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

D3.4 Report on current training methods for peace building and conflict prevention

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ARGE Bildungsmanagement (ARGE), Austria
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3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

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Editor: Erin Tunney (ICR)

Authors:
Methods Analysis
Framework Erin Tunney (ICR)
Lectures David Curran (COVUNI)
Group Work Leila Demarest (KULEUVEN)
Case Studies Catalina Uzcanga Lacabe & Patricia García Amado (UDEUSTO)
Simulations Ugis Romanovs & Asta Maskaliunaite (BALTDEFCOL)
Methods for Reflection Svenja Wolter (UMR)
Arts-Based Methods Andra Tanase (PATRIR)

Review: Nancy Annan (COVUNI)

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Executive Summary

This document responds to previous research of Peacetraining.eu, including the Curricula Analysis (3.2) and Interview Report (3.3) findings. Our research identifies concerns with the current use of methods within peace training and recommends that

1. training methods should be clearly informed by and grounded in existing theory and research;
2. trainers should ensure methods are appropriate for the training context and learning objective;
3. methods should be implemented with sensitivity to participant experiences with trauma, diverse cultures, gender, learning needs and specifics of a conflict; and
4. methods should meet or exceed standards in the field of peace training within Europe.

This report is divided into two parts. The first part discusses our framework for ensuring effective implementation of methods. It is based on adult learning theory and peace education theory and provides guidance to ensure that methods:

- are grounded in CPPB and peace training theory;
- match the learning objective of the training as well as the length, level and audience;
- consider the 5-Sensitivities: trauma/self-care, gender, culture, conflict and diverse learning needs.
- carefully consider the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) of the method and the development of a plan for ensuring best practices.

The second part of this document utilises the methods analysis framework introduced in Chapter 2 to analyse six methods currently applied in peace training. Those methods are lectures, simulations, case studies, group work, arts-based methods and reflective methods.

This publication is designed for trainers and training developers in conflict prevention and peacebuilding. We identify ways trainers can select and implement suitable methods for peace training and outline ways to create a physical and psychological environment conducive to learning. This involves promoting respectful communication, empowerment and inclusion. In addition, we troubleshoot specific problems that could arise in training and propose solutions to them. We hope the methods analysis framework and recommendations for each method will be used in the future development of standards within the field of peace training.
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAR</td>
<td>After Action Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABM</td>
<td>Arts-Based Methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIZ</td>
<td>Akademie für Internationale Zusammearbeit (eng: Academy for International Cooperation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASK</td>
<td>Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMO</td>
<td>Cultural Awareness in Military Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEPOL</td>
<td>European Police College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPP</td>
<td>Peace and Conflict Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPPB</td>
<td>Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRISP</td>
<td>Conflict Transformation and Civic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSDP</td>
<td>Common Security and Defence Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DDR</td>
<td>Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENTRi</td>
<td>Europe’s New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESDC</td>
<td>European Security and Defence College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FBA</td>
<td>Folke Bernadotte Academy</td>
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<tr>
<td>GFP</td>
<td>Gaming for Peace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEAT</td>
<td>Hostile Environment and Awareness Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Centre for the Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IED</td>
<td>Improvised Explosive Device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOOC</td>
<td>Massive Open Online Course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCN NI</td>
<td>Open College Network Northern Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PATRIR</td>
<td>Peace Action, Training and Research Institute Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFCG</td>
<td>Search for Common Ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SME</td>
<td>Subject Matter Expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TED Talks</td>
<td>Technology, Entertainment and Design Talks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCD</td>
<td>Unarmed Civilians Deployed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTP</td>
<td>Tactics, Techniques and Procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNITAR</td>
<td>United Nations Institute for Training and Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNOY</td>
<td>United Network of Young Peacebuilders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIP</td>
<td>United States Institute of Peace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forumZFD</td>
<td>forum Ziviler Friedensdienst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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1. Introduction

PeaceTraining.eu is a European-wide project designed to bring stakeholders together across sectors to review and improve upon current training practices in the field of Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (CPPB) training, hereafter referred to as peace training. We gathered data on current practice through interviews with practitioners in the field from government, civil society, intergovernmental agencies and police/military as well as desk research on European-based peace training curriculum and presented findings in our Curricula Analysis (3.2), Confidential Interview Report (3.3) and Integrated Assessment Report (3.5). These reports identify concerns with the current use of methods (i.e. tools a trainer uses to convey one’s learning objective) within peace training recommends the following improvements:

1. Training methods should be clearly informed by and grounded in existing theory and research;
2. Trainers should ensure methods are appropriate for the training context and learning objective;
3. Methods should be implemented with sensitivity to participant experiences with trauma, diverse cultures, gender, learning needs and specifics of a conflict; and
4. Methods should meet or exceed standards in the field of peace training within Europe.

This report responds to these findings through developing a new methods analysis framework for trainers and training providers.

This report is divided into two parts. The first part discusses our framework for ensuring effective implementation of methods. It is based on adult learning theory and peace education theory and provides guidance to ensure that methods implemented

- are grounded in CPPB and peace training theory and that practical strategies are derived from such theory;
- match the learning objective of the training as well as the length, level and audience;
- consider the 5-Sensitivities: trauma/self-care, gender, culture, conflict and diverse learning needs;
- carefully consider the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) of the method and the development of a plan for ensuring best practices.

The second part utilises the framework to analyse six methods currently applied in peace training. Those methods are: lectures, simulations, case studies, group work, arts-based methods and reflective methods. We discuss what one should consider when deciding whether to use this method as well as practical strategies for implementation. Finally, we conduct a SWOT Analysis of each method. We identify ways the trainer can select and implement suitable training methods and outline ways to create a physical and psychological environment conducive to learning. This involves promoting respectful communication, empowerment, and inclusion. In addition, we troubleshoot specific problems that could arise in training and how to approach them. We hope the methods analysis framework and recommendations for each method will be used in the future development of standards within the field of peace training. This publication is designed to assist trainers and training developers in designing and implementing a training. We hope that the framework and guidelines will help improve the standards within the field of peace training.
PART I

2. Methods Analysis Framework

Erin Tunney (ICR)

The methods a trainer uses can have a great impact on participant engagement and motivation in the course, and the degree to which the training will be useful to the participants’ future work. Consequently, it is essential to draw from a theoretical framework on education that (1) reflects and models the values of peace training, (2) that is most likely to meet the participants’ learning needs, and (3) that values the participants as professionals. In order to achieve this, our approach merges two bodies of literature: peace education theory derived from Lederach (1995, 2007) and adult education theory from Knowles (1984, 2005). Adult education theory suggests putting the learner at the centre and recognise the conditions under which adults tend to learn the best. While Lederach and Knowles are popular within their own disciplines, we find the combined approach offers a fuller, more sensitive and more practical approach to learning in conflict prevention and peacebuilding (CPPB) contexts. After laying out some basic principles of each theorist, we show what the implications of a combined approach are within a training setting.

2.1 Theoretical Approach to Methods Analysis Framework

Lederach (1995) describes two possible approaches to training and education, the prescriptive and elicitive approaches. A prescriptive approach is similar to traditional educational models, where the trainer acts as the expert and only source of knowledge. The elicitive approach, which is very compatible with Knowles, acknowledges the experience of participants and understands the trainer’s role as a facilitator. The following table summarises the differences between the approaches:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prescriptive Approach</th>
<th>Elicitive Approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Trainer is primary source of knowledge.</td>
<td>- Participants and trainer bring knowledge and experience to a training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trainer is the expert.</td>
<td>- Trainer as catalyst / facilitator of the learning process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Participants are empowered through gaining knowledge from trainer.</td>
<td>- Participants are empowered through problem-solving, reflection and active participation in the training process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Assumption that the trainer’s knowledge can be applied to any cultural context. It is seen as context-neutral.</td>
<td>- Respect for diversity and equality is modelled within the group and promoted throughout the training. Trainers and participants explore ways to be gender-sensitive and culturally sensitive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Rather than embedding cultural sensitivity, gender sensitivity within the training, such material is seen as an add-on.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Prescriptive versus Elicitive Approach to Peace Education (adapted from Lederach, 1995, 65)
An elicitive approach is more compatible with the goals of peace training because they promote group empowerment rather than domination. In addition, it values inclusivity, participation, and the richness of diversity. Trainers in peace training promote these values through modelling them in the training. This avoids “replic[ing] the cycles of domination that peace training attempts to transform” (Rivers, 2006, 17). Not only is this approach consistent with the values of peace training, this approach to training, according to adult education experts, is also the best way to educate adults. Knowles (2005) devised five pillars of adult learning that should form the basis in developing one’s overarching methodology/approach to training:

**Five Pillars of Adult Learning (Knowles, 2005)**

1. The participant has an internal **motivation** to learn.
2. The participant views oneself as a **doer**, rather than a learner. S/he wants to **direct** his / her learning. They do not want to blindly follow a teacher; they want to be involved in the process.
3. The participant comes to the training with **experience** that can be drawn upon during the training.
4. Adults want their learning to be meaningful; to be directly connected to a concern, issue or challenge they have experienced.
5. Participants want to apply their **knowledge** rather than store it for use later in life. They want the material they learn to be immediately applicable to their lives.

**Table 2: Five Pillars of Adult Learning (adapted from Knowles 2005)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAFE. COLLABORATIVE. COMFORTABLE. STIMULATING. ELICITIVE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Put the participants at ease: Room set up should not indicate passivity of learners or superiority of trainer (e.g. seating arrangement in a circle or ‘cabaret’ style (group tables) and not rows with trainer at the front).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adults may not respond well to a prescriptive model that negates their expertise and that is not relevant to their lives and work. Adults may thrive in a learning environment where training has real-world applicability and relates directly to problems or concerns in their own lives and work in peace training. Westwood (2014) indicates that these are the exact circumstances to which the elicitive approach would apply. An elicitive approach works well when the learning objective involves inquiry or discovery around real-life problems the participants encounter. It allows participants to learn through practice, problem-solving and reflection on experiences. The facilitator guides the participant in a process of self-directed learning (Susskind and Corburn, 1999) that is relevant to their needs (Westwood, 2014).

### 2.2 Translating Theory into Practice

Based on Knowles (2011) and Lederach (1995), we suggest trainers, training decision-makers and organizers consider the following aspects in their approach to ensure an effective, participant-driven and inclusive peace training – no matter if for military, police or civilian training programmes.
### APPROACH TO CRITERIA / DESCRIPTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Process</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPREHENSIVE.</strong></td>
<td>The training process includes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Preparation phase (including pre-training needs assessment, design &amp; development of course, recruiting participants).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Implementation (including delivery and debriefing / reflection).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Evaluation and follow up, including assessment of outcomes and impact.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological Environment</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SAFE SPACES. RESPECT. AVAILABILITY OF REFLECTIVE / PERSONAL SPACES. MECHANISMS OF SUPPORT.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trainer should be respectful of participants, accepting, supportive (e.g. being open to individual consultation when problem arises).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trainer should be sensitive to culture, conflict, gender and power dynamics amongst participants and be aware of the possibility of re-traumatisation through content or certain use of training method.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Availability of the trainer to offer support or the availability of a coach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A trainer’s enthusiasm and openness is important to making learning fun</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Laying the Groundwork</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>OPENNESS. ENTHUSIASM. RESPECT. DIVERSITY.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The participants need to get to know each other. Introductions (name games, icebreakers) can foster a sense of community amongst the group.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- A trainer should set ground rules with the participants in order to create a safe space. Rules can include: confidentiality (Chatham House Rule), no judging, ensuring equal participation and effective, nonviolent communication (i.e. no interrupting, no name calling). This helps to instil attitudes and values of respect and equality within the training.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Trainer respects time (not running over) and allows for breaks.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who directs Learning</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CO-CREATION. EMPOWERMENT. OWNERSHIP. RESPECT FOR DIFFERENCES.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Learning is directed by the participants, trainers and training providers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Participants have ownership and agency. Listen and adapt to emerging needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Methods of delivery are participatory and trainer open for feedback and ideas of participants.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPROACH TO</td>
<td>CRITERIA / DESCRIPTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Role of Trainer¹ and ‘Understanding of self’ | **PROFESSIONALISM. GUIDANCE. EMPATHY. EQUAIALITY.**  
- Trainer models equality and respect for diversity.  
- Trainer acts as mentor and coach.  
- Trainer is aware of participants’ backgrounds and training needs.  
- Trainer is sensitive and responsive to group dynamics.  
- Trainer involves participants in planning, debriefing, and evaluation.  
- Trainer is self-reflexive and aware of their own biases.  
- Ideally, work in training teams, especially teams that are gender-balanced and represent diverse backgrounds, can promote self-reflexivity. |
| Source of Knowledge | **BOTTOM-UP. DIVERSE (NOT ONE-FITS-ALL).**  
- Participants and trainers both bring knowledge to the training.  
- Trainers may invite subject matter experts (SMEs) to share their expertise in a particular skill, subject area or local context. The SMEs may not have didactical skills, but they may provide valuable input. It is the trainer’s responsibility to ensure that the SMEs fits the learning objectives and appropriately integrates their materials into the training. |
| Training Methods | **ELICITIVE. PARTICIPATORY. INCLUSIVE. SENSITIVE. DIVERSE.**  
- The training methods model the principles and actions that are described and promoted throughout the content (collaborative, dialogical, reflective etc.).  
- Methods are sensitive to gender / culture / conflict / learning needs / local context.  
- Utilise learner’s experience and encouraging input from participants through activities such as brainstorming, games, and discussions. |
| Communication | **RESPECTFUL. NON-JUDGEMENTAL. EMPATHETIC.**  
- Trainers can promote respectful communication throughout discussion and model values of empathy, respect and being non-judgemental.  
- They can promote equal power dynamics by ensuring that no one dominates the discussion and encouraging quieter people to speak. The trainer can facilitate learning by stimulating reflection and dialogue, using open-ended questions. |

¹ The exact roles of course organisers and trainers can vary from organisation to organisation. Generally, course organisers and trainers design, coordinate and implement trainings. Course organisers and trainers may include personnel from military training organisations, departments within the EU or UN, local or international NGOs or academia. Course organisers may handle financials, hire trainers, publicise materials on training, recruit and select participants, and obtain accreditation. The trainer may design the learning objectives, curricula, methods of delivery, the agenda, assessment criteria and evaluations. In some cases, the organisation design and coordinate and trainers will only be hired to conduct the training. In other cases, trainers play an active role in the entire process.
### APPRAOCH TO CRITERIA / DESCRIPTION

- Trainers display sensitivity through challenging any discriminatory behaviour or comments. Problematic and challenging topics should not be avoided but given the space for discussion.
- Materials used should be representative of diverse perspectives and promote understanding of and empathy for marginalised populations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflection</th>
<th>CONSOLIDATION. INTEGRATION. TRANSFORMATION.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Creating a forum that consolidates learning, stimulates self-awareness raises consciousness, and furthers understanding of group processes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Guided reflection can involve integrating experiences with understanding and creating a space for introspection.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Reflection can occur in large or small groups, in pairs, or individually. The trainer may prepare open-ended questions to stimulate thinking.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: PeaceTraining.eu Approach to Training

Peace training theory can inform the approach of a trainer as well as the training design and process. It promotes learner agency, respect, inclusivity, sensitivity and self-respect. In the next chapter, we detail the way a peace training perspective can influence the planning and development of curricula. Through interviews with practitioners, curricula analysis and desk research, we found the following challenges to appropriately implementing methods:

1. designing **methods that are grounded on theory and research**;
2. ensuring **methods are appropriate for the training context of and learning objective**;
3. implementing methods with **sensitivity** to participant experiences with trauma, diverse cultures, gender, learning needs and specifics of a conflict;
4. ensuring **standards** to successfully implement methods.

These issues will be elaborated below. To respond to those needs, we developed a framework for effective implementation of methods, and describe it below.

#### 2.3 Ensuring Methods Are Appropriate for Training

Firstly, methods should be **grounded in existing theory and research**. A large body of literature exists regarding training methods for adult learning in general (Knowles, 1984, 2005; Kolb 1984, Krawothohl 2002). Also, several peace training manuals list a variety of methods one can use within a training (Hamza, 2012; Conflict Sensitivity Consortium, 2012; ENTRi, 2017; Austin, 2006; Bloh, 2010). However, literature does not tend to bring together adult learning and peace education theory. Our conversation below on methods in peace training literature does just that, allowing for a fuller theoretical framework. Next, the **method should match the learning objective**. To do this, one can determine the type of competency the learning objective attempts to develop. We suggest using the ASK model that divides competencies into three types: shaping attitudes, building skills, or conveying knowledge. Once a trainer identifies the competency to be developed s/he can then reflect upon how appropriate the method is for the objective. For instance, a lecture may be more appropriate for knowledge acquisition than for skill-building since it does not afford students the opportunity to practice a skill. In addition, the trainer may consider whether **methods are**

appropriate for the target audience. This involves being sensitive to learning needs and assessing whether any participants have disabilities that may limit participation. One may also consider the background and perspective of the participants so a training can be developed to meet their particular needs. Cultures of military are different from civil society, and a trainer can investigate how receptive the participants would be to specific methods. Moreover, methods should fit into the overall training agenda. A variety of methods can be used within one training and a trainer will want to ensure that the methods go well together. Trainers may choose to ensure variation in the methods used and that the timing of methods is appropriate. For instance, a lecture may go well at the start of the training rather than after lunch when participants may be dragging. Finally, a trainer may feel more comfortable having multiple methods on hand for a particular learning objective and select the method based on what appears to be working well in the training. We identified a need for greater attention on selection of methods for delivering the training and the way methods should be implemented (Interview Report, Tunney 2017, confidential). Despite the importance of choosing the right method, no reports or studies of methods by EU training initiatives like ENTRi², ESDC³ or non-state training actors exist. Some manuals from other disciplines detail advantages and disadvantages of specific methods but do not necessarily devote much attention to implementation (Effective Adult Learning, 2012; Hamza, 2012). They provide a good introduction to the variety of tools one can use. However, they do not show a trainer how to make a particular method work, especially as there are no references to the particularities in peace training. Although the methods a trainer uses can impact the participants’ level of interest in and degree of absorption of the material, adequate attention is not always paid to properly implementing them. Appropriate methods can make learning easy-going and fun (Interview Report, Tunney 2017, confidential). Finally, we found a gap in implementing methods that are sensitive to conflict, cultural diversity, gender, trauma, and diverse learning styles. Since sensitivity is a major value in the field of CPPB, it is crucial for peace training to model equality and diversity. We elaborate on the 5-sensitivities below.

