

LMS MANUAL

ARE YOU INTENSED?





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CHAPTER 1

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Intro

The project INTENSE focuses on young people / students who are not in education, employment or training (NEET's) by approaching them client-focused from a holistic vision and the humanistic psychology in a structured environment in which autonomy and self-responsibility are the main issues. The project consortium is, of the opinion that the current closed and employment-centred approach of NEET's is ineffective and is supported in that line of thought (mindset) by Eurofound, which in 2015 examined the effectiveness and implementation of Youth Guarantee plans. This publication draws attention to the inadequate results of the employment-centred approach and the need to refrain. Their argument is:

"Concerning the implementation of the youth guarantee, the member states should refrain from choosing a close and employment-centred concept and decide on a more comprehensive and integral approach which aims at reaching those who are unemployable and more difficult to integrate."

The student / client will be placed in the centre of the project by the choice of the consortium for a client-centred approach. He / she must be the director of his or her own future in terms of education, training and work. INTENSE creates the conditions for the client to take the best possible direction. This concept is composed of three aspects as recurring themes in the project:

- 1. By compensation we mean developing a client-centred, systematic and integral educational concept. A holistic system.
- 2. Preventive work is necessary to prevent exclusion and to avoid follow-up costs.
- 3. By means of an early involvement of stakeholders a basis is provided towards an overall co-operation, with a focus on formal and legislative structures of national support systems in Europe.

Dimensions

The coaches who work with NEETs based on the INTENSE project should be aware of the dimensions in which their client's function. We will put our attention to the coherence and influencing of the **DIMENSIONS OF EXISTENCE**.

In these psychological dimensions, NEETs leave the path of what we call a healthy life journey, causing more and more isolation. The overview below gives an idea of what dimensions mean and what can go wrong; what threats there are.





The PHYSICAL DIMENSION concerns everything that has to do with the material, sensory body and the natural and material world. Here safety, comfort, enjoyment, health and external beauty are important values. Threats are poverty, pain, illness, deterioration, death. At this level, self-experience is mainly expressed in terms of if 'can do' or 'have' things.

In the **SOCIAL DIMENSION** people have an eye for someone's place in society or function in public life. Here, respect, recognition and success are important categories, but also concern for others, responsibility, friendship and belonging to something. The big threats are: condemnation, rejection, loneliness, guilt and shame. At this level people often talk about 'must' and view themselves mainly through the eyes of others.

In the **PSYCHIC DIMENSION** it is about character traits and psychological characteristics. With this focus on the individual, self-knowledge, autonomy and freedom are highly regarded. A rich inner life is an important source of satisfaction here. Threatening: confusion, doubt, imperfection, restriction of freedom, disintegration. The desire for self-realization is often articulated in terms of 'wanting' and self-development is given a personal interpretation.

The **SPIRITUAL LEVEL** includes self-transcending ideals, a broader system of meaning, ideas about man in a cosmic context, finding ultimate meanings. Threats in this dimension are: futility, futility, evil. Here people are aware of 'may' and there is gratitude for what is. At this level, a unity consciousness dominates. (Leijssen Mia (2013). Living from love. A path to existential well-being. Lannoo.)

Indicators

With this approach, the consortium wants improvements in the following five areas / indicators. These indicators refer to the essay "Individual employability" of the University of Duisburg-Essen (Martin Brussig, Matthias Knuth WSI-Mitteilungen 6/2009: Individuelle Beschäftigungsfähigkeit: Konzept, Operationalisierung und erste Ergebnisse). The researcher where identifying the 5 items as indicators for employability.

★ Qualifications

a quality or accomplishment that makes someone suitable for a particular job or activity

- ✓ school degree
- ✓ knowledge in occupational field
- ✓ VET degree
- ✓ professional experience

★ Social skills

Social skills are the skills we use to communicate and interact with each other, both verbally and non-verbally, through gestures, body language and our personal appearance

✓ empathy





- ✓ motivation
- √ self-awareness
- ✓ self-regulation

* Personal skills

personal skills are those that allow you to interact with others, express yourself, and manage yourself. Your personal skills shape not only the way you work, but also the way you live your daily life

- ✓ be open to new experiences
- ✓ be open to the outside world
- ✓ willingness to help others
- ✓ being able to experience unpleasant emotions
- ✓ need for achievement

★ Methodical skills

the definition of methodical is a person who pays very careful attention to detail and who does things in a precise manner or following a procedure

- ✓ orderly and systematic in habits or behaviour
- ✓ ability to search information and use it in a structural way to gain you own knowledge

★ Social stability

the quality or attribute of being firm and steady

- ✓ optimism
- ✓ acceptance
- ✓ solution orientation
- ✓ quitting the victim role
- ✓ take responsibility for your own life
- ✓ build a new network
- ✓ shape and plan your own future

Based on the assumption that the integral approach supported by the EUROFUND 2015 research should lead to more socially disconnected and disadvantaged young people being (re-)integrated, we think it is essential to provide Transition Coaches with actual methods that have solid scientific foundations. The core of these methods consists of integral, holistic and humanistic approaches that contribute to changing the mindset of their users. We are convinced that training these methods must start with teaching some essential theories in line with the given objectives.

The following matrix shall serve as an introductory overview. On the one hand, it shows what methods of intervention serve which purposes; on the other hand, it displays the theories and scientific approaches on which the methods are based. During the training, we focus on a certain number of intervention methods that are of great importance





according to our point of view. In addition, we look at the scientific ranges and theoretical backgrounds of these theories.

OBJECTIVE(S)	METHODS OF INTERVENTION	THEORY	SCIENTIFIC APPROACH	POINT OF VIEW
CHANGING THE	NON-DIRECTIVE INTERVIEWING/ COACHING MOTIVATIONAL INTERVIEWING	THEORY OF PERSONALITY / CLIENT-CENTRED THERAPY		
MINDSET		GORDON MODEL		
STEPS TOWARDS CHANGING THE MINDSET	INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES	FOUR SIDES OF A MESSAGE	HUMANISM	LISM
CAN BE EVALUATED BY		SELF DETERMINATION THEORY		
SELF-EXPLORATION	INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES IMPROVEMENT OF AUTONOMY	TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS		ᅙ
		S.O.R.C.	BEHAVIOURISM	_
CHANGE OF BEHAVIOUR	BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT COGNITIVE RESTRUCTURING	FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOURAL ANALYSIS	BEHAVIOURISM /	
		EXPERIMENTAL LEARNING	COGNITIVISM	

HOLISM

The words 'holism' and 'holistic' come from the Greek word "holos" that means "completely". Within the holistic vision man is a unity of body and mind. This unit has physical, mental, emotional, social and spiritual aspects that are in continuous interaction with each other. Holism is related to complexity. In general, it is assumed that, when there is a complexity of many individual components a variety of forms of interaction is shown, and this complexity is, in any case, related to the total number of components. Each of the features is of course characterized by the constituent parts, but also (and perhaps more) by the coherence or arrangement of those parts and their interaction. Holism is also the name given to the belief of which the essence is that everything is inextricably linked. A holist sees himself constantly as part of the whole and considers the other (human, animal, plant or object) as the other me.

Holism stands against atomism. While atomism society perceives as consisting of purely individuals, holism sees society as made up of more than the sum of individuals.

In this approach project a NEET, being a client is a complex individual with many psychological, physical, spiritual and social influences.

HUMANISTIC PSYCHOLOGY

The movement was i.a. founded by Abraham H. Maslow and Carl R. Rogers and was a reaction to behaviourism and psychoanalysis.

The humanistic school in psychology is often more philosophical than psychological.





Maslow rejects the quest for legitimacy and, on the other hand, his starting points are theories based on the consciousness and free will of man. People can make their own choices. This focuses on the unique whole human being, rather than on specific components. According to Maslow, psychology must help people to develop themselves.

The core values of Humanistic Psychology are:

- ✓ A belief in the worth of persons and dedication to the development of human potential.
- ✓ An understanding of life as a process, change is inevitable.
- ✓ An appreciation of the spiritual and intuitive.
- ✓ A commitment to ecological integrity.

A recognition of the profound problems affecting our world and a responsibility to hope of a constructive change.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Humanistic_psychology

CHANGING THE MINDSET

Mindset - changing the way you think to fulfil your potential, Author: Dr. Carol S. Dweck, Little Brown UK

We all want to see our students and our children grow into happy, balanced and successful adults but exactly what that means and how it is to be achieved are areas of uncertainty. Into this debate comes Carol Dweck's research into 'Mindsets' and how individual differences in our approach to the world dictate our ultimate experiences of success or disappointment. Through Dweck's research the reader is provided with an insight as to why some people seem to cope with the trials of life while others in the same situation fail to reach their full potential. Dweck tells us it is all about an individual's 'Mindset' and in a refreshing shift away from complex theories, with multiple dimensions and layers, presents a model with two possibilities.

Mindset

An eye-opener. You can call the book Mindset of Carol s. Dweck the way to a successful life. She describes her extraordinary discoveries after decades of research into achievement and success. What did she discover? Not only our talents and skills ensure success. It also depends on our mindset, our thinking style. Dweck discovered that there are two mind-sets: the static mindset and the growth-oriented mindset.

After an introduction about the mind-sets, Carol Dweck writes about the influence of the mindset on the different areas: sport, leadership, love, parents and teachers. She concludes with pointers how to change your mindset.

According to Dweck an individual in a particular situation across all aspects of their lives can adopt a Growth Mindset or a Fixed Mindset with very different outcomes as a result.





In a Growth Mindset the individual is open to the idea that their ability to succeed in any situation can change as a result of actions within their control.

★ Static mindset / fixed mindset

In the Fixed Mindset success occurs because an individual has talent or innate ability, failure is due to a lack of the same and as such negative results are taken as a personal attack that in many cases it warranted as the evidence points to a lack of ability. The alternative to taking failure personally in the Fixed Mindset is to find excuses and external factors that biased the result against the individuals still fixed ability.

★ Growth-oriented mindset / growth mindset

An individual with a Growth Mindset will believe that they can learn new skills, expand their abilities, improve their results, understand new perspectives and adapt to changing circumstances. The Growth Mindset is a very positive outlook and the key to success of the individuals described by Carol in her writing. The Fixed Mindset assumes that ability is fixed and unalterable, a result of factors outside of the individuals control.

Source: http://thelearnersway.net/

additional online resources:

http://mindsetonline.com/

You can find more input in the following 2 external articles. https://www.lean.org/LeanPost/Posting.cfm?LeanPostId=696 https://alexvermeer.com/why-your-mindset-important

THEORY OF PERSONALITY - CARL ROGERS

Carl Rogers was a prominent psychologist and one of the founding members of the humanist movement. Along with Abraham Maslow, he focused on the growth potential of healthy individuals and greatly contributed to our understanding of the self and personality. Both Rogers' and Maslow's theories focus on individual choices and do not hold that biology is deterministic. They emphasized free will and self-determination, with each individual desiring to become the best person they can become.

Humanistic psychology emphasized the active role of the individual in shaping their internal and external worlds. Rogers advanced the field by stressing that the human person is an active, creative, experiencing being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters.

Rogers maintains that the human "organism" has an underlying "actualizing tendency", which aims to develop all capacities in ways that maintain or enhance the organism and move it toward autonomy. [...]

This tendency is directional, constructive and present in all living things. The actualizing tendency can be suppressed but can never be destroyed without the destruction of the organism (Pescitelli, D., 2000)

Rogers based his theories of personality development on humanistic psychology and theories of subjective experience. He believed that everyone exists in a constantly changing world of experiences that they are at the centre of. A person reacts to changes





in their phenomenal field, which includes external objects and people as well as internal thoughts and emotions.

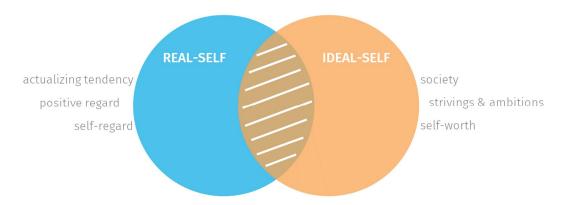


The phenomenal field refers to a person's subjective reality, which includes external objects and people as well as internal thoughts and emotions. The person's motivations and environments both act on their phenomenal field.

Rogers believed that all behaviour is motivated by self-actualizing tendencies, which drive a person to achieve at their highest level. As a result of their interactions with the environment and others, an individual form a structure of the self or self-concept—an organized, fluid, conceptual pattern of concepts and values related to the self. If a person has a positive self-concept, they tend to feel good about who they are and often see the world as a safe and positive place. If they have a negative self-concept, they may feel unhappy with who they are.

Rogers further divided the self into two categories: the ideal self and the real self. The ideal self is the person that you would like to be; the real self is the person you actually are. Rogers focused on the idea that we need to achieve consistency between these two selves. We experience congruence when our thoughts about our real self and ideal self are very similar—in other words, when our self-concept is accurate. High congruence leads to a greater sense of self-worth and a healthy, productive life. Conversely, when there is a great discrepancy between our ideal and actual selves, we experience a state Rogers called incongruence, which can lead to maladjustment.





Source: boundless.com

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A person's ideal self may not be consistent with what actually happens in life and experiences of the person. Hence, a difference may exist between a person's ideal self and actual experience. This is called incongruence.

Where a person's ideal self and actual experience are consistent or very similar, a state of congruence exists. Rarely, if ever, does a total state of congruence exist; all people experience a certain amount of incongruence.

The development of congruence is dependent on unconditional positive regard. Carl Rogers believed that for a person to achieve self-actualization they must be in a state of congruence.

According to Rogers, we want to feel, experience and behave in ways which are consistent with our self-image and which reflect what we would like to be like, our ideal-self.

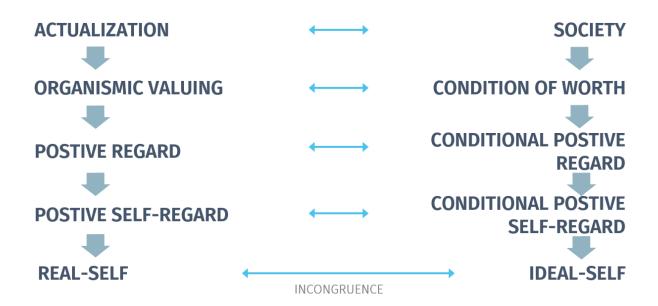
The closer our self-image and ideal-self are to each other, the more consistent or congruent we are and the higher our sense of self-worth. A person is said to be in a state of incongruence if some of the totality of their experience is unacceptable to them and is denied or distorted in the self-image.

