning. Teachers can instruct students to engage in online group discussion, for example, but can also implement jigsaw or think-pair-share techniques online.

of virtual classrooms to replicate online the participatory approaches used in classroom situations such as group work and class discussions. These methods already draw on the potential of online gaming.

5.3.2. **Gaming**

The use of gaming approaches in CPPB training can improve both interactivity and skill-based or experiential learning. With regard to interactivity, it is interesting to look more closely to Massively Multiplayer Online Game (MMOG)/Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Game (MMORPG) (Childress & Braswell, 2006; Cole & Griffiths, 2007; Ducheneaut & Moore, 2005; Romero et al. 2012). Examples of the latter are EverQuest, World of Warcraft, or Final Fantasy XI and XIV.

In MMORPGs, the gamer chooses an avatar or online persona with a particular skill set (e.g., warrior, mage etc) and explores a large-scale virtual world where specific quests can be pursued. Other players from all over the world explore the same virtual world at the same time or at different times. Particularly interesting with regard to MMORPGs is that they allow users to interact with each other and often allow smaller groups to form in clans or guilds or to team up for particular quests (e.g., difficult dungeons, high-level enemies). While the game does not necessarily force players to team up, specific quests or battles tend to require group work. Moreover, players with different skills are commonly needed in the team, for example offensive and defensive characters in a battle as well as support units (e.g., healing mage). As such, positive interdependencies are created within the group, where the whole team is needed to complete the task.

The potential of gaming applications for collaborative learning, and in particular with regard to MMORPGs, has been recognised in the educational literature (e.g., de Freitas & Griffiths, 2007; Reuter et al., 2013). Although online gaming and MMORPGs are sometimes associated with anti-

social behaviour, isolation, and addiction, many players accord high value to the social interactions provided in such games and the sense of community they can bring, and actively pursue such social connections (e.g., Cole & Griffiths, 2007; Kolo & Baur, 2004). Interestingly, it is exactly this sense of community and the importance attached to the online group that can play an important role in the development of addiction (Hsu, Wen, and Wu, 2009). While MMORPGs are started because of a search for social interactions, playing them is also associated with the development of social or 'soft' skills, such as interpersonal communication and team work (e.g., Ducheneaut & Moore, 2005). The potential for collaboration and social skills of MMORPGs has led educators to develop own games on similar principles for teaching purposes.

In CPPB the creation of gaming applications can also support collaborative learning and social skills. As discussed above, the role players take up the tasks they want to achieve and the incentives to cooperate are all important features of collaborative gaming design. Some group work tasks that are currently implemented in training, such as mediation role-plays, conflict analysis exercises, and designing of peacebuilding interventions could potentially be rediscovered in online gaming formats. Such exercises can help people look at conflicts from different perspectives (according to the role they take up) and stimulate interagency cooperation and coordination (different stakeholders working together on a task). The latter can take the example of the Mekong e-Sim (2002) game, in which students take up the roles of different stakeholders in the economic and ecological development of the Mekong region. Through such games, students are reported to have sharpened their collaborative skills, including teambuilding and decision making.

The above discussion also demonstrates the potential for gaming in experiential learning. For now, gaming for skill-based learning has mostly been used for military applications (see Virtual Afghanistan village box 5.3), where virtual simulation creates a safe environment for practice and can reduce operational costs, including on equipment. Yet gaming can also be used for civilian training including conflict analysis and peacebuilding programming, and the development of intercultural communication skills, for example.

Box 5.3: Virtual Afghanistan village (Metavar 2017)

To meet the needs of training NATO soldiers for coalition operations in Afghanistan, MetaVR™ has built 3D geospecific terrain of the entire country of Afghanistan, covering 647,500 sq. km, featuring a high-resolution virtual village with over 650 buildings in the Afghan province of Kabul. This virtual village and it's surrounding mountainous terrain is optimized for conducting ground combat simulations and preparing soldiers for Afghanistan and other mountainous regions.

For gaming development, the application of sandboxing principles also holds important potential. The sandboxing idea stems from computer science and in principle creates a safe closed environment in which programmes can be launched without them being able to affect the computer (e.g., viruses) (Singh, 2014). A sandbox game is known as an open-world game, which has not predefined stages and play through. A well-known example is Minecraft (https://minecraft.net/de-de/). An integral part of the sandbox is complete freedom of action within a defined system. The sense of the game is not to complete a goal but to ideate and create something from scratch. By playing around with the limits of the environments often very complex systems and solutions are created that were not foreseen by the creators of the sandbox (Minecraft Gamepedia, 2017).

Using the sandbox concept for CPPB training would allow to build up a safe environment in which the user can play around and identify how the environment reacts to particular actions. By actually doing concrete actions the user learns based on trial and error. In addition, the parameters of the environment can be adapted (e.g., number of conflicting parties, level of aggression of parties , etc.) and thereby different kinds of situations can be created and tested. Compared to typical real life situational simulations the sandbox would allow a broader operating range, much more variations and far more potential actions and reactions. Hence, the sandboxing idea can be used for training for different missions and activities across time and space.

5.4. Constraints and facilitators for adopting new methods

5.4.1. Internal organisational factors

Challenges

A major constraint at the organisation level is the lack of experience of organisation members with novel approaches such as arts-based methods and novel e-learning methods. A lack of knowledge among organisational staff can create aversion for changes in these directions. It could also require the hiring of new staff and new costs. In particular in the framework of e-learning technological costs for development (and maintenance) can be high. E-learning applications are hence often only taken up by large-scale government initiatives or international organisations, and to a lesser extent smaller-scale civil society initiative.

Yet concerning e-learning development, it is important to recognize that many course organisers see its benefit in cost reduction and the fact that many users can learn by themselves, at their own pace, without a trainer being required. When switching to online courses that make extensive use of facilitators, for example, course participants are necessarily limited to a smaller group and have to abide by certain time schedules. However, many institutes work with blended formats because of the value they place on face-to-face contacts for social interaction. Such courses can potentially be transferred to fully online formats, given extensive preparation and training. These e-learning formats will not reach a massive number of participants, but do reduce transport and accommodation costs. Clearly, the facilitator remains crucial, needs specific online skill sets —crucial criteria for trainer recruitment—, and adequate remuneration. Online teaching is not necessarily something that can be done at low costs, with limited working hours devoted to it. Potential misconceptions at the institutional level that can challenge the effective implementation of e-learning should hence also be recognised.

Facilitators

Yet among organisational staff, there can also be important facilitators for new methods. Personal interests among staff members in creative expression or gaming can engender a pull for new initiatives and ideas in these domains. Often organisational staff, trainers, and practitioners are also connected in social networks that are used to share experiences (e.g., Facebook, WhatsApp) and which can also facilitate a move towards using social networks to actively create learning experiences. Such developments do not necessarily require high costs in terms of technology, for instance.

5.4.2. Factors external to the organisation

Challenges

As many training organisations are dependent on donor funding, proposals for new methods also need to coincide with donor priorities. Donors can be averse towards the unknown, which can be considered risky and unproven. This could, for example, obstruct the use of arts-based methods in CPPB training. For e-learning aversion can also be high as costs can be large. Yet furthermore, the system in which organisations are depending on project funding for training activities creates uncertainty on future funding. Hence, developing e-learning applications which are not supported by core funding can create risks for their continued use and maintenance for training purposes.

Both Arts-Based Methods and e-learning also need to be adapted to context. What works for certain groups and cultures, does not necessarily work for others in using creative expression. This can be especially important when bringing different cultures together (e.g., international practitioners and local populations). The development of e-learning tools also needs to be able to adapt to changing realities on the ground and in conflict-settings, as well as changing doctrines and operational rules of international organisations. Furthermore, especially in conflict-affected settings, low connectivity can create obstacles for the use of e-learning tools.