2.4 The 5-Sensitivities

This section addresses the need to implement methods with sensitivity, as this has been a recurring theme in our research. In implementing the appropriate method, we recommend the application of our Five-Sensitivities Model, which include conflict, culture, trauma, gender sensitivity, and sensitivity to diverse learning styles.

### Conflict Sensitivity

Conflict sensitivity involves respecting and understanding dynamics of a specific conflict enough to minimise any negative impacts of one’s intervention and maximise the positive impacts of an intervention (Conflict Sensitivity Consortium, 2012). In peace training, conflict sensitivity means ensuring that participants develop awareness of dynamics of a conflict and learn how to cooperate with local stakeholders so they can intervene appropriately. It involves sensitising participants about potential unforeseen consequences of an intervention and ways to work with local populations.

Conflict sensitivity can begin in the preparation phase of a training, where trainers may choose to conduct a needs assessment in consultation with local stakeholders. Trainers may want to consult

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² Europe’s New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi)
³ European Security and Defence College
with the local population, local partners, and previously deployed colleagues when designing a training. Trainers may also consult with key literature and other resources and make them available to the participants. Trainers may talk with participants in advance to determine their current level of understanding and whether they have any experience with this conflict. Finally, trainers may assign participants reading material prior to the training. When choosing subject matter experts (SMEs), videos and readings, trainers may take care to ensure that a variety of perspectives on the conflict are represented. Fostering an attitude that values the capacity of local people and recognises the importance of working with rather than dictating to those in the field is crucial for conflict sensitivity (USIP, 2013; Saferworld, 2014; Conflict Sensitivity Consortium, 2012).

### Cultural Sensitivity

Cultural sensitivity (Abu-Nimer, 2001; LeBaron, 2003) during training involves recognising and valuing differences in the way cultures perceive and approach an issue. “Cultural sensitivity means being aware of cultural differences and how they affect behaviour, and moving beyond cultural biases and preconceptions to interact effectively,” (Snodderly, 2011, 17). This means recognising difference and the way difference influences the learning environment. It involves increased awareness that our knowledge is derived from our culture and that diverse cultures may have different ways of knowing that are equally valid. The following are tips for increasing cultural sensitivity:

- **Be mindful that solutions are not one size fits all.** What works in one country may not work in another. For example, the way security sector reform worked in the Balkans may not be directly applicable to sub-Saharan Africa.
- **Bring in comparative examples of best practices and lessons learned** to show how interventions can be tailored for specific settings. For instance, when examining rule of law in Sudan, explore the role of customary law in promoting human rights.
- **Include exercises (e.g. case studies),** in which participants learn that cooperating with locals and integrating local knowledge is more likely to succeed, rather than imposing intervention (Pimentel, 2010). Train participants on how to support local ownership through trust-building and dialogues, and inclusive decision-making processes (McCann, 2015).
- **Use non-Western and alternative concepts/examples/models.** Encourage critical reflection from participants on dominant Western models they are familiar with and expand their knowledge and understanding on non-Western, alternative concepts/model/examples. Through such examples, participants can learn to integrate local traditions and work with local populations (Barsalou, 2005). Moreover, they can learn how aspects of culture can be used to promote reconciliation (Reis, 2013).
- **Adapt to the needs of non-native language speakers.** Be mindful that they may not feel comfortable asking questions in a large group and adjust activities. It may also be helpful to...
present material in written form as well as verbally. Most importantly, ask non-native speakers about their needs. Listen to marginalised voices.

- Budget for and utilise interpreters if needed and if it is possible. Interpreters can be valuable when conducting a needs assessment and meeting with local groups in the field. While cost may preclude the regular use of interpreters for participants, organisers may choose to bring in a SME who may need an interpreter. In addition, organisers and trainers may consider conducting training in the field in local languages for local personnel. Ensure diversity in the locals with whom you consult in the needs assessment.

- Acknowledge limitations in information availability and do not make assumptions. Ensure that participants understand limitations of ‘objectivity’.

- Ensure gender/cultural/age/experience diversity of participants when breaking into small groups where possible and the exercise does not require otherwise.

- Develop skills in intercultural communication.

### Gender Sensitivity

Gender sensitivity (Australian, 2006; Klot, 2007; OECD, 2013) is about being aware of the history of inequality and the impact of that inequality today. This includes recognizing that women and men may be impacted by conflict differently (Sudhakar, 2011), and that masculinities and feminine identities may be interlinked with conflict and violence. As such, men and women have equal responsibility in promoting gender equality. Rather than simply adding a women’s programme to peace work, gender sensitivity requires individuals to use gender as a lens of analysis.

Within a training, it involves:

- Ensuring gender balance amongst participants and trainer faculty. This can involve explicitly stating in the call for applicants the goal of giving opportunities to equally qualified women, devising mentorship programmes and peer support.

- Ensure authors of training materials have a gender balance where possible.

- Consult with experts on gender to ensure a gendered lens is considered throughout the training. During the training, promote equality of participation and ensure a gender balance among group leaders.

- Ensure the curriculum and methods are gender mainstreamed and follow legal and organisational guidelines for non-discrimination.

- Do not simply including a brief unit on gender at the end of a long day. Rather, evaluate the gendered features of all aspects of your training. For example, if a training explores peace processes, evaluate women’s roles within peace process and the degree to which gender issues have been considered in them.

- Make women visible in the training topic and explore gender dynamics. For instance, when exploring peacekeeping missions, discuss women’s experiences with peacekeeping missions and the extent to which a gendered division of roles among peacekeepers exists.
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

- Emphasizing the importance of women and men in questions on gender in CPPB. Promote the positive role that men can play in promoting gender equality. Make the subject appeal to men and ensure that their potential positive contributions are outlined.

### Trauma Sensitivity

Trauma sensitivity ensures all stakeholders are aware of symptoms of trauma, how to avoid re-traumatising an individual, and how to respond to a person whose traumatic experience has been triggered. In addition to educating on trauma in a training, trainers should be sensitive to the potential of triggers within a training. It is imperative that trainers speak about trauma sensitively and be mindful of possible histories of trauma. Trainers can invite participants to speak to you privately if they have any needs in this regard and discuss together ways to address them. Trainers can take extra care in the selection of images/media/topics and, when introducing sensitive material, advise participants on self-care if they experience a trigger.

### Sensitivity to Diverse Needs

This encompasses a broad range of issues, including different physical and mental abilities, learning styles, and level of prior experience with a resource.

- Provide space application and registration forms to confidentially indicate any special needs.
- Provide contact information of the trainer for participants to discuss any special needs in advance of the training.
- Ask participants, which may have a disability, confidentially to approach you for special accommodations, e.g. a person with hearing or eyesight difficulties may need to sit in the front.
- Adjust activities based on needs. For example, make adaptations to an ice-breaker that involves standing when a participant has a physical limitation.
- Be aware that language is sensitive.
- Be aware that participants may have differing levels of expertise with technology and accommodate such diverse backgrounds. At the same time, do not rely on stereotypes/assumptions regarding technological experience based on gender or age. Be aware of any disabilities within the room.
- Tailor training to diverse learning styles – visual, auditory, tactile learners. Recognise that some people learn through sharing ideas, while others learn through doing or through observing others (Hamza, 2002).
- Introverts may become more drained from group work and need time for individual activities.

These suggestions should serve as a starting point rather than a comprehensive list of ways to ensure trainers are sensitive in implementing the method. In our checklist for preparation, implementation, debrief and evaluation, we will infuse these considerations into each step of the training. Rather than being a separate consideration, sensitivity should be at the heart of every stage of the training.
4.5 Summary
The following checklist summarises PeaceTraining.eu’s methods analysis framework:

**Table 4: Recommendations for Implementing Methods**

- Relate method to learning objectives, length of training, level, moment of delivery
- Ensure a mix of methods
- Plan appropriate time for reflection and debriefing
- Consider group composition (size, background, gender, learning needs, special issues)
- Ensure gender mainstreaming
- Ensure method is sensitive to trauma
- Ensure methods are culturally sensitive
- Consider strengths
- What can this method do that others cannot?
- Consider weaknesses and risks: What can be improved upon? What can mitigate risk?
- Consider opportunities
- Consider obstacles/constraints to implementation [such as funding, bureaucracy, time]
- Be aware of pitfalls and how to avoid them
- Be familiar with existing reports of best practices and lessons learned from practitioners.

4.6 Challenges of Implementing Methods
When delivering training, we suggest trainers to be aware of the following issues. Below, we discuss these challenges and provide suggestions on how to mitigate them.

**Risk 1: Disengagement**
Disengagement can stem from lack of interactivity. In the planning stage, ensure adequate variation of activities, including breakout sessions, group work and reflection. During lectures, ensure time is left (during and/or after) for question/answer or discussion sessions. Complement lectures with another, more participatory method in order to apply experience and reflect on knowledge acquired during lectures. In addition, be mindful of the needs of participants for breaks and refreshments. Finally, participants may disengage, because the training is not pitched to the correct level of participants or not made relevant to them. Attention to the composition of the group, the level of the training, and the learning objectives is necessary to mitigate this risk.

**Risk 2: Inadequate Time Management**
Trainers should not attempt to fit too much material into the course. Adequate time is needed for instruction, activities and especially debriefing/follow up and self-reflection on learning process. Set an agenda that is doable within the allotted time and do your best to stick to that timetable. Keep a “parking lot” for issues that need to be discussed in the future. Often, a subject may be raised and determined important for group discussion, but does not fit into the session. Trainers can ‘park’ the subject by writing it on flip-chart paper. The trainer can either adjust the agenda or participants can agree on another opportunity to explore the issue.
Risk 3: Technological Difficulties
Technology should be tested in advance of the training and again when setting up before the training. Have an expert on hand if you are not comfortable. Have a backup plan if necessary. When utilising methods such as virtual simulations, the trainer should assess the level of experience of participants with technology and adjust the training accordingly.

Risk 4: Ineffective Group Work
Let the participants set the ground rules for participation and behaviour themselves. In doing so, participants develop a sense of ownership over this process that could lead to better enforcement later. If an issue arises, review the ground rules as guidelines for effective group work and emphasize the need for all group members to play a role in the course / exercise. Then, monitor group dynamics and help participants develop an equitable distribution of labour. The trainer should not tolerate demeaning comments from participants. The trainer as well should avoid stereotyping. In case of difficulties, address this in the debriefing sessions and ask the participants to reflect upon the working process.

Risk 5: Difficult Participants
Trainers must be able deal with difficult participants. Some examples might include participants who dominate discussion, try to trip up the trainer or other participants, ramble off topic, do not want to participate, are hostile and angry, or simply are not punctual. Such behaviours can impede the learning process and prevent a safe space from forming. It is important for trainers to not personalize these behaviours, stay calm, validate positive behaviour, reorient the discussion to stay on track, actively listen to participants, and model constructive behaviour.

Risk 6: Difficult Discussions
The groundwork for productive discussions can be laid at the start of the training when the trainer creates a safe space through ground rules, introductions, ice-breaking and promoting a non-judgemental environment. When moderating discussion, model respectful communication based on principles outlined above that are consistent with CPPB values of empathy, inclusion, respect and diversity (CCIM). Generate questions that are open-ended and stimulate thinking. Do not avoid difficult topics for fear of disagreement. Rather, reframe the issue that arises, highlight needs and feelings involved, and brainstorm possible responses. Emphasize that disagreement can be healthy, but that participants should be respectful.

Risk 7: Emotionally Difficult Topics
A training has the potential of stirring up emotional struggles or past traumatization. This can occur either when discussing an emotional topic, such as sexual violence, or at any time during a training. When introducing the training, be sure to acknowledge the potential for participants to become emotional and provide them with options on what they can do if such a situation arises. For instance, inform them that they can leave the room if they need to, and send a facilitator to check on them if necessary. Inform them in advance that the training is not the place for personal disclosure and the trainers should make themselves available during the breaks to talk with participants. During such a discussion, signpost them to appropriate support services, help them identify key people they can talk with and remind them of the need to take care of themselves. Remind participants of their commitment to create a respectful environment and a safe space through mitigating gossip or judgement.
PART II

In this section, we analyse six different methods utilised within the field of peace training. This analysis provides guidelines on when and when not to use a particular method, how to implement the method, and how to overcome any potential risks to using this method. Each analysis considered each component of the methods analysis framework, thus creating some uniformity and standardisation. This report represents a collection of each analysis combined with the methods analysis framework. Each individual methods analysis is also available separately as a booklet.

3. Lectures

David Curran (COVUNI)

Lecturing is the most common method used in peace training. Most, if not all, courses surveyed in the Baseline assessment had at least some form of lecture/presentation aspect to them. Interviews undertaken as part of this project indicate that lectures are considered very useful to convey large amounts of information to a sizable audience. Lectures have many advantages. They can allow for rapid dissemination of key information to a wide audience. They can be effective in introductory stages of courses and with large numbers of participants (Kaur 2011). Lectures may be a means for participants to remember, understand and analyse—or to raise awareness/change attitudes. A positive and easily accessible example of how the lecturing format can be used is through the TED Talks series. Although peace training literature prioritises participant ownership through utilising experience of the participants and ensuring material is directly applicable applicability as well as interactive, lectures—a method that does not fit this model—are still the most widely applied method in CPPB training. Why are lectures so popular and widely used, when they run counter to theory? Are there circumstances that enable lectures to become more compatible with peace training theory? Utilising the literature and checklist derived from the Methods Analysis Framework, we show how to implement lectures in peace training in a way that maximises sensitivity to diversity and learner agency.

3.1 What’s Wrong with Using Lectures?

Lecturing can best be described as falling under the prescriptive model of training, where the knowledge flow is predominantly from trainer to learner. Knowledge and expertise of the trainer is the ‘key resource’, which is transferred to participants, who attempt to emulate it. This vertical information flow ‘assumes that the expert knows what the participants need’ (Lederach, 1996, 48-49). Here, learning is not seen as reciprocal or as collaborative. With lectures, a high risk of participants disengaging exists. Participants may disengage because the lecturer does not establish credibility, the material is not made relevant to the participants, or the subject matter is not targeted at the right level for the participants. Alternatively, participants may disengage because the lecturer lacks charisma, does not make the presentation interesting, alienates the participants in some way, or has technical difficulties.

Lectures do not require a relationship between the lecturer and participants, so it becomes more difficult for the lecturer to adapt to different learning needs or to obtain feedback during the lecture as to whether the participants understand the material. Sometimes the lecturer receives clues through body language of the audience (eager nodding, falling asleep), but s/he may or may not
observe these clues or respond appropriately. One may complete a lecture completely unaware of the degree to which the audience has absorbed the information. Lecturers assume the knowledge lies with the lecturer, and consequently do not give the learner any opportunity for self-directed learning or integrating one’s own experience into the lesson. The passivity of the learner may limit what participants retain. The Learning Cone below shows that after two weeks, we only retain 20 % of information we hear but 90 % of what we do.

![The Learning Cone (Dale, 1969)](image)

Here, we see that the passivity of learners and the high risk for disengagement of at least some participants can undermine the effectiveness of lectures.

### 3.2 Guidelines for Maximising the Success of Lectures

The following can be considered to increase the likelihood of success of this method:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>The lecture should be delivered by the most appropriate person</th>
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Lectures can be delivered by trainers or Subject Matter Experts (SMEs). SMEs are often external to the organisation that is organising the training, but they are specialists in their field. For example, EU personnel may give bespoke lectures in ESDC courses, a geographic specialist may provide a guest lecture to practitioners soon to deploy to a particular conflict environment. Interviews with Stabilisation Unit (UK), for instance, identified the use of SMEs to develop participants’ knowledge on key areas of policy. In addition, the Peacetraining.eu Curricula Report (3.2) showed the way many CPPB courses market themselves as having SMEs. Sometimes professional trainers and SMEs conduct trainings together. This trend was identified in interviews with governmental training bodies in the United Kingdom. In this case, the lecturing load is increasingly shared between SMEs, who possess a deep niche background in their field, but lack training skills, and in-house trainers who possess the ability to deliver lectures, but do not have the subject area knowledge. Lectures can be
delivered by the most appropriate person for the context. Knowledge and delivery style are the primary considerations.

**Do Not Overuse This Method**

Be strategic on what you are using lectures for. Lectures can be used to convey theoretical content, facts about CPPB missions, frameworks for intervention (i.e. R2P or legal regimes for protection), procedures and structures, codes of conduct, principles (i.e. Do No Harm), logistics/Administration (Mission Support), but they do not have to be used for all of these things. Choose the best topics for lecturing and plan diverse activities to achieve different learning objectives. You can also use mini-lectures of 5-10 minutes to introduce a subject and then consolidate learning through another activity. For instance, one can introduce basis terms in peace training through a short lecture and then allow time for reflective discussion as a large or small group. If undertaken in a planned manner (i.e. in setting aside time for group and class discussion), participation adds an important element to lectures.

**Think about Increasing Interactivity**

While lectures are broadly conducted in 1-hour formats, trainers wishing to increase interactivity may offer shorter lectures in combination with group discussion. The participation of the ‘class’ in lectures is a key consideration. In planning, it is worth identifying the extent to which a lecture includes participation from the class. Some participants will attend courses with the expectation that they will learn in a direct prescriptive fashion and may be uncomfortable with higher interactivity, whereas others will be enthusiastic about engaging with the issues, and the person delivering the class. A lecturer may be able to find creative ways of engaging with participants who are uncomfortable speaking in front of large groups (written questions, one-one discussions).