Incongruence is "a discrepancy between the actual experience of the organism and the self-picture of the individual insofar as it represents that experience.

As we prefer to see ourselves in ways that are consistent with our self-image, we may use defence-mechanisms like denial or repression in order to feel less threatened by some of what we consider to be our undesirable feelings. A person whose self-concept is incongruent with her or his real feelings and experiences will defend because the truth hurts.







Carl Rogers (1951) viewed the child as having two basic needs: positive regard from other people and self-worth.

How we think about ourselves, our feelings of self-worth are of fundamental importance both to psychological health and to the likelihood that we can achieve goals and ambitions in life and achieve self-actualization.

Self-worth may be seen as a continuum from very high to very low. For Carl Rogers (1959) a person who has high self-worth, that is, has confidence and positive feelings about him or herself, faces challenges in life, accepts failure and unhappiness at times, and is open with people.

A person with low self-worth may avoid challenges in life, not accept that life can be painful and unhappy at times and will be defensive and guarded with other people.

Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father. As a child grows older, interactions with significant others will affect feelings of self-worth.

Rogers believed that we need to be regarded positively by others; we need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and loved. Positive regard is to do with how other people evaluate and judge us in social interaction. Rogers made a distinction between unconditional positive regard and conditional positive regard.

UNCONDITIONAL POSITIVE REGARD

Unconditional positive regard is where parents, significant others (and the humanist therapist) accepts and loves the person for what he or she is. Positive regard is not withdrawn if the person does something wrong or makes a mistake.

The consequences of unconditional positive regard are that the person feels free to try things out and make mistakes, even though this may lead to getting it worse at times.





People who are able to self-actualize are more likely to have received unconditional positive regard from others, especially their parents in childhood.

CONDITIONAL POSITIVE REGARD

Conditional positive regard is where positive regard, praise, and approval, depend upon the child, for example, behaving in ways that the parents think correct.

Hence the child is not loved for the person he or she is, but on condition that he or she behaves only in ways approved by the parent(s).

At the extreme, a person who constantly seeks approval from other people is likely only to have experienced conditional positive regard as a child.

Source: McLeod, S. A. (2014, Feb 05). *Carl Rogers*. Retrieved from https://www.simplypsychology.org/carl-rogers.html



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THUS...

According to Rogers, who are able be self-actualize, are called fully functioning person. the closer the person's self-image and self-ideal are each other, the more congruent or consistent and the higher person's sense of self-worth.

Incongruent behaviours result from incongruence, which are inconsistent with conditions of worth, are either denied or distorted completely to awareness. Experience incongruence indicates a basic inconsistency in the self.

How can we dissolve an incongruity?

After the client recognizes that he/she is responsible (not the coach) for all his/her actions, he/she should inquire all problematic issues that causes his/her mismatches between real self and ideal self

The most promising way is the self-exploration supportive accompanied by the transition coach through the non-directive coaching method

Self-exploration in this context looking at your own thoughts, feelings, behaviours and motivations and asking why. It is looking for the roots of who we are and looking for answers to all the questions we have about ourselves

Finally, indicated more as an advice than a law, Rogers describes a fully functioning / psychologically healthy person by using indicators. Here you can find the 5 most important indicators





- 1. OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE. A growing openness to experience they move away from defensiveness and have no need for subception (a perceptual defence that involves unconsciously applying strategies to prevent a troubling stimulus from entering consciousness).
- 2. EXISTENTIAL LIVING. An increasingly existential lifestyle living each moment fully not distorting the moment to fit personality or self-concept but allowing personality and self-concept to emanate from the experience. This results in excitement, daring, adaptability, tolerance, spontaneity, and a lack of rigidity and suggests a foundation of trust. "To open one's spirit to what is going on now, and discover in that present process whatever structure it appears to have" (Rogers 1961)
- 3. ORGANISMIC TRUSTING. Increasing organismic trust they trust their own judgment and their ability to choose behaviour that is appropriate for each moment. They do not rely on existing codes and social norms but trust that as they are open to experiences they will be able to trust their own sense of right and wrong.
- **4. EXPERIENTIAL FREEDOM.** Freedom of choice not being shackled by the restrictions that influence an incongruent individual, they are able to make a wider range of choices more fluently. They believe that they play a role in determining their own behaviour and so feel responsible for their own behaviour.
- **5. CREATIVITY.** it follows that they will feel more free to be creative. They will also be more creative in the way they adapt to their own circumstances without feeling a need to conform.

In literature you will find 2 more indicators

RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCTIVENESS – they can be trusted to act constructively. An individual who is open to all their needs will be able to maintain a balance between them. Even aggressive needs will be matched and balanced by intrinsic goodness in congruent individuals.

A RICH FULL LIFE – Rogers describes the life of the fully functioning individual as rich, full and exciting and suggests that they experience joy and pain, love and heartbreak, fear and courage more intensely. Rogers' description of the good life.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carl_Rogers

SELF-EXPLORATION

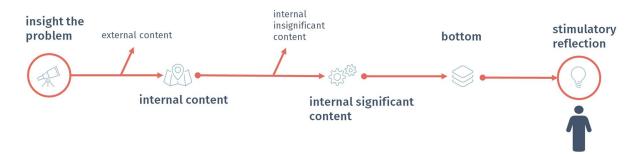
Self-exploration means looking at your own thoughts, feelings, behaviours and motivations and asking why. It is looking for the roots of who we are and looking for answers to all the questions we have about ourselves

This scale was first operationalised by C.B. Truax and afterwards revised by R. Tausch





To make the scale applicable, we should first look again on the process of non-directive coaching conducted by the transition coach



The major task of the coach in this context is to help the client that he/she will get the bottom of client's problem, inspire and stimulate client's self-exploration (see chapter non-directive coaching)

Reinhard and Anne-Marie Tausch (1969) delivered descriptions for every step, which allows the coach to measure exactly the degree of client's self-exploration

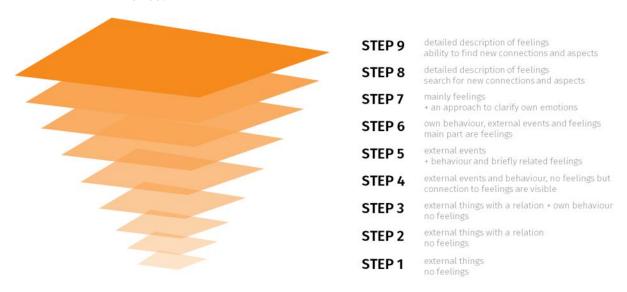
★ Quote R. & A. Tausch 1969:

"Scale for assessment of client's self-exploration

- Step 1 The client does not talk about himself, either about his behaviour or his feelings. He speaks exclusively about facts, which are independent of his person
- Step 2 The client does not report about himself, either about his behaviour or about his feelings. He speaks only about persons and / or things that are related to him (for example, his parents and his car).
- Step 3 The client reports about external events and his own behaviour, without speaking about the related feelings.
- Step 4 The client reports about external events and about his own behaviour, without speaking about the related feelings.
 The coach can assume that his / her statements relate to feelings or of greater importance for him/her.
- Step 5 The client reports about his own behaviour or external events and the related feelings. The main part of the statement consists in the description of his/her behaviour or external events, the feelings are briefly mentioned.
- Step 6 The client reports about his/her own behaviour or external events and about the related feelings. The statement consists mainly a description of his feelings.
- Step 7 The client mainly reports about his/her feelings. In addition, the coach must notice an approach of the client to clarify his emotions, to see them in new contexts and to ask him/herself where certain attitudes come from.



- Step 8 The client describes his/her feelings in detail and clearly expresses the search for new aspects and connections in his/her experience.
- Step 9 The client describes his/her feelings in detail. It is clear that he/she finds new aspects and connections in his/her experience.



The upside-down pyramid built by nine rectangles with different level of transparency and size. Both symbolizes that the more the client go on in his/her self-exploration the more he/she can expand the perception of feelings, emotions and thoughts and their backgrounds as well as the ability to gain self-competence to pursue self-development.

NON-DIRECTIVE COACHING

The non-directive coaching / counselling or therapy focusses the following 5 aspects

- 1. It is a humanistic approach and major concept is that people are generally trust-worthy, resourceful, capable of self-understanding and self-direction, able to make constructive changes, and able to live effective and productive lives.
- 2. The person-centred approach focuses on the client being able to develop a greater understanding of self in an environment, self-exploration and improved self-concepts
- 3. Self-exploration in this context means looking at your own thoughts, feelings, behaviours and motivations and asking why. It is looking for the roots of who we are answers to all the questions we have about ourselves
- 4. For a successful coaching process, it also focusses the quality of the coach, who needs ability of emphatic understanding in a non-judgement way. The coach does not offer advices, directions and interventions. It is important to be clear that, in its purest form, the lack of direction applies both to the content of the conversation and to the scope of the conversation.





- 5. Which leads both, the coach and the client, to a relationship, that allows the client to resolve problems and helps the client to be able to make changes for themselves.
- 6. All that bases on client's responsibility for his life.

As we know from the theory of personality the humanistic influenced non-directive or client centred way has several key concepts. Most important are the following:



Carl Rogers stated six sufficient conditions that are necessary for a change

- Coach-client contact: a relationship between client and coach must exist and it must be a relationship, in which each person's perception of the other is important.
- 2. Client's incongruence: incongruence exists between the client's experience and awareness or in other words, between real self and ideal self.
- 3. Coach's congruence: the coach is congruent within the therapeutic relationship. The coach is deeply involved him or herself they are not "acting"—and they can draw on their own experiences to facilitate the relationship.
- 4. Coach's unconditional positive regard: the therapist accepts the client unconditionally, without judgment, disapproval or approval. This facilitates increased self-regard in the client, as they can begin to become aware of experiences in which others distorted their view of self-worth.
- 5. Coach's empathic understanding: the coach experiences an empathic understanding of the client's internal frame of reference. Accurate empathy on the part of the coach helps the client believe the coach's unconditional affection for them.
- 6. Client perception: the client perceives, to at least a minimal degree, the coach's unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding.







COACH'S
EMPATHIC
UNDERSTANDING

EMPATHY ON
CLIENT'S INTERNAL
FRAME OF
REFERENCE

Three of these conditions have become known as the 'Core Conditions'

Rogers asserted that the most important factor in successful coaching is the relational climate created by the coach's attitude to their client. He specified three interrelated core conditions:

Let us have a look on the distinction of direct and non-direct approach and the items:

non-directive	directive
 In non-directive coaching, the individual is the expert and he/she sets the agenda. The coach helps them to think through that agenda and then apply their own expertise to achieve the outcomes he/she wants. Non-directive coaching is facilitative. It is based on reflective learning and structured problem solving. The coach requires knowledge of how to help people explore and problem-solve for themselves. 	 the coach sets goals for the individual or group, suggests strategies to achieve those goals, identifies resources, monitors the performance of the individual or group and gives them evaluative feedback. The coach is the expert and tells the individual or group what to do. Directive coaching is instructional. It is another form of teaching or training. The coach requires expert knowledge of performance in the given context

Non-directive coaching has a strong focus on helping people to overcome self-limiting attitudes and assumptions. It does this by questioning those attitudes and assumptions in the context of practical problem-solving.

Without dwelling on why the client has assumed, non-directive coaching helps the client to recognise it as an assumption (rather than a fact) and see beyond it. Showing a person that they are capable of problem-solving provides concrete evidence of their capacity to explore and develop.

The kind of help is reflected in techniques of non-directive coaching. Techniques among others are e.g.:

Attentive Listening

- ✓ coach gains understanding by close attention
- ✓ put aside any agendas
- ✓ giving the client time and acknowledging their feelings

Purposeful, non-directive, non-judgemental questioning





- ✓ focuses closely on what client needs to do, how and when they are going to do it.
- ✓ helps the client by giving them the opportunity to talk

Constructive challenge

- ✓ supports the client to move forward
- ✓ range from identify more options to refocussing on the objective
- ✓ develop awareness on the client's own terms

Confidence building reassurance & affirmation

- ✓ coach offers reassurance, explicitly stating
- ✓ coach points out client's progress and helps to connect it to their own efforts

Motivational interviewing

- ✓ Engaging used to involve the client in talking about issues, concerns and hopes, and to establish a trusting relationship with a counsellor.
- ✓ Focusing used to narrow the conversation to habits or patterns that clients want to change.
- ✓ Evoking used to elicit client motivation for change by increasing clients' sense of the importance of change, their confidence about change, and their readiness to change.
- ✓ Planning used to develop the practical steps clients want to use to implement the changes they desire.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carl Rogers

Summary

In non-directive coaching, the individual or group is the expert and they set the agenda. The coach helps them to think through that agenda and then apply their own expertise to achieve the outcomes they want.

Non-directive coaching is facilitative. It is based on reflective learning and structured problem solving. The coach requires knowledge only of how to help people learn and problem-solve for themselves.

WHY IS NON-DIRECTIVENESS A KEY SKILL FOR A COACH TO CULTIVATE? Because along with non-judgementalism, it's the backdrop supporting a coaching approach which genuinely embraces clients as experts in their own issues – albeit experts who currently aren't quite in touch with all the relevant information and insights to help them on their way.

Coaching focuses on the client, the client's needs, and the client's agenda. A non-directive approach means coaches refrain from instructing or 'telling', asking leading questions which fish around for particular answers, or harbouring frustration that clients may seemingly 'refuse' to see or follow what to the coach are obvious solutions. A non-directive approach puts into practice the coaching maxim that "the client knows best how to deal with his or her issue."





Non-directiveness relies on the coach standing back from his or her own preconceptions. Through deep listening, effective questioning in the moment, and providing a safe confidential space within which the client can imagine and experiment, a coach can facilitate the process whereby client come to terms with and move beyond self-limiting beliefs and/or fears.

Transformative coaching has non-directiveness at its core because only the client can find the key to opening the doors through which transformation comes in her or his particular case. The coach's role is to observe, reflect back, and provide the mirror via which the client can see and recognise the keys that are necessary for his or her own transformational change and development.

There are numerous good reasons for coaches to build awareness of when they're in non-directive mode and when they aren't. Here are 2 to think about.