Facilitators

As international organisations are increasingly funding Arts-Based Methods in peacebuilding (Wood, 2015), this could support change in the use of such methods for personnel training. In terms of elearning, important donors also actively support and seek out novel approaches in e-learning. This is because for international organisations, such as the UN, the EU, and the OSCE, e-learning is more cost-efficient with an increasing number of missions being deployed and staff to be trained (Bellamy & Williams, 2015, p. 20; Gowan, 2015).

For example, several projects funded under the European Commission's Horizon 2020 programme have the explicit objective to develop new online applications in the CPPB field. The IECEU 'Improving the Effectiveness of the Capabilities (IEC) in EU conflict prevention' project, for instance, has developed an online platform with course modules and quizzes, which focuses on the lessons learned in the project after reviewing several CSDP missions. The GAP 'Gaming for Peace' project has the goal to develop a gaming module that trains soft skills for deployment in international peace missions. The PeaceTraining.eu project itself will develop a web platform that functions as a knowledge hub and networking space for trainers and practitioners in Europe.

5.4.3. Implementation factors

Challenges

To implement new methods, one needs experienced trainers or facilitators in their respective domains, be this Arts-Based Methods or online facilitation for collaborative learning. Yet learners themselves can also place constraints on the use of new methods. Attitudinal dispositions can make certain participants averse for Arts-Based Methods. Perhaps these are the same participants which are not necessarily in favour of participatory approaches and group interactions. The use of Arts-Based Methods in training also has no fixed trajectory or end-result. What comes out of the method is relatively unknown, which creates uncertainty and unforeseen consequences. This can be related to findings in PeaceTraining.eu's previous reports. The *Report on current training methods for peace building and conflict prevention* ran a series of SWOT analysis on a range of methods. When outlining Arts Based Methods, the report outlined

'ABMs are more open to 'uncertainty' and unforeseen dynamics, developments and outcomes. If trainers are not adept, poorly experienced, or too rigid/controlling in their approach, they may not know how to engage well with these; If not implemented and introduced well to participants, participants may at times not trust / credit the approach/method, and lose confidence in the programme and/or in the trainer for using it.' (Tunney 2017b, p60)

For the implementation of e-learning tools, attitudes towards technology can also play a role towards their positive reception, with potential age, gender, and cultural differences. Technological knowhow as such also plays a role.

Facilitators

Facilitators for implementation can, however, also be found among learners. New types of training methods could give participants a new, different, and exciting experience. Positive reception is arguably one of the best change facilitators when testing a 'product'. These dynamics can play for both arts-based and novel e-learning approaches. Ongoing technological development and the mainstreaming of social network usage among training participants (for instance, Facebook) can also further stimulate the adoption of such methods for learning.

5.5. Conclusion

The need for participant-centred learning (Wolter *et al* 2017 p.37-39) and practical, skill-based learning (Tunney 2017a, p28-34) are some of the general challenges identified in current CPPB practice. This chapter has described how Arts-Based Methods and novel e-learning methods can contribute towards this goal. Arts-Based Methods are an innovative practice in peacebuilding, yet their rationale and methodology can have important applications in CPPB training. E-learning in itself is already used in the field of CPPB training, yet current applications face important challenges with regard to interactivity and levels of learning. Hence, the potential of novel e-learning applications, which draw from online social networks and gaming and are already being investigated in the educational literature, is large. As with the introduction of novelty in approaches and content, the introduction of new methods faces important constraints. Nonetheless, the push and pull factors towards their use, as well as facilitators in the process of their adoption are also present.

6. Conclusions

6.1. Reflections from chapters

The chapters in this report have provided a series of examples of novel approaches, training content and training methods, which could be further used by those working in the CPPB field. They are based on previous research undertaken by PeaceTraining.eu, which (as has been seen), identified a number of gaps in CPPB curricula and methods. Again, this is not to make a value judgement on what is a hugely comprehensive field of activities, ideas, and initiatives. More so, it is to respond to possible blind-spots through the use of bringing new ideas to the fore.

The value in doing this is twofold. Firstly are the ideas themselves, represented in the nine case studies. From *ecological peacebuilding* to Arts Based Methods, this report has sought to use the experience and professional curiosity of its authors to provide a series of novel approaches, content and methods. These case studies demonstrate that there is a significant array of approaches beyond the CPPB field, all of which can be utilised within it.

It also demonstrates however, that time is required for research into new areas. What is an interesting idea may only remain at that stage unless institutes allow their staff the time to look further in depth at an area which they are unaccustomed to. Time and research would allow staff to reach out to other fields, understand training processes, and develop ways in which such new ideas can be brought to the CPPB field.

This brings us to the second main point of the case studies. Each has been developed with 'real-world' application in mind. Although it is in the view of this report that the case studies are worthy of further investigation, research, and operationalisation in training programmes, it is also notable that constraints to their operationalisation have been considered. The report would be incomplete if it did not do this. Some novel case studies may appear to be more straightforward than others to implement, with the development of new approaches to training possibly forcing more radical change than the introduction of new methods. However all require a degree of change management, incorporation of new skills and personnel.

Nevertheless, even if the case study areas outlined in the report are not to the reader's liking, there are some broader themes to consider.

6.2. Constraints

This report argues that in order for CPPB organisations to continue to embrace novelty, it is significant that points of resistance to novelty are identified. Throughout the report, the constraining factors have been coupled with those factors that can facilitate novel change in approaches, content, and methods. It has been written that way so that readers can have a broader understanding of the role of organisations, external factors, and implementation factors in adopting novelty.

Undertaking new and novel approaches requires to some degree a leap of faith. This may be carried out by an individual who has developed a new method to deal with a particular group of participants, or an entire organisation which seeks to undertake a review of how it establishes and carries out training programmes. As has been seen in ABM's, these leaps of faith have been rewarded with results in community cohesion. In other areas, the rewards could be tangible. Novel course content which aims to deal with Stress Management could have significant impacts on the long-term health

of staff. However, not all novelty equates to success. At times, the introduction of a novel approach may be met with resistance. This is not to say that being novel is a bad idea: more so, it could be small parts of the change require fine-tuning. The understanding of constraints (as well as a degree of patience) therefore becomes more important.

6.3. Push and pull — a healthy combination?

It is the belief of this report that a mix of push and pull factors is a healthy combination in developing novelty in the CPPB area. Should trainers be driven by nothing but push factors, then more significant questions may have to be asked about the field, and the organisations that trainers work for. Should trainers only be interested in those pull factors for development, then there is a danger that the existing models that trainers and organisations use are constantly unsustainable. There is no exact science to what constitutes a healthy balance. However, in the constant development of new ideas, attention should be paid to the process of decision making.

6.4. The role of organisational leadership

Organisational leadership is significant in fostering an atmosphere for novelty. In the Novelty Workshop, 'lack of confidence' was highlighted as a constraint for implementation of novel approaches. This may firstly sound like a personal challenge, but it is inherently one which requires a broad response at an organisational level.

It is here where organisational leadership can have a significant impact on providing the time, space, and atmosphere which encourages novelty. This may come in staff training, clearing houses for novel approaches, allowing staff exchanges, and building and maintaining communities of practice.

With the above in mind, whilst advocating novel approaches, the report is aware that the pressure to be 'novel' can have negative effects. This was highlighted in the conclusion of Chapter 2, which noted that some participants at the Novelty Workshop indicated ambivalence over the requirement to embrace novelty. Not all CPPB trainers are the same, and each works at different speeds. Organisations and leadership should understand their own staff's development and abilities to undertake new approaches, content and methods. Moreover, attention should be paid to the participants who receive training, their needs, and learning styles. Finally, and most importantly, when looking at novel approaches, attention should be paid to those who will be engaging with the trained participants once deployed. The work of a CPPB organisation will ultimately feed into conflict and post-conflict environments, so it is important that the treatment of approaches, content, and method reflect and complement the context of deployment.