There are clear benefits of having participants interact with each other and the lecturer. However, this may come at the cost of the trainer/SME’s ability to deliver the required amount of information within a relatively short time frame. Therefore, planning is key in this area. When considering increasing the extent to which the class participates in lectures, it is worth considering potential barriers to achieving this:

- Large Class size
- Differing abilities in language
- Differing abilities in understanding of topic area
- Differing approaches to learning amongst participants
- Style of lecturer

Then, determine what type of interaction is possible given these constraints. This could include allowing room for questions from participants, incorporating a quiz/game, interspersing discussion points with lectures, asking for written feedback from the audience, asking for volunteers to participate in a role play or activity in front of the group. The more creative the form of interaction, the more memorable the lecture is likely to be.
Preparation

Lecturers may choose to get to know their audience as much as possible in advance. This should help them to pitch their presentation to the right level. Presentation software, such as Prezi, PowerPoint or Keynote, is often used. This software is increasingly criticised by trainers who may prefer a flip chart, but size of the group and time available may make such software necessary. Common mistakes include putting the whole presentation rather than key ideas on the slides or reading directly from the slides, and these should be avoided. In addition, lecturers will need to organise the material in a clear manner and make sure that the material matches the learning objectives. They may choose stories, examples, video clips, etc. to make the presentation interesting. Lectures may assign preparatory material to assist learning. This will either come in the form of readings (academic and non-academic articles) or multimedia (videos, talks, websites).

Delivery

In delivering lectures, ensure the following:

- Clarity in output. Ensure the lecture is introduced with clear set of aims, that topics are covered succinctly, and that participants follow the trail of argument. Understand that not all participants know as much as you do, and that all work at different speed.
- Use of visual aids. Visual aids and presentation software are both valuable. However, do not overload visualisations with text or complicated diagrams. Presentation software is to support the trainer/SME, not to lead them.
- Set agenda and ground-rules. Inform participants of the format and topics that will be covered. Also inform them of any ground rules for participation.
- Ensure interactivity. Even if only a question and answer session, it is important to be interactive with the participants.

Consider Gender

Consideration should be given in the planning of lectures to the number of male and female lecturers/SMEs in order to model equality and ensure gender parity. Gender mainstreaming also constitutes more than numbers. Here, lecturers/SMEs should take into account that the topics which they are discussing will have gendered aspects. This can be in the assumptions guiding the lecture, as well as in the interpretation from participants. Moreover, gender focal points are commonplace in many organisations which can assist lecturers/SMEs in the preparatory stage. A further gender-related consideration is the guidance of the organisation who participants are working for. For instance, those working (and therefore undertaking training) for the government Stabilisation Unit are bound by Law (the 2014 Gender Equality Act in this case).

Cultural Diversity

Likewise, attention should be paid to the cultural diversity amongst the participants. This may be a challenge (particularly for an SME who is providing a one-off session and has relatively little time to adapt), yet could be of importance if there are to be a number of lectures. Each person in the room (including yourself) will arrive to the lecture with a degree of cultural ‘baggage’. This will influence how they react to information, and engage with other students. This could be exacerbated if the
topic area covers areas of sensitivity. Lectures in peace and conflict field occasionally use examples of real-life conflict situations. This can have an impact on those attending a course who have lived through conflict (in some cases, violent conflict). Therefore, care should be taken in understanding the class, and in introducing the lecture. This is where the cultural and conflict sensitivity which we recommended in our 5-Sensitivities Model is critical as it helps lecturers and trainers to be aware of the different backgrounds and their implication on the learning environment.

Utilise E-Learning Opportunities

Lecturing lends itself very effectively to the e-learning field. The success of TED talks, as well as widespread availability of podcasts both demonstrate this. In considering developing lectures for e-learning activities, it is important to bear in mind:

- Attention span of those watching/listening
- Bandwidth/file size of lecture

Here, it is worth planning more succinct lectures, in order to be assured that they can be downloaded by a wide range of people. Lectures can be incorporated into e-learning models. Lectures can be streamed live or recorded and provided in an audio or video file with accompanying presentation slides. Moreover, lectures have been turned into podcasts, by institutes such as the London School of Economics. A new area linked to e-learning is the use of social media. This can be relatively simple, for instance asking an audience to use social media to interact during and after a lecture. Moreover, initiatives such as Facebook live, and Periscope demonstrate that live video streaming of events can broaden the reach of lectures. Again, consideration over the extent to which the target audience are regular users of social media is important.

Evaluations

Since lecturing involves the passing of large quantities of information from instructor to participants, forms of evaluation of participants would assess how much the participant has learned and what level of understanding has he/she demonstrated. This can be undertaken through simple quizzes or tests (to gain insight into the level of understanding). In addition, monitored group discussion and group work can indicate the extent to which students understand concepts. These processes assess knowledge acquired by the participant, illustrating that knowledge acquisition from an expert generally is prioritized over developing skills or transforming attitudes. Regarding evaluation of the lecture, participants provide feedback of the lecturer’s strengths and weaknesses through a questionnaire. As this is undertaken at the end of lectures (and at times courses), the lecturer is unable to integrate feedback until the next iteration of the course. Since evaluation of the instructor is often undertaken after the event, little room is left for the instructor to amend his/her approach during the session. The process can also be time consuming and cumbersome for course participants – particularly if it is undertaken on a common basis (at the end of each session). Questionnaires can also be used by the training organisers to determine whether a lecturer will be invited back.

One weakness with evaluations, though, is that they generally do not test whether this information is retained over time or applied practically. Further development of long-term evaluations may be of benefit.
### 3.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

<table>
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<th>Strengths:</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Rapid dissemination of key information to a wide audience. Effective in</td>
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<td>being used in introductory stages of courses.</td>
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<td>• Lecturing and Subject Matter Experts (SME) inputs can contribute to</td>
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<tr>
<td>participants’ ability to remember, understand, and analyse a range of</td>
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<td>issues.</td>
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<td>• Factual, conceptual and procedural knowledge (as outlined by Bloom in</td>
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<td>3.2) can be conveyed. Lectures may present new knowledge, explain/</td>
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<td>illustrate how practical CPPB skills (like mediation) work in theory.</td>
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<td>Moreover, provocative input in lectures can be used to raise awareness</td>
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<td>and to trigger/stir critical reflection within participants upon</td>
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<td>attitudes and skill.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• The lecturing format introduces participants to SME from other fields.</td>
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<td>This can be of great utility when a course is meant to cover a wide</td>
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<td>area of knowledge, incorporating geographic and thematic expertise, as</td>
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<td>well as institutional knowledge about the frameworks under which</td>
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<td>participants may be working.</td>
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<table>
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<th>Weaknesses:</th>
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<tr>
<td>• The prescriptive approach used in lectures tends to minimise the</td>
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<td>importance of the cultural context, which is crucial in CPPB work</td>
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<td>(Lederach, 1996; 65).</td>
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<td>• Acquiring and having lot of knowledge on CPPB issues, theories and</td>
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<td>concepts, does not automatically means that participants are able to</td>
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<tr>
<td>apply and use it in the field.</td>
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<td>• The participants are forced to adapt regardless of background or</td>
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<td>learning styles, to the method (Lederach, 1996; 68).</td>
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<td>• Participants can fail to engage or become unable to understand the</td>
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<td>information or experience information overload.</td>
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<td>• This method does not take advantage of the participants’ experiences.</td>
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<td>• At their most basic, lectures are 45 minutes talking, 15 minutes’</td>
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<td>questions. The discussion time is often vulnerable (large group, not</td>
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<td>trusty atmosphere, the trainer longer talking).</td>
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<td>• The lecture format is reliant on the personality of instructor (</td>
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<td>particularly external SMEs).</td>
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<td>• Language barriers or misunderstandings can occur between the</td>
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<td>instructor/SME and participants. This could have negative consequences</td>
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<td>on the chances that information is transmitted.</td>
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<td>• Cost and availability concerns may impact on the ability for</td>
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<td>organisations to incorporate SMEs. The use of those ‘local’ to the</td>
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<td>conflict zone may be a useful avenue of development. Again, there are</td>
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<tr>
<td>considerations within undertaking this task (time, cost, availability,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partisanship).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Opportunities:
- The use of multimedia tools (YouTube), as well as the ability to access global news resources provides an opportunity for greater depth in lectures.
- SMEs can provide expert knowledge of specific local conditions/deployments where participants may be deploying to.
- ‘Flipped Learning’ can develop lecturing further. Flipped approaches ‘flip’ the traditional environments in which we learn (i.e. the ‘lecture’ is provided to participants as preparation for a facilitated seminar at the time when a traditional lecture would take place).
- Technology opens up opportunities for distance learning whereby the lecturer can use virtual fora to lecture (for instance, skype video, Facebook-live) or upload small lectures/podcasts for trainees to download. Trainers can utilise social media as a more interactive way in which to conduct discussion at the end of a lecture.

Threats:
- Danger that participants will not listen to lecture. Limited funding for cost, travel, logistics of SMEs.
- High dependence on lecturer/SMEs’ knowledge and performance.
- Danger of inherent bias towards Western/euro-centric understandings and models of conflict due to potential Western-bias of SMEs.
- Utilising Webinars and other forms of e-learning require infrastructure for streaming internet, which is highly variable across the world.

Table 5: SWOT Analysis for Lectures
3.4 Recommendations
The following recommendations are designed to overcome obstacles in within this method:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lack of interactivity</th>
<th>Lecturer/SME logistics</th>
<th>Cultural homogeneity and sensitivity</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Trauma Sensitivity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• In planning stage of course ensure adequate timetabling of breakout sessions, group work, reflection</td>
<td>• Ensure adequate planning of SMEs in advance</td>
<td>• Acknowledge this as a limitation of lecturing model</td>
<td>• Ensure a balance of male and female SMEs.</td>
<td>• Sensitive selection of images/media/topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• During lectures, ensure space is left for interactive</td>
<td>• Look to incorporate range of SMEs and lecturers</td>
<td>• Encourage critical reflection from participants about limitation of models presented (use of multimedia, case studies, group discussion)</td>
<td>• Consider gendered aspects of topic.</td>
<td>• Say in advance that images or excerpts may evoke memories and what to do if one reacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Explore concept of flipped learning (see above)</td>
<td>• Seek to incorporate voices of the ‘local’ in lectures</td>
<td>• Ensure that participants understand limitations of ‘objectivity’ in lecturers/SME’s presentation.</td>
<td>• Utilise experts on gender when preparing the lecture.</td>
<td>• Be mindful of possible histories of trauma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Complement lectures with another, more participatory method in order to apply, experience and reflect on knowledge acquired during lectures.</td>
<td>• Mix trainers and Lecturers/SMEs to develop new models of lecturing</td>
<td>• In planning, consider non-Western concepts/examples/models.</td>
<td>• Follow legal and organisations guidelines around non-discrimination.</td>
<td>• Speak about trauma sensitively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Be mindful that non-native language speakers may not feel comfortable asking questions in a large group.</td>
<td>• Ensure a gendered balance of authors.</td>
<td>• Sensitivity to participants from conflict areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Utilise interpreters, and liaise with them in advance.</td>
<td>• Evaluate women’s access to peacebuilding positions and decision-making positions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Group Work and Collaborative Problem-Solving

Leila Demarest (KULEUVEN)

4.1 Uses and Benefits

Group work is commonly used in Conflict Prevention and Peace Building (CPPB) training activities. In 3.2 Curricula Analysis, we found that leading organisations such as Europe’s New Training Initiative for Civilian Crisis Management (ENTRi), the Folke Bernadotte Academy (FBA), and European Security and Defence College (ESDC) promote this method as an engaging and practical way of learning within peace training. In addition, several CPBB training handbooks commonly suggest the method for use in training (e.g. CAMP and Saferworld, 2014; Mishnick, n.d.; Neufeldt et al., 2002).

Group work involves participants working together in small clusters in order to achieve a learning objective. Multiple techniques and approaches exist to group work and collaborative learning (see for example, Barkley, Cross, and Major, 2004). Table 1 below includes some commonly known examples such as fish bowl (Miller and Benz, 2008; White, 1974), jigsaw (Elliot Aronson, 1978), brainwriting (e.g. Heslin, 2009; VanGundy, 1983), or think-pair-share (e.g. McTighe and Lyman, 1988).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td>A group of individuals attempts to come up with as many ideas as possible for a given problem. The discussion can be structured or unstructured. Ideas are spoken out loud and can be put on record or not (which also affects the effectiveness of the method). In principle, evaluations of ideas are postponed to later group discussions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brainwriting</td>
<td>A group of individuals attempts to come up with as many ideas as possible for a given problem. Each individual first writes down own ideas and then notes are passed around. Other group members can build on other’s notes to develop new ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish Bowl</td>
<td>A group of trainees is divided in two groups. The ‘in-group’ is seated in a circle and discusses a particular problem. The ‘out-group’ surrounds the in-group and provides input on the debate at specific moments in time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jigsaw</td>
<td>Each individual in a group has the task of becoming an expert on a specific subject and instructing other members of the group on this topic. Input from all members is needed to complete the task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think-pair-share</td>
<td>Individuals first think on a specific problem or task by themselves and write down ideas. They are then paired to another individual. Both participants discuss the problem together. This technique can also be used for more than two group members.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Techniques for Group Work as a Learning Method
Group work can be used in CPPB training as a short activity or as a longer process. For instance, one short activity involves allowing participants to reflect on different concepts such as ‘conflict, or ‘reconciliation’ and their meanings (see Example 1). Such an exercise is often limited in time and can be closely associated with a brainstorming exercise.

**Example 1:** Each participant is asked to work individually for about ten minutes to complete the following three sentences:
- “A conflict is …”
- “When I observe a conflict, I …”
- “When I am involved in a conflict, then I …”

Then the participants are asked to sit in groups of 3 – 5 persons and share their thoughts. They note common issues, questions, interesting findings that emerge from the discussion for reporting in the plenary. The groups work for about 20 minutes. Each group reports their observations in the plenary and a discussion follows (Mischnick, n.d., p. 28).

**Table 8: Group Work Example 1**

Other projects can last days or weeks and can involve designing a peace intervention programme or working together to solve a simulated crisis. This commonly requires more time and extensive collaboration between group members (see Example 2).

**Example 2:** In the KAIPTC Advanced Stabilization and Reintegration course, participants learn to design a reintegration programme in the context of Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration (DDR) policies, taking into account realities of the ground. The final exercise exists of practical group work by building on the fictitious case ‘Mewaliland’ (designed by Transition International, Interview, April 2017).

**Table 9: Group Work Example 2**

Literature on group work recommends working in small groups of 3 to 6 participants each. Depending on the tasks larger groups (8-10) can work as well (Davis, 1999). Since most trainings in the CPPB field are conducted with 15 to 30 participants, a facilitator may divide the participants to 3-6 groups. An important task for the facilitator is to visit each group, stimulating discussion and ensuring participants are engaged.

It is important to also keep in mind that group work, especially when making use of sub-groups, often requires initial presentation of the learning objective and group tasks, time spent within small groups, and reporting back to the larger group, followed by discussion. An important aspect to consider is that presentation of group work does not become overly long or repetitive and ‘lecture-like’, which can cause participants to pay less attention, hence reducing learning possibilities. It can also be important for the facilitator to summarize findings, highlight different perspectives etc.

In general, a trainer does not teach a particular subject matter. Nonetheless, the role of the facilitator can be crucial for the success of the group exercise. The development of task instructions, and in particular the regulation of group dynamics require skilled trainers. As the above discussions demonstrate, the technique is mostly participant-centred. The participants deliver the input, engage in debate with others, share views, and collaborate.
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

**Benefits**

Group work is a form of collaborative learning (Hmelo-Silver et al., 2013). Collaborative learning approaches principally argue that students learn better when engaging in discussion and working together with other students than when attending teacher-based lectures because it enables them to digest, synthesize and apply the material rather than just absorb it. In addition, the value of working together rather than individually is related to the conviction that group work can spur creative thinking and solutions by bringing together diverse perspectives on a specific problem.

Brainstorming, for example, has been commonly used as a creative thinking technique. Alex Osborn (1957) laid the groundwork for the use of brainstorming in various settings and principally advanced the technique as a reaction to unproductive workplace meetings in which evaluative pressures inhibited people from freely voicing ideas. He argued that groups could produce higher quality ideas if they: 1) focused on quantity rather than quality; 2) withheld criticism of ideas and group members; 3) welcomed unusual ideas and outside-the-box thinking; 4) built on members’ input.

Group work as a learning method has not only been associated with creative thinking and improved problem-solving, but also with certain attitudes and skills conducive to working in groups and multicultural environments, such as valuing diversity and conflict resolution skills (Gamson, 1994). Research has focused on attitudinal changes in respect for diversity for instance (e.g. Cabrera et al., 2003), which can be related to research on the contact theory (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew and Tropp, 2006). Group work could also potentially support social skills such as active listening, respect for other’s input/valuing diversity in opinion, democratic decision-making etc. (Cavalier, 1995; Gillies, 2003). However, the development of such skills can require more intensive training on social skills as such rather than assuming that it flows from group work, however (Buchs and Butera, 2015; Gillies, 2003). This can include specific training on active listening, for example. These social skills are in turn highly valuable for peace practitioners working in local contexts.

Group work also promotes adult learning. Adult learning theory stresses the need for adults to be engaged in the training process, to be able to draw on their own experiences, and to focus on specific problems and skills relevant to their future work (Knowles, 1984). Group work provides a space for participants to share experiences and learn from each other, and such collaboration is valued in peace training. Group work can promote the CPPB value of diversity by promoting mutual understanding among participants from diverse backgrounds. Course designers often aim to select participants from different backgrounds (NGO, UN, state agencies, etc.), nationalities, and with different experiences so that this leads to fruitful discussion and learning during training. A diverse group is also more likely to reflect the situation in the field, where different actors must work together in the implementation of CPPB activities. Skilled trainers can facilitate the group work process through encouraging participants to speak, posing stimulating questions to the groups and encouraging participants to speak.

**4.2 Guidelines for Implementation**

While group work is a popular training method, the literature indicates that its effectiveness depends on specific conditions (e.g. Stroebe and Diehl, 1994; Davis, 1999; Isaksen and Gaulin, 2005; Michaelsen, Fink, and Knight, 1997; Thompson and Brajkovich, 2003). A trainer should carefully

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4 The term ‘cooperative learning’ can also be used.
consider how to implement group work in order to ensure positive learning outcomes. We provide practical tips for trainers interested in using this method, or who are currently using this method but seek to enhance its effectiveness.