★ The coach who doesn't coach

Most coaches know that excellent coaching is for the most part non-directive, but it's not that easy for individuals whose strengths lie at the more directive end of the coaching skill spectrum to recognise in the moment when they inappropriately slip into 'telling' or 'advising' mode. This is especially problematic for those whose professional background or current 'day job' is in HR or Learning & Development. So much of their time has been or still is spent solving the problems of others, instructing in rules and regulations, or telling people what to do. Whilst their contribution of insight might be invaluable if requested in a mentoring relationship, for the most part it is highly detrimental in the context of coaching.

The result is that clients may be forced to revert to learning from someone else, being deprived of the opportunity to be facilitated in exploring how to move forward in their own time and in their own way. For under-confident 'people pleasing' clients, it can even lead to reliance on the coach. Establishing a reflective practice is key to helping coaches recognise the patterns of thought and behaviour which result in reversion to 'directive mode', and to starting the process of strategizing how to avoid them.

★ The coach who doesn't challenge

Whilst coaching focuses on the client and the client's ability to dig deep to find solutions to his or her issues, the coach must be able to fulfil the role of facilitator, mirror and challenger when necessary. Coaching sessions should be far more than cosy chats between friends. Long-suppressed difficult emotions such as anger, grief or frustration might need to be countenanced, expressed and transitioned through, and that means the coach should be capable of being detached enough not to be pulled into over-identification with the client's situation (collusion) or repulsed by what he or she is experiencing in the moment as the client journeys through the challenging time.





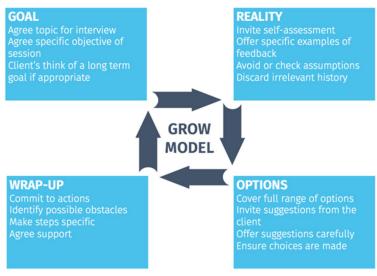
Challenge is seldom pleasant. Yet challenge is often essential in a coaching relationship – coach challenging client, and client challenging coach if need be. This is where the coach needs strong interpersonal and communication skills capable of building sufficient rapport and trust with the client to withstand what can become stormy seas. Having the sensitivity and ability to read the whole person is essential for a coach when choosing less or more directive modes of interaction in the moment. Challenge should not be feared. It should be prepared for by building sharp awareness of exactly how directive or otherwise one is or needs to be in the moment, as well as sufficient flexibility to move from one mode to another as and when necessary.



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source: https://newbycoachlive.wordpress.com/2018/02/19/the-importance-of-non-directiveness-in-coaching-and-2-good-reasons-to-build-awareness/

★ GROW model of non-directive coaching



GROW stands for Goal, Reality, Options and Wrap-up. (In some versions, the O also stands for Obstacles and the W for Way forward or Will.)

Developed in the UK in the 1980s, the GROW model is a loosely sequential, problemsolving model. It focuses on building confidence and raising awareness (including selfawareness) in order to enable the client to take full personal

responsibility for their own learning and development. The model is intended to be used flexibly and iteratively, across and within sessions. For example, reflection on the outcomes of an action might lead the client to adjust their goal.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/GROW_model

- ★ Quote from Citizens' Curriculum guide to Non-directive coaching, Learning and Work Institute 2017 Useful questions for non-directive coaching
 - ✓ What makes you say that? | What do you mean?
 - ✓ How do you feel about that?
 - ✓ Can you tell me more, to help me understand?
 - ✓ What is the real issue here? | Why is that important to you?
 - ✓ What might be [person X's] reason for doing that? | What would [person X] say if they were here now? Is there any justification for what [person X] said/did?





- ✓ What makes you so sure about that? | Have you asked them? | What if you're wrong?
- ✓ Is that connected to anything?
- ✓ What else? [This is one of the most useful coaching questions. Use it to encourage/challenge the client to dig deeper, e.g. to think more about an issue or to come up with more ideas.]
- ✓ How will that help?
- ✓ What might be a problem? | What makes that a problem? | What can you do about that?
- ✓ What's the worst that could happen?
- ✓ What will you need to do? [Follow up with e.g. What other things could you do?]
- ✓ What do you think you should do first/next/after that? | What might you need to
 do before that?
- ✓ When will you do it? | How long will that take?
- ✓ Is that realistic? [Another very important question! Follow up with e.g. What makes you say/think that?]
- ✓ Are you 100% sure you will do that? Why not 100% sure? [This question is about how much the client is willing to commit to doing what they say they intend to do i.e. it is about taking responsibility.]
- ✓ Last week you told me... What happened? | How did it go? Why?
- ✓ What stopped you from doing more?
- ✓ Can you think of a time in the past when you had a problem like this? How did you solve it?
- ✓ Does your goal/plan still make sense to you? | Do you need to think about your goal/plan again?
- ✓ What could I do to support you?
- ✓ Is there anything else you want to talk about now or are we finished?

additional source: Citizens' Curriculum guide to Non-directive coaching, www.learningandwork.org.uk

COMMUNICATION SQUARE

truth is not wat A says – but rather what B understands

Envisioning this statement, we realise that communication is a multi-layered process of human utterance.

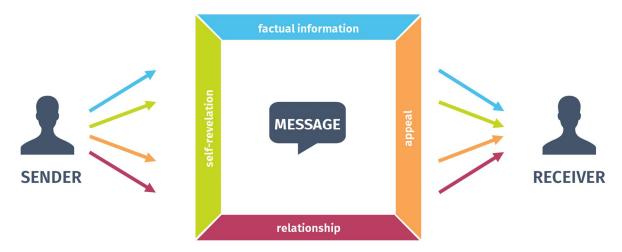
THE FOUR SIDES MODEL aka COMMUNICATION SQUARE in this context is a communication model by German Friedemann Schulz von Thun that explains the idea that every message has four facets. It combines the postulate that every communication has a content and a relationship aspect – well known from the approach of Paul Watzlawick – as well as that every information contains something about the matter, the sender and the receiver.

The four facets or layers are





- ✓ The fact or matter layer that contains statements, which are matter of fact like data and facts, which are part of the news
- ✓ The self-revealing side tells something about him-/herself, his motivation, values, emotions etc. conscious or not intended
- ✓ In the relationship layer is expressed / received, how the sender gets along with the receiver and what he thinks of him
- ✓ The appeal facet contains the desire, advice, instruction and effects that the speaker is seeking for



On the MATTER LAYER the sender of the news gives data, facts and statements. It is the task of the sender to send this information clearly and understandably.

The receiver proves with the Matter ear, whether the matter message fulfills the criteria of truth or relevance and the completeness. In a long-term team, the matter layer is clear and needs only a few words.

In every news, there is information about the sender. On the LAYER OF THE SELF-REVEAL-ING OR SELF-DISCLOSURE the sender reveals himself. This message consists of conscious intended self-expression as well as unintended self-revealing, which is not conscious to the sender. Thus, every news becomes information about the personality of the sender.

The self-revealing ear of the receiver perceives which information about the sender is hidden in the message.

The **RELATIONSHIP LAYER** expresses how the sender gets along with the receiver and what he thinks about him. Depending on how he talks to him he expresses esteem, respect, friendliness, disinterest, contempt or something else.

Depending on which message the receiver hears with relationship ear, he feels either depressed, accepted or patronized. A good communication is distinguished by communication from mutual appreciation.

Who states something, will also affect something. This appeal-message should make the receiver do something or leave something undone. The attempt to influence someone can be less or more open, like an advice or hidden, like a manipulation





On the APPEAL EAR, the receiver asks himself: "What should I do, think or feel now?"

The emphasis on the four layers can be meant differently and be understood differently. Therefore, the sender can stress the appeal of the statement and the receiver can mainly receive the relationship part of the message. This is one of the main reasons for misunderstandings.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Four-sides_model

TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

Transactional analysis was created by Eric Berne – a Canadian born psychiatrist – to explain human behaviour. The theory is based on the ideas of Freud but is distinctly different. Berne believed that insight in patient's personality could be better discovered by analysing patients' social transactions.

Most important assumptions made by TA are

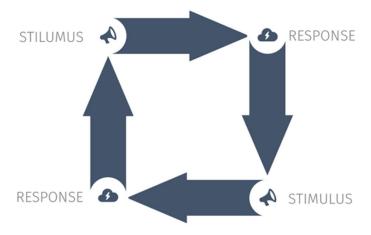
- Everyone is born ok
- everyone could think and
- everyone is responsible for themselves which means he/she decides on his/her own destiny and can change the decision

Related to the question why people think, act and interact as they do, Berne found that the human brain works like a camcorder. It records all our thoughts, feelings and emotions, which we tend to replay in our adult life.

All that support the development of a consistent pattern of feeling and experience that is directly related to a corresponding pattern of behaviour

What is a transaction

A transaction is the fundamental unit of social intercourse. That means a certain behaviour or better response, follows a stimulus.



If two or more people meet each other eventually one of them will speak, or give some other sign of recognizing the presence of the others.

Another person will than say or do something, which is in some way related to the stimulus.

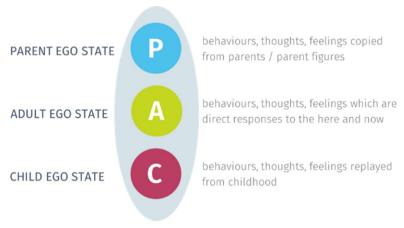
All before mentioned backgrounds plus the consideration,

that a human is born as a biological being, and a being of reason and moral, Berne developed his 3 ego states.





Berne understood that there exist three distinct states in all people. People change from one state to another during their transactions. This change can be easily noticed by the manners, appearances, words, gestures, and tones.



The three distinct states called the ego states are the Parent ego state, the Adult ego state, and the Child ego state. The Parent ego state is produced by the play-back of recordings in the brain of unquestioned or imposed external events perceived by the person before his social

development. This ego state consists of NO's, DON'T's, HOW -TO's In other words, this ego state consists of the "taught - concepts" of life.

The Child ego state is the response the little person produced to what he/she saw, heard, felt and understood. In other words, this ego state may be considered the collection of "felt-concepts" of life.

The Adult ego state fulfils the task of updating both Child data and Parent data by ongoing inspection of these data comparing it to actual reality.

To summarize that:

PARENT STATE

- BASIC PRINCIPLES ARE SELF-MADE EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES
- LEAD TO OWN VALUES AND NORMS
- BASIS FOR OUR ASSESSMENT OF MORAL JUDGMENTS AND LIVING POINTS

ADULT STATE

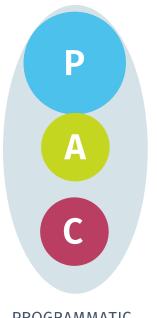
- BASIC PRINCIPLES ARE THE SELF-MADE LEARNING EXPERIENCE
- LEADS TO OWN STRATEGIES TO ACQUIRE AND PROCESS INFORMATION
- BASIS OF OUR FACTUAL COLOURED JUDGMENTS AND DECISIONS

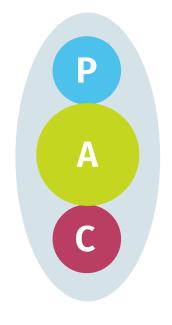


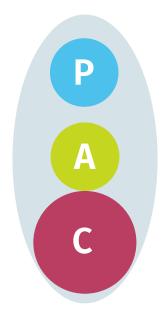
- BASICS PRINCIPLES ARE THE SELF-MADE SATISFACTION EXPERIENCES
- LEAD TO OWN STRATEGIES TO ACQUIRE PLEASURES AND AVOID DISPLEASURES
- BASIS OF OUR EMOTIONALLY COLOURED ACTIONS AND DECISIONS

As you probably assume – there are different character, which have different expression of these ego states. The following three examples should help to understand:









PROGRAMMATIC PERSON

MATTER-OF-FACT-PERSON

EMOTIONAL PERSON

- A person with a strong expression of the parental ego state can be characterised as programmatic oriented. He / she is used to give orders to others or could be mostly critical against others.
- If the adults' ego state is expressed the most the person can be characterised as matter-of-fact-person such like astrophysicists
- A person with a strong expression of the child ego state can be called emotionally person. Typically, comedians are rather emotionally than one of the other mentioned characteristics.

Basically, the Parent ego state can have TWO functions. On the one hand, it can be permission giving, nurturing, soft, and loving. In this case, it is referred to as the NURTURING PARENT ego state. On the other hand, the parent ego state can be restrictive in a healthy manner. This part of the Parent ego state is termed the CRITICAL PARENT. (In some cases, it is called the Prejudiced Parent.) It covers the prejudged beliefs, thoughts, and feelings that we acquired from our parents. In fact, one part of the ideas people store in their Parent ego states can be beneficial in managing their lives while other Parent ideas are not. Hence, it is worthwhile to select what information we store in our heads. This way we can keep the information that is helpful in managing our lives and amend the part that is not.

The **ADULT** ego state is the place where the data is being processed. This part of the ego draws logical conclusions, processes data accurately, thinks, hears, sees, and can generate solutions to problems considering the facts rather than our childlike emotions or pre-judged thoughts.

Two parts make up the Child ego state: The FREE CHILD (which is also named the Natural Child) and the ADAPTED CHILD (which the Rebellious Child is a part of).





The ego state of the Free Child is where our spontaneous feelings and behaviours are located. This ego state experiences the world in an instant and direct way. The Free Child can be emotional, expressive, playful, and authentic. Along with the Adult ego state, it is the place of creativity. Having a dominant Free Child ego state is very important for having intimate relationships. Whenever we adjust in ways that bring us more in closer to our Free Child (i.e. our true selves), we increase the degree of intimacy we can experience in our lives.

To some degree, we all learnt to comply with messages we received when we were growing up. This results in the ego state of the Adapted Child. Adapting is an ability we have all acquired in various ways. There are times when we react to restrictive parental messages, which we rebel against, instead of complying with them. These make up the ego state of the Rebellious Child that represents an alternative to complying. Yet, nonetheless, it is a way of responding to parental messages. Thus, it is a form of adaptation in itself.

Life Positions

Based on the messages received and the decisions made, a young child develops a basic life position. We call these "existential positions" because they influence how we view our own and others existence. There are four basic life positions. These are:

	You are OK with me			
	I am NOT OK You are OK	I am <mark>OK</mark> You are <mark>OK</mark>		
am NOT OK with me	one down posi- tion get away from helpless	healthy position get on with happy		
l am NOT 0	I am NOT OK You are NOT OK hopeless position get nowhere with helpless	I am OK You are NOT OK One-up position get rid of angry		
You are NOT OK with me				

Most humans are born in the position of feeling OK about themselves and OK about others. If things go well they will be able to maintain that position throughout their life. This helps form the basis for a healthy life script. If a person is treated badly or abused, this may result in his or her feeling helpless, powerless, and angry, and he or she may move into a position of believing "I'm OK, You're Not OK."