7. References

Allport, G.W., (1954). The Nature of Prejudice. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley

Ballone, E. (2007). Stress Management and Factors Related to the Deployment of Italian Peacekeepers in Afghanistan, *Military Medicine*, 172(2), pp. 140-143

Baran, E., A.P. Correia, A. Thompson, (2011). Transforming online teaching practice: critical analysis of the literature on the roles and competencies of online teachers. *Distance Education*, 32(3), pp. 421-439.

Barbelet, V. (2015). *Central African Republic: Addressing the Protection Crisis*. London: Humanitarian Policy Group. ODI.

Barnes, C., H. Hassan, (2007). The Rise and Fall of Mogadishu's Islamic Courts. *Journal of Eastern Africa Studies*, 1(2), pp. 151-160.

Barto, A., M. Mirolli, G. Baldassarre, (2013). Novelty or Surprise? *Frontiers in Psychology*, Volume 4 Article 907

Bartone, P.T., A.B. Adler, M.A Vaitkus. (1998). Dimensions of psychological stress in peacekeeping operations. *Military Medicine*, 163, pp. 587–593

Bateman, A.W., P. Fonagy (2012). (eds). *Handbook of Mentalizing in Mental Health Practice*. APA Washington

Becker, M. C., T. Knudsen, (2006). Schumpeter, Winter, and the Sources of Novelty, *Industrial and Corporate Change*, April

Bellamy, A.J., P.D. Williams, (2015). Trends in Peace Operations, 1947–2013. In J. Koops, T. Tardy, MacQueen, N., and P.D. Williams (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of United Nations Peacekeeping Operations* (pp. 13-42). Oxford: Oxford University Press;

Björkdahl, A. (2013). Urban Peacebuilding. Peacebuilding, 1(2), pp. 207-221.

Bollens, S.A. (1999). *Urban Peacebuilding in Divided Societies: Belfast and Johannesburg*. Boulder: Westview Press.

Bonk, C.J., C.R. Graham, (2006). The Handbook of Blended Learning: Global Perspectives, Local Designs. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

Bosetti, L., H. Cooper, J. De Boer, M. Munshey, (2016, April 12). *Peacekeeping in Cities: Is the UN prepared? Retrieved June 2017,* 6, from Centre for Policy Research. United Nations University. Found at: https://cpr.unu.edu/peacekeeping-in-cities-is-the-un-prepared.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

Caplan, D. (2004). The development of online courses. In Anderson, T., F. Elloumi, (Eds.) Theory and Practice of Online Learning (pp. 175-194). Athabasca University, online book.

Childress, M.D., R. Braswell, (2006). Using Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing for online learning. *Distance Education*, 27(2), pp. 187-196.

Clow, D. (2013). *MOOCs and the funnel of participation. In: Third Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge (LAK 2013), 8-12 April 2013, Leuven, Belgium, pp. 185-189.*

Cole, H., M. Griffiths, (2007). Social interactions in Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Gamers. *Cyber Psychology & Behaviour*, 10(4), pp. 575-583.

Collins (2001) Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners,

De Boer, J., R. Muggah, R. Patel, (2016). *Conceptualizing City Fragility and Resilience. Working Paper* 5. United Nations University Centre for Policy Research.

De Freitas, S., M. Griffiths, (2007). Online gaming as an educational tool in learning and training. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 38(3), pp. 535-537.

Donegan, M. (2017), Rebecca Solnit's Faith in Feminist Storytelling, *The New Yorker*, April 5 2017, found at: http://www.newyorker.com/books/page-turner/rebecca-solnits-faith-in-feminist-storytelling (accessed 23 August 2017)

Dorn, A.W. (2009). *Intelligence-led Peacekeeping: The United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH), 2006–07*. Intelligence and National Security, 24(6), pp. 805-835.

Du, Z., X. Fu, C. Zhao, Q. Liu, T. Liu, (2013). Interactive and collaborative e-learning platform with integrated social software and learning management system. In W. Lu, G. Cai, W. Liu, W. Xing (eds.), Proceedings of the 2012 International Conference on Information Technology and Software Engineering, *Lecture Notes in Electrical Engineering* 212 (pp.11-18). Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2013

Ducheneaut, N., R.J. Moore, (2005). More than just 'XP': learning social skills in massively multiplayer online games. *Interactive Technology & Smart Education*, 2(2), pp. 89-100.

Dziedzic, M., R.M. Perito, (2008). *Haiti. Confronting the Gangs of Port-au-Prince*. Washington DC: USIP.

ENTRi (2014), Libya Pre-Deployment Course Pisa 2014 ENTRi II, Final Narrative Report, Annex.Freear M., C. De Coning, (2013). Lessons from the African Union Mission for Somalia (AMISOM) for Peace Operations in Mali. *Stability: International Journal for Security & Development*, 2(2), pp. 1-11.

Frigotto, M.L. (2107), Novelty in adaptation, In, M. Augier, D. J. Teece, *Palgrave Encyclopaedia of Strategic Management*, Palgrave

Salmon, G. (2003), *E-moderating: The key to Teaching and Learning Online*. 2nd edition. New York: Routledge.

Gowan, R. (2015). 10 Trends in Peace Operations. Found at:

http://peaceoperationsreview.org/thematic-essays/10-trends-in-peace-operations/ (Accessed 2 March 2017)

Gusic, I. (2013). Bringing Cities In. The Urbanization of Critical Peacebuilding. Lund: Lund University.

Haythornthwaite, C., M.M. Kazmer, J. Robins, S. Shoemaker, (2000). Community development among distance learners: temporal and technological dimensions. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 6(1).

Hmelo-Silver, C.E., C.A Chinn, C.K.K Chan, A. O'Donnel, Eds. (2013). *The International Handbook of Collaborative Learning*. New York: Routledge.

Horton, W. (2006). E-Learning By Design. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.

Hsu, S.W, M.H. Wen, M.C. Wu, (2009). Exploring user experiences as predictors of MMORPG addiction. *Computers & Education*, 53, pp. 990–999.

Janssen, M., A.M.V. Stoopendaal, K. Putters, (2015). Situated novelty: Introducing a process perspective on the study of innovation, *Research Policy*, 44 pp. 1974-1984

Knowles, M. (1984). The Adult Learner. Gulf Publishing Company

Kreijns, K., P.A. Kirschner, W. Jochems, (2003). Identifying the pitfalls for social interaction in computer-supported collaborative learning environments: a review of the research. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 19(3), pp. 335-353.

Lazar, J., J. Preece, (2002). Social considerations in online communities: usability, sociability, and success factors. In H. van Oostendorp, *Cognition in the Digital World*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc. Publishers, Mahwah: NJ.

Lederach, J.P. (1996). Preparing for Peace: Conflict Transformation Across Cultures. New York, Syracuse

Longman (2014). Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English: Advanced Learners, 6th Edition

Lucchi, E. (2013). Humanitarian Interventions in Situations of Urban Violence. London: ALNAP, ODI.