One of the major challenges with group work that has been raised in the literature relates to group dynamics. This issue was already noted by Osborn (1957), who highlighted the tendency of some group members not to contribute productively to discussions because of inhibiting social norms. Sometimes, lack of productive participation can stem from personality traits such as introversion and shyness, and it is possible group work can have a negative effect on the ability of introverts to learn (e.g. Cain, 2012). Although there is still debate on this, we recommend promoting a balance of group work and individual work in training to avoid ‘introverts’ from becoming too strained or fatigued due to frequent group work exercises. Alternatively, some individuals may take advantage of the process to freeride (i.e. rely on the work of other group members) or participate in social loafing. The facilitator, upon visiting small groups, can make sure all are playing a role. In addition, the assignment could be designed to ensure each participant is responsible for a part. Finally, another important aspect concerns the different personality traits. Diversity among learning styles (Kolb, 1984) should be recognised, accommodated for, and analysed.

Alternatively, some individuals may take advantage of the group work process to freeride (i.e. rely on the work of other group members) or participate in social loafing. The facilitator, upon visiting small groups, can make sure all are playing a role. In addition, the assignment could be designed to ensure each participant is responsible for a part. If a participant continues to behave negatively, the trainer should intervene and discuss the issue with the participant in private.

Peace training often involves participants from various professional and cultural backgrounds, and diversity, despite its benefits, may pose specific risks for group work effectiveness. While group work as a learning method relies to a large extent on the view that group diversity is most likely to spur creativity and insight from different perspectives (McLeod, Lobel, Cox, 1996), research has shown that heterogeneous groups may create conflict and negative group dynamics, (Schullery and Schullery, 2006). Such negative difficulties may impair the group’s productivity.

Another difficult dynamic of working with a heterogeneous group involves the danger of replicating racial, class, gender, or national hierarchies within a group. Group work is premised on the equality of all participants and a lack of hierarchy between them, but it is important to recognize that preconceptions and negative stereotypes of particular groups can enter the training activity. Participants can come to the training with certain stereotypes against specific nationalities or races, or develop a negative viewpoint of others, when, for example, these lack the language skills to participate. These social dynamics can lead to the dominance of certain participants and the silencing, belittling, or bullying of others.

For instance, studies have shown that men can neglect women’s input in groups (e.g. Brown and Mistry, 2006; Heller and Hollabaugh, 1992). An important task for a facilitator can be to make sure that women do not get ‘pushed away’ in group work and that any instances of discrimination are dealt with by the facilitator and group. Splitting groups by gender is not necessarily advised, as the reality on the ground will bring men and women together to cooperate. Hence, the group work should reflect diversity, yet negative dynamics have to be monitored and mitigated.
One potential difficult for trainers is that the participants generally do not know each other beforehand. The lack of a pre-existing relationship, as students within a university course may have, and the short timeframe of trainings (usually a few days) mean that participants must meet, establish ground rules, and feel comfortable working together all within a very short timeframe.

The following are ways trainers can increase comfort of participants and promote positive group dynamics:

**Guidelines for Minimizing Negative Group Dynamics**

- Use icebreakers and ‘getting to know you’ activities to ensure participants become acquainted with each other in a relaxed setting. Keep in mind that participants may not have had prior interaction.
- Support small group discussions by visiting each group. Trainers can help discussion by asking probing questions or helping to ensure that everyone speaks.
- Help the participants with timekeeping.
- If participants are disruptive or non-participatory, the facilitator should be prepared to address the issue. Depending on the severity, the trainer may just remind the group of ground rules, speak privately with the participant or facilitate a discussion in small groups.
- Keep in mind that language proficiency might be an inhibiting factor to participation for some and work to accommodate for such participants.
- Use a variety of techniques to cater to different participants’ strengths. Consider the feasibility of different techniques prior to implementing them.
- Make sure the task really requires group work, and that roles can be divided up easily. Drawing from each other’s experiences and insights should be key to the task.
- Make sure that the group task is communicated clearly to the whole group. Provide written instructions. Visit each group early on and ask if they have any questions.
- Write material down (flip charts, post-its) to avoid productivity loss in group brainstorming.
- Suggest the group agree on a facilitator, a notetaker and possibly a timekeeper.
- Make sure that enough chairs, tables, writing materials etc. are present and that the learning space is large enough for the participants.

**Table 10: Guidelines for Minimizing Negative Group Dynamics**

**4.3 E-Learning**

Turning our attention to external dimensions affecting the group work method, we focus in particular on the potential of e-learning tools, which are increasingly being explored and developed for CPPB training. The use of information and communication technology to support group problem-solving and collaborative learning (Group Support Systems or GSS) has engendered strong interest in the literatures on cognitive psychology and education (Dennis and Williams, 2003; Hmelo-Silver et al., 2013; Kreijns, Kirschner, and Jochems, 2003; Miyake, 2007; Nunamaker et al., 1996). In the brainstorming literature, electronic brainstorming via anonymized online fora has been investigated as a method to reduce social anxiety and production blocking because participants can write down ideas instantaneously. The advantage of these Information Communication Technology (ICT) approaches is that they can engage a larger number of people, and from various locations. Clearly, they hold strong potential for CPPB training. For instance, they would allow users to connect from
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

various parts of the world and bring different perspectives on CPPB, potentially also allowing for the inclusion of local voices. Furthermore, e-learning tools can reduce costs for training by reducing costs for participants as well as developers (after an initial investment).

Yet e-learning tools also pose threats. Kreijns, Kirschner, and Jochems (2003), for example, argue that the major problem of online collaborative learning tools is that they do not sufficiently take into account the nature of social interaction and group- and community-forming processes. They argue that learning environments should not only focus on cognitive goals and task-oriented processes, but should also allow for casual interaction between group members to spur engagement with the tools. This issue is particularly relevant for CPPB training, where the building of a network between participants and the sharing of experiences is crucial. To promote group interaction on an e-learning platform, the interaction skills of an online facilitator or moderator can be key to promote positive group dynamics. Hence, the role of a facilitator can also be crucial in online group work, as is the case with group work in general.

4.4 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths:</th>
<th>Weaknesses:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Projects can enhance creative thinking as participants work together, combine insights, and propose innovative solutions to common problems.</td>
<td>• Effectiveness highly dependent on specific conditions, such as positive group dynamics, respect for diversity by participants, and a shared desire to achieve a goal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Diversity of participants can promote enhanced understanding of different perspectives and improve communication and problem-solving skills.</td>
<td>• Requires a skilled facilitator who lays the foundation for successful group work through ground rules, oversees groups as they are working, and promotes equal participation. Facilitator should ensure the task fits the time frame allotted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Group work can support network creation in the field of CPPB.</td>
<td>• Risk of productivity loss if information is not recorded and shared with the trainer and group.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities:</th>
<th>Threats:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• E-learning developments form opportunities for group work as ICT can bring people at remote locations together to communicate, engage, and collaborate.</td>
<td>• E-learning platforms do not always succeed in creating a community among participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• E-learning can attract participants from various parts of the world, hence bringing more and potentially richer perspectives on CPPB practices</td>
<td>• The network created through a common group experience within trainings is widely recognized as important within peace training. One risk is that e-learning may be used to substitute the group experience rather than enhance it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• E-learning can be cost-efficient</td>
<td>• New perspectives on e-learning platforms could potentially mitigate these threats.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: SWOT Analysis for Group Work
4.5 Conclusion

Group work as a learning method is firmly rooted in adult learning theory. It allows participants to bring in their work experiences in the learning process and learn from each other. For CPPB training in particular, group work can also reflect realities on the ground, which require coordination and cooperation between different actors. The experiences of group work can foster the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for CPPB practice. Furthermore, group work can help establish a rapport between participants and support the creation of expert communities.

Yet while the advantages of group work are impressive, it is important to acknowledge that only well-prepared and skilfully guided group work leads to these positive results. Negative social dynamics, stemming from freeriding, negative stereotypes of others in the group, dominance, introversion etc. can jeopardize the effectiveness of group work and the training experience. While the method is participant-centred, it is crucial to recognize the importance of the trainer in guiding the group work, mitigating tensions, and providing feedback to the learning experience.
5. Case Studies

Catalina Uzcanga Lacabe & Patricia García Amado (UDEUSTO)

5.1 Uses and Benefits

The case study method consists of the intensive analysis of a complex and specific event. It allows the participants the opportunity to apply their knowledge and skills in order to critically assess and engage in decision-making processes within a particular scenario. Participants are given information about a particular situation and they must solve a problem or perform a task under real life constraints of time, partial or flawed information, antagonistic perspectives, and complex variables (Hamza, 2012). Case studies may be used to improve context analysis skills, to help participants think about how to design and evaluate peacebuilding programming, or both (Neufeld, et al., 2002, 220).

Trainers select cases based on the learning objectives. Cases may be extracted from real life situations. Often, trainers choose a particular case based on its ability to help participants understand a particular context, or to develop a set of skills particularly relevant to a specific CPPB area or task (e.g. international humanitarian law, negotiations with armed actors, grassroots reconciliation processes, conflict prevention in urban context, community engagement). The case may be chosen due to its level of success or based on the particular challenges it poses.

Cases can be ‘customized’ or ‘tailor-made’. Here, the trainer designs the case study after a previous assessment on participants’ training needs, and based on a set of relevant cases provided by the participant agency/institution/partner. This approach can promote reflection on peace practises and lessons learned, encourage self and organisational evaluation, and also enable strategic planning and programming.

A case study can allow the participants to develop their critical and creative thinking, as well as their communication, interpersonal and managerial skills. It also allows participants to address complex situations, put into practice tools for conflict analysis, draft strategic planning or strengthen programming. The method further involves significant group work that would allow participants to put in practice and test their communication and interpersonal skills. The feedback and the reflective activities from the group dynamics are essential in this sense (Zabala & Arnau, 2014, 138). Moreover, case studies provide opportunities for behavioural and attitudinal change (Schilling, 2012). For instance, through the use of roles (either real-life or fictionalized), participants can build empathy and be sensitized on cultural, functional and institutional diversity.

Case studies are participant-centred, as they provide participants with the opportunity to apply their learning to situations directly applicable to their work. Participants take ownership of the process, and hence play an active role in their learning. The case study is a participant-centred method, with trainees individually and collectively playing an active role in their own learning process. Following Bloom’s revised taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002; Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching, 2012), case studies techniques involve the six dimensions of the cognitive process, with a special focus in application and creativity.

Case studies prepare trainees to deal with the unforeseen and to analyse, manage and properly address problems, dilemmas and difficulties under considerable time, information, and resources
constraints, frequent features of CPPB scenarios. It requires the participant to adopt an action perspective (Foran, 2002), and develops his/her self-awareness and identity as a CPPB practitioner.

This document presents a step by step guide to conduct training using thematic and tailored case studies with an explanation of the methodology, the requirements for trainers and participants and relevant considerations to successfully achieve the desired target: participants’ development of CPPB capacities. The methodology involves the trainer acting as facilitator, coach, adviser, and evaluator. Consequently, a case study would benefit from a trainer that is an experienced practitioner in the field of CPPB with subject-matter experience as well as extensive training skills.

Generally, in peace training, case study methods can be part of pre-deployment, in the field training, or evaluation processes. The time frame for the case study exercise should be adapted to the scope and learning objectives of the training. Trainers’ estimates range between a 90-minute session to 1 or 2 days or even a 5 days intensive workshop to complete the whole process of presentation of the case, analysis, discussion of the eventual resolution and proposing a programme (Trainer and consultant, interviewed in February, the 15th 2017). If the course is online, some hours must be blocked for the individual work and for the online discussions, both in small groups and for the presentation.

5.2 Guidelines for Implementation

Preparation

Whenever possible, the trainer should conduct a pre-training assessment to evaluate participants’ needs, profiles, experiences in the CPPB field, expectations and previous training. This can be done through a questionnaire or holding meetings with the participants or their representatives. In any case, the trainer must always adapt the case study to the target audience of the training, considering participants diversity and professional background.

After setting the theme or issue to be addressed, the trainer may then establish the learning outcomes and the competencies to be developed during the session/s. The learning outcomes would be framed in terms of knowledge, attitudes, and skills. For instance, a case study training session for police forces on human rights would have as its main outcomes the activation of knowledge of key concepts of human rights and non-discrimination, the attitude to accept human rights as the basis of policing, and the skills to use the human rights analytical tool to perform at concrete policing situations (FRA, 2013, 189).

Then, a case must be selected and elaborated based on its relevance to the role on which the participants are being trained, and its adequacy to the learning objectives. To ensure optimum relevance, the trainer could develop the case in conjunction with the participants. In the case of tailored case studies the participants would provide information over several events they would like to explore, that would be further elaborated into a case study by the trainer.

Once the case is set, the trainer proceeds to develop a written text that will be used to introduce the case study to the participants. The text should provide a brief summary containing contextual information (location, historical background to the conflict or disruptive situation) and key data on the event that will be analysed (actors, triggers, main features and chronology of the event e.g.). In addition, the document must include a concrete task to be fulfilled by participants, some key
questions and assessment criteria that will guide the trainees in their analysis. For quality assurance, the case should be subjected to screening of other colleagues to check its applicability, relevance and degree of complexity in line with the learning objectives and the previous experience of the participants.

### How to identify a good case study

First, case studies have to be a real event, with all its complexity, totally embedded in the real context and experience of the participants in order to enable their full engagement. Moreover, they have to encourage both debate and collaboration. In this sense, the best cases are “those that allow for several assessments of the same situation, leading to several equally plausible and compelling conclusions, each with different implications for action” (Angelo & Boehrer, 2002). Case studies have to give the opportunity to participants to put in practice their knowledge and skills, but its solution must exceed what one single participant could have worked out individually (Boehrer & Linsky, 1990). Finally, the case study must facilitate the use of theories, concepts and tools explained during the training, but also contribute to enhance behaviours and attitudes required for a successful collaborative work and peacebuilding, such as empathy, restrain, stress management, and confidence.

**Table 12: How to Identify a Good Case Study**

The trainer should be gender aware and must incorporate gender specific information in the case and request participants to consider the variable of gender in their analysis. This can involve parity in numbers of males and females, consultation with gender experts in the design phase, challenging stereotyping or discrimination, and assessing the gender impact of an intervention. Effectiveness in gender mainstreaming can be one criterion for the participants and the trainer to be evaluated afterwards. Prior to the session, the trainer may identify what points could trigger the debate within the case study, and how to address any sensitive issue that could arise. She/he can prepare to provide further clarifications on the case, establish comparisons with other similar cases to illustrate on how things were solved, and develop a number of questions to enable an in-depth look to certain topics.

### Delivery

Before delivering the case to participants it is necessary to create a ‘safe environment’. Personal experiences, cultural norms, gender roles, and hierarchical structures could deter certain participants from actively involved themselves in the process. In order to enable an atmosphere of trust and confidence the trainer has to establish a set of rules for a positive discussion and the active engagement of every participant. Ground rules can include no judgement about personal actions, decisions and opinions, and that all questions are to be respected and treated as relevant. Secondly, the trainer can set the tone through emphasizing that this is an opportunity for collective and individual learning objectives and discussion on improving CPPB practice should be constructive.

For tailored case studies, it is common that people that were present in the real event take part in the training. In order to avoid blaming and shaming behaviours, the trainer could introduce examples of the same type of challenge or problem in a different setting. The aim of this strategy is to show how challenges are not unique to them, and to show how these difficulties are consistent
and widespread around the peacebuilding field or are the consequence of the organizational culture (PATRIR, 2017).

Once the rules for positive discussion and engagement are established, it is time to introduce the case to the participants. This can be done either by the trainer or by someone who was involved in the event under analysis. The main concepts applied to the case should be clarified, and participants have to be informed on the main features of the event, the desired learning outcomes and how these are related to the specific case. The information must be provided in a written text to the participants with an extension not longer than 2 or 3 pages. Alert the participants that the information in the document might contain bias and is incomplete, since it tries to reflect real situations. Information could derive from witnesses’ accounts and contain the point of view of different parties to conflict.

The trainer can provide participants with a clear task to be fulfilled and the main questions that would guide the group discussions, enabling critical thinking and decision making. Participants have to read instructions carefully and formulate any question needed to clarify their assignment and to understand the setting. Then participants are divided into small groups of 4 to 5 people and given a time frame to complete their task. Individuals can maintain their own professional/personal roles within the group, or could be provided with a different group role (i.e. peacebuilding task force, NGO project manager, local community leader, UN agency staff, or peacekeepers). Providing a unique role to the group avoids participants bringing their own interests/grievances to the discussion and contributes to the performance of collaborative practices (PATRIR, 2017).

The more diverse the group is—in terms of gender, culture, experience or professional background—the more interesting, rich and creative will be the proposed solutions. However, participants should have a similar degree of expertise and previous experience in the CPPB field to balance the learning process and allow for positive feedback dynamics among the different sub-groups. This could add to the development of collaborative attitudes when participants are aware and can practically understand other organizational process and mind-settings.

During group work, there should be enough time for a brief brainstorming to discuss ideas in order to choose an initial plan for action (between 30 to 50 minutes depending on the complexity of the case). While the group work is ongoing, the trainer can act as a coach to solve possible discussion bottlenecks, re-launch or redirect the debate if the discussion has led to a dead end, and ensure the participation of all group members. Trainees should be mindful that their proposal should be adapted to the specific setting and context and avoid one-size-fit-all solutions. To facilitate the later exposition of the group assessment and planning the trainer could provide participants with paper sheets and colour pens, or other materials allowing for a visual presentation.

After working in groups, findings and possible ways for action should be discussed in plenary with all participants, leading to a second round of debate and further discussion. There are many different ways to proceed with the plenary session. The trainer could ask one of the groups to debrief on their main findings and conclusions, making open questions about the group’s definition and analysis of the problem, and the main challenges posed by the case, to follow with an explanation of their proposed plan to complete the assigned task. The presentation to the whole group can lead to a discussion about whether the gathered information and the resolution are appropriated. The rest of participants may introduce their own perspective and add nuances to the definition/analysis of the
problem, make suggestions to improve the group’s plan of action, or point out their concerns over its suitability, applicability, conflict sensitivity, sustainability, etc. Another way to proceed with the plenary could be the trainer introducing the same open questions to all the participants and divide the debate in different sets addressing problem/conflict analysis, challenges and opportunities of the case, and ways of action, with every group exposing their perspective and proposals in the different stages and engaging in debate. The trainer has to be attentive to the debates that are taking place and make sure no relevant issue is left outside of the discussion. There might be some problems that could be, consciously or unconsciously, avoided by the participants due to its sensitivity or unsettling character, so it is important to note what is being left unsaid if the trainer considers it is crucial to the learning outcomes of the session (Schwartz, p. 4). Consequently, an experienced trainer is required to adequately introduce and manage the discussion over these issues, explaining the importance of its debate in a safe environment before this problem manifest or reappears in participants’ real life.