Such an individual may build a life on this angry position and continually prove to himself or herself that others are not OK.

This position involves a lack of trust in others and makes it difficult for the person to form and maintain intimate friendships or relationships.

I am OK with me

If a person is not well cared for and receives script messages that decrease his or her sense of self-esteem, that person might move into the position of feeling like he or she is not OK while others are OK. This position also leaves the person with difficulty feeling good about himself or herself both in the work arena and in forming trusting and lasting relationships. When things really go wrong during childhood, a person might end up in the existential position of "I'm Not OK, You're Not OK." This is the life position of despair. The person in this position has great difficulty seeing the good in anyone and has trouble having any hope for the future.





However, even people in this position can change. They can grow to understand the life experiences that led them to have this view and can learn ways to change those early decisions that support these negatives beliefs. Since we are almost all born in the position of "I'm OK, You're OK," we can get back to that belief even if our life experiences have led us to feel differently. It is worth searching to understand how you have been influenced by the events in your own life so that you can come back to a place of knowing that both you and other people are OK.

Examples for the impact of life positions

If people act primarily from the child ego state, they probably often feel attacked from conversational partner. They tend to interpret an evil intent in the purpose of the opponent's conversation. The cause is often based in the self-belief "I AM NOT OK". Even positive statements will be interpreted in the mentioned sense. That happens because of the intrinsic tendency, that every statement must be conceived in the sense of the I AM NOT OK life philosophy. The consequence is a loss of ability to establish real life references.

Last mentioned consequence is similar for persons who act from the complementary life position of critical parent ego state. They tend to communicate only from the position YOU ARE NOT OK. With the attitude of critical reviewing actions and behaviours of the opponent they are trying to override their own "I AM NOT OK" position. It also boils down to a loss of ability to establish real life references.

Behavioural characteristics of the ego states

In the following examples, you will get a picture about several behavioural items of the ego states. Therefor we will refer the functional characteristics A to get in contact and B to fortify oneself to situational settings

- 1. Response to others
- 2. Dealing with others
- 3. Dealing with oneself

CRITICAL PARENT	Get in contact	Fortifying through	
Response to others	Draw boundaries Saying "no"	Derogatory attitude towards others Valorising oneself	
Dealing with others	Provoking appearance Absolute representing his/her purposes	Prohibitive Morally Missionary Smart aleck	
Dealing with oneself	Self-discipline Balanced Self-criticism	Compulsive Rigid Hiding the light under a bushel	

NURTURING PARENT	Get in contact	Fortifying through	
Response to others	Compassionate	Relenting	





	Sympathetic	Merciful	
		Overwhelming	
		Possessive	
Dealing with others	Offering help and protection	Possessive and overarching	
Dealing with annuals	Self-esteem also under ad-	Self-sustaining	
Dealing with oneself	verse circumstances	Self-cheating	

ADULT Get in contact		Fortifying through	
Response to others	Negotiate	Rationalise	
Dealing with others	Make him/herself understood	Talking in monologue	
Donling with angest	Make decisions without dis-	thinking	
Dealing with oneself	tress		

ADAPTED, REBELLIOUS CHILD	Get in contact	Fortifying through
	Polite	Saying "yes"
Response to others	Reluctant	stubborn
	Willing to compromise	
		Grumbling
	Asking for help Querying	Passive
Dealing with others		Shy
		Reservedly
		Merciless
	Tolerance of frustration	Helpless
Dealing with oneself	Persistent	Feels guilty
	Stubbornly	Find no quietness

FREE / NATURAL CHILD	Get in contact	Fortifying through	
	Free	Ignoring others	
Response to others	Open	Reckless	
	Honest	Egocentric	
		Disturbing	
Dealing with others	Appear with passion and love	Reclusively	
		Be off one's head	
Dealing with angealf	Sparkling ideas	Self-neglecting	
Dealing with oneself	Being free		

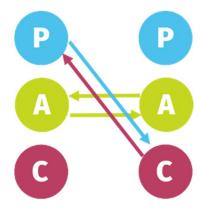
Another version to be clear at this point is comparing of characteristics, which might be shown by a person in a particular ego state in the following table:

Clues from	Critical Parent	Nurturing Parent	Adult	Free Child	Adapted Child
Words	Should, must, don't, good, bad	Don't worry, let me help you, there	How, when, where, I un- derstand	I wish, wow, love hate	Please, sorry, I can't, try
Tones	Harsh, abrupt, authoritarian	Soothing, consoling, loving	Calm, clear, even	Joyful, noisy, energetic	complaining, surely, mono- tone



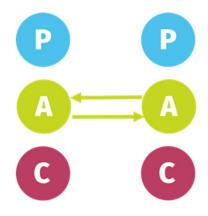
Gestures	Finger point-	Pat on arm,	Level eye con-	Exaggerated	Head tilted to
/manner-	ing, arms	nodding en-	tact, absence	movements,	one side, fidget-
isms	crossed	couragingly	of fidgeting	uninhibited	ing, slouching
Facial ex-	Rolling eyes,	Smiling,	Open,	Bright-eyes,	Pouting, down-
pressions	furrowed	proud eyes	thoughtful	smiling freely	cast, not en-
	brow, scowling				gaged

Straight / complementary transactions



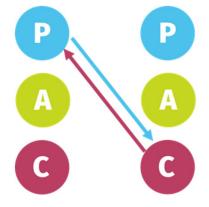
Another important transactional analysis concept is that of transactions. Transactions are about how people interact with each other, specifically, which ego state in person A is talking to which ego state in person B. You may have noticed that sometimes communication continues in a straightforward, easy way that seems to go smoothly. However, at other times, things seem to get all jumbled up, confusing, unclear, and unsatisfying. An understanding of transactions can help you keep your communication with others as clear as you would like it to be.

We can name a transaction as parallel or straight if in our example two persons from the adult ego state talking to each other. Also, straight and complementary is a transaction if a person with adult ego state talks to a person in the child ego state, like in this example of a child, talking to a parent.



A: "What's the time?

B: "A quarter past eleven."



B: "It is too hard for me, I Can't do this."

A: "Never mind, I will do it for you."

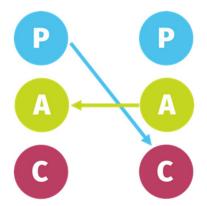




Crossed transactions

The case when people communicate with crossed transactions causes a communication breakdown. Crossed transactions occur when an unexpected response is made to a message that a person sends out. They hold the potential for conflicts.

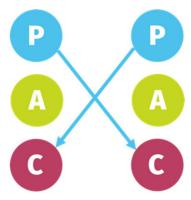
In our first example, the respondent comes from a Critical Parent ego state to cross the transaction, and this communication breaks down.



B: "What is the time?"

A: "What...haven't you learnt to read the time?"

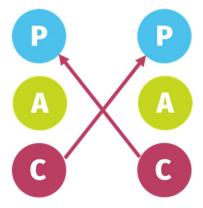
In the second example, the respondent comes from a Parent ego state instead of child, thereby crossing the transaction.



A: "I want you to report immediately right after you placed an order!"

B: "And I want you to pay my salary punctually!"

In the 3rd example, the respondent also comes from child ego state as the sender and not from Nurturing parent ego state as expected.



A: "I feel very sick!"

B: "And me even more!!!"

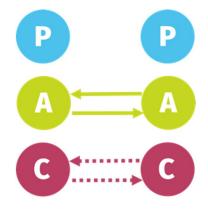
When a transaction is crossed, a break in the communication results and one or both individuals will need to shift ego-states for communication to be re-established.





Ulterior transactions

Ulterior transactions are complex. They involve more than two ego states, and a disguised message is sent. The behavioural outcome of an ulterior transaction is determined at the psychological and not the social level.



★ Overt message

A: "Can I show you the barn?
B: "Oh yes, I am interested in architecture."

★ Covert message

A: "how about a roll in the hay?
B: "Let's go now!"

In the example, the sender obviously asks from adult ego state and the respondent answers complementary while the proper meaning of the transaction takes place between the child ego states.

When we learn to recognize and differentiate between straight, crossed and ulterior transactions, we increase our ability to communicate clearly with others. Conversations made up of straight transactions are more emotionally satisfying and productive than conversations that have frequent crossed transactions. Becoming an expert at recognizing ego states and straight, crossed and ulterior transactions takes time. In the beginning, you will need to pay close attention to what is going on both inside yourself and with others. With practice, identifying various ego states and different kinds of transactions becomes second nature.

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additional resources

Carol Solomon, Transactional Analysis Theory: The Basics, Vol. 33, January 2003 http://www.uktransactionalanalysis.co.uk/

ASSESSMENTS

To start the coaching together with the client it is necessary to collect most relevant skills and competencies of the client. That will help the coach to reach the bottom of the client's problem and stimulate his/her self-exploration. In this context, we only will describe some major items that also will be differentiated. We can't suggest taking a





psychometric assessment because of the different test bases in EU countries. It is comprehensible if we want to get valid results the test must be scientifically aligned on a national reference group.

Big Five Personality Traits

A coach would like to reveal aspects of an individual's character or psychological makeup. According to the five-factor model of personality a coach can ask with a particular assessment the following aspects:

OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE: (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious). Openness reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and a preference for novelty and variety a person has. It is also described as the extent to which a person is imaginative or independent and depicts a personal preference for a variety of activities over a strict routine. High openness can be perceived as unpredictability or lack of focus. Moreover, individuals with high openness are said to pursue self-actualization specifically by seeking out intense, euphoric experiences. Conversely, those with low openness seek to gain fulfilment through perseverance, and are characterized as pragmatic and data-driven—sometimes even perceived to be dogmatic and closed-minded. Some disagreement remains about how to interpret and contextualize the openness factor.

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS: (efficient/organized vs. easy-going/careless). A tendency to be organized and dependable, show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement, and prefer planned rather than spontaneous behaviour. High conscientiousness is often perceived as stubbornness and obsession. Low conscientiousness is associated with flexibility and spontaneity, but can also appear as sloppiness and lack of reliability.

EXTRAVERSION: (outgoing/energetic vs. solitary/reserved). Energy, positive emotions, urgency, assertiveness, sociability and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others, and talkativeness. High extraversion is often perceived as attention-seeking, and domineering. Low extraversion causes a reserved, reflective personality, which can be perceived as aloof or self-absorbed.

AGREEABLENESS: (friendly/compassionate vs. challenging/detached). A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. It is also a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature, and whether a person is generally well-tempered or not. High agreeableness is often seen as naive or submissive. Low agreeableness personalities are often competitive or challenging people, which is argumentativeness or untrustworthiness.

NEUROTICISM: (sensitive/nervous vs. secure/confident). The tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, and vulnerability. Neuroticism also refers to the degree of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to by its low pole, "emotional stability". A high need for stability manifests itself as a stable and calm personality but can be seen as uninspiring and unconcerned. A low need for stability causes a reactive and excitable personality, often very dynamic individuals, but they can be perceived as unstable or insecure.





Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_Five_personality_traits

Interpersonal circumplex (ICP) or Leary Circumplex

The interpersonal circle or interpersonal circumplex is a model for conceptualizing, organizing, and assessing interpersonal behaviour, traits, and motives (Wiggins, 2003). The interpersonal circumplex is defined by two orthogonal axes: a vertical axis (of status, dominance, power, or control) and a horizontal axis (of solidarity, friendliness, warmth, or love). It refers to the work of Timothy Leary and is well known in the Netherlands as "Roos van Leary". By using this model, a coach can connect the Big Five Personal Traits with the 2-dimensional diagram. The IPC is one of the most researched model to survey one's personality.

Source: http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Interpersonal_circumplex

As we talk about a client-centred approach in INTENSE we should think about knowledge & skills with which the client can realize the objectives according to the indicators of employability.

What do we expect of the client in our transition concept?

- ✓ RECOGNITION: Acknowledgement by the client of the existence, validity of a problem.
- ✓ INITIATIVE: The client must be able to use the support on his/her own initiative.
- ✓ OBJECTIVES: The client must be able to develop his/her own objective/goals.
- ✓ PURSUIT: The client must learn how to pursue his/her own objectives.
- ✓ **DEVELOPMENT**: The client will develop his own competences.

These aspects briefly illustrate which items are relevant in case we can speak about the client pursues his/her transition process on his/her own responsibility.

During the coaching process, the transition coach must ensure that the client will develop his / her skills that are identified as 5 indicators of employability:

- ✓ Social skills
- ✓ Personal skills
- ✓ Methodological skills
- ✓ Social stability
- ✓ qualification

If we look at the target group with their needs, it seems clear that social, personal, methodical skills and social stability need to be developed before a client is able to extend his/her school and vocational competences. This consideration only becomes integral as the Transition Coach uses the context of the "extension of school and vocational competences" to support the client's development in the mentioned soft skills.

How can the Transition Coach enable and support this development? The self-exploration scale provides the transition coach has a tool to reflect what has just happened to





the client, how the methods have supported the development of the client and which impact has the coach-client relationship in this context.

Considering the aspect of setting partial goals in the abovementioned areas of competence and reflecting on their degree of achievement, the Transition Coach faces the challenge of identifying exact differentiations and developing them in a targeted manner with the client. To make differentiations and the stage of development visible, we have a collection of psychometric test procedures as well as standardised survey methods. At this point we would like to enlarge 4 factors, which are particularly appropriate to reflect and assess client's development according to the 5 indicators of employability.

Alertness / concentration

If we rate client's alertness either with psychometric instruments or standardized surveillance sheets the coach can make a connection to methodical skills, such like acquisition of knowledge. Furthermore, there is also a connection visible to personal skills like stamina and social skills like active listening. It can be understood as an item that influences cross-sectional client's development in all indicator areas.

Motivation / Need for achievement

While thinking of an assessment to rate client's need for achievement the Transition Coach can make a considerable connection to the indicator social stability with its differentiations acceptance and taking the responsibility for his/her own future. In addition, a gained need for achievement effects social skills, like self-efficacy, self-confidence and general motivation.

Communication capabilities

Communication is – more than any other skill area – cross-sectional. Communication skills are the foundation for all areas of competence. A Transition Coach can assess communication capabilities with test procedures or in standardized survey methods as well as in teamwork contexts. Gained communication skills will strengthen personal items, like self-awareness, motivation, openness, acceptance as well as methodical skills, like structured acquisition of knowledge to develop qualification level.