Mason, R. (2001). Models of Online Courses. Education at a Distance, 15(70). Found at http://www.johnsilverio.com/EDUI6704-7804/Assignment1AReadings/ModelsOfOnlineClass.pdf (accessed 24 August 2017)

McPherson, M., M.B. Nunes, (2003). The role of tutors as an integral part of online learning support. *European Journal of Open, Distance, and E-Learning*,

http://www.eurodl.org/?p=archives&year=2004&halfyear=1&article=105 (accessed 25 August 2017)

Mehlum L. (1999). Alcohol and Stress in Norwegian United Nations Peacekeepers, *Military Medicine*, 164(10), pp. 720-724

Metavar (2017), Virtual Afghan Village, found at:

https://www.metavr.com/technology/afghan_village.html (accessed 24 August 2017)

Minecraft Gamepedia (2017). *Tutorials/Redstone computers*. Retrieved from:

http://minecraft.gamepedia.com/Tutorials/Redstone_computers (accessed 25 August 2017)

Morgan, C.K, M. Tam (1999). Unravelling the complexities of distance education student attrition. Distance Education, 20(1), pp. 96-108.

Nichols, A. R., L. Jones (2013). Psychology in Sports Coaching, Abingdon, Routledge

OUP (2015). Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, 9th Edition

Peirce, J. (2007). Protection for whom? Stabilisation and Coercive Rule in Haiti. *Paterson Review*, 8, pp. 93-106.

Pettigrew, T.F., L.R. Tropp (2006). A Meta-Analytic Test of Intergroup Contact Theory. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90(5), 751-783

Piña, A.A. (2013). Learning Management Systems: A Look at the Big Picture. In Kats, Y. (Ed.), Learning Management Systems and Instructional Design: Best Practices in Online Education. Hershey: IGI Global. pp.1-19

Pouligny, B. (2006). Peace Operations Seen from Below: UN Missions and Local People. Bloomfield, Kumarian Press.

Preece, J., B. Nonnecke, D. Andrews (2004). The top five reasons for lurking: improving community experiences for everyone. *Computers in Human Behaviour*, 20, pp. 201-223.

Ramsbotham, O., T. Woodhouse, H. Miall (2011). *Contemporary Conflict Resolution (3rd Edition).* Cambridge, Polity Press.

Rodrigues, J.J.P.C., F.M.R. Sabinou, L. Zhou (2010). Enhancing e-learning experience with online social networks. *IET Communications*, 5(8), pp. 1147–1154.

Romero, M., M. Usart, M. Ott, J. Earp (2012). *Learning through playing for or against each other? Promoting collaborative learning in digital game based learning*. ECIS 2012 Proceedings, Paper 93.

Rovai, A.P., H.M. Jordan (2004). Blended learning and sense of community: A comparative analysis with traditional and fully online graduate courses. International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 5(2).

Shank, M., L. Schirch, (2008). Strategic Arts-Based Peacebuilding. *Peace & Change*, 33(2), pp. 217–242

Sheikh, H. (2010). Building Structures for Peace. How to Administer Mogadishu. Whose peace is it anyway? *Connecting Somali and international peacemaking*, 21, pp. 80-83.

Shigemura J., S. Nomura (2002). Mental Health Issues of Peacekeeping Workers, *Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*, 56, pp. 483-491

Singh, A. (2004). A Taste of Computer Security. Found at:

http://www.kernelthread.com/publications/security/sandboxing.html (accessed 24 August 2017)

Singh, H. (2003). Building effective blended learning programs. Educational Technology, 43(6), pp. 51-54

Sports Coach UK (2013). The UKCC Level 4 Support Guide (2nd ed), leeds, Sports Coach UK, found at: http://www.ukcoaching.org/sites/default/files/scuk-L4-Support-Guide_0.html, p4

Strumsky, D., J. Lobo (2015). Identifying the sources of technological novelty in the process of invention, *Research Policy*, 44, pp. 1145-1461

Taitto, P. (2015). Training for the CSDP missions. In J. Rehrl, G. Glume (Eds.). *Handbook on CSDP Missions and Operations*, pp. 260-262

Tunney, E. (2017, confidential). *Stakeholder Interview Summary Report.* (Deliverable 3.3). PeaceTraining.eu.

Tunney, E. (2017b). Report on current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention. (Deliverable 3.4). Peacetraining.eu.

UNGA (2015, October 21). *The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. UN doc. A/RES/70/1, New York.

United Nations (2009). Core Pre-Deployment Training Materials. Found at: http://repository.un.org/bitstream/handle/11176/89573/CPTM_All.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y (accessed 24 August 2017)

United Nations (2017). Peacekeeping Resource Hub: Frequently Asked Questions, New York, United Nations, Found at: http://research.un.org/en/peacekeeping-community/FAQ (accessed 24 August 2017)

von Billerbeck, S.B.K. (2015). Local Ownership and UN Peacebuilding: Discourse Versus Operationalization. *Global Governance* 21: pp. 299-315

Wiesenthal, C., M. Rößler (2015). Stress Management in Peace Operations, Berlin, ZiF

Williams, P.D. (2009). Into the Mogadishu Maelstrom: The African Union Mission in Somalia. *International Peacekeeping*, 16(4), pp. 514-530.

Wolter, S., A.M. Leiberich (2017). Baseline research and stakeholder report on conflict prevention and peacebuilding training. (Deliverable 3.1). PeaceTraining.eu.

Wolter, S., A. Tanase, K. Brand Jacobsen, D. Curran (2017). *Existing Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention Curricula Report (Deliverable 3.2)*. PeaceTraining.eu.

Wolter, S., E. Tunney (2017). *Integrated Assessment Report on EU's CPPB Capabilities (Deliverable 3.5)*, PeaceTraining.eu

Wood, K. (2015). *The Arts and Peacebuilding: An Emerging Approach*, Washington, USIP, Found at: https://www.usip.org/insights-newsletter/the-arts-and-peacebuilding-emerging-approach (accessed 24 August 2017)

Zmud R.W. (1984). An Examination of Push-Pull Theory Applied to Process Innovation in Knowledge Work, *Management Science*, 30(6), pp. 727-738

Further Reading on individual Case Studies:

Approaches

Ecological Peacebuilding

Boege, V. (2006). *Traditional Approaches to Conflict Transformation: Potential and Limits*. Found at: http://www.berghof-

foundation.org/fileadmin/redaktion/Publications/Handbook/Articles/boege_handbook.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Boege, V., (2006). Bougainville and the Discovery of Slowness: An Unhurried Approach to State-building in the Pacific, Australian Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies occasional papers series (Issue 3), University of Queensland. Australian Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies

Edith Cowan University (2012). 8 Aboriginal Ways of Learning Factsheet. Found at: https://intranet.ecu.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0016/510073/8-Aboriginal-ways-of-learning-factsheet.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Higgins, J. (2011). *Peace-building Through Listening, Digital Storytelling, and Community Media in Cyprus.*Found at https://www.academia.edu/8458982/Peace-building_Through_Listening_Digital_Storytelling_and_Community_Media_in_Cyprus (accessed 25 August 2017)

http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001202/120200e.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Huyse, L., M. Salter. (2008). Traditional Justice and Reconciliation after Violent Conflict. Available online at: http://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/traditional-justice-and-reconciliation-after-violent-conflict-learning-from-african-experiences_0.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Lederach, J.P. (2005) *The Moral Imagination: The Art and Soul of Building Peace*, New York, Oxford University Press

McGee, P. (2014). The Instructional Value of Digital Storytelling: Higher Education, Professional, and Adult Learning Settings. Abingdon, Routledge

Murithi, T. (2006). African Approaches to Building Peace and Social Solidarity. African Journal of Conflict Resolution, 6(2) Available online: http://www.accord.org.za/ajcr-issues/%EF%BF%BCafrican-approaches-to-building-peace-and-social-solidarity/ (accessed 25 August 2017)

Nakashima, D. (2000) Tapping into the World's Wisdom, Sources, 125, pp 11-12, Found at