Initially, the goal of the case study is not on reaching an agreement over the resolution of the task, but on allowing for the discussion and visualization of the multiple perspectives and interpretations over the same event, understanding the complexities of CPPB settings and performance, and testing participants’ capabilities for problem-solving, decision-making, planning, management, etc. The case study resolution might eventually be confronted with the solution adopted in the real case to explain how the event unfolded and discuss what could have been avoided or can be learned from the example.

**Debriefing**

After the case study session had concluded, the trainer may facilitate a debriefing exercise to reflect on individual and group participation, the difficulties and challenges of discussion and decision-making, possible problems with adaptation to the designed roles, and how participants have felt during the process. The trainer can also highlight the achievements, review the skills and tools put in practice and discuss how the case study exercise is related to the overall learning objectives (Schilling, 2012, 38).

In order to consolidate the learning, the trainer should help participants determine what learning can be generalised and may be applied in other settings, and what learning may be unique to the specific case. Here, the trainers’ extensive knowledge of other peacebuilding processes or conflict settings could be of great help.

This is an important part of the exercise, as it allows both the trainer and the participants to conclude and understand the salience of the process they have undertaken. Consequently, the trainer has to make sure that there is enough time at the end of the session for a proper debriefing.

**Assessment and Evaluation**

Evaluation and assessment exercises could take part during the session or in its aftermath. During the session the trainer may check in with the participants to determine if they are able to evaluate the programme immediately after concluding it. The evaluation may assess the quality of the training, the achievement of the participants and the accomplishment of the learning objectives. Sometimes, participants are too mentally exhausted after the exercise to evaluate or may benefit
from a bit of time before evaluating. Delaying the evaluation, though, risks not getting information from all of the participants.

The trainer may require the participants to do a self-evaluation of their participation, including the most important lessons, skills and tools they want to keep and include in their future performance. The participants may also be given the opportunity to assess group work performance and performance of peers. Finally, they would have to evaluate the quality of the trainer and the positive aspects and the flaws of the case study training session. The appropriateness of the case should be evaluated by participants, just like the trainer’s facilitation and the timing. This assessment could be a written blind review and may require extra time, outside of the training session, to be completed and submitted to the trainer or training institution.

The evaluation can show whether participants have developed the expected competences (conflict analysis skills, establishment of an action plan, decision-making skills, etc.) and are able to apply those abilities and transfer them to other situations. The learning process of the participant should represent a large proportion of the evaluation.

**E-Learning**

Case studies are a good method for e-learning courses. The preliminary provision of written texts, videos, recordings and other online presentations (PowerPoint, Prezi, Google Slides, etc.) facilitate a deeper individual engagement and reflection over the case study under review prior to the working group sessions. Group work and plenary sessions could be assisted by the use of platforms such as Moodle, Blackboard, ECHO360 or Wimba Classroom, which allow for online learning interactions, both in small and large groups (Joseph, 2015, 4). Blended learning can be used for this method as well. For instance, e-learning can be used for presentation of evidence and small group meetings, and then the whole group can come together physically for presentations and discussion. However, trainers may find it difficult to ensure an effective facilitator and coach role during the e-learning activity. Providing interactive materials and ensuring continuous monitoring can mitigate this shortcoming (Camille Nussbaum, interviewed on February 2nd, 2017).

E-learning through case study methods could be particularly helpful when it is problematic to put all the participants under the same roof. This is the case for inter-agency or multi-stakeholder training sessions or trainings offered jointly to headquarters and field offices staff; or when there are substantive risk factors in gathering diverse actors in the same meeting, since this could compromise the perceptions of neutrality required for specific field operations (PATRIR, 2017).

Some organisation engaged in peacebuilding have started to explore the use of online video games to explore case studies and decision-making processes, such as ICRC (Clarke, Rouffaer, & Sénéchaud, 2012; UNHCR, 2006) or Search for Common Ground (Cedaria Blackout, 2016), although its scope is still very limited, mainly focus to youth and peacebuilding, and needs to be further developed.
## 5.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strengths:</strong></th>
<th><strong>Weaknesses:</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The case study training method allows for a hands-on approach to learning, allowing for the testing of tools and knowledge acquired during previous training sessions and the development of their collaborative and communication skills.</td>
<td>• The design of the case study has to be compelling to trainees, as close as possible to real time events. Otherwise it will be irrelevant to participants.</td>
</tr>
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<td>• The analysis of complex scenarios enables the development of critical thinking to carry out a complete assessment of the situation.</td>
<td>• It involves extensive preparation time for trainers (select an appropriate case considering the learning outcomes, adapt it to the participants).</td>
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<td>• Trainees’ creativity is explored and enhanced through the transformation of theoretical and conceptual knowledge and personal/professional experience into a solution adapted to a specific context and situation.</td>
<td>• It requires an experienced trainer in the specific thematic field, with an extensive knowledge of other significant cases.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Participants act as decision-makers to resolve legal, policy, ethical, or operational dilemmas that arise in relation to contemporary settings of conflict, violence and peacebuilding. Thus, the (real) problem solving skill is trained.</td>
<td>• Using only one case study may limit the content of the training to a unique specific context and applicable concepts.</td>
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<td>• Group work enables the development of communication abilities and mutual learning. The participatory approach of case studies expects trainees to share their perspectives, ideas and experiences (Schilling, 2012, 38; Alfaro, 2006, 80; Harvard, 2017).</td>
<td>• The analysis of real case studies could raise sensitive issues for participants that may hinder their full engagement in the training.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Group work dynamics can lead to an unbalance participation of all members.</td>
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### Opportunities:
- Case studies provide an opportunity for methods for reflection in a safe and secure manner. It can be used to evaluate the success or the challenges of a previous CPPB activity or event (DM&E for Peace).
- It is a good method for multi-stakeholder trainings (PATRIR, 2017).
- The experience of trainers could be assembled and organised to create a CPPB training case studies database/collection.
- Case studies are being developed as video games, offering new venues for e-learning.

### Threats:
- Participants may oversimplify the case, looking for a single cause or solution to a complex problem. The trainer should encourage participants to see the complexity.
- Subjectivity leading to a personal vision or explanations of the problem. Only the empathy with each stakeholder in understanding those subjectivities at any time of the process of the conflict can help to have a general view and a good analysis of the case.
- In case study e-learning, trainers may have difficulty ensuring their effective facilitator and coach role during the online activity.

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<th>Table 13: SWOT Analysis for Case Studies</th>
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6. Simulations

6.1 Uses and Benefits
Simulation/gaming is an experiential method of teaching. Simulations replicate real-world conditions while allowing the participant to practice skills in a safe environment. The method enables trainers to immerse participants in a scenario they may encounter during deployment. They can practice their response and experience the effects of their response within the simulation.

Simulations can be live or computer based. ‘Live’ simulations recreate physical and psychological conditions of the scenario and enable participants to practice skills under the duress they would experience in the field. —or in computer-based simulations (Sauvé, 2007). Gaming is a form of live simulation, and will be used interchangeably with live simulations. Often, live simulations focus more narrowly on the development of a specific skill within a training. Both live and computer assisted simulations have become popular in military pre-deployment training. For example, in the HEAT training (a live simulation), the participants practice driving on a rough terrain with 4x4 vehicles, administering first aid while avoiding a rioting crowd. Here, they must navigate the obstacles of the terrain and the crowd in order to perform their task. In addition, Latin American forces utilise computer-based simulations to conduct disaster relief training, and the African Union has announced it is developing simulation-based training for its peace support operations.

With rapid development of artificial intelligence and virtual reality, computer-based simulation/gaming activities for educational purposes have become increasingly popular. In the military sector, virtual reality is increasingly utilised, as it replicates combat situations in the classroom environment, saving resources and limiting risks associated with live exercises. For example, the project Cultural Awareness in Military Operations (CAMO) is to train Norwegian military personnel in cultural awareness prior to deployment to Afghanistan. This simulation has been effective - the assessment at the end of such training has allowed the Norwegian Armed Forces to conclude that the understanding of culture and the performance of the trainees in the cross-cultural communication has improved, showing that such training method can be a valuable tool in developing these skills (Hernandez-Leo 2013, 569).

Competencies Developed
This training method can be used to improve participants’ decision-making and critical thinking as well as a broad scope of practical skills. It can develop a trainer’s knowledge and skill on evaluating, analysing and implementing solutions to conflict. It can develop negotiation skills, cultivate cultural awareness and improve foreign language skills. In addition, it can exercise tactical and strategic level decision making, and develop combat-related skills, including pre-combat inspections or mission rehearsals. Simulation teaching activities allows development of both lower (understanding) and higher order (applying, evaluating, and creating) thinking skills according to Bloom’s taxonomy (3.2 Curricula Report and 3.5 Integrated Report). Substantial debriefing after the exercise facilitates and consolidates this learning.

This method is highly experiential - it gives participants the opportunity to practice skills in an environment that replicates the conditions they will experience in the field. The simulation responds
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

to the participant’s actions, so the learner receives real-time feedback on their success within the simulation. Experiential learning allows new knowledge and skills to be acquired primarily through experience of participating in the simulation. Here, ‘action proceeds knowledge’ (Taylor, et al., 2012, p.666). Simulation is a method supporting ‘Active Experimentation’ stage of learning in Kolb’s learning theory. This is a learning stage where learners apply and test the knowledge acquired during the lectures or other learning activities. This factor highlights importance to have a theoretical phase of teaching before using simulation tools in education. The role of the trainer here is to assist the participant in developing the particular skills and to facilitate the “learning by reflection on doing” process. The participant’s engagement with the simulation, rather than the facilitator, is the focus of the learning.

![Figure 2: Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle (York U, 2013)](image)

The simulation/gaming method is a participant-centred method. The participant’s active engagement with the simulation is essential for the success of this method. In addition, the participant’s role in debriefing is essential to consolidating learning. Substantial debriefing after the exercise can facilitate and consolidate this learning. The participant’s prior knowledge and experience can be of benefit when using this method, and the method is designed to be directly relevant to situations that the participant will encounter during deployment.

The skills developed through such simulations/games could fit into many areas of competency model. They can be used to increase knowledge, to change attitudes and to develop skills, depending on the type of simulation used and on the amount of time given to reach the objectives. For example, in the simulation Virtual Afghan village, the trainees can increase their knowledge of the Afghan religious and cultural traditions and they can increase their skills in dealing with the local people in a culturally sensitive manner. Some simulations facilitate a change in attitudes. Simulations demand putting oneself into the shoes of another person, changing such attitudes and helping a person to overcome, e.g. negative attitudes towards potentially hostile local
populations. This element is very important in the CPPB missions where the conflict potential is high and the population’s mistrust of the outsiders is widespread. The participation in such simulations allows those preparing for the missions to understand better the roots of such hostility and find ways of coping with it.

**Virtual Afghan Village**

The Cultural Awareness in Military Operations (CAMO) project of the Norwegian Armed Forces focused on creating tools for training inter-cultural communication and cultural awareness for the military personnel preparing for deployment to Afghanistan. For this purpose, the platform of the MMO (massive multiplayer online) Second Life has been used and a virtual Afghan village was created. The participants created avatars of the Norwegian soldiers and had to accomplish tasks which allowed them to exercise awareness, understanding and apply their skills in such a virtual setting. There were five goals identified: tactics (identifying threats based on the clues in the environment); gender (interacting with women in the communities); religion (dealing with religious customs); socializing (observing cultural customs); language (the basic language skills).

The use of this type of simulation showed that such a setting was very useful for the participants to learn the “soft” skills of communication and language, but, in this case, less useful for the understanding of threat-perception, partially because the virtual village was sparsely populated and partially also because the limits of the system for the reproduction of facial expressions and body language. Overall, however, the Virtual Afghan village simulation shows that with the limited resources and existing commercial platforms it is possible to create a computer-assisted simulation that allows immersion for the participants and teaches them the soft skills that will be necessary in their deployments. (Prasolova-Førland, Fominykh, 2013)

**Table 14: Virtual Afghan Village**

**6.2 Guidelines for Implementation**

We recommend that simulations are conducted with the guidance of an experienced trainer or training team. A training team with two trainers from diverse but complementary backgrounds may be particularly useful, as each trainer may have unique and relevant feedback from their area of expertise. Two trainers also allow the team to be gender balanced. A gender balance affords the opportunity of modelling gender equality.

Simulations are a complex teaching method and in both live and computer-assisted varieties follows through three broad stages: preparation phase, active phase and the debrief phase.

**Example of Scenario Process**

Subject: Improvised Explosive Device (IED) Defeat
Segment 1: Lecture / discussion related with Counter IED Tactics, Techniques and Procedures (TTPs)
Learning Objective: Understand Counter IED TTPs and management process
Feedback: formative test, individual feedback (verbal or written)
Segment 2: Computer simulated IED scenario (Virtual Battlefield 2 or similar simulation system). Trainees travel in military convoy which is stopped due to traffic incident. The task for trainees is to exit the vehicle with the task to secure the perimeter. While doing that, they have to conduct 5-25 meters IED check by searching for IED indicators and report to command centre. IED is detonated if trainees have not followed required procedures.

LO: Employ Counter IED TTPs
Feedback: computer generated feedback visualises outcomes of the engagement; Subject Matter Expert provides feedback related with the performance of the trainee and identifies areas for improvement.

Table 15: Scenario Process

In the preparation phase of the training, the trainer prepares the participants for the simulation. This involves ensuring that the trainer knows the participants' level of familiarity with ICT and with the subject matter and determines if any action is necessary to tailor the simulation to the participants' needs or interests. Simulation method can appeal to those who may have learning difficulties because the level of complexity can be altered for the participant. The trainers should, however, get as complete an understanding of the participants as possible in order to facilitate such adjustments.

At this time, students gain basic theoretical knowledge on the subject and understand scenario settings. This sometimes necessitates the use of lectures and practical activities to trigger reflection on the learner's previous experience. Duration and scope of these activities depend on trainees' previous experience and knowledge. For the computer-assisted simulations, this phase also includes learning activities that develop familiarisation with use of IT systems supporting simulation.

The active phase of simulation involves the participants in the particular roles in a set scenario or setting. It allows them to practice their skills and generate feedback throughout the process. In live simulations, the presence of trainers and their support throughout the process is thus necessary. In computer assisted simulations, some feedback is generated by the system, though the "instructors monitor the progress and may also do some role-playing where necessary" (Taylor, Backlund, Niklasson, 2012 p.653-654).

The final stage of the training is the After-Action Review, where instructors collect and provide feedback related to the participants' performance. Instructors elaborate on their observations, use system generated data, and use snapshots from the simulation exercise to visualise the key points. They also implement other lessons-learned activities adopted by the institution. This debriefing is necessary to consolidate learning. Participants reflect on what went well, what went wrong and what could be done differently. Here, participants may discuss stress of the simulation and what techniques worked in overcoming the stress.
After-Action Review

Observations: instructor records specific actions/reactions of the trainee leading to the outcome of the incident.

Analysis of system generated data: the system provides recreation of all in-game events, actions, effects and voice communication and basic statistics of the event which can be used as an illustrative tool and data pool for the feedback.

Facilitator-guided questions: instructor should provide guided questions to trigger reflection and facilitate lessons learned process. For example: There were three IEDs buried in vicinity of the convoy. What were the indicators allowing to discover IEDs? How indicators may differ based on surroundings? Why it is important to send IED incident report following strict format?

Lessons identified/learned: list of lessons identified primarily should be developed by trainees themselves with the support from instructors and/or subject matter experts. Lessons identified then will serve as a focal element for the following rounds of simulation thus systematically transforming lessons identified into lessons learned.

| Table 15: After-Action Review |

The debriefing or After-Action review stage also allows the participants to give feedback about the functioning of the scenario or, in the computer-assisted simulations, the IT system with which they worked. This allows for the further improvement of the simulation and the system.

Both the active phase of the simulation and the debrief phase are essential for this method and necessitate a strong involvement of the trainer in the process. Given that the method is centred on the “reflection on doing”, methods to encourage that reflection should be actively used. Thus, as mentioned, videos and snapshots of the performance are very useful, discussions on why the action was performed one or another way can also be helpful.

In terms of the size of the audience, simulations can be used in both large and small groups. Large simulations, such as military or police exercises mostly take place in “live” settings, however, currently there are systems under development which will allow simulations for large audiences to take place in the virtual worlds, such as the GAP (Gaming for Peace) project, supported by the EU. In this project, the large-scale simulations that help develop “soft skills” (e.g. negotiation, cultural awareness, interagency and inter-cultural communication) for potentially unlimited audiences.

Yet, it is important to note that in both live and computer-assisted simulations, the presence of a trainer to trigger the reflection process is very important. In virtual setting, computer generated feedback can be used. However, to achieve the best results, a trainer should be actively involved in the process.

Before using this method of training, students should gain basic theoretical knowledge on the subject and understand scenario settings. This necessitates the use of lectures and practical activities to trigger reflection on the learner’s previous experience. Duration and scope of the lectures depends on the participants’ previous experience and knowledge.

First, simulations are an attempt to reproduce reality as closely as possible and can therefore trigger a psychological trauma in the participants. If possible, instructors should know the composition and
general background of the participants to take appropriate measures to avoid and to mitigate consequences of such psychological trauma. However, the participants may not disclose previous history of trauma to the trainer, may not be aware of it themselves, or they might find events triggering a reaction to trauma without having such a history. Therefore, trainers should warn participants in advance and advise them of what they can do if they experience an adverse reaction (leave the room, talk to the trainer afterward, etc.).

Secondly, in the computer-assisted simulations a concern exists that participants may have variable levels of technical experience. Levels of experience may be actual or perceived, and trainers should work to compensate for any differences in level of technical experience and any perceptions of experience based on gender, age or culture.

While younger people may be more likely to feel comfortable with computer-based simulations, since they may be more likely to develop technical experience from an early age, it does not necessarily mean that technological knowledge will be present in all the persons of younger age or that those older would be equally uncomfortable with the use of technology.

The still-prevalent prejudice that computer-based activities are the male domain can be an obstacle in attracting females to use this method of training. Current research shows that more and more women and girls are adept at using computer programs, including games, yet, the instructors should be sensitive to a potential prejudice coming from both genders about the use of computer-based simulations in training.