Another important connection can be seen in relation to the development of social stability. Increased communicative abilities can also found the ability to pursue own plans, to reflect the progress and to qualify the results.

Resilience and Coping ability

An assessment that rates client's resilience can deliver important aspects that the Transition Coach to make connections personal, social and methodical skills but also to social stability. The Transition Coach can evaluate client's ability to self-regulate, if he/she is able to deal with unpleasant feelings and if he/she already developed the capability to qualify his/her own behaviour that follows these feelings. And in the end the Transition Coach can see if the client is able to question this process and develop an individual coping strategy.





Thus, it is helpful for the transition coach to use tools that measure these factors, allow an assessment, and point out criteria to be considered to take the next steps in the transition process with the client.

In the holistic and integral consideration of client's development variations of this procedure are often necessary. The variation ultimately reflects the individuality of the client.

This section is intended to put the Transition Coaches in the position to look from another point of view on the creation of an individual support plan as well as continuing the coaching process. Considering the integral and holistic statement of INTENSE there is only one central aspect to be internalized – with the client instead of for the client.

TRAIN THE TRAINER

What Is the Train the Trainer Model?

The Train the Trainer model is a training strategy widely used in the workplace. The trainer, a subject-matter expert, trains other employees – in the use of a new sales program, for example – and simultaneously teaches them how to train others in the use of the program. The method offers distinct advantages over other training models because trainees typically learn faster and retain the information better than in other teaching models.

Advantages of the Model

It turns out that the Train the Trainer model, where participants learn a subject and simultaneously learn how to teach others provides feelings of satisfaction and fulfilment better than other teaching models.

In the corporate environment especially, this model provides distinct advantages over other training methods and has been widely adopted by prominent corporate training companies, such as Langevin Learning Services, The Ken Blanchard Companies and The Training Clinic.

Corporate programs using the model are typically concise, lasting from a day or two to one or two weeks. From a corporate viewpoint, this has the added advantage of minimizing the time managers and others entering these programs spend away from the workplace.

The model is well-suited for disseminating specific information quickly. One Train the Trainer program cited in a Forbes article is a one-day course that teaches individuals with no previous military background how to understand and speak the language of the military when selling to Department of Defence customers. Other Train the Trainer models teach leadership skills to employees preparing to enter management.





Background

In the 1970s, educational institutions were influenced by noted psychologist Abraham Maslow's analysis of the learning process. Maslow determined that how well students learned depended on the degree of satisfaction both teachers and students took in the learning process. When students and teachers enjoyed the process, and felt fulfilled by it, students learned faster and retained the information better. The Train the Trainer model reflects this finding.

Limitations of the Model

One analysis of the Train the Trainer model conducted by The California Endowment, where the model was used to teach organizing and other skills to community activists, shows that although all the participants' levels of satisfaction were generally high – confirming Maslow's theory – they were higher for trainer respondents than for those taking the courses.

One criticism of the model is that it can be a top-down teaching method. The complexity of both teaching a subject and simultaneously teaching others to teach the same subject leaves a limited amount of classroom time for participant self-expression or for trainees to gather and organize the subject material themselves. Many courses using the model include interactive activities, but they are essentially organized as lectures.

source: Patrick Gleeson, Ph. D., Registered Investment Adv; Updated August 28, 2017 via www.chron.com in acceptance of the terms of use this content is only for non-commercial use.

Essential Elements of a Train the Trainer Process

While we are thinking to implement the train the trainer approach we must consider the following:

★ Principles of (adult) learning

Teaching and training is only effective if it promotes learning.

As instructors we are expected to be not only highly competent in our subject areas but also have sound knowledge concerning how student s learn. This reflects a shift away from the traditional role of the teacher as primarily a provider of subject knowledge to a facilitator of learning – whereby we manage student learning, using a variety of instructional methods, information sources and media.

We now have a solid body of knowledge concerning how we learn, the different processes involved and significant factors that affect learning. This knowledge can increasingly contribute to all aspects of teaching and course planning.

TASKS

- ✓ identify the key components of effective learning
- ✓ analyse factors that promote and inhibit effective learning
- ✓ evaluate the impact of principles of learning for practical teaching.





★ Lesson Planning and Preparation

Planning and preparation are a crucial part of effective teaching, especially for those new to the profession. If you have planned your lessons effectively, you are less likely to experience difficulties and will feel more confident in the teaching situation.

TASKS

- ✓ produce a structured lesson plan for a range of lessons you teach
 - learning objectives
 - lesson content
 - o instructional methods
 - o teaching and learning resources
 - assessment of learning
- ✓ prepare classroom arrangements and teaching facilities.

★ Instructional Methods

It is the teaching methods and communication skills of the instructor that translate the plan into an effective learning experience for the trainees. The instructor can make the subject interesting and alive for the learner. In this module we will outline the range of instructional methods that can be employed under the "umbrella" term of teaching.

TASKS

- ✓ compare and contrast a range of instructional methods
- ✓ select appropriate instructional methods for the specific content you teach
- ✓ use a range of instructional methods in your teaching role.

What do we mean by an instructional method?

An instructional method, in the broadest sense, refers to any planned activity on the part of the teacher that seeks to promote identified learning.

★ Teaching and Learning Resources

In the broadest sense, teaching and learning resources refer to any stimulus material that the teacher uses in order to promote effective learning. This includes everything from a website, blog or the learning management system. However, in this section of the course material, the focus will be on the use of five types of resources frequently adopted by teachers:

- √ black/whiteboards/flipcharts
- ✓ projectors / presentations
- √ supporting notes 'handouts'
- √ videos
- ✓ interactive learning resources

TASKS





- ✓ compare the range of teaching and learning resources
- ✓ select the appropriate learning resources specific to the content and venue of your training
- ✓ use a range of learning resources to enhance your training and to facilitate your trainees' understanding.

★ Assessing Learner Performance

The assessment of learner performance is perhaps the most important part of the training process. In assessing the performance of your trainees, you are making a judgement about whether or not they have met the objectives of the module, i.e. their level of competence. The assessment process, therefore, must be conducted as systematically and objectively as possible.

TASKS

- ✓ identify the criteria for good assessment
- ✓ plan a scheme of assessment
- √ identify appropriate assessment methods for specific learning outcomes
- √ design a range of assessment items
- ✓ produce a marking scheme for open-response items
- √ identify common pitfalls in conducting assessment.

★ Evaluating Teaching and Learning

Evaluation is essentially concerned with judging the worth or value of an activity or event. This is usually with a view to identifying ways in which such activities or events can be improved in future. However, evaluations can equally lead to decisions to terminate existing activities. An evaluation should seek to:

- ✓ identify and illuminate what is occurring in the area or activity that is the subject
 of evaluation, and
- ✓ produce sufficient information to enable the evaluator, using agreed criteria, to make valid and useful judgements about what is being evaluated.

TASKS

- ✓ identify different types of evaluation and evaluation data
- ✓ conduct an evaluation of a module
- ✓ prepare an end of course report
- ✓ identify and plan self-development needs as an instructor.

Source: Train the Trainer – Training Fundamentals – Instructor's Reference Manual, ST/ESCAP/2158, United Nations





CHAPTER 2

ATTENTIVE / ACTIVE LISTENING

The deceptively simple concept called Active Listening is one important method of improving interpersonal communication. The clinical psychologist and psychotherapist Carl Rogers brought the term to prominence. Rogers described two essential elements of Active Listening, which he called listener orientation and reflective technique. The idea of listening for meaning (specifically, the meaning perceived by the client) is a recurring theme throughout the process.

Listener Orientation

Rogers described the "listener orientation" as including the whole of the listener's personality, together with the listener's attitude to the other person and to the encounter itself. He felt that, for best results, the listener orientation should be characterised by empathy, respect, acceptance, congruence, concreteness and undivided attention.

Let us look briefly at each of the qualities suggested by Rogers:

* Empathy

Empathy is generally defined in terms of an understanding of, and entering into, another person's feelings, with an underlying inclination to help. In other words, it is not enough just to understand how the other person feels. Empathy also includes a sense of joining them, walking with them in their sorrow, wishing them well and usually also being willing to offer help where possible.

★ Respect

Respect, which usually means an earned esteem or admiration, or sometimes acceptance, deference or even fear, was given a different meaning by Rogers. He saw it as a positive regard which does not have to be earned, but is given unconditionally to each client, simply because the client is a human being.

The concept of respect involves thinking well of every person, rather than judging each individual according to a preconceived standard of personal worth

Importantly, this concept of respect does not mean agreeing with, or encouraging, a client's ideas or behaviour. Indeed, some of those things may be causing the client's problems, in which case, one of the aims of therapy would be to change them. It is "the person within the problem" who is respected unconditionally – not the problem itself, or its causes.

An absolute prerequisite for this type of respect is the non-judgmental attitude paired with a routine practice of non-judgmental self-awareness.





* Acceptance

Acceptance means that no value judgements are made. This makes it very close to Rogers' concept of respect, and again requires an entirely non-judgmental approach. Clients are accepted as they are, and what they say is accepted as it is. That does not mean that anything is agreed with. Rather, it is accepted as the current state of play. This acceptance is the starting point for any progress that may be made. In other words, it is where you and the client currently are. Where you are is, after all, the only place you can start from – wherever you want to go.

★ Congruence

Congruence means that all the messages received by the client at a given time are compatible with each other. They need not be identical, but if they are contradictory they are sure to wreak havoc in various ways.

For example, a counsellor who smiles reassuringly at a client, lays rough fingernails on her arm, and barks "I will always be here for you" – meanwhile perching on the edge of the seat, turning away and staring at the door – sends quite a number of messages. If they are all received, they will not fit together at all well!

If incongruent messages are received clearly, there are only two possibilities. Either the sender is lying, or the sender does not know his or her own mind. More often, though, some or all of the conflicting meanings are only vaguely understood, which can leave the recipient confused, frightened, irritable, suspicious and/or hostile, without quite knowing why.

Because of the many adverse consequences of incongruent communication, Rogers felt that verbal acknowledgement of any negative feelings such as anger or disgust was necessary, as the negative feelings would inevitably be evident to some extent in the listener's non-verbal output. That being the case, failure to deliver the same message verbally would result in incongruent communication.

* Concreteness

In relation to communication, concreteness usually just means not being abstract. However, Rogers also included the idea of specificity, meaning not being content with generalisations. For example, a client might say "parental behaviour has a lot to answer for". This may be a perfectly reasonable generalisation, but it does not contribute much of significance for this particular client at this particular time.

A little gentle cross-examination might ultimately lead to the concrete statement "From when I was seven until when I was twelve, my father used to beat me with a tennis racket if I didn't get an A or a B for my homework. Then he had a stroke, and after that he wasn't strong enough to beat me anymore". This statement, which is neither abstract nor non-specific, would have far more potential relevance in a counselling situation than the original generalisation.





★ Undivided Attention

Undivided attention may be pretty well self-explanatory, but that certainly does not make it inevitable. In fact, even to make it possible requires a certain amount of organisation and preparation. First of all, a suitable place for the interview needs to be arranged. If, for example, there are unwanted spectators or interruptions, any interview will be a shamble.

However, the most important preparation needed to make undivided attention possible is the preparation of the listener. Communication skills are the most obvious aspect of this, but reducing the listener's burden of unresolved emotions is even more important.

Reflective Technique

The reflection back to the client of what has been received by the listener is of utmost importance. However, it also has a second major element, which is the clarification of the meaning of what has been heard.

When the reflective technique is used in its original (therapeutic) context, it is primarily applied to the personal and emotional content of the narrative. However, the same technique can be used to improve the accuracy of retrieval of any sort of information about any subject matter.

In practice, reflection and clarification are considerably interlaced, in that reflection often leads to some degree of clarification, and attempts at clarification often require some degree of reflection.

Reflection

This term suggests returning verbal messages in the listener's own words, which is one important part of reflection. However, restatement would not include the (very significant) non-verbal parts of the narrative, and these must not be neglected.

Non-verbal content is sometimes best reflected non-verbally, sometimes using the same input/output method that it arrived by. Sometimes, though, a different method might be chosen, especially if the narrator has poor facility with the input/output method originally (and perhaps unconsciously) used. Alternatively, or additionally, a verbal interpretation of the non-verbal message might usefully be made in some cases.

When employing verbal reflection, shorter interjections have the advantage that they interrupt the flow of the narrative less. Keeping your output brief also forces you to stick to the main points. However, this ideal quite often conflicts with the ideal of concreteness, because more words may be needed in order to achieve the degree of specificity required for concrete communication.

Four benefits that often occur as a result of reflection are: evidence of the listener's attention, encouragement to continue the narrative, restarting of a completely stalled narrative and reassurance about the listener's acceptance of the content.





★ Evidence of Attention

It requires very little in the way of verbal or non-verbal output to remind a client of your presence and continuing attention. Rather than reflecting any of the client's specific messages, your "mirror" just has to show that the client is present and heard. To demonstrate attention verbally, you might say "Yes", "OK", "Ah" or "Mm" at appropriate times (though the last two are on the borderline between verbal and non-verbal).

Non-verbal messages of attention can be as simple as a very slight change in posture, or any other slight movement. Brief eye contact or a change in facial expression may also be suitable, as long as it is appropriate to the situation. However, some gestures, such as nodding or shaking the head, have different meanings in different cultures, so great care is necessary when the reflection must negotiate a cultural border crossing.

Any of the three main input/output systems may be used for non-verbal reflection. However, visual messages will obviously only succeed if they are seen by the client. Importantly, tactile messages need to be used with great care when a client is expressing emotions, as the temporary reassurance often experienced as a side effect of tactile communication can easily bring the externalisation process to an abrupt halt.

★ Encouragement of the Narrator

Brief messages similar to those that provide evidence of attention can also be used to encourage the speaker to continue the narrative, at any time when it seems to be on the brink of petering out. If non-verbal nudges such as a raised eyebrow, or single words such as "And?" don't work, then repetition of the last handful of words the client said, or a paraphrase of them, is usually effective. An alternative might be a very brief classificatory or interpretive statement.

★ Restarting a Stalled Narrative

If the narrative has completely ground to a halt, the same measures suggested above for encouragement may be sufficient to restart it. If not, then judicious use of silence, an open question, or perhaps some more extensive paraphrasing of the story so far, could be tried. This has the combined effect of demonstrating your attention to what has been said so far, showing how well or badly you have understood it, showing that you also understand that things have ground to a halt, and finally, showing that you are willing to lend a helping hand.