Obiekwe, K. (2009). In Search of Appropriate Peacemaking/Peacebuilding Paradigm in Dealing with Africa's Intrastate Violent Conflicts: Considering Lederach's Faith-based Conflict Transformation and Peacebuilding Approach, *Journal of Peace, Conflict and Development*, Issue 13, February 2009. Found at: http://www.bradford.ac.uk/social-sciences/peace-conflict-and-development/issue-13/Issue-13-article-11-formatted-pdf.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Schirch, L. (2005). Ritual and Symbol in Peacebuilding. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press

Sports Coaching:

Bompa, T.O., G.G Haff, (2009) *Periodization: Theory and Methodology of Training, 5th Edition, Illinois:*Human Kinetics

Cárdenas, A. (2013) 'Peace Building Through Sport? An Introduction to Sport for Development and Peace', *Journal of Conflictology*, 4(1), 24-33

Dyck, C. B. (2011) Football and Post-War Reintegration: exploring the role of sport in DDR processes in Sierra Leone, *Third World Quarterly*, 32(3), 395-415

Giulianotti, R., H. Hognestad & R. Spaaij (2016) Sport for Development and Peace: Power, Politics, and Patronage, *Journal of Global Sport Management*, 1(3-4), 129-141

Jones, R. L., C. Edwards, I. A. Tuim Viotto Filho (2016) Activity theory, complexity and sports coaching: an epistemology for a discipline, *Sport, Education and Society*, 21(2), 200-216

Jones, R. L., K. Kingston (eds) (2013) *An introduction to sports coaching: Connecting theory to practice*, Abingdon, Routledge, 2013

Lyle J. (2002), Sports coaching concepts: a framework for coaches' behaviour, London: Routledge 2002

Nichols, A. R., L. Jones (2013), Psychology in Sports Coaching, Abingdon, Routledge

The National Coaching Foundation (2008), *The UK Coaching Framework: A 3-7-11 Year Action Plan*, Leeds, Sports Coach UK/Coachwise, Found at: https://www.sportscoachuk.org/sites/default/files/UK%20Coaching%20Framework.pdf (accessed 24 August 2017)

The National Coaching Foundation (2012), *UKCC Level 1 Guide*, Leeds, Sports Coach UK/Coachwise, Found at: http://www.ukcoaching.org/sites/default/files/UKCC-Level-Guide.pdf,

The National Coaching Foundation (2013), *The UKCC Level 4 Support Guide (2nd ed)* Leeds, Sports Coach UK, 2013, found at http://www.ukcoaching.org/sites/default/files/scuk-L4-Support-Guide_0.html, (accessed 24 August 2017)

Content

Meme Awareness

Asen E., Scholz M. (2015). Praxis der Multiproblemfamilie. Carl Auer Heidelberg

Auerbach, J. S., & Blatt, S. J. (2001). Self-reflexivity, intersubjectivity, and therapeutic change. *Psychoanalytic Psychology*, 18, 427-450.

Bak, P.L., N. Midgley, J.L. Zhu, K. Wistoft, C. Obel (2015). The Resilience Program: preliminary evaluation of a mentalization-based education program. Frontiers in Psychology, 16(6):753

Bateman, A.W., P.Fonagy (2012) (eds). Handbook of Mentalizing in Mental Health Practice. APA Washington

Boyd, R, P. Richerson (2005b). The Origin and Evolution of Cultures. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Boyd, R., and Richerson P.(2005a). Not by Genes Alone: How Culture Transformed Human Evolution. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Boyd, R., P.Richerson (2000). Memes: Universal Acid or a Better Mouse Trap. In, R. Aunger, *Darwinizing Culture: The Status of Memetics as a Science*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 143–62.

CPCC (2016), Force Generation for the civilian CSDP Missions: A planning guide for Member States Seconding Authorities

Dennett, D. (1995). Darwin's Dangerous Idea: Evolution and the Meanings of Life. London: Penguin.

Fonagy, P., E. Allison (2012). What is Mentalization? The Concept and its Foundations in Developmental Research and Social -Cognitive Neuroscience. In: N Midgley & I Vrouva(eds) *Keeping Children in Mind: Mentalization-based Interventions with Children, Young People and their Families,* Routledge, 2012

Fonagy, P., G. György, L.J. Elliot, and M. Targe (2004). *Affect Regulation, Mentalization, and the Development of the Self.* New York: Other Press

Haberhauer (2016) Funktioniert Multifamilientherapie? Evaluationen der Multifamilientherapie und der Familienschule an 2 deutschen Einrichtungen. Masterthesis at SigmundFreudPrivatuniversität, Wien

Hausmann C. (2009) Debriefing pro und contra Anspruch, Wirksamkeit, Weiterentwicklungen In: A. Stupka (Hrsg.): *Zweites Österreichisches Symposion für Psychologie im Militär*. Wien: Schriftenreihe der Landesverteidigungsakademie, 2009, pp. 99-114 1. Kritische Ereignisse und psychologische Stabilisierung

Hoyle, L., (2010). *Genes, Memes, Culture, and Mental Illness. Toward an Integrative Model*, Springer San Francisco

Huemer, J., R. J.Shaw, A Prunas, R. Hall, J. Gross, H., Steiner, (2015). Adolescent defense style as correlate of problem behavior. *Zeitschrift für Kinder- und Jugendpsychiatrie und Psychotherapie* 2015; 43 (5): 345-350

Krüsmann, M., A.Müller-Cyran (2006). *Trauma und frühe Interventionen: Möglichkeiten und Grenzen von Krisenintervention und Notfallpsychologie*. Stuttgart, Pfeiffer bei Klett-Kotta.

Münker-Kramer, E. (2015). *Traumazentrierte Psychotherapie mit EMDR (Wege der Psychotherapie).* Reinhardt Verlag

Schnyder, U., H. Mörgeli, C. Nigg, R. Klaghofer, N. Renner, O. Trentz, C. Buddeberg (2000): Early psychological reactions to severe injuries. *Critical Care Medicine* 28, 86 – 92

Slade, A.P. (1999). Representation, Symbolization, and Affect Regulation in the Concomitant Treatment of a Mother and Child: Attachment Theory and Child Psychotherapy. *Psychoanalytic Inquiry*, 19:797-830.

Tay, E, L. Diener, (2011). Needs and subjective well-being around the world. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 101(2): 354-365

Tedeschi, R.G., R, Park, C, Calhoun,L (Eds), (1998). *Posttraumatic Growth, Positive change in the aftermath of crisis*. Lawrence Erlbaum, New York.

Wahba, M.A., L.G. Bridwell, (1976). Maslow reconsidered: A review of research on the need hierarchy theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*. 15, pp. 212–240

Urban Peacebuilding

Austin, J. L., & O.Jütersonke, (2016). *Understanding the Grammar of the City: Urban Safety and Peacebuilding Practice through a Semiotic Lens. Paper no. 14*. Geneva: Geneva Peacebuilding Platform.

Barbelet, V., (2015). *Central African Republic: Addressing the Protection Crisis*. London: Humanitarian Policy Group. ODI.

Barnes, C., & H. Hassan, (2007). The Rise and Fall of Mogadishu's Islamic Courts. *Journal of Eastern Africa Studies*, 1(2), 151-160.

Basedow, J., C. Westrope, & A. Meaux, (2017). *Urban Stakeholder Engagement and Coordination. Guidance Note for Humanitarian Practitioners*. London: IIED.

Beall, J. (2007). *Cities, Terrorism and Urban Wars of the 21st Century.* London: Crisis States Research Centre, DESTIN, LSE.

Beall, J., T. Goodfellow, & D. Rodgers, (2011). *Cities, Conflict and State Fragility. Crisis State Research Centre. Working Paper no.85.* London: LSE Destin.

Björkdahl, A. (2013). Urban Peacebuilding. *Peacebuilding*, 1(2), 207-221.