Rather than assuming one’s experience or ability with technology, one should ask the participants in advance of the simulation, their level of comfort and experience with simulation technology and adjust one’s training style for beginner, intermediate and advanced levels. Students with limited IT skills will require more time to learn how the system works. Therefore, the preparation phase of the training should incorporate adequate time and resources to familiarise with the IT systems and settings.

The costs of the simulations vary extensively, but many simulations are too expensive for many groups. The large scale well developed live and virtual simulations can be of a prohibitive cost for the use of smaller training organizations. The prices of just the scenario of such simulations can range between 25,000 and 60,000 euros, not counting the training of the trainers. Simulations that teach “soft” skills can be cheaper, as the trainers can develop them themselves or, in case of computer-assisted simulations, use the existing platforms for their development, as the example of Virtual Afghan Village above shows.

Finally, computer-based simulations rely on proper infrastructure to support its use. This includes computer equipment and internet connectivity. Difficulties in obtaining this infrastructure may make it difficult to carry out this method.
### 6.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

**Strengths:**
- It ‘conveys a vicarious understanding of some of the strategic and tactical dynamics associated with real military operation or civilian mission, enabling participants to learn not only new factual information and skills, but ‘acquire an intuitive feel for more generic interactive dynamics’ (Sabin, 2012, p.31) of the operating environment.
- It works for both individual and small teams. During instructor-guided teaching events this allows to understand individual students’ readiness to learn, their profiles and interests and respond accordingly.
- Computer-assisted simulations adhere to adult learning pillars and enable learning through practice and skill-building.
- Development of IT technologies and commercial war gaming allows constant improvement of the simulation/gaming tools, making the learning experience very close to the reality while in a save context. This teaching method has an exciting potential in CPPB training.
- Due the fact that IT systems can generate formative assessment, the simulation/gaming activities addressing the learning outcomes related with lower thinking skills and factual domain of knowledge can be conducted with the limited involvement of instructors.

**Weaknesses:**
- There are economic constraints as development of such a simulation/gaming platforms requires significant financial and intellectual investments. Should only governmental institutions be able to fund such platforms, content could be biased.
- ‘Inability to rapidly refine and adapt simulation based content to address focused training needs’ (Benjamin, 2013, p.11). The group composition, size and target level of skills and capabilities for computer-based simulation training and video games primarily is determined by the IT system, leaving limited flexibility for instructors.
- The method has its limitations in the use in the field, as it requires usually quite powerful computers and access to high-speed internet.
- Most of the simulation systems require fixed infrastructure and the training is conducted on site. Only few can be installed on PC and used to develop broad range of skills and capabilities (e.g. Zero Hour: America's Medic).
- There is a risk of needing too much time at ‘learning new systems instead of exercising decision making or critical thinking’ (Stoltenberg, 2012, p.47).
- The number of operating environment factors that can be incorporated and replicated by the IT system is huge. There is a risk that participants will develop broad-brushed idea of reality.
Opportunities:

- Simulation/gaming method of teaching opens up new opportunities for CPPB teaching. Due to technological developments simulated reality becomes more and more realistic thus allowing ‘participants to engage in extraordinary activities’ ...‘without real consequences’ (Griffiths, 2002, p.48).

- Simulation/game method of teaching has very broad application. This method is used starting from the development of skills and capabilities of an individual low on the chain of command up to practicing decision making at higher command. The scope of application of specific simulation/game is IT system driven.

- Utilisation of computer-assisted simulations has expanded in recent years particularly in military sector. Governments are investing significant resources to develop technologies and methods.

 Threats:

- Unfortunately, closed nature of the military training limits employment of already developed programs for non-military entities. However, the availability of commercial products can be used for this purpose and even in the military sometimes commercial platforms (e.g. Second Life) are used for developing scenarios of training (Prasolova-Førland et al. 2013).

- There is a risk related with overreliance on simulation/videogames. ‘Video games’ can make it appear as if the military is effectively covering an issue that in fact needs greater attention and resources’ (Griffiths, 2002, p.164)

Table 16: SWOT Analysis for Simulations
### 6.4 Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Recommendations</th>
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| Danger that simulation will be conducted without context or debriefing. | • Instructors should make sure that the teaching is addressing desired focus areas.  
• Learning objectives are not adjusted to the simulation/gaming content and limitations. |
| Participants in not properly prepared to use simulation/videogames   | • The teaching design should incorporate adequate preparation time for familiarisation with IT system and overall context of the gaming/simulation. |
| Participants is not receiving mission oriented feedback.             | • Despite the fact that the IT systems in most cases are designed to provide immediate formative feedback to the participants, instructors should be part of assessment the cycle by providing continues real-time feedback to the students. |
| Lack of technological experience.                                    | • Trainer should assess the level of experience of participants and adjust the training accordingly |
| Stereotypes/assumptions re: technological experience based on gender/age. | • Trainer should not tolerate demeaning comments from participants.  
• Trainer should avoid stereotyping.                                   |

Table 17: Recommendations for Simulations
7. Methods for Reflection

7.1 Uses and Benefits

In this chapter, we present the benefits of using methods for reflection in peace training and provide insights on the innovative and infrequently used method of reflective interviewing. Our practical suggestions on planning and implementation can assist trainers and course designers to guide their use of reflective interviewing. The principal aim of reflection methods is to prompt and encourage critical engagement about a particular (learning) experience to foster competence development as well as attitude and behavioural change. Competences relate to people’s behaviour in terms of feeling, thinking, communication and action, and according to the Fields of Competence Model refer to personal, subject area, method and social competences, with the attitude at its heart (figure 1). “Attitude is the inner authority that directs a person’s actions when the challenges are new, the contexts unknown and there is no routine to fall back on” (Krewer & Uhlmann, 2015, p.13). It frequently changes and updates itself in a person’s behaviour. Thus, training can seek to foster an attitude change towards effective response to the CPPB work environment.

Why Use Reflection in Peace Training?

PeaceTraining.eu interviews with relevant stakeholders and curricula research revealed a need for methods for reflection to be a more integral part of conflict prevention and peacebuilding (CPPB) training to be embedded within all sectors, including military and police – (Confidential Interview Report, Tunney, 2017; Wolter et al., 2017). Methods for reflection can enhance peace training through providing participants with the opportunity facilitate attitude change, promote skills development, and synthesize knowledge. Methods for reflection can raise awareness and sensitize about certain issues and challenge personal biases and perceptions.

Reflection, the “ability to question one’s own behaviour, to keep a critical eye on one’s own strengths and weaknesses and to use the conclusions to guide future action (...) is a pivotal component of competence development.” (Krewer and Uhlmann, 2015, 34)

How does training achieve this? Krewer & Uhlmann (2015) conceptualized the process of competence development in sustainable adult learning in a four-dimensional model including i) new experiences in learning and real-life situations ii) acquisition of knowledge and competences in formal and non-formal settings iii) application of newly-acquired competences.
and iv) reflection about experiences, application and / or acquisition (figure 5).

One can also say, through reflection, the learner (cognitively) bridges experiences made in training and learning with previous experiences as well as future tasks and activities. A learning process can start from each point of the triangle. By using didactical methods for reflection, the participants may be asked to reflect upon their learning progress (acquisition), a particular experience or problem from their work context (experience) or situations in which they applied particular competences (application). During methods for reflection, the learner is asked to take an observing and comparing perspective on their abilities and competences in relation to their work and social environment as well as the experiences before and during the training. Methods for reflection becomes transformative learning if changes of personal perceptions, understandings and behaviour occur due to improved assessment and understanding of oneself, performance, knowledge, behaviour and attitudes, as well as social systems (Lucas, 2012).

**What Should One Reflect Upon?**

Based on the four types of competences under the Fields of Competence Model, reflection can cover four dimensions. The following table illustrates the four dimensions of reflection in peace training, offering details and examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of Conflict Sensitive Reflection in Peace Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. SELF-REFLECTION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on own role, identity, culture, experiences, competences, strength and weaknesses, values, interest, motivation, biases and assumptions about CPPB and one’s own work in the conflict context. Additionally, reflection upon role and interest of the sending / deploying organisation (e.g. EU mission or NGO project).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example from a peace training curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· “be able to reflect own experiences with violence and conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· to be able to reflect own relationship to power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· to reflect own involvement and responsibility in racism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· to understand own feelings, interests and needs and be able to communicate them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· to know own individual styles (strength, potentials, weaknesses) and be able to adapt the contents, methods and instruments of the seminars to individual styles and personality (personal authenticity)” (Kurve Wustrow et al., 2007, 14-15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 2. REFLECTION ON COMMUNICATION AND COOPERATION

(and engagement) with

- training peers and trainers,
- international and local colleagues, superiors, employees, and
- with local authorities, local population as well as local and international partners (in the field)

concerning sensitivity to conflict context, culture, history, power relations and hierarchies (position, gender, ethnicity etc.), structural and cultural violence.

**Example from a peace training curriculum**

- "to be able to define own roles in groups
- to be aware of interpersonal and individual patterns related to conflict transformation (...) the reflection of our own personal styles, attitudes and responses to difficult communication and intense conflict." (Kurve Wustrow et al., 2007, 14)

### 3. PROBLEM REFLECTION

on training content / thematics, also local ownership, do no harm etc., for example on challenges of reconciliation through internationally supported / initiated Truth Commissions in a communal conflict context.

**Example from a peace training curriculum**

- "to be able to reflect contents, methods and instruments with regard to the underlying cultural norms and values in order to act as efficient, effective and credible change agents
- to be able to reflect the role of culture in conflict
- to reflect and be sensitive to gender specific roles in conflicts
- to reflect different spiritual and religious approaches relating to nonviolence" (Kurve Wustrow et al., 2007, 14-16)

### 4. METHOD REFLECTION

- on the CPPB process, the design, planning, implementation, monitoring & evaluation of the respective intervention / activity, and
- on particular parts / steps within the implementation e.g. non-violent conflict transformation, mediation.

**Example from a peace training curriculum**

- "to be able to reflect the own patterns in conflict
- to become aware that communication is the major tool in dealing with conflicts and in achieving consensus" (Kurve Wustrow et al., 2007, 14)

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Table 18: Dimensions of Reflection (based on Krewer & Uhlmann 2015, 28)
A crucial aspect for effective training is that methods for reflection correspond to the conditions for effective adult learning of Lederach (1995) Knowles (2005, 2011), as it is a self-directed and participant-centred form of learning. The trainers are not the source of knowledge, telling the participants to change their behaviour. Instead, participants are the doers, empowered to direct the reflection by deciding how detailed, critical and deep they answer questions or write down their thoughts (depending on the method). The participants hold control and ownership over their reflection process, since it is up to each individual to what extent they delve into the process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Methods for reflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In (peace) training, reflection can be fostered in two ways: First and most commonly didactical methods in which participants acquire, train and test their competences, like role-plays or group exercises are followed by a debriefing, which includes the reflection upon the learning experience. Secondly, ‘stand-alone’ methods for reflection can be used to stir critical thinking and trigger attitude change on part of the participants. These reflection exercises can take various forms: One may distinguish between reflection methods on the individual and group level, as well as collaborative reflection work in pairs. Reflection can either be directed / guided by the trainer through guiding questions, statements, pictures, videos etc. or it is an open, non-facilitated process without or with little instructions or inputs by the trainer. Exercises for reflection include:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Methods to stir Reflection in Training

**INDIVIDUALLY**
- Journaling (in e-learning e.g. blogs)
- Learning Portfolio (also in e-learning)
- Essay (also in e-learning)
- Video (especially in e-learning)
- Painting, Poster
- Photo collage (also in e-learning)
- Mentoring / coaching through trainer
- Reflective walks

**IN PAIRS**
- Interviewing (also in e-learning, via Skype or another online calling / video programme)
- Painting, Poster, Photo collage
- Theatre, role plays
- Experience sharing

**IN GROUPS**
- Painting, Poster, Photo collage (also in e-learning)
- Theatre, role plays
- Open discussion (also e-learning)
- Guided discussion / Focus groups / Reflection Circle (e.g. with questions from trainer or participants themselves) (also in e-learning)

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3 For details on adult learning theory and methods of delivery in peace training see Wolter & Tunney (2017).

**Why Reflective Interviewing?**

Individual and group reflection methods are often mentioned in literature on adult and methods for reflection (e.g. Krewe & Uhlmann, 2015; Clarke, 2004; Reed & Koliba, 1995), handbooks on peacebuilding training (e.g. Bloh, 2010; CDA, 2013) as well as particular training curricula (e.g. Gender and Leadership by ENTRi, 2011; ToT by Kurve Wustrow, et al. 2007). However, the didactical method of interviewing in pairs is rarely used in peace training. Moreover, the interviews, which the project PeaceTraining.eu conducted with experts and trainers indicated the use of reflection methods, yet did not mention work in pairs. Furthermore, reflective interviewing is barely ever referred to in CPPB curricula and other materials. It is a method worth for further exploration as it bears several advantages compared to individual or group reflection: Reflective interviewing

- is more **communicative** than individual reflection (e.g. journaling)
- gives space to shy or calmer participants to benefit from reflecting in a personal atmosphere with one other partner rather than in a large group.
- is **suitable for sensitive issues**, like gender or racism, as participants feel more comfortable to open up and reflect these topics with one other person, instead of the whole group. This requires however that interview partners feel confident with each other (see below for details).
- may **trigger a more critical engagement** with the respective reflection topic, depending on the questions (of trainers) as well as follow-up questions of interview partners
- is particularly **interesting / useful in mixed groups**, for instance with participants from different sectors, such as police, military and civil service, CSDP missions / operations, NGOs or faith-based organisations. Listening to the interviewees’ perspective and reflections can be enriching and a learning experience for the interviewer her/himself. The interview provides an opportunity to practice the participant’s skills of active listening, empathy, understanding other perspectives and clear as well as precise communication (Costa & Kallick, 2008).
- **fits the standards and conditions of adult learning** in peace training (Wolter & Tunney, 2017). Reflective interviewing is entirely participant-driven as the trainer is not considered the source of knowledge, but merely provides a set of questions to stir and guide the critical thinking process. There are no right or wrong answers to the reflective questions.

### 7.2 Guidelines for Implementation

The preparation process for reflective interviewing is not too time consuming, however requires *inter alia* to

1. decide on the right timing for reflection,
2. link reflection exercise to the learning objectives of the session or course, and
3. elaborate interview questions on the basis of 1 and 2.

**Timing**

The first aspect about planning concerns timing and duration of reflective interviewing. Regarding the moment of delivery, reflective interviews as well as other reflection methods can be implemented in training programmes **before, during or after deployment / working in the field**. The trainer can adopt the questions accordingly. Depending on the learning objectives of the whole
programme, reflection sessions can have any length as well as they may be facilitated repeatedly / in sequence or accompanying the entire programme, for example the reflection on learning experience through journaling or blogging. Reflective interviews can be done before and after an exercise or even at the beginning and the end of a course. Yet it is recommended to do **reflective interviewing towards the middle or end of the course, when the participants already know each other.** If too early, the participants may be too shy to open up and engage in deep critical thinking – hence the reflection would not reach the desired depth. The trainer should be flexible, responding to group dynamics and be aware that the goals or course of methods for reflection may change (Reed & Koliba, 1995). If necessary, the timing of the reflection (e.g. do it later if the group does not seem ready) can be changes or interview questions adapted to recurring issues that come up in training or things that are avoided / never come up. The duration should be planned for around **1 hour and 30 min:** The interviews take 30 min per person, 1 hour in total, plus debriefing of 20 to 45 minutes. Longer debriefing may be necessary if the reflective interviewing is used to introduce or close a session or topic.

**Linking Methods to Learning Objectives**

To build methods for reflection into a curriculum, the trainer or course developer has to determine how reflection can be linked in with the learning objectives⁶ of the respective course or a particular day or unit. Simply put, the goals of reflection have to be set (Reed & Koliba, 1995). Reflective interviewing can be done at any level of courses with groups of all backgrounds, as reflection can link in with learning at any cognitive level (according to Bloom’s Taxonomy of Learning⁷). In introductory programmes on peacebuilding or pre-deployment training, participants with less work experiences may be asked to reflect upon their motivation, values and interest to work in conflict prevention and peacebuilding. In an advanced course on skill development, for example a Training-of-Trainers, the reflective questions may aim to dig deeper for instance asking how participants may act upon these motivations, values and interests influence their work. Reflection that is part of training, occurring between or during deployment in the field, may focus more on problem and methods reflection, concretely addressing challenges the practitioners encounter in their daily work and life in the conflict setting.

As mentioned above, reflection methods are used to prompt and encourage critical engagement about a particular learning experience to foster competence development as well as attitude and behavioural change. The type of reflection can be determined according to the four dimensions or categories of reflection mentioned above: self-reflection, method reflection, problem reflection or reflection on communication and cooperation. Note that the differences may not always be clear-cut, as self-reflection may be intertwined with reflection on communication and cooperation. Some examples for learning objectives of reflective interviewing include:

By the end of the session, participants should:

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⁷ The application of Bloom’s Taxonomy of Learning in peace training is explained in the Report on Curricula (Wolter et al., 2017)
• demonstrate awareness of their own motivations, preconceptions, biases, competences, strength and weaknesses regarding their CPPB activities in the conflict context,
• are sensitised towards conflict contexts and cultural differences relating to their CPPB activity (e.g. Security Sector Reform or conflict transformation with youth) and know how to act – plan, implement, monitor and evaluate their activities – conflict and conflict sensitively,
• are able to critically review their (possibly problematic) (intercultural) communication patterns with international / local partners and know their own competences and strengths to improve it.