* Reassuring the Client

Demonstrating an understanding of the client's feelings helps to create a stronger connection with the client. Non-judgmental acceptance of the content of the narrative is also very reassuring to the client. Conversely, a judgmental response to the content will usually vaporise any rapport which may previously have developed.

The demonstration of understanding could be made verbally, non-verbally or in both of those ways. Non-verbal reflection of feelings is much more immediate, but is sometimes a bit nonspecific. Some things can be explained better if words are used, but the words





need to be chosen with care, and limited in number. A mixture of verbal and non-verbal reflection is usually best, with the proportions depending on the situation.

Clarification

Clarification of the meaning of a narrative can be achieved by a mixture of reflection and direct questioning. This is useful in a number of ways. The listener may correct errors of comprehension and fill gaps in the narrative, thus gaining a better understanding of the overall situation.

★ Correcting Errors

Reflection of content inevitably provides an opportunity for the client to point out inaccuracies in the listener's understanding of the narrative. However, this opportunity may not always be exploited by the client. Adding "Is that right?" (or a similar verbal or non-verbal query) to the reflection increases the likelihood of feedback – but still cannot guarantee it.

Close observation of the client's non-verbal responses during such attempts at confirmation is usually helpful. If the client looks dubious, it may be best to ask more specific questions about the meaning of the narrative. In most cases, confirmation or clarification of the meaning is achieved without too much difficulty. Nevertheless, one's understanding of a client's meaning should always be considered as a work in progress.

★ Filling Gaps

Confirmation, or the clarification which is sought when contradiction occurs instead of confirmation, can only be applied to content which exists. If, on the other hand, you suspect that information of potential significance is missing, you cannot reflect it in the usual way – because you don't know what it is. Instead, you have to somehow reflect its absence.

Perhaps the easiest way to conceptualise this is to think of the information already received as a virtual structure – with holes in it. Then you can, in effect, reflect the holes – and ask for them to be filled in. This step is usually included as part of the reflective technique – as it was by Rogers – and it can result in very significant clarification of the narrative. Leading questions should be avoided, as it is the narrator's task to fill the gaps.

Results (Listener)

The end result of clarification, from the listener's perspective, is a fuller and more accurate understanding of the narrative. Ideally, this should include both a broad understanding of the overall context and a detailed understanding of specific issues. In most cases, this degree of understanding would unfold progressively over a number of interviews and continue to increase with further interviews.





Results (Client)

The result of clarification, from the narrator's perspective, can be a fuller and more accurate understanding of the dynamic interactions between personal feelings, choices and actions, on the one hand; and the overall story, on the other hand. In other words, the "simple" process of telling a story, while the listener employs the reflective technique, can result in improved insight on the part of the teller of the story.

In the case of an interview, where the emphasis is chiefly on the personal and emotional aspects of the matters under consideration, this improvement in insight might lead directly to significant emotional healing. Alternatively, it might open the way for acceptance of interventions which were previously declined. In the latter case, the benefit to the client would be indirect, but it would be no less real.

Summary of Benefits of Active Listening

Various examples of the value of Active Listening have been referred to under the headings above. In general terms, the reflective technique, which is one of its two major elements, provides a showcase for the "listener orientation", which is its other major element.

All of the personal qualities at the disposal of the listener can be brought to bear more effectively by employing the technique of Active Listening. It is a formidable method of simultaneously communicating and helping, and a far more powerful tool than its simple name suggests. When it is used skilfully, Active Listening can:

- ✓ Demonstrate the listener's undivided attention
- ✓ Encourage the client to continue speaking
- ✓ Restart a completely stalled narrative
- ✓ Reassure the client regarding self-disclosure
- ✓ Confirm the listener's understanding or...
- ✓ Correct errors in the listener's understanding
- ✓ Fill any gaps in the content of the narrative
- ✓ Improve the listener's overall understanding
- ✓ Improve the client's insight into the issues
- ✓ Demonstrate the listener orientation to the client
- ✓ Progressively build rapport between listener and client

Source: www.wanterfall.com



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MOTIVATIONAL INTERVIEWING

MI is a client-centred counselling style to enhance personal motivation for behaviour change by exploring and overcome ambivalence (Miller, 2004). It was originally designed as a prelude to integrate with other clinical methods to assist clients through motiva-





tional obstacles to change (Miller, 2004). It can also be given as a brief stand-alone intervention usually in one or two sessions (Hettema et al., 2005). Based on the transtheoretical model of change, it is to prepare clients to shift from the precontemplation and contemplation to the real stage for change (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). Clients who are ready for change are unlikely to benefit from MI. Clients who appear to be angry, resistant and less ready for change seem to benefit most from MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). The beauty of MI is to selectively reinforce clients' own reason for change, almost like clients talk themselves into change (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). A skilful therapist walks with the client along a road from initially ambivalence to motivational readiness, an achievable plan for change, and commitment to the change (Miller & Moyers, 2006). Therefore, MI encompasses two phases: stimulating motivation for change and reinforcing commitment for change (Miller & Rollnick, 2009).

Central Aspects and background

MI owes great debt to Carl Rogers' client-centred psychotherapy which emphasises the positive human potential (Miller, 2004). Given the appropriate empathic understanding, positive regard, and radical acceptance, people will naturally move towards a healthy, self-fulfilling state (Hettema et al., 2005). Clearly the insights and methods of Carl Rogers are the fundamental practice of MI, but also Miller claims MI is one step more advanced as it is counselling oriented toward change (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). Typically, in a MI session, the client speaks most of the time as the therapist listens. This asymmetry of communication is especially notable around the client's of motivation for change (Miller & Rollnick, 2009).

Self-perception theory postulates that when people defend an attitude which is not what they originally believe, they tend to act or speak more in favour of this new attitude (Miller, 2004). In other words, the support on their previous beliefs is weakened or even diminished. In relation to MI, when the client speaks of change of their own free will, it results in that person feeling more favourable towards the change and being more able to take steps towards improvement (Miller, 2004).

The **SPIRIT** of the method, however, is more enduring and can be characterized in a few key points:

- ✓ Motivation to change is elicited from the client and is not imposed from outside forces.
- ✓ It is the client's task, not the coach's, to articulate and resolve the client's ambivalence.
- ✓ Direct persuasion is not an effective method for resolving ambivalence.
- ✓ The coaching style is generally quiet and elicits information from the client.
- ✓ The coaching is directive, in that they help the client to examine and resolve ambivalence.
- Readiness to change is not a trait of the client, but a fluctuating result of interpersonal interaction.
- ✓ The therapeutic relationship resembles a partnership or companionship.





There are four overlapping processes that comprise Motivational Interviewing: engaging, focusing, evoking and planning. They are both sequential and recursive, and often depicted in diagrams as stair steps, with engaging at the bottom as the first step.

While evidence-based practice is established as the standard in clinical practice, Miller & Rollnick take one chapter to discuss the spirit of MI.3 This discussion reflects the importance of therapeutic relationship versus overemphasis on techniques. In a book written for health care practitioners, Miller, Rollnick & Butler present MI in a technical process with abundant examples to teach the MI conversation style. The discussion of MI spirit is short and brief in their 2008 book, which looks more like guidelines than essential elements. Miller and Rollnick provide a well- developed version of the MI spirit with detailed explanations of its four elements:

- ✓ Partnership
- ✓ Acceptance
- ✓ Compassion
- ✓ Evocation

A clinician practicing MI must realize that MI is not a word game in which the therapeutic effectiveness relies on insertion and imposition of the clinician's choices through skillful manipulation. Miller and Rollnick portray MI spirit in a humanistic and supportive manner, which emphasizes the collaboration of the therapeutic process, empathetic understanding and commitment to clients, and the empowering of clients' strengths.

FROM ENGAGING TO PLANNING

Miller & Rollnick plan a four-step process in MI. The four processes begin with engaging, focusing, evoking, and end with planning. From there on, the book is arranged in four major parts. These parts are labelled with the names of the four processes, and each part organizes several chapters to further the discussion of concepts and techniques under each of the four processes. Although these chapters lay a map for technique seekers, there is a clear thread of MI spirit flowing beneath the concepts and practice of MI techniques. It is fair to say that the practice of MI techniques aims to execute the contents sketched in the four elements of MI spirit. The fulfilment of MI spirit leads to the success of MI processes.

★ Step I Engaging

Engaging an individual who is either willing or not willing to receive substance abuse treatment is what clinicians encounter daily in their offices. The engaging process in MI stems from the MI spirit to carefully build a collaborative relationship, which is nurtured by the partnership of the MI spirit. Miller & Rollnick first emphasize the critical role of relationship serving as the foundation of the therapeutic process. Literature cited by Miller & Rollnick provides support for this evidence-based practice when it indicates that quality of relationship, or therapeutic alliance, greatly contributes to the outcomes of therapy. The warning of traps, which hinder relationship building, active listening, and reflection, are given to better prepare clinicians in engaging. A technical acronym,





OARS, is described as the "foundational tools" for establishing therapeutic alliance. OARS stands for: Open questions-Affirming-Reflecting-Summarizing. These technical tools follow the MI spirit in acceptance and compassion, when clinicians are able to affirm clients' worth, and to reflect and summarize contents with understanding and commitment to clients' dilemma.

★ Step II Focusing

Miller & Rollnick describe focusing as a continuous process, which aims to keep the therapeutic process on track. Unlike the non-directive approach proposed by Carl Roger's person-centered therapy, MI pays attention to the direction of therapy. However, Miller and Rollnick do not suggest taking a directive charge to the therapeutic goals. Instead, focusing takes a collaborative process where clinicians and clients share the control and the clients' autonomy is respected and supported. Focusing is a process to help clinicians avoid the ineffective processes and traps that may not contribute to clients' change. With the focusing process starting early in the engaging process, it assists clinicians in maintaining a clear vision of the therapeutic process and guides clients to explore the direction towards their desired changes.

★ Step III Evoking

Evoking is recognized by Miller & Rollnick as a unique process endorsed by MI. While engaging and focusing would be conceptualized in different ways and used in other forms of therapeutic approaches, evoking adds a new aspect and separates MI from other therapeutic approaches. Building upon the foundation of the relationship established through engaging and focusing, evoking starts a process to move clients toward changing current behaviours. The conversation is heard with ears tuned into clients' ambivalence towards change and the potential towards change in change talk. Clinicians work with change talk to elicit motivation to change and avoid sustain talk, which stops clients from making changes. They also utilize the OARS to engage change talk and enhance the direction towards change. Even though in a process to push towards change, evoking does respect clients' autonomy and their choices without blaming or shaming them for failure. This is also a process to provide confidence and hope to those who are clear about their direction, but lack trust in their own ability to succeed. However, according to the MI spirit, Miller & Rollnick clearly depict the evoking process as a collaborative and supportive process. Evoking is not a one-way insertion of clinicians' intended goals into clients' action plans. It is rather a process where clinicians use the MI techniques to promote changes within clients and help them clear the roadblocks such as ambivalence, sustain talk, and lack of confidence.

★ Step IV Planning

The last MI process is planning, which involves composing a strategic plan on how to achieve desired change. Miller & Rollnick indicate planning is a necessary process to prevent relapse and loss of motivation after clients go through engaging, focusing, and evoking. Clinicians assess clients' readiness for planning when observing increased change talk and reduced sustain talk. In the planning process, it calls for developing





specific steps in the plan and dealing with uncertainty and reluctance with strengthened commitment. Clinicians facilitate the planning process and encourage clients to commit to execution of the plan, while they continue to provide clients support and guidance when challenges emerge during the execution of the plan. The therapeutic process continues even when clinicians have to re-visit the beginning of the four processes. There will be time when clinicians should help clients in re-engaging and re-focusing steps to align them on the track towards change.

Source: ©2017 Guo et al on http://medcraveonline.com/MOJAMT/MOJAMT-03-00062.php



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Check also the web resources:

https://www.therapistaid.com/therapy-guide/motivational-interviewing/motivational-interviewing/none https://en.wikiversity.org/wiki/Motivation_and_emotion/Book/2016/Motivational_interviewing https://ijbnpa.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1479-5868-9-19

GORDON METHOD

Thomas Gordon (March 11, 1918 – August 26, 2002) was an American clinical psychologist and colleague of Carl Rogers. He is widely recognized as a pioneer in teaching communication skills and conflict resolution methods to parents, teachers, leaders, women, youth and salespeople. The model he developed came to known as the Gordon Model or the Gordon Method, a complete and integrated system for building and maintaining effective relationships.

Thomas Gordon advocated a no-lose method, a method of resolving conflicts in which both the parent, coach or teacher and the child get their needs met.

Gordon's Model is based, is a set of concepts and skills for more collaborative relationships. Core skills are Active Listening, I-Messages, Shifting Gears and No-Lose Conflict Resolution. Knowing which skill to use when is facilitated by the Behaviour Window, inviting clarity on "whose problem is this?" Identifying "who owns the problem" is promoted as a big first step in resolving interpersonal conflict successfully.

Active Listening

Active listening is a special way of reflecting back what the other person has said, to let them know that you're listening and to check your understanding of what he means. It is a restatement of the other person's total communication: the words of the message plus the accompanying feelings.

I-Messages

There are several types of I messages, all of which communicate information about the self. When dealing with a problem in which the parent owns the problem, use of confrontive I messages is encouraged. These messages should include the behaviour that is causing a problem, the effect on the parent, and how the parent feels about the situation. It should also include as little judgement as possible. For instance, instead of





saying "you are being rude and inconsiderate" the parent would say something like "I don't like it when you talk this loud during the news because I can't hear it."

No-Lose-Conflict-Resolution

No-Lose Conflict Resolution is based on John Dewey's six steps to creative solutions for conflicts. The goal is to find a solution that is acceptable to both people involved in the conflict. No one loses, both win.