Bollens, S. A. (2007). *Comparative Research on Contested Cities: Lenses and Scaffoldings. Crisis States Research Centre. Working Paper no.* 17. London: LSE Destin.

Bollens, S. A. (2006). Urban Planning and Peacebuilding. *Progress in Planning*, 66, 67-139.

Bollens, S.A. (1999). *Urban Peacebuilding in Divided Societies: Belfast and Johannesburg*. Boulder: Westview Press.

Bosetti, L., H. Cooper, J. De Boer, & M. Munshey, (2016, April 12). *Peacekeeping in Cities: Is the UN prepared? Retrieved June 2017, 6*, from Centre for Policy Research. United Nations University. Found at: https://cpr.unu.edu/peacekeeping-in-cities-is-the-un-prepared.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

De Boer, J. (2015). *Resilience and the Fragile City. Reducing Vulnerability to Complex Urban Crises.* United Nations University.

De Boer, J., R. Muggah, & R. Patel, (2016). *Conceptualizing City Fragility and Resilience. Working Paper 5*. United Nations University Centre for Policy Research.

De Coning, C., (2016). From peacebuilding to sustaining peace: Implications of complexity for resilience and sustainability. *Resilience*, 4(3), 166-181.

Dorn, A.W. (2009). *Intelligence-led Peacekeeping: The United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH), 2006–07.* Intelligence and National Security, 24(6), 805-835.

Dziedzic, M., R.M. Perito, (2008). *Haiti. Confronting the Gangs of Port-au-Prince*. Washington DC: USIP.

European Commission. (2015, April 28). The European Agenda on Security. EU doc. COM(2015) 185 final. Strasbourg.

European Union. (2016). Shared Vision, Common Action: A Stronger Europe. A Global Strategy for the European Union's Foreign and Security Policy.

Freear M., C. De Coning, (2013). Lessons from the African Union Mission for Somalia (AMISOM) for Peace Operations in Mali. *Stability: International Journal for Security & Development*, 2(2), 1-11.

Grünewald, F. (2013). *Cities in conflict: the lessons of Syria, Humanitarian Exchange Number 59* November 2013. Humanitarian Exchange(59), 11-12.

Gusic, I. (2013). Bringing Cities In. The Urbanization of Critical Peacebuilding. Lund: Lund University.

HABITAT III. (2015). *Issue Paper on Safer Cities*. United Nations, United Nations Task Team on Habitat III. New York: United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development.

Hazen, J. M. (2010). Understanding Gangs as Armed Groups. *International Review of the Red Cross*, 92(878), 369-386.

Hoelscher, K.E., Nussion, (2016). Understanding Unlikely Successes in Urban Violence Reduction. *Urban Studies*, 53(11), 2397 - 2416.

IISS. (2017, May 9). Press Release: Armed Conflict Survey shows conflict moving into cities around the world. Armed Conflict Survey 2017, Found at: https://www.iiss.org/en/publications/acs/by%20year/armed-conflict-survey-2017-8efc (Accessed June 6, 2017)

International Rescue Committee. (2017). *Urban Context Analysis Toolkit. Guidance Note for Humanitarian Practitioners.* London: IIED.

Jütersonke, O., R., Muggah, & D. Rodgers, (2009). Urban Violence and Security Promotion in Central America. *Security Dialogue*, 40(4-5), 373-397.

Lucchi, E. (2013). Humanitarian Interverntions in Situations of Urban Violence. London: ALNAP, ODI.

Meaux, A., & Osofisan, W. (2016). A Review of Context Analysis Tools for Urban Humanitarian Response. London: IIED.

Mohiddin, L., Smith, G., & Phelps, L. (2017). Urban Multi-sector Vulnerability Assessment Tool for Displacement Contexts. London: IIED.

Morrison, C. (2017). Protecting Civilians in Urban Sieges: How to Best Support 'First Responders'. London: IIED.

Muggah, R. (2014). Deconstructing the Fragile City: Exploring Insecurity, Violence and Resilience. *Environment and Urbanization*, 26(2), 1-14.

Peirce, J. (2007). Protection for whom? Stabilisation and Coercive Rule in Haiti. *Paterson Review*, 8, 93-106.

Ricigliano, R. (2011). *Systems Thinking in Conflict Assessment. Concepts and Application*. Washington DC: USAID.

Ricigliano, R. (2003). Networks of Effective Action:Implementing and Integrated Approach to Peacebuilding. *Security Dialogue*, 34(4), 445–462.

Ricigliano, R. (2016). Making Peace Last. A Toolbox for Sustainable Peace. New York: Routledge.

Sheikh, H. (2010). Building Structures for Peace. How to Administer Mogadishu. Whose peace is it anyway? *Connecting Somali and international peacemaking*, 21, 80-83.

UNGA. (2015, October 21). *The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. UN doc. A/RES/70/1, New York.

Unger, B., V. Dudouet, M. Dressler, & B. Austin, (2016). Introduction. In B. Unger, V. Dudouet, M. Dressler, & B. Austin (Eds.), 'Undeclared Wars'. Exploring a Peacebuilding Approach to Armed Social Violence (pp. i-xiii). Berghof Handbook Dialogue Series no.12, Berlin: Berghof Foundation.

United Nations. (2014). World Urbanization Prospects. Department of Economics and Social Affairs. New York: UN.

Williams, P.D. (2009). Into the Mogadishu Maelstrom: The African Union Mission in Somalia. *International Peacekeeping*, 16(4), 514-530.

World Bank. (2003). A Resource Guide for Municipalities: Community Based Crime and Violence Prevention in Urban Latin America. Washington DC: World Bank.

Methods

Simulations

Cannon-Bowers, J.A., C.A. Bowers, (2008). Synthetic learning environments. In Spector, J. Michael, Merrill, M. David, van Merrienboer, Jeroen & Driscoll, Marcy P. (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology, 3rd ed.*, New York, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Griffiths, M. (2002), The educational benefits of videogames, Education and Health, Vol 20, No 3

Hernadez-Leo, D. (ed,), (2013), Virtual Afghan Village as a Low-Cost Environment for Training Cultural Awareness in a Military Context, (EC-TEL 2013)

Stoltenberg, E., (2012). Simulations: Picking the right tool for training. *Infantry; Volume 101 Issue 4,* Nov/Dec 2012

Taylor, A., P. Backlund, L. Niklasson, (2012). The coaching Cycle: A Coaching-by Gaming Approach in Serous Games. *Simulation & Gaming Volume 43*, Number 5, October 2012

Sandboxing

GAP (2017). Gaming for Peace. Retrieved from: http://gap-project.eu (accessed 25 August 2017)

Geier, E. (2012). *How to Keep Your PC Safe with Sandboxing*. Retrieved from: http://www.pcworld.com/article/247416/how_to_keep_your_pc_safe_with_sandboxing.html?page =2 (accessed 25 August 2017)

Minecraft Gamepedia (2017). *Tutorials/Redstone computers*. Retrieved from: http://minecraft.gamepedia.com/Tutorials/Redstone computers (accessed 25 August 2017)

O'Hara, S. (2013): There Are Always Alternatives: Lessons from Business Leaders Who Have Dealt with Crises Creatively, FriesenPress

Palermo, E. (2013). *Sandbox: A Separate Space for Developers to 'Play'*. Retrieved from: https://www.tomsguide.com/us/sandbox,news-17762.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

Singh, A. (2014). *A Taste of Computer Security*. Retrieved from: http://www.kernelthread.com/publications/security/sandboxing.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

Technopedia (2017). Sandbox. Retrieved from: https://www.techopedia.com/definition/3952/sandbox-gaming_(accessed 25 August 2017)

theguardian.com (2016). *Welcome to your cell*. Retrieved from: https://www.theguardian.com/world/ng-interactive/2016/apr/27/6x9-a-virtual-experience-of-solitary-confinement_(accessed 25 August 2017)

Wilson, M. (2016). How 4 Designers Built A Game With 18.4 Quintillion Unique Planets. In: *Fast Co Design*. Retrieved from: https://www.fastcodesign.com/3048667/how-4-designers-built-a-game-with-184-quintillion-unique-planets (accessed 25 August 2017)

E-learning, collaborative learning, and Gaming

Aronson, E. (1978). The jigsaw classroom. Sage.