Preparing the Questions

The questions for reflective interviews need to be carefully designed by the trainer, and if possible be reviewed by another trainer from the faculty or the course organizer. Generally, for the suggested 30 min interview four to five good questions are sufficient to avoid overwhelming participants. Like mentioned above the questions for reflection need to be linked to the course content and learning objectives. Hereby, caution is required concerning sensitive topics, like violence, gender-based violence or conflict history, to not upset or in the worst case re-traumatize participants. Furthermore, it is crucial that questions
• fall under one of the above-mentioned dimensions of reflection (self-, problem, method reflection and reflection on communication / cooperation),
• directly concern the participants work and / or personal life and link to their prior experiences,
• refer to you instead of someone, others or colleagues etc. to make it relevant to the interviewer and prevent from speaking of broad terms,
• are clear and easy, and not abstract,
• are not closed, so they do not lead to a defensive reaction,
• do not lead to blaming someone else or that are not related to the person,
• are conflict, gender and cultural sensitive, and
• are solution-oriented, giving participants impulse to reflection about own strengths and abilities to improve oneself or a given situation. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Objective 8</th>
<th>Do not ask</th>
<th>Rather ask</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participants are aware of possible obstacles for gender mainstreaming in their work and know their own competences and opportunities to implement / improve gender mainstreaming.</td>
<td>× Why did you or did not gender mainstreaming your CPPB activity? × Is there a problem of cultural perceptions of gender with your colleagues?</td>
<td>✓ What are specific challenges you face to gender mainstreaming in your work/project? ✓ What are your personal possibilities to create awareness about gender and gender mainstream your projects?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8 These learning objectives are not reached by only doing reflective interviewing with the proposed questions. The learning process must certainly be fostered by other exercises for skill acquiring and testing to achieve the proposed learning objective.
### Learning Objective

Participants are able to identify challenges in the communication with local staff / colleagues and seek solutions within their own competences and opportunities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do not ask</th>
<th>Rather ask</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>× Why is the communication / cooperation between you and local staff / colleagues in your CPPB project difficult?</td>
<td>✔ How would you describe the communication pattern between you and local staff / colleagues?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× What, why and how should local staff change?</td>
<td>✔ How would you like the communication and cooperation between you and local staff / colleagues to be - and what can you do to achieve this?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on self-assessment, participants identify their strengths and gaps in their competence of non-violent conflict transformation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do not ask</th>
<th>Rather ask</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>× What are qualities of a good practitioner / mediator for non-violent conflict transformation?</td>
<td>✔ What personal qualities do you have to mediate / practice non-violent conflict transformation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>× Do you and your colleagues have them?</td>
<td>✔ Which of those skills would you like to use more and which would you like to improve?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 20: Dos and Don’ts for Reflective Questions

The questions should guide the process, triggering or stirring critical thinking and engagement with the reflection subject. The interview should not be a check-list of questions, which the participants simply and quickly tick off. Participants should take time to answer thoroughly and provide specific examples from their personal experiences. Conversely, the following provides a list of questions to be used in reflective interviewing in conflict prevention and peacebuilding (CPPB) training.

### Sets of Example Questions for Reflective Interviewing

1. **Self-reflection on conflict sensitivity / do no harm in CPPB activities**

   *Timing: after participants have been introduced to principles of conflict sensitivity and do no harm Choice of questions also depends on previous field experience of the participants.*

   a) What challenges to a conflict sensitive / do no harm approaches do you encounter in your work in the field (project, mission / operation)? How do these challenges affect your work?

   b) What are your personal strengths (competences, skills) and possibilities to implement a conflict sensitive approach in your CPPB work (project, mission / operation)?

   c) Which personal competences and skills you would like to enhance to follow a conflict sensitive approach in your work?

   d) What would you do if you saw others acting against do no harm principles?

   e) What is your interest and motivation to work in CPPB (project, mission / operation)?
How does this influence your approach to work, colleagues, local and international partners and / or local population/communities/authorities/counterparts?

f) How would you describe your perceptions and assumptions about the conflict context and its stakeholders (conflicting parties, authorities, population) you work in? How does this influence your approach to work, colleagues, local and international partners and / or local population/communities/authorities/counterparts?

2. Self-reflection on own role in team within mission / project / office

a) What is your role and responsibility within mission / project / office and which strengths do you bring to the role?

b) How would you describe yourself as a project manager / head of mission / head of department / advisor? How would the people you manage / colleagues describe you? Which of your qualities do they appreciate most?

c) What are the specific challenges you face in fulfilling the responsibilities of your current position?

d) What personal qualities do you have that help you to deal with the challenges you face? Which qualities that you know you have could you use even more?

e) What are personal qualities you have, which make it difficult to deal with the challenges you face at work? How can you mitigate these (e.g. asking others for support, delegate, learning/ changing)?

3. Reflection on communication and cooperation on civil-military-police relations

a) How would you describe your cooperation and communication with partners / colleagues of civilian / military / police background?

b) What are specific challenges you face towards effective cooperation and communication with them? Where do you see opportunities for better cooperation?

c) What are stereotypes / assumptions about police / military / civilians? Do you think they influence the cooperation and communication with them?

d) What are the benefits of improved cooperation and communication with partners / colleagues of civilian / military / police background?

e) What personal qualities and possibilities do you have to achieve effective cooperation and communication with police / military / civilians? What would you like to improve yourself to cooperate and communicate more effectively?

4. Reflection on communication and cooperation with local stakeholders (population, partners, authorities)

Timing: after participants have been introduced to principles of conflict and cultural sensitivity, do no harm and cultural differences (perceptions and biases)

a) Who are the local stakeholders in your working context? (local population, partners, authorities etc.)

b) How would you describe your cooperation and communication with these local stakeholders?

c) Are there specific barriers towards effective cooperation them? How could they be overcome?
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 21: Examples of Questions for Reflective Interviewing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>d)</strong> How could you with your personal qualities and possibilities increase cultural and conflict-sensitive cooperation and communication of your project / mission with local stakeholders (population, partners, authorities)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>e)</strong> Which personal skills would you like to improve for a cultural and conflict-sensitive communication and cooperation with local stakeholders (population, partners, authorities)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Delivery**

Reflective interviewing can be implemented with any group of any size. In case of an uneven number, there can be one group of three. If the group is very mixed with participants of different sectors with different backgrounds (police, military and civil service, CSDP missions / operations, NGOs or faith-based organisations) the interviewing could additionally foster mutual exchange, understanding and communication. If that is a goal, for example in courses on civil-military cooperation, then the trainer could make two rounds of reflection: For instance, at the beginning of the unit the participants chose freely and reflect upon a couple of questions and at the end of the courses / day / unit, the trainer matches the pairs, so pairs consist of one participant with military and one with civilian background.

Reflective interviewing, like all reflection processes, depend on the motivation, willingness and openness of the participants to critically engage and think about themselves, their CPPB work, and learning process. The following steps and considerations are recommended for successful reflective interviewing:

**Ground rules, creation of a safe space and non-violent communication:** The participants make their own rules for communication and reflection, and the facilitator can add aspects that are missing. Rules may include:

- **Confidentiality** about everything said during the exercise (*Chatham House Rules*)
- Critique of an opinion not the person, **no judgements**
- **Respect** and openness towards other participants and differences
- Active and empathic **listening**
- Asking **questions** if something is misunderstood or unclear
- Giving constructive **feedback**
- **Equality** of participation: all participants should be given the space and time to speak, no one should dominate the discussions
- **No phone** or laptops during class

**Instructions** given by the trainer:

- **Voluntary participation / engagement:** The trainer is transparent about the method and introduces it well; including clarification that no one is coerced to answer the questions, as well as that there is always the possibility of stopping the exercise. The answers are confidential and no one is obliged to share them, neither orally or written, in the follow-up debriefing.
- **Open space / no assessment:** The interviewing occurs on a voluntary basis and the trainer explains, that participants will not be assessed on the basis of what they have answered.
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

**Pairing:** The participants are free to select their interview partner by themselves. Hence, they can choose someone they feel comfortable with to openly talk in a safe space. It is recommended to do a team-building and ice-breakers exercise at some point before the reflective interviewing to strengthen group cohesion. If some participants do not find a partner, the trainer should be mindful and help making matches. If there are hostilities amongst the group, the facilitator should rather use individual reflective exercises – no group or work in pairs – and try to table and solve the issues within the group separately.

**Sensitivity and mindfulness:** Depending on the questions and type of reflection, especially in self-reflection, the exercise can be emotionally upsetting and intense for some participants, especially if it involves own biases or experiences with structural, cultural or physical violence. In case a participant is re-traumatized, ideally the trainer is able to give psychological (see *Protection and Care of People* in Lederach et al., 2007, p. 14-16). The trainer should be attentive and be available for individual consultation if needed and can should mention this at the beginning of the exercise.

Furthermore, the trainer

- does not avoid difficult topics or disagreements, however makes them visible and facilitates the discussion around it, remaining sensitive to conflict and power dynamics,
- intervenes if group discussions get out of hand, off topic or if someone feels uncomfortable,
- gives guidance for the individual learning process,
- avoids interpretations, evaluations and validations of the participants interview experiences, and
- should be aware of own stereotypes, interests and motivations (For more advice on trainer roles see Krewer and Uhlmann, 2015, 38-41).

**Debriefing**

After the participants have completed the interviews in pairs, the reflection exercise should be discussed in plenum (with the entire group). This can be either in a very open space or facilitated by the trainer. In the debriefing the participants do not need to repeat (in detail) what they or their interview partners have said, but may rather present (on a voluntary basis) how they have felt during the interview, what they have found out about themselves, their skills, relationships, biases or about etc. As the reflective interviews may have brought up sensitive issues, it is up to every participant to decide how much they wish to share in the group discussion. The debriefing may take a minimum of 15 minutes to 30 minutes or longer, depending on the group size, topic and learning objectives.

In addition, after the reflective interviewing, trainers may ask participants to write down their reflection experience, like suggested in the curriculum of *Training of Trainers for Nonviolent Conflict Transformation*. Here participants only receive a certificate if they have taken part on at least 80 percent of the programme “and have prepared a written reflection related to the course and addressing personal learning aims defined at the beginning of the course” (Kurve Wustrow et al., 2007, 23).

**Guiding Questions for Debriefing:**

- What was it like to be interviewed?
- How did it feel to be the interviewer?
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

- Was there a particular difficult question? Would you like to share why it was difficult for you?
- What have you learned about yourself, the training / your work / your relationships / work environment / a particular topic?
- What are you taking with you from this reflective exercise to your work and / or life in the field?
- Would you approach topic / problem / person different now? If so how?

**Evaluation**

The evaluation of the facilitation and interview sessions itself can be useful for the trainer to understand the benefits of the reflection as well as further training / reflection needs (Reed & Koliba, 1995). The trainer can prepare some questions to pose orally or in a written, anonymous form.

**Examples for Evaluation Questions:**

- Did the reflection exercise come at the right moment in the training? If / If not explain why.
- Has this reflective interviewing exercise made you critically aware about x subject (for example working context, approach, motivation, strengths or weaknesses)?
- What have you learned about yourself?
- What do you take from this exercise?
- Do you have suggestions for improvement?
### 7.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

Below is a summary of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of reflective interviewing in peace training. This may guide the trainers or course organizers choice for or against using reflective interviewing in their training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strengths:</strong></th>
<th><strong>Weaknesses:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. This exercise be <strong>adapted to any group, topic or sector</strong> in peace training, because the trainer has the freedom to create the questions, fitting the audience and learning objectives. Depending on those questions, the exercise has the power to stir problem, self-, method and communication/cooperation reflection.</td>
<td>1. <strong>Participant motivation and openness:</strong> As reflective interviewing is a self-directed process, there is the danger that (de-)motivated participants are rushing through the questions and only give short answers, thereby do not reach the desired level of critical thinking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reflective interviewing is <strong>participant-centred</strong> and the reflection process controlled and owned by each individual.</td>
<td>2. <strong>Quality of questions:</strong> Critical reflection and its level of depth depends on the quality, detail and applicability of the interview questions. They need to be designed carefully, keeping learning objectives, while being conflict and cultural sensitive, potentially also gender mainstreamed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The <strong>training experience is directly linked with the working realities</strong> of the practitioners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In reflective interviewing, <strong>every participant gets to speak</strong>, ask and answer the questions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Also <strong>shy or calm participants get a space</strong> to talk and reflect, who might have remained silent in a group reflection exercise.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Participants get to know each other better and thus a <strong>positive learning atmosphere</strong> can be fostered.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The interviewing fosters <strong>active listening</strong> and <strong>communication skills</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Furthermore, the interviewing can be done <strong>very conflict, culture and gender sensitive</strong> – it all depends upon the interview questions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. If feeling <strong>uncomfortable</strong> the participants may <strong>skip an interview question</strong>, in case of re-traumatisation stop the process immediately without the entire group noticing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Opportunities:

- Reflective interviewing can be used in e-learning, through skype or other video call operators.
- Reflective interviews online could also be used during deployment / work in the field to foster reflective peacebuilding or reflection upon a particular challenge that arose.
- Reflective interviewing has the potential to be implemented widely, beyond training contexts but also across sectors, working cultures etc. (e.g. for military, police and civilians).
- Reflective interviewing can link in / build upon other didactical methods and theatrical sessions, introducing a new module or closing one.

Threats:

- Pairs not working well together or taking the exercise not seriously.
- In the absence of a safe space and trustworthy atmosphere, participants will not open up for deeper reflection.
- Wrong timing: The trainer should carefully monitor the learning processes and discussions of the group and be flexible about reflective exercises to ensure proper timing.
- If not enough time is left for debriefing, then participants may feel unsettled.
- Participants do not understand the use of reflection. The trainer has to point out the benefits and importance of reflection for CPPB work. Additionally, reading material about reflective peacebuilding can be provided.

Table 22: SWOT Analysis of Reflective Interviewing

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter has made the case for the implementation of reflection exercises in peace training, in particular of reflective interviewing. Reflection is crucial for competence development as well as attitude and behavioural change. Didactical reflection methods enable and empower the participants to link prior experiences or possible future tasks in CPPB with the learning / training experience. Reflection can address four dimensions namely self-, methods, problem reflection as well as reflection upon communication and cooperation. If well planned and implemented as well as openly received by participants, reflection exercises such as reflective interviewing may have a positive impact upon the participants learning progress in terms of skill, knowledge and attitude training and development. Only, to what extent the reflective interviewing is well received and effective in e-learning courses should be further investigated by trainers and training providers.

Lastly, it prevails that reflection does and should not end with the training experience. For effective conflict prevention and peacebuilding activities, peace practitioners should continuously critically assess their own values, perceptions, behaviour and impact on their work, relationships, general social environment and the conflict context. It needs “a momentary pause to look inward, a comparison of the actual with the desired state, an assessment of the available resources, the development need and, where necessary, reorientation – in short: it calls for reflection” (Krewer and Uhlmann 2015, p.34). Reflective practice is a key aspect of a conflict, culture and gender sensitive as well as effective conflict prevention and peacebuilding work. To prepare practitioners for reflective peacebuilding, critical reflection should already be practiced during training.

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8. Arts-Based Methods

8.1 Uses and Benefits

Arts-based methods refer to learning tools inspired from arts and that utilise artistic mediums. In the context of peace training, these tools aim to achieve learning objectives related to capacities (knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) that support prevention, conflict transformation, reconciliation and healing. Arts-based learning includes methods and practices inspired from the following:

- **Literature**
- **Poetry**
- **Dance**
- **Music**
- **Painting**
- **Film**
- **Visioning**
- **Collage**
- **Theatre**
- **Storytelling**
- **Ceramics**
- **Drawing**
- **Knitting**
- **Silkscreen**
- **Murals**

*Figure 5: Types of Arts-Based Methods*

Although arts-based methods are gaining recognition in business, civil society and academia, they are still not widely used and there is plenty of space to develop further the arena of arts based methods in peace training. Here, we will describe the uses and value of arts-based methods, best practices around implementation, and the potential for further development in the field.

Arts-based methods can be a complex and powerful enabler of capacity building because they stimulate learning on multiple levels, including feeling, thinking and action. Arts-based methods can address the need identified in our interviews (Tunney 2017) for peace training to shape attitudes. Peace training requires trainers to find ways to move beyond teaching concepts and facts towards building empathy, promoting healing, and stimulating dialogue. The characters, stories and images that participants can connect with in art can impact their feelings. Since learning occurs through experience and creating, participants are more likely to internalise their learning (see Cone of Learning, in Series 2), thus increasing the potential that participants’ attitudes and behaviours will be transformed.

While arts-based methods are rarely discussed in the peace training context, extensive literature exists on their use in peacebuilding. We will refer to this literature and extract the relevant components for peace training.

Arts-based methods can be used to facilitate/enable the following outcomes:

**The Development of Empathy**

Empathy is fundamental in transcending conflict because it requires one to see the world from another’s perspective. The more opposing sides can begin to empathise with each other, the harder it can be to denigrate and dehumanise the other side. In peace training, developing empathy among participants or between participants and local communities can make them less likely to

> "Theatre is a form of knowledge; it should and can also be a means of transforming society. Theatre can help us build our future, instead of just waiting for it." (Augusto Boal, Games for Actors and Non-Actors, 1992)
dehumanise the other side and more open to dialogue. Visual arts, dance and music, poetry, moulding or drawing promote empathy because they can touch the viewer deeply and allow the participant to see the world through a different perspective. As an example, a soap opera used by Search for Common Ground (SFCG) depicts historically opposing groups of Hutu and Tutsi living and working together - creating a common cultural reference point.

**Teambuilding**

Since art works powerfully on the emotional level, arts-based methods can bring participants together and build relationships. Consequently, arts-based methods can support development of group and participant-participant relations. An initial ice-breaker utilising drama or dance can help participants to connect with each other. A project during the training, such as a drawing or painting can bring participants together through a common project. Conversation while performing the task can also promote relationship-building. For example, Nonviolent Peaceforce uses artistic ‘games’ and expression as part of their ‘icebreaking’ and group formation process during training of unarmed civilians deployed for UCP with some of the same benefits and results. PATRIR trainers utilise theatre techniques are also extensively used in exercises that build trust, explore and strengthen empathy and explore comfort zones. These elements are seen as part and parcel of the methodology of any CPPB course as they are fundamentals for a deep understanding of the self when engaging in conflict and peacebuilding training and preparation.

**Promoting Conflict Transformation**

1. **Self-Awareness and Personal Development**

   Arts-based methods may also promote personal development that can lead to conflict transformation. For example, in creating a visual representation of personal history, participants can explore identity, culture and diverse understandings of history. Such a project can help participants enrich or even re-invent their conceptions of identity and become more tolerant of diverse perspectives. In addition, trainers can utilise drama, film or literature to stimulate reflection on prejudice and bias.