Behaviour Window

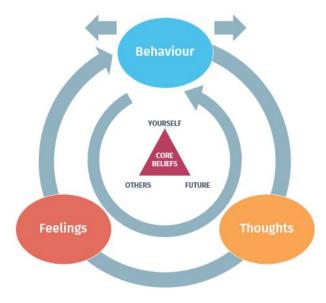
The Behaviour Window is a visual diagram used to determine who owns the problem when one occurs in a relationship. The window is divided into four parts: Child Owns the Problem, No Problem Area, Parent Owns the Problem, Both Own the Problem. Depending on who has the problem, the Gordon Model offers specific communication and conflict resolution skills for resolving it successfully.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parent_Effectiveness_Training Check also the web resources:

http://www.gordontraining.com/free-parenting-articles/get-what-you-need-every-time-method-iii/http://www.gordontraining.com/parenting/mean-problem-ownership-p-e-t/

COGNITIVE RESTRUCTURING

Cognitive restructuring has its base in cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT) and it is a psychosocial intervention that is used as an evidence-based practice for improving mental health. CBT focuses on the development of personal coping strategies that target solving current problems and changing unhelpful patterns in cognitions (e.g. thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes), behaviours, and emotional regulation.



The diagram depicts how emotions, thoughts, and behaviours all influence each other. The triangle in the middle represents CBT's tenet that all humans' core beliefs can be summed up in three categories: self, others, future.

The basic assumptions and the idea of man of CBT are, that human beings

- ✓ actively process environmental stimuli against the background of previous learning experiences
- ✓ form expectations about situations, actions and consequences
- ✓ have a controlling and planning "I"
- ✓ are capable of self-regulation and self-reflection

Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) is a goal-oriented form of therapy that focuses on the interrelationships between thoughts, feelings, and behaviours: how thoughts and





emotions affect behaviour, and vice versa. Participants in CBT work collaboratively with a therapist to identify unhelpful thoughts and behaviours and to consider how changing the way we think can shift our feelings and behaviours or changing how we behave can shift our feelings and thoughts. "Third wave" CBT also emphasizes mindfulness practices.



Source: cognitive conceptualization diagram Judith Beck 1993

The process of cognitive restructuring may can describe this way:



identifying irrational thoughts / cognitive distortions with 3 steps

- √ Step 1: Psychoeducation
- ✓ Step 2: Increase Awareness of Thoughts
- ✓ Step 3: Thought Records

We would like to focus 3 of a lot of cognitive restructuring techniques

- ✓ Socratic Questioning
- ✓ Decatastrophising
- ✓ Putting Thoughts on Trial

In the end the process will be rounded with a review.

Before we can implement the technique of cognitive restructuring, it's important for clients to understand what cognitive distortions are, and how powerful they are in influencing one's mood.





Cognitive Distortions are exaggerated or irrational thought patterns that are believed to perpetuate the effects of psychopathological states, especially depression and anxiety

The coach can guide patients to assess their automatic thoughts, especially when there is a perceived emotional arousal during the session, by simply asking: "What is going through your mind?", or any variation of this question. Cognitive distortions may be unveiled by asking, for example, "What are the evidences for your conclusion?", "Are you omitting contradictory evidence?", "Does your conclusion follow logically from the observations you have made?", "Are there alternative explanations that may be more accurate in explaining this particular episode?". When asked to reflect on alternative explanations, patients may realize that their initial explanations evolved through invalid inferences, which leads them to think of different interpretations of events, thus attaching new attributions and meanings to them.

* Thoughts

Thoughts are an energetic substance that influence the perceptions we have about beliefs and identity, so that every behaviour we have and action we take starts with a thought. The subconscious level of our mental body has more control over our thoughts, impulses and brain activity than at the conscious mind level. This is especially true if we are totally unaware of how our mind works, as the subconscious takes over and we remain unaware of the thoughts and inner dialogue we have with ourselves and others. On the path of becoming conscious and awake, observing how our mind works and registering what our heart feels while being present to what our body experiences, are critical skills in personal and spiritual development.

* Emotions

Emotions are complex psychophysical processes that evoke positive or negative psychological responses (or both) and physical expressions, often involuntary. Emotions are often related to feelings, perceptions or beliefs about elements, objects or relations between them, in reality or in the imagination. They typically arise spontaneously, rather than through conscious effort. An emotion (reaction or state) is often differentiated from a feeling (sensation or impression), although the word feeling can mean emotion in some contexts.

★ Core Beliefs

Core beliefs are those held by persons about themselves and others as absolutely true to the point that they do not question them; to the believer, these global, rigid, and over-generalized cognitions about self are just the way things are. These beliefs typically arise early in development as children organize experiences and interactions with other people and their environment. Although, generally, these core beliefs may be inactive, they can be activated during periods of depression or anxiety. These are beliefs that people have held for much of their lives and that are activated across a wide range of situations, having a profound influence on how people feel, appraise situations, and see themselves and the world.





★ Cognitive Distortions

Cognitive Distortions are exaggerated or irrational thought patterns that are believed to perpetuate the effects of psychopathological states, especially depression and anxiety.

Some Examples are:

MAGNIFICATION AND MINIMIZATION: Giving proportionally greater weight to a perceived failure, weakness or threat, or lesser weight to a perceived success, strength or opportunity, so the weight differs from that assigned to the event or thing by others. This is common enough in the normal population to popularize idioms such as "make a mountain out of a molehill". In depressed clients, often the positive characteristics of other people are exaggerated, and negative characteristics are understated.

CATASTROPHIZING: Giving greater weight to the worst possible outcome, however unlikely, or experiencing a situation as unbearable or impossible when it is just uncomfortable. Example: A teenager is too afraid to start driver's training because he believes he would get himself into an accident.

OVERGENERALIZATION: Making hasty generalizations from insufficient experiences and evidence. Making a very broad conclusion based on a single incident or a single piece of evidence. If something bad happens only once, it is expected to happen over and over again. Example: A person is lonely and often spends most of her time at home. Her friends sometimes ask her to come out for dinner and meet new people. She feels it is useless to try to meet people. No one really could like her

MAGICAL THINKING: The belief that actions will influence unrelated situations. "I am a good person—Bad things shouldn't happen to me."

PERSONALIZATION: Attributing personal responsibility, including the resulting praise or blame, for events over which a person has no control.

Example: A mother whose child is struggling in school blames herself entirely for being a bad mother, because she believes that her deficient parenting is responsible. In fact, the real cause may be something else entirely

JUMPING TO CONCLUSIONS: Reaching preliminary conclusions (usually negative) from little (if any) evidence.

MIND READING: Inferring a person's possible or probable (usually negative) thoughts from their behaviour and nonverbal communication; taking precautions against the worst reasonably suspected case or some other preliminary conclusion, without asking the person.

FORTUNE TELLING: predicting outcomes (usually negative) of events. Example: Being convinced of failure before a test, when the student is in fact prepared





EMOTIONAL REASONING: Presuming that negative feelings expose the true nature of things and experiencing reality as a reflection of emotionally linked thoughts. Thinking something is true, solely based on a feeling.

Example: "I feel (i.e. think that I am) stupid or boring, therefore I must be."[2] Or, feeling that fear of flying in planes means planes are a very dangerous way to travel. Or, concluding that it's hopeless to clean one's house due to being overwhelmed by the prospect of cleaning.

DISQUALIFYING THE POSITIVE: Discounting positive events. Example: Upon receiving a congratulation, a person dismisses it out-of-hand, believing it to be undeserved, and automatically interpreting the compliment (at least inwardly) as an attempt at flattery or perhaps as arising out of naïveté

"SHOULD" STATEMENTS: Doing, or expecting others to do, what they morally should or ought to do irrespective of the particular case the person is faced with. This involves conforming strenuously to ethical categorical imperatives which, by definition, "always apply", or to hypothetical imperatives which apply in that general type of case. Albert Ellis termed this "musturbation". Psychotherapist Michael C. Graham describes this as "expecting the world to be different than it is".

Example: After a performance, a concert pianist believes he or she should not have made so many mistakes. David Burns' Feeling Good: The New Mood Therapy clearly distinguishes between pathological "should statements", moral imperatives, and social norms.

★ Increase the awareness of thoughts

If the client understands the cognitive model, it's about recognizing CDs. That means asking what thoughts lead me to this CD. This leads to an increased attention to thoughts. Thus, special thoughts can be identified, which influence the mood and ultimately trigger a certain behaviour.

Another important aspect in this context is to associate emotions with behaviour. This makes it easier to deduce the underlying idea.

Examples are critical situations such as

- ✓ After a busy day, I always start arguing with my partner.
- ✓ Even large orders I do only at the last minute.

Identifying and reflecting these warning signals helps the client to classify his own behaviour. A certain method to do is thought recording.

* Thought records

Thought recordings are usually tabular records in which the table columns symbolize the individual aspects of the cognitive model. Situation-thought-emotion-behaviour. Each line represents a situation to be described. Sometimes it is recommended to add





another column to the alternative idea. This immediately gives the client the opportunity to question the original thought.







Thought



Emotion



Behaviour



Finding of alternative thoughts should happen under the premise "fair" instead of "overpositive".

★ Cognitive restructuring techniques

When we talk about restructuring cognitions, we have several techniques to support. Of course, it's easy to identify and judge CDs from others, and to give advice. If we are forced to clean up our own CDs, difficulties often arise. The techniques, of which we will explain here 3 examples, provide very good tools for the coach and the client to dissolve cognitive distortions and restructure it.

★ Socratic questioning

Socratic questioning (or Socratic maieutics) was named after Socrates, who was a philosopher in c. 470 BCE-c. 399 BCE[2]. Socrates utilized an educational method that focused on discovering answers by asking questions from his students. Socrates believed that "the disciplined practice of thoughtful questioning enables the scholar/student to examine ideas and be able to determine the validity of those ideas.

The purpose is to help uncover the assumptions and evidence that underpin people's thoughts in respect of problems. A set of Socratic questions in cognitive therapy aim to deal with automatic thoughts that distress the client:

- 1. Revealing the issue: 'What evidence supports this idea? And what evidence is against its being true?'
- 2. Conceiving reasonable alternatives: 'What might be another explanation or view-point of the situation? Why else did it happen?'
- 3. Examining various potential consequences: 'What are worst, best, bearable and most realistic outcomes?'
- 4. Evaluate those consequences: 'What's the effect of thinking or believing this? What could be the effect of thinking differently and no longer holding onto this belief?'
- 5. Distancing: 'Imagine a specific friend/family member in the same situation or if they viewed the situation this way, what would I tell them?'





Careful use of Socratic questioning enables a therapist to challenge recurring or isolated instances of a person's illogical thinking while maintaining an open position that respects the internal logic to even the most seemingly illogical thoughts.

★ De-catastrophizing

In cognitive therapy, decatastrophizing or decatastrophization is a cognitive restructuring technique to treat cognitive distortions, such as magnification and catastrophizing, commonly seen in psychological disorders like anxiety and psychosis.

The technique consists of confronting the worst-case scenario of a feared event or object, using mental imagery to examine whether the effects of the event or object have been overestimated (magnified or exaggerated) and where the patient's coping skills have been underestimated. The term was coined by Albert Ellis, and various versions of the technique have been developed, most notably by Aaron T. Beck.

Decatastrophizing is also called the "what if" technique because the worst-case scenario is confronted by asking: "What if the feared event or object happened, what would occur then?"

The following is an example:

"I could make an absolute fool of myself if I say the wrong thing."

"What if you say the wrong thing, what would happen then?"

"He might think I'm weird." ...

★ Thoughts on trail

The client goes into a role play. He will successively be defence lawyer, prosecutor and judge of his thoughts. As a first step, he prepares the defence by defending the negative thought argumentatively. Then he will deal with the role of the prosecutor and build the counter-argumentation. Finally, as a judge, he will juxtapose both arguments and issue a judgment.

The thought is: My wife actually hates me. She is always screaming at me.

The defence says:

We often argue about trifles. Yes, she screams at every argument. She is always so angry. I behave as always.

The prosecutor says against the thought:

You always find a way to end the dispute. You have been living together for a very long time. My wife is sometimes mad at others too. My wife told me that she loves me.

In the end, the client takes on the role of the judge and weighs the verdict. **The verdict**: Quarrels are often annoying, but they are a part of togetherness. After weighing the





arguments, especially the aspect that, according to your statement, a solution is always found, there is no proof that supports the initial thought.

★ More techniques are

Understanding idiosyncratic meaning, which is more of a skill, aims to solve the client's problem when using a vague language.

Reattribution a technique in which the client is encouraged to consider possible alternate causes for events

Cognitive rehearsal is an imagery technique devised to help patients experience their feared situations by imagining that it is occurring right at that moment. At the office or as a between-session assignment, patients are asked to "live through" the feared situation in imagery and build up the best coping strategies to overcome it successfully.

Guided imagery which means the coach helps the client to evoke and generate mental images that simulate or re-create

Sources:

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognitive_psychology

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Guided_imagery

https://en.wikiquote.org

Irismar Reis de Oliveira on http://www.scielo.br/scielo.php?script=sci arttext&pid=S1516-4462008000100003

S.O.R.C.

The S-O-R-C scheme is one of the cornerstones of behavioural therapy:

- ✓ S (STIMULUS) represents situations that precede a certain experience.
- ✓ O (ORGANISM) includes everything that happens within the human system: his
 thoughts, emotions, physical sensations and reactions.
- ✓ R (RESPONSE) is the observable behaviour.
- ✓ C (CONSEQUENCE) is the short- and long-term consequences, positive, neutral
 and negative.

If we want to change behaviour it is a practical way to question a current behaviour according to this schedule.

SORC is important as a base for behavioural assessment programs. The essence is:

The learning theoretical perspective uses the concepts of stimulus (S - cause in the environment), response (R - reaction of the client) and consequences (C - consequences for the client). The consequences are also a new stimulus. The basic starting point is: If the reaction produces profits, the client will repeat his reaction. If there is no stimulus





or no profit, or even a negative result, then the client will stop this behaviour.

In addition to the concepts of S, R, C, there is a fourth concept, which is mainly used in the cognitive approach: The O of organism, which is placed after the S: S.O.R.C. These are personal factors such as intelligence, illness, attitudes, core beliefs, expectations, motivation and fatigue.

Source: https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/SORKC-Modell

FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOUR ASSESSMENT (FBA)

The term Functional analysis comes from computer science. An example of what Functional Analysis is: "Before you can write a computer program, you must have an idea what purpose the program should serve and how it should function. Therefore, a functional analysis must be made. The functional analysis describes all the functions we want to have in the program."

Transformed to the psychology, pedagogy, the behaviour and coaching of students, the FA has the following meaning:

"Functional Behavioural Analysis emphasizes careful examination of the causes, and the impact on the environment of a given response repertoire." (Meichenbaum, 1981, p. 195)."