Baran, E., A.P. Correia, A. Thompson, (2011). Transforming online teaching practice: critical analysis of the literature on the roles and competencies of online teachers. *Distance Education*, 32(3), 421-439.

Barkley, E.F., K.P. Cross, C.H. Major, (2004). *Collaborative Learning Techniques: A Handbook for College Faculty*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Berge, Z.L. (1995). Facilitating Computer Conferencing: Recommendations From the Field. *Educational Technology*, 35(1), 22-30.

Childress, M.D., R. Braswell, (2006). Using Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing for online learning. *Distance Education*, 27(2), 187-196.

Clow, D., (2013). MOOCs and the funnel of participation. In: Third Conference on Learning Analytics and Knowledge (LAK 2013), 8-12 April 2013, Leuven, Belgium, pp. 185-189.

Cole, H., and M. Griffiths, (2007). Social interactions in Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Gamers. *Cyber Psychology & Behavior*, 10(4), 575-583.

De Freitas, S., M. Griffiths, (2007). Online gaming as an educational tool in learning and training. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 38(3), 535-537.

Du, Z., X. Fu, C. Zhao, Q. Liu, T. Liu, (2013). Interactive and collaborative e-learning platform with integrated social software and learning management system. In W. Lu, G. Cai, W. Liu, and W. Xing (eds.), Proceedings of the 2012 International Conference on Information Technology and Software Engineering, *Lecture Notes in Electrical Engineering* 212 (pp.11-18). Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2013

Ducheneaut, N., R.J. Moore, (2005). More than just 'XP': learning social skills in massively multiplayer online games. *Intercative Technology & Smart Education*, 2(2), 89-100.

Haythornthwaite, C., M.M. Kazmer, J. Robins, S. Shoemaker, (2000). Community development among distance learners: temporal and technological dimensions. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 6(1).

Hmelo-Silver, C.E., C.A. Chinn, C.K.K. Chan, A. O'Donnel, Eds. (2013). *The International Handbook of Collaborative Learning*. New York: Routledge.

Hsu, S.W, M.H. Wen, M.C. Wu, (2009). Exploring user experiences as predictors of MMORPG addiction. *Computers & Education*, 53, 990–999.

Kirkpatrick, D., R.G. McLaughlan, H.R. Maier, P. Hirsch, P. (2002). Developing scholarship through collaboration in an online roleplay-simulation: Mekong eSim, a case study. *UniServe Science Scholarly Inquiry Symposium Proceedings*, pp.13-18. Found at: https://openjournals.library.sydney.edu.au/index.php/IISME/article/viewFile/6550/7198 (Accessed 14 July 2017)

Knowles, M., (1984). The Adult Learner. Gulf Publishing Company.

Kolo, C., T. Baur, (2004). Living a virtual life: social dynamics of online gaming. *Game Studies*, 4(1).

Kreijns, K., P.A. Kirschner, W. Jochems, (2003). Identifying the pitfalls for social interaction in computer-supported collaborative learning environments: a review of the research. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 19(3), 335-353.

Lazar, J., J. Preece, (2002). Social considerations in online communities: usability, sociability, and success factors. In H. van Oostendorp, *Cognition in the Digital World*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc. Publishers, Mahwah: NJ.

Lee, M.J.W., K. Eustace, G. Fellows, A. Bytheway, L. Irving, (2005). Rochester Castle MMORPG: Instructional gaming and collaborative learning at a Western Australian school. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 21(4), 446-469.

McPherson, M., M.B. Nunes, (2003). The role of tutors as an integral part of online learning support. *European Journal of Open, Distance, and E-Learning*, http://www.eurodl.org/?p=archives&year=2004&halfyear=1&article=105 (accessed 25 August 2017)

McTighe, J., F.T. Lyman, (1988). Cueing Thinking in the Classroom: The promise of Theory-embedded tools. *Educational leadership*. Found at: http://www.ascd.org/ASCD/pdf/journals/ed_lead/el_198804_mctighe.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Morgan, C.K., M. Tam, (1999). Unravelling the complexities of distance education student attrition. *Distance Education*, 20(1), 96-108.

Pletikosa Cvijikj, I., F. Michahelles, (2014). *Online Engagement Factors on Facebook Brand Pages*. Auto-ID Labs White Paper.

Pletikosa Cvijikj, I., F. Michahelles, F. (2011). A case study of the effects of moderator posts within a Facebook brand page. Conference Paper.

Preece, J., B. Nonnecke, D. Andrews, (2004). The top five reasons for lurking: improving community experiences for everyone. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 20, 201-223.

Reuter, C., V. Wendel, S. Göbel, R. Steinmetz, (2013). Multiplayer adventures for collaborative learning with serious games. In P.Felicia (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 6th European Conference on Games Based Learning* (pp.416-423).

Rodrigues, J.J.P.C., F.M.R. Sabinou, L. and Zhou, L. (2010). Enhancing e-learning experience with online social networks. *IET Communications*, 5(8), 1147–1154.

Romero, M., M. Usart, M. Ott, J. Earp, (2012). *Learning through playing for or against each other? Promoting collaborative learning in digital game based learning*. ECIS 2012 Proceedings, Paper 93.

Rovai, A.P, H.M. Jordan, (2004). Blended learning and sense of community: A comparative analysis with traditional and fully online graduate courses. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 5(2).

Salmon, G., (2003, 2nd edition). *E-moderating: The key to Teaching and Learning Online*. New York: Routledge.

Williams, R.L., J. Cothrel, J. (2000). Four Smart Ways to Run Online Communities. *SLOAN Management Review*, 41(4), 81-91.

Arts-Based methods

Art of Science Learning, *Arts-Based Learning*, http://www.artofsciencelearning.org/arts-based-learning/ (accessed 25 August 2017)

Arts in Business: *Corporate arts-based learning Creativity at Work*, Found at, http://www.creativityatwork.com/arts-in-business-applying-the-arts-to-organisational-learning/ (accessed 25 August 2017)

Association for Talent Development, *Incorporate Arts-Based Learning in Leadership Development*, Found at https://www.td.org/Publications/Magazines/TD/TD-Archive/2014/11/Incorporate-Arts-Based-Learning-in-Leadership-Development (accessed 25 August 2017)

Brenner, M.Y. *Arts-Based Learning and Leadership Development: A Case Study,* PhD thesis, Colombia University, found at http://pqdtopen.proquest.com/doc/816838065.html?FMT=ABS_(accessed 25 August 2017)

Clifford, D.C., Deepening the theoretical Framework of Creative Leadership: Creative Leaders and Arts-based Learning, Creative Studies Graduate Student Master's Project, Buffalo, Buffalo State College, Found at

http://digitalcommons.buffalostate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1090&context=creativeprojects (accessed 25 August 2017)

Creative Leadership Forum (2010), Why Arts Based Learning is The Next Organisational Learning and Development Frontier, Found at http://thecreativeleadershipforum.com/creativity-matters-blog/2010/6/22/why-arts-based-learning-is-the-next-organisational-learning.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

Eger J. M. (2015), More Evidence Favouring Arts-Based Learning of Stem, *Huffington Post*, Found at: http://www.huffingtonpost.com/john-m-eger/more-evidence-favoring-ar_b_6634766.html (accessed 25 August 2017)