2. **Dialogue**

   This method can be used to bring together opposing sides of a conflict or prepare one side of a conflict for exchanging with another. Common projects between participants from adversarial groups can promote relationships and facilitate mutual understanding. Developing a joint vision through creating visual arts or using dramatic characters to explore relationships can promote new perspectives for dialogue.

**Identifying Issues within Conflict through Theatre and Dialogues**

In the UN supported *Nineveh Paths to Peace* process in Nineveh, Iraq - outside the EU-focus of the project - forum theatre was used extensively in preparation for local and national practitioners / peace workers engaging in CPPB. Here participants would themselves identify key conflict issues - including the most sensitive, challenging and divisive - and develop performances to illustrate these conflicts. Performances would also address how the conflicts could be addressed, and use practical interventions to illustrate CPPB approaches. The methods were seen as catalytically empowering and making the programmes ‘real’ for participants, as well as essential in the
development of both their skills and confidence to engage to address actual conflict situations in their communities and country.

Table 23: Identifying Issues with Conflict through Theatre and Dialogues

3. Healing
Arts-based methods used in the training context have the potential to bring healing. They can provide an emotional outlet that may foster self-care and improve well-being. Art can help participants create a vision for the future.

Education in CPPB

Arts-based methods can facilitate strong and sometimes complex understanding of conflicts, through generating understanding of core concepts in the field and through conflict mapping. The Academy of Conflict Transformation of Forum ZFD introduces fundamental terms such as power, violence, prejudice and theories of conflict through elements of Forum Theatre (Source: Akademie for Konflikttransformation, Full Time Course). Such methods can stimulate reflection on how to facilitate change. In some of the PATRIR Designing Peacebuilding Programmes trainings, elements of Forum Theatre are used to empower participants around producing change. For example, statues can be used to depict different types of violence, and participants can act as sculptors to change the statues. The trainer can then relate it to the Theory of Change, asking participants to first reflect on what their vision is and then to explore ways of achieving that vision. Such an exercise can empower participants to acknowledge their agency in facilitating change. Moreover, arts-based methods can facilitate conflict mapping. In recent PATRIR co-facilitated courses (Training of Trainers delivered with UNOY Network as well as the CRISP training on preparing Peace and Conflict Consultants (CPP)) the method of collage was used to analyse conflicts and determine capacities for peace. Drawing was used to enable groups to develop a joint vision for a peaceful future.

Reflection

As reflection is a key aspect of learning, arts-based methods provide a myriad of opportunities for reflection. For example, several programmes use ‘portraits’ as tools by which participants identify and consolidate key learning at the end of sessions, training days and/or the programme as a whole. Here participants create a visual ‘portrait’ or artistic representation of the key tools, concepts, skills and learning they take from the session/course. Evaluation of this tool has shown it’s unique and significant value in helping participants to reflect on, consolidate and internalise key concepts and

8.2 Guidelines for Implementation

Preparation

When preparing to use arts-based methods, you may wish to consider the following:

- **Determine the learning objective:**
  - What is your goal for this session? What impact are you hoping to achieve in the short-term and long-term?
- **Choose the themes and content to be addressed from learning objectives.** Ensure that the content addressed in the method is appropriate for both the participants and the CPPB thematic/issues being addressed.
• Choose the specific arts-based method you will use. Be able to identify the value of the method in achieving your learning objective.

• **Materials**: Determine whether the method requires materials in advance. If so, make sure participants receive it in good time and that they are willing and able to do work in advance. For a theatre performance, participants may be given roles or background information on the storyline before the method is used. Participants may also be asked to bring in photographs or film clips to use within the training. Finally, trainers may make suggestions to participants around clothing to wear to ensure comfort.

• **Review perspective/message of art & background of author**: Trainers should pay attention to the source / authorship / perspective on conflict and other possible biases which may be present in a work of art introduced in the training. Choosing certain authors/perspectives on conflict may affect the power dynamics among the participants and between participants and facilitators. Some artistic works / practices may themselves be seen as closely aligned with one/some parts of the conflict and their use may create perceptions of bias/partiality. Not only can using inflammatory work undermine the message of peace, some participants may have close connections to a particular conflict and may be triggered by certain pieces.

• As part of this process, ensure the method is **not biased towards a Western perspective**. Trainers can proactively work to draw upon diverse, non-Western approaches in their ABM repertoire. ABMs can also be used for the specific purpose of making participants aware of possible biases, including ‘western models.’

• **Participants - Know your audience**
  The arts-based method you choose should be appropriate for your audience. Adequate preparation involves knowing size and composition of the group and background of participants. Trainers may want to pay attention to the following considerations:
  o **Level of Familiarity**: Some participants may have experience using arts-based methods, while others may have no personal experience but carry preconceived notions about such practices. Inquire before the training or before the session what previous experience participants have with arts-based methods and what their attitudes are toward such methods. Some participants may be hesitant or uncomfortable using these methods, so think about how you will introduce the method in the training and how you will handle reluctance during the training session.
  o **Level of Diversity**: Arts based methods can be used with both homogenous and heterogeneous groups. Since peace training often is designed to increase participants’ empathy, arts-based methods may be particularly suitable for *diverse groups*. Give participants the opportunity to build relationships and comfort with each other before using this approach.
  o **Size of Group**: Some arts-based methods may be appropriate for small groups and others may work well with larger groups. For example, *Forum Theatre*, requires a group of 15+ to ensure the availability of enough actors and audience members. Make sure your method works well with group size.
  o **Time**: The implementation time can range from 10-15 minutes for a simple exercise to several days for a complex process. In the majority of cases within existing peace training, arts-based methods are used as part of a larger training programme, either as short exercises (10 - 60 minutes) or as a session (few hours to one day). As with many training methods, **arts-based methods** may sometimes use more time than trainers have initially
foreseen/predicted. Be prepared for this and ensure that you are able to implement the process well without ‘rushing’ and causing stress or reducing learning value for participants.

- **Determine Readiness**: Arts-based methods may evoke uncomfortable emotions or challenging experiences. This should not deter trainers from using them if they will be valuable in achieving key learning objectives and deepening participant’s capabilities. However, it does mean that trainers should prepare thoroughly, identify possible risks and ensure that the group are ready for this challenge.

### Delivery

Implementation of the ABM can vary depending on the type of method and structure of training. Sometimes, the activity is done first and debriefing takes place after the activity. Other times, participants undergo facilitated dialogue around themes while doing the intervention. The following steps can make participants feel more comfortable and ready to participate:

- Utilise ice-breakers or energisers if appropriate for consolidating and focusing the group
- Make sure introductions have been carried out and a safe space has been established
- Remind participants of ground rules, effective communication, and non-judgemental environment.
- Remind participants that they can opt out of part or all of the session if they feel uncomfortable.
- Ensure participants understand the purpose of the session(s).
- Introduce the method(s) being used and give participants a sense of what to expect.
- Give space for participants to express any possible concerns or raise questions.
- If group is sceptical of arts-based methods, provide them with some examples of success and discuss the benefits.
- Reassure participants who may feel self-conscious.

### Steps of Forum Theatre:

“To devise a Forum Theatre play, participants start by discussing issues of oppression in their lives. Within the context of the workshop, participants will share scenarios related to conflict in their regions, or moments in which they were not able to achieve peace, within a group.

After listening to one another’s stories, participants will select one or two stories which illustrate problems to which they would like to find solutions. The stories are then rehearsed, making clear who is the oppressor (antagonist) and the oppressed (protagonist). (Although Boal used the terms oppressor/oppressed, we will use antagonist/protagonist.)

During the rehearsal process, participants will illustrate key moments of potential intervention, where a different choice by the protagonist could change the outcome of the scenario. The scenario is performed up to the moment of crisis. There is no resolution.

The performance is demonstrated one time through without stopping, then an audience/performer mediator called the Joker tells the audience that the story will be played back again, and at any point in the story at which they feel there could be a different action to create a different outcome, individual audience members may yell “STOP.”

The actors freeze.

The individual audience member will then come up to the stage, take the place of the protagonist and continue from that point in the action, playing out their alternative idea to create an ideal outcome for the scenario.”

**Table 24: Forum Theatre (IREX, N.D., p.50)**
Here, participants exercise agency in changing the outcome by taking on the role of a character and implementing a scenario that can resolve the conflict. During implementation pay special attention to the individual experiences of participants as well as group dynamics. Note issues raised by the performance/method which are important to learning/reflection and competency development. Pay special attention also to potential/actual tensions/conflicts which may need to be addressed.

Trainers can raise issues of trauma and possible impact of ABMs with participants when introducing the session. Trainers can ask participants in advance of the training or at the start of the training if they have any special needs or concerns. While it is not always possible to know many of the issues or traumatic experiences a participant may have gone through beforehand, trainers should be prepared for the types of trauma participants may have had and engage appropriately.

The risk of possible traumatic association / triggering should not necessarily discourage use of a method or a participant engaging with it. It is, however, imperative to ensure participants understand this potential ahead of time that they can opt out of part or all of the session if they need to. When introducing the method, inform participants that the session is not a space to work through trauma. If a participant discloses trauma, affirm their experience and courage, state your availability to talk to the participant after the session, and signpost them for further support if necessary. In addition, trainers may wish to integrate self-care techniques, such as breathing or quiet walks) after an intense session. Trainers may offer to debrief individually with those that may benefit from additional care or support.

Healthy reflection and debriefing after the ABM can help participants process the feelings that arise and transition. This may include whole group, small group or one-on-one participant reflections. The implementation of arts-based methods depends on what type of method is used. While so many diverse forms of ABM exist, most have the commonality that they are highly experiential and engage participants deeply.

Consider the possibility of discomfort based on cultural context and gender. Arts-based methods can be powerful ways of engaging with culture and addressing gender relations and dimensions of conflicts. At the same time, certain arts-based methods may include physical proximity/interaction and even touch between participants. Ensure all participants are comfortable with it and that methods are selected and implemented in ways that respect people’s needs for physical comfort as well as (appropriately) respecting cultural values and identity.

**Debriefing**

Debriefing is particularly important when using arts-based approaches and training methods as it builds the cognitive dimension into the method. To ensure participants are able to draw out the key learning experiences / outcomes, debriefing should engage participants to identify clearly concepts, issues, knowledge, skills brought forward. Recalling, relating and reflecting back on the experience are important. As arts-based approaches are more experiential than many, trainers should also pay attention to possible emotions and the ‘experience’ of participants with the method. If properly handled, ABMs can also be particularly powerful methods for addressing and engaging with gender-
issues, stereotypes, dynamics and relations. Gender sensitivity is sometimes the focal area of learning addressed in ABMs and a key component in analysis during debriefing sessions as one of the main “fault lines” in peace and conflict analysis. When using existing movies/plays/situations the original setting will often include gender disparities, allowing this to be directly identified and addressed in debriefing and reflection/processing in the programme. The trainer and facilitator should permanently have a gender-sensitivity lens (and a wider sensitivity lens towards power dynamics and inclusion) so that they bring this issue into discussion and also moderate dialogues and discussions so that power dynamics are not deepening trauma and instead reduce power imbalances and disparities within the training room.

Connecting & Linking: make sure to also make the connection between the method which has been used and the overall logic and learning objectives of the programme. This will help ensure the use of arts-based methods is seen as ‘adding value’ to the whole programme, rather than a disjointed/separated component. Considering the complex and deep set of experiential and cognitive learning that arts-based methods enable as well as their highly participatory and free of judgement nature arts-based methods have a strong potential for growing and deepening the field of CPPB training. Their novelty is still to be discovered and recognised by different sectors yet this stands out as the task of professionals in the field to further the quality and development of specific CPPB arts-based training methods on one and to document and analyse the existing practices on the other.

8.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

**Strengths:**
- The role of performers or creators empowers and enable confidence and capability to engage more actively/directly with key CPPB issues
- Stimulates learning on several levels, in particular skills, attitudes, understanding, creating, and applying, in a save context
- Provides a shared immersive experience which can strengthen trust and group bonding/relations. It is an excellent tool for team building
- Provides direct ‘experience’ of issues, practices, tools rather than purely theoretical or lecture/text/discussion-based learning
- Can provide a highly evocative ‘memory anchor’ which can be linked to key learning objectives;

**Weaknesses:**
- Not widely endorsed / recognised yet as effective / appropriate learning methodologies by some actors (particularly policy-making, governmental and military sectors) as still relatively new in the CPPB field;
- Often done / used superficially in many trainings and not well linked/integrated with learning objectives. This also includes tokenism where ABMs are used to make the training ‘sexy’, ‘exciting’ or ‘fun’, but not for their value in CPPB learning objectives (beyond ‘ice breaking’ and making participants feel relaxed and enthusiastic towards the programme - which can themselves be important objectives as well);
- Limited material development in the CPPB training field for trainers to draw upon. Only
### Opportunities:
- Can facilitate access / release of guarded / unknown emotions;
- Can enable participants to bring forward assumptions and reveal possible prejudices/biases which may affect implementation in CPPB work;
- Can enable ‘realisations’ (eureka moments) on key CPPB issues/concepts which often do not otherwise occur;
- When used in learning / reflection can deepen retention and learning of content covered through a programme (eg ‘Portraits’);
- Cathartic effect: use of music, drumming, performances often helps participants experience ‘catharsis’ and ‘connection’ as a group at a level deeper than / beyond what is often achieved just through words, dialogue and group work;
- Some examples of incorporation into Training of Trainers manuals and fewer in core thematic, skills and issue-based training manuals/guides. Limited also in ABMs ‘explained’ specifically for CPPB training use; and few evaluations of use in CPPB training → all limiting what CPPB trainers are able to draw upon should they wish to engage with ABMs (one of the reasons those using them are often drawing upon ABM training materials developed for other sectors and then extrapolating to CPPB);
- CPPB trainers may not themselves be trained / experienced in using ABMs, often affecting whether they use them at all or not, or the quality of how they use them;
- If external ‘facilitators’ / experts (artists) are needed to implement the ABMs well, there are often not the funds available for bringing them into trainings;

### Threats:
- Without proper debriefing and appropriate learning contextualisation it can stay as a strong experiential memory, without learners’ fully understanding or digesting the knowledge/content included in the method;
- The fluidity of arts-based methods sometimes are challenging to implement in highly structured contexts;
- 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;
- ABMs are more likely, in some contexts and with some participants, to trigger traumatic recollection/connection experiences amongst participants. If trainers are not adept or do not know how to engage with these it can be harmful practice;
- If not implemented and introduced well to participants, participants may at times not
• One area CPPB experience with ABM points to is the use of ‘photo voice’ or photo/video recording in conflict analysis, mapping and understanding. This could be very effectively integrated into CPPB trainings, also to improve greater exposure to ‘voices’ / perspectives from stakeholders in conflict contexts;

• Using exploration and discovery approaches participants can also be engaged to find/identify conflict and peace elements within cultures in areas they are engaging - including murals, songs, poetry, photography, and more - and can engage with this in trainings to understand practically cultures and messages of war/violence/peace and how they are experienced, engaged with and manifested in the context;

• More broadly CPPB trainings can use cultural and artistic ‘immersion’ experiences to help participants grow/develop respect and understanding of local contexts and population groups, enabling greater cultural appreciation and respect and ‘humanising’ stakeholders/communities - so they are not just seen as ‘beneficiaries’ or ‘conflict-affected populations’;

• There is also significant opportunity to engage with ‘cultural and artistic experiences’ and ‘cultural and artistic sharing’ - from music to cooking and more in training programmes to foster deeper connection and relationship- and trust-building

• ‘Frontier’ Applications: New & Innovative

• Virtual Topography / Tours: Web-procedures can be created using technologies similar to google maps and adding apps/functions which enable ‘interaction’ with stakeholders; images/videos/fact-boxes on specific peace and conflict incidents and locations; visual mapping of organisations’ or

trust / credit the approach/method, and lose confidence in the programme and/or in the trainer for using it;

• ABMs can bring up issues/dynamics which can negatively affect intra-group relations and trust if not handled well
conflict parties’ / stakeholders’ presence, etc. This can be used as on-line support (which can also be accessed by participants before trainings and/or during deployment) or directly incorporated into trainings;

- **Virtual Museums / On-line ‘living museums’**: can be used to draw together knowledge on key peace and conflict issues, incidents, dynamics and experiences which can deepen participant’s context-, thematic- or skills-based knowledge and understanding;

- **Video Games / Simulations**: Video games can be referenced both under simulations and as an arts-based method. Gaming/simulation can be used to improve interactive experience, exposure to conflict/peace issues and dynamics, and ‘practice’ core skills;

- **MOOC/Sector Specific Online Courses**: The value/benefit of many of the above ‘e-based/ICT-based’ approaches is that they can be made available on ‘mass access’/application basis, or for all trainees/deploys of a certain sector or in a certain context - increasing their value, utility and impact.

- **Increased body of experiences in the peacebuilding sector (arts contribution to peacebuilding)**

| Table 25: SWOT Analysis for Arts-Based Methods |
9. Conclusion

In identifying factors that contribute to successful implementation of methods, we hope to help shape the development quality standards for training methods across the field of peace training. Furthermore, we wish to stir discussion between different sectors about their practices. Multi-sectoral discussion can focus on codification of trainer experiences with methods, improved post-course evaluations, and improved verification systems accompanied by improved monitoring and evaluation.

We recommend greater codification of trainer experiences using different methods. A centralised platform that contains reports on best practices and lessons learned regarding methods could serve as a useful tool across the field. One potential obstacle is that trainers may be more likely to describe positive previous experiences with a method. However, improved evaluation structures can overcome this problem.

Multi-sectoral dialogue around improving standards for evaluation could also be beneficial. An evaluation of strengths and weaknesses within implementation could increase trainer proficiency in delivering methods and improving content. In the meantime, trainers can ensure that there is a post-course/training review element as part of the evaluation that focuses on improving the content of the module or training. It can be done with key experts in the field and other trainers so that content reflect emerging trends and dynamics. As part of this evaluation, trainers and organisers also get the opportunity to include the feedback from participants in enriching the content.

Lastly, multi-sectoral dialogue can focus on improvement of verification and certification systems. While some courses receive a regional certification, no peace training specific certification exists. Devising appropriate systems of certification in conjunction with monitoring and evaluation systems can increase quality assurance. Methods implementation should be included in the list of areas reviewed.
3.4 Report on Current Training Methods for Peacebuilding and Conflict Prevention

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