Garavan, T., A. Mcgarry, S. Watson, N. D 'annunzio-Green, F. O 'brien, (2015). The Impact of Arts-Based Leadership Development on Leader Mind-Set: A Field Experiment. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*. 17. 1-17. Found at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279758120_The_Impact_of_Arts-Based_Leadership_Development_on_Leader_Mind-Set_A_Field_Experiment (accessed 25 August 2017)

Katz-Buinincontro, J. (2005). *Does arts-based learning enhance leadership? Case studies of creativity-oriented executive institutes*. Paper presented at American Education Research Association Annual Meeting, Montréal, Canada. Found at http://www.artsedsearch.org/summaries/does-arts-based-learning-enhance-leadership-case-studies-of-creativity-oriented-executive-institutes (accessed 25 August 2017)

Salto-Youth, *Theatre as Tool for social change*, Found at https://www.salto-youth.net/tools/toolbox/tool/theatre-as-a-tool-for-social-change-activities-for-leaders-and-facilitators.1933/ (accessed 25 August 2017)

Search for Common Ground (2014), *Speed Drawing for Peacebuilding*, Found at: https://www.sfcg.org/speed-drawing-for-peacebuilding/ (accessed 25 August 2017)

Search for Common Ground, *Participatory Theatre in Conflict Transformation (Training Manual, SFCG)*, found at: http://dmeforpeace.org/sites/default/files/Participatory-Theatre-Manual-EN.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Shank, M., L. Schrich (2008), *Strategic Arts-Based Peacebuilding*, found at http://escolapau.uab.es/img/programas/musica/strategic arts.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Sutherland I. (2013), Arts-based methods in leadership development: Affording aesthetic workspaces, reflexivity and memories with momentum, *Management Learning*, 44(1), pp. 25-43

Swisspeace (2015), *Art and Peacebuilding*, Zurich, Bern Swisspeace, Found at: http://www.swisspeace.ch/fileadmin/user_upload/Media/Publications/Newsletter/2015/NL_136_en .pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Trainingzone (2011). *Arts-based training comes of age*. Found at http://www.trainingzone.co.uk/lead/strategy/arts-based-training-comes-of-age (accessed 25 August 2017)

USAID/IREX, Using Theatre in Conflict Transformation (Manual), Found at: https://www.irex.org/sites/default/files/node/resource/drama-for-conflict-transformation-toolkit.pdf (accessed 25 August 2017)

Wood, K., (2015) *The Arts and Peacebuilding: An Emerging Approach*, Washington, USIP, Found at: https://www.usip.org/insights-newsletter/the-arts-and-peacebuilding-emerging-approach (accessed 25 August 2017)

Annexes

Annex 1: Case Studies and Author Organisation(s)

Case Study	Author Organisation(s)
Joint Training Curricula	KULEUVEN
Ecological peacebuilding	PATRIR
Sequenced models of training	UMR/PATRIR
Sports coaching and peacebuilding	COVUNI
Methods of mindmapping/meme awareness raising	BMI/ARGE
Urban peacebuilding	UDEUSTO
Sandboxing in ICT design	SYNYO
Collaborative e-learning/literature on online gaming	KULEUVEN
Simulations	BALTDEFCOL
Arts based Methods	ICR

Annex 2: Buildpeace/PeaceTraining.eu *Pan-European Workshop on Novel approaches, concepts and methods* Agenda

Buildpeace / PeaceTraining.eu workshop Agenda

03 June 2017

Session Facilitators: David Curran, Nancy Annan

Tools needed:

- Post-it notes
- Pens
- Flip chart paper
- Food, drink
- Dictaphone
- Note-taker

Session Breakdown

Introduction / outline of aims of session (20 minutes)

Introduction to PeaceTraining.eu project – (15 Minutes) – Use PeaceTraining.eu powerpoint.

Session 1 (25-30 minutes):

Key question 1: What experiences do you have of learning novel approaches to ways of working?

<u>Method</u>: Ask participants to spend 5 minutes writing down the answer to the first question individually, and then present answers within a small group (4-5)

Timing: 15 minutes discussion with small group (table); 10 minutes feedback

Session 2 (25-35 minutes):

<u>Key Question 2</u>: To what extent does your organization facilitate the processing of new ideas, and what ideas/initiatives would make the introduction of novel concepts and methods easier?

Method: small group discussion. Look for common themes amongst participants

<u>Timing</u>: 20 minute group discussion, 15 minute feedback – total 35 minutes)

Session 3 (25-30 minutes):

Key Question 3: What barriers there may be for organisations in their adoption of novel concepts, approaches and methods?

<u>Method</u>: each member in larger groups is equipped with post-it notes. Participants write down a challenge on each post-it note (as many as they want). Participants put post-it notes on wall and give short explanation

Timing: 25 minutes discussion

Conclusion and thank participants (5-10 minutes)

Annex 3: Novelty Workshop 'Barriers to embracing Novelty (long-list)'

- Lack of funding and resources
- Lack of expertise to teach these new approaches
- Peace training often do not reflect the local context
- Some training cannot be linked to ICT due to the region
- The challenge of linking non-formal workshops/approaches to theory
- Combining formal and informal learning in particularly in academia can be challenging due to the prejudices associated with informal learning in such sectors
- Potential power struggles within and among partners
- Lack of adequate training particularly in certain areas or fields
- Lack of adequate time especially for training
- Push-back or resistance to novelty
- Lack of motivation or encouragement for novelty
- Biases in the monitoring system
- Resistance/unwillingness for change in order to maintain the status quo
- Not wanting to look stupid or stand out
- Self-censorship issues
- State control over the affairs of the organization
- The location of the organization creates barriers to funding opportunities. For instance, if an organization is located outside the EU, there are likely to receive or access limited funding opportunities
- Sustainability of existing projects is challenging because it is donor driven. Without funded projects, you cannot continue the work that you do and even attempt new ideas or approaches
- Limit of focus area for new ideas due to funding priorities
- Use of terminologies and concepts for certain projects
- Language barrier
- New things can be intimidating- comfort is integral to progress
- Bureaucracy sometimes hinders creativity or creates resistance
- Measurements of new techniques
- Traditional Mindset
- Differing expectations
- Lack of transparent criteria for selection of "partner schools" to pilot new initiatives
- High cost of translation and expats
- Inability to establish linkages between formal and non-formal institutions
- Lack of national policies to support the introduction of new concepts and approaches
- Sustainability of new approaches/concepts may be questioned if ICT/Web platforms are not budgeted and managed properly
- Without sustainable funding (such as EU funding), continuity in terms of introduction, planning and implementation is questioned
- Constant pressure for novelty hinders sustainability
- Lack of evidence. For instance, is there a theoretical base?
- Learners may not be interested in the new methods
- Socioeconomic or personal situations of participants and staff can make it difficult for them to engage
- Lack of staff stress and self-care management
- Organizational culture and policies' resistance to change

Annex 4: Novelty Workshop: 'What would facilitate novelty in your organisation'

- Creating free spaces for sharing new ideas and free thinking
- Engaging in inter-organisational cooperation
- It is dependent on the better salesmanship of the novel idea. That is how it is marketed and pitched to relevant donors and leadership
- Acquiring the support of government is useful in introducing new ideas and projects
- Better self-management
- Producing Toolkits on certain topics
- Sending volunteers to different trainings, seminars, workshops and study sessions
- Through partnership agreements between Universities and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs)
- Approval of government bodies to use CSOs materials produced in/during formal education
- Through the development of "new tools" e.g. apps for smart phones
- Dedicated funding to experiment with new ideas
- Involving students or participants in co-creation of new ideas/methods to break prejudices and get better and interesting results.