In the FBA, an accurate analysis is made of specific behaviour in a specific context, and all that is the result of that behaviour and influenced by it. This puts behaviour into a chain of events and is therefore seen as functional in this chain: there is, in fact, a logical connection between behaviour and context. In a cognitive function analysis, the self-perceptions and cognitive schedules that someone still uses come along. Therefore it is not so easy to analyse

Some unambiguity is necessary for adequate analysis. In any case, it is sensible to analyse problem behaviour in time and place.

This is just one part of the behavioural problem consisting of the functional analysis and the holistic theory. In this tailored hypotheses the functional analysis covers the micro level. The behavioural problems selected for treatment are examined. The crucial antecedents and actuators are analysed again in the context in which the behaviour takes place. The holistic theory concerns the analysis on a higher level. It describes the relationship between the various problem areas. This is rather a macro level. The function analysis and the holistic theory complete each other well. But there's more: both are in constant communication back and forth. Thus function analysis is a vital source of information in preparing the holistic theory.





Functional assessment of behaviour provides hypotheses about the relationships between specific environmental events and behaviours. Decades of research has established that both desirable and undesirable behaviours are learned through interactions with the social and physical environment. FBA is used to identify the type and source of reinforcement for challenging behaviours as the basis for intervention efforts designed to decrease the occurrence of these behaviours.

Functions of behaviour

The function of a behaviour can be thought of as the purpose a behaviour serves for a person. Function is identified in an FBA by identifying the type and source if reinforcement for the behaviour of interest. Those reinforcers might be positive or negative social reinforcers provided by someone who interacts with the person, or automatic reinforcers produced directly by the behaviour itself.

- ★ Positive Reinforcement social positive reinforcement (attention), tangible reinforcement, and automatic positive reinforcement.
- ★ Negative Reinforcement social negative reinforcement (escape), automatic negative reinforcement.

Function versus topography

Behaviours may look different but can serve the same function and likewise behaviour that looks the same may serve multiple functions. What the behaviour looks like often reveals little useful information about the conditions that account for it. However, identifying the conditions that account for a behaviour, suggests what conditions need to be altered to change the behaviour. Therefore, assessment of function of a behaviour can yield useful information with respect to intervention strategies that are likely to be effective.[40]

FBA methods

FBA methods can be classified into three types:

- ✓ Functional (experimental) Analysis
- ✓ Descriptive Assessment
- ✓ Indirect Assessment

★ Functional (experimental) analysis

A functional analysis is one in which antecedents and consequences are manipulated to indicate their separate effects on the behaviour of interest. This type of arrangement is often called analog because they are not conducted in a naturally occurring context. However, research is indicating that functional analysis done in a natural environment will yield similar or better results

A functional analysis normally has four conditions (three test conditions and one control):





- ✓ Contingent attention
- ✓ Contingent escape
- ✓ Alone
- ✓ Control condition

Advantages - it has the ability to yield a clear demonstration of the variable(s)that relate to the occurrence of a problem behaviour. Serves as the standard of scientific evidence by which other assessment alternative are evaluated, and represents the method most often used in research on the assessment and treatment of problem behaviour.

Limitations - assessment process may temporarily strengthen or increase the undesirable behaviour to unacceptable levels or result in the behaviour acquiring new functions. Some behaviours may not be amenable to functional analysis (e.g. those that, albeit serious, occur infrequently). Functional analysis conducted in contrived settings may not detect the variable that accounts for the occurrence in the natural environment.

★ Indirect FBA

This method uses structured interviews, checklists, rating scales, or questionnaires to obtain information from persons who are familiar with the person exhibiting the behaviour to identify possible conditions or events in the natural environment that correlate with the problem behaviour. They are called "indirect" because they do not involve direct observation of the behaviour, but rather solicit information based on others' recollections of the behaviour.

Advantages - some can provide a useful source of information in guiding subsequent, more objective assessments, and contribute to the development of hypotheses about variable that might occasion or maintain the behaviours of concern.

Limitations - informants may not have accurate and unbiased recall of behaviour and the conditions under which it occurred.

★ Descriptive FBA

As with Functional Analysis, descriptive functional behaviour assessment utilizes direct observation of behaviour; unlike functional analysis, however, observations are made under naturally occurring conditions. Therefore, descriptive assessments involve observation of the problem behaviour in relation to events that are not arranged in a systematic manner.

There are three variations of descriptive assessment:

- ✓ ABC (antecedent-behaviour-consequence) continuous recording observer records occurrences of targeted behaviour and seelected environmental events in the natural routine.
- ✓ ABC narrative recording data are collected only when behaviours of interest are observes, and the recording encompasses any events that immediately precede and follow the target behaviour.





✓ Scatterplots -a procedure for recording the extent to which a target behaviour occurs more often at particular times than others.

Conducting an FBA

Provided the strengths and limitations of the different FBA procedures, FBA can best be viewed as a four-step process:

- A The gathering of information via indirect and descriptive assessment.
- B Interpretation of information from indirect and descriptive assessment and formulation of a hypothesis about the purpose of problem behaviour.
- C Testing of a hypothesis using a functional analysis.
- D Developing intervention options based on the function of problem behaviour.

source: https://www.wikidoc.org/index.php/Applied_behaviour_analysis additional resources:

https://www.understood.org/en/school-learning/evaluations/evaluation-basics/functional-assessment-what-it-is-and-how-it-works

THE TRANS-THEORETICAL MODEL OF BEHAVIOUR CHANGE

Overview of the Model

The Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983; Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992) is an integrative theory of therapy that assesses an individual's readiness to act on a new healthier behaviour, and provides strategies, or processes of change to guide the individual. The model is composed of constructs such as: stages of change, processes of change, levels of change, self-efficacy, and decisional balance.

The Stages of Change

This construct refers to the temporal dimension of behavioural change. In the transtheoretical model, change is a "process involving progress through a series of stages":

- ✓ Precontemplation ("not ready") "People are not intending to take action in the foreseeable future, and can be unaware that their behaviour is problematic"
- ✓ Contemplation ("getting ready") "People are beginning to recognize that their behaviour is problematic, and start to look at the pros and cons of their continued actions"
- ✓ Preparation ("ready") "People are intending to take action in the immediate future, and may begin taking small steps toward behaviour change"
- ✓ Action "People have made specific overt modifications in modifying their problem behaviour or in acquiring new healthy behaviours"
- ✓ Maintenance "People have been able to sustain action for at least six months and are working to prevent relapse"
- ✓ Termination "Individuals have zero temptation and they are sure they will not return to their old unhealthy habit as a way of coping"





In addition, the researchers conceptualized "Relapse" (recycling) which is not a stage in itself but rather the "return from Action or Maintenance to an earlier stage".

★ Pre-contemplation (Not Ready)

People at this stage do not intend to start the healthy behaviour in the near future (within 6 months), and may be unaware of the need to change. People here learn more about healthy behaviour: they are encouraged to think about the pros of changing their behaviour and to feel emotions about the effects of their negative behaviour on others.

Precontemplators typically underestimate the pros of changing, overestimate the cons, and often are not aware of making such mistakes.

One of the most effective steps that others can help with at this stage is to encourage them to become more mindful of their decision making and more conscious of the multiple benefits of changing an unhealthy behaviour.

★ Contemplation (Getting Ready)

At this stage, participants are intending to start the healthy behaviour within the next 6 months. While they are usually now more aware of the pros of changing, their cons are about equal to their Pros. This ambivalence about changing can cause them to keep putting off taking action.

People here learn about the kind of person they could be if they changed their behaviour and learn more from people who behave in healthy ways.

Others can influence and help effectively at this stage by encouraging them to work at reducing the cons of changing their behaviour.

★ Preparation (Ready)

People at this stage are ready to start taking action within the next 30 days. They take small steps that they believe can help them make the healthy behaviour a part of their lives. For example, they tell their friends and family that they want to change their behaviour.

People in this stage should be encouraged to seek support from friends they trust, tell people about their plan to change the way they act, and think about how they would feel if they behaved in a healthier way. Their number one concern is: when they act, will they fail? They learn that the better prepared they are, the more likely they are to keep progressing.

★ Action

People at this stage have changed their behaviour within the last 6 months and need to work hard to keep moving ahead. These participants need to learn how to strengthen their commitments to change and to fight urges to slip back.





People in this stage progress by being taught techniques for keeping up their commitments such as substituting activities related to the unhealthy behaviour with positive ones, rewarding themselves for taking steps toward changing, and avoiding people and situations that tempt them to behave in unhealthy ways.

* Maintenance

People at this stage changed their behaviour more than 6 months ago. It is important for people in this stage to be aware of situations that may tempt them to slip back into doing the unhealthy behaviour—particularly stressful situations.

It is recommended that people in this stage seek support from and talk with people whom they trust, spend time with people who behave in healthy ways, and remember to engage in healthy activities to cope with stress instead of relying on unhealthy behaviour.

★ Decisional Balance

Relapse in the TTM specifically applies to individuals who successfully quit smoking or using drugs or alcohol, only to resume these unhealthy behaviours. Individuals who attempt to quit highly addictive behaviours such as drug, alcohol, and tobacco use are at particularly high risk of a relapse. Achieving a long-term behaviour change often requires ongoing support from family members, a health coach, a physician, or another motivational source. Supportive literature and other resources can also be helpful to avoid a relapse from happening.

Self-Efficacy

his core construct is "the situation-specific confidence people have that they can cope with high-risk situations without relapsing to their unhealthy or high risk-habit". The construct is based on Bandura's self-efficacy theory and conceptualizes a person's perceived ability to perform on a task as a mediator of performance on future tasks. In his research Bandura already established that greater levels of perceived self-efficacy leads to greater changes in behaviour. This underlines the integrative nature of the transtheoretical model which combines various behaviour theories. A change in the level of self-efficacy can predict a lasting change in behaviour if there are adequate incentives and skills. The transtheoretical model employs an overall confidence score to assess an individual's self-efficacy. Situational temptations assess how tempted people are to engage in a problem behaviour in a certain situation.

Processes of Change

The 10 processes of change are "covert and overt activities that people use to progress through the stages".

To progress through the early stages, people apply cognitive, affective, and evaluative processes. As people move toward Action and Maintenance, they rely more on commitments, conditioning, contingencies, environmental controls, and support.





Prochaska and colleagues state that their research related to the transtheoretical model shows that interventions to change behaviour are more effective if they are "stage-matched", that is, "matched to each individual's stage of change".

In general, for people to progress they need:

A growing awareness that the advantages (the "pros") of changing outweigh the disadvantages (the "cons")—the TTM calls this decisional balance.

Confidence that they can make and maintain changes in situations that tempt them to return to their old, unhealthy behaviour—the TTM calls this self-efficacy.

Strategies that can help them make and maintain change—the TTM calls these processes of change.

The ten processes of change include:

- ✓ Consciousness-raising (Get the facts) increasing awareness via information, education, and personal feedback about the healthy behaviour.
- ✓ Dramatic relief (Pay attention to feelings) feeling fear, anxiety, or worry because of the unhealthy behaviour, or feeling inspiration and hope when they hear about how people are able to change to healthy behaviours.
- ✓ Self-reevaluation (Create a new self-image) realizing that the healthy behaviour is an important part of who they are and want to be.
- ✓ Environmental reevaluation (Notice your effect on others) realizing how their unhealthy behaviour affects others and how they could have more positive effects by changing.
- ✓ Social liberation (Notice public support) realizing that society is more supportive of the healthy behaviour.
- ✓ Self-liberation (Make a commitment) believing in one's ability to change and making commitments and re-commitments to act on that belief.
- ✓ Helping relationships (Get support) finding people who are supportive of their change.
- Counter-conditioning (Use substitutes) substituting healthy ways of acting and thinking for unhealthy ways.
- ✓ Reinforcement management (Use rewards) increasing the rewards that come from positive behaviour and reducing those that come from negative behaviour.
- ✓ Stimulus control (Manage your environment) using reminders and cues that encourage healthy behaviour as substitutes for those that encourage the unhealthy behaviour.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transtheoretical_model additional resources

https://www.prochange.com/transtheoretical-model-of-behaviour-change





EXPERIMENTAL LEARNING THEORY

David Kolb published his learning styles model in 1984 from which he developed his learning style inventory.

Kolb's experiential learning theory works on two levels: a four-stage cycle of learning and four separate learning styles. Much of Kolb's theory is concerned with the learner's internal cognitive processes.

Kolb states that learning involves the acquisition of abstract concepts that can be applied flexibly in a range of situations. In Kolb's theory, the impetus for the development of new concepts is provided by new experiences.

"Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience"

The Experiential Learning Cycle

Kolb's experiential learning style theory is typically represented by a four-stage learning cycle in which the learner 'touches all the bases':



- 1. Concrete Experience (a new experience or situation is encountered, or a reinterpretation of existing experience).
- 2. Reflective Observation of the new experience. (of particular importance are any inconsistencies between experience and understanding).
- 3. Abstract Conceptualization (reflection gives rise to a new idea, or a modification of an existing abstract con-

cept).

4. Active Experimentation (the learner applies them to the world around them to see what results).

Effective learning is seen when a person progresses through a cycle of four stages: of (1) having a concrete experience followed by (2) observation of and reflection on that experience which leads to (3) the formation of abstract concepts (analysis) and generalizations (conclusions) which are then (4) used to test hypothesis in future situations, resulting in new experiences.

Kolb (1974) views learning as an integrated process with each stage being mutually supportive of and feeding into the next. It is possible to enter the cycle at any stage and follow it through its logical sequence.





However, effective learning only occurs when a learner can execute all four stages of the model. Therefore, no one stage of the cycle is effective as a learning procedure on its own.

Learning Styles

Kolb's learning theory (1974) sets out four distinct learning styles, which are based on a four-stage learning cycle (see above). Kolb explains that different people naturally prefer a certain single different learning style. Various factors influence a person's preferred style. For example, social environment, educational experiences, or the basic cognitive structure of the individual.

Whatever influences the choice of style, the learning style preference itself is actually the product of two pairs of variables, or two separate 'choices' that we make, which Kolb presented as lines of an axis, each with 'conflicting' modes at either end:

A typical presentation of Kolb's two continuums is that the east-west axis is called the Processing Continuum (how we approach a task), and the north-south axis is called the Perception Continuum (our emotional response, or how we think or feel about it).

Kolb believed that we cannot perform both variables on a single axis at the same time (e.g., think and feel). Our learning style is a product of these two choice decisions.

It's often easier to see the construction of Kolb's learning styles in terms of a two-by-two matrix. Each learning style represents a combination of two preferred styles. The matrix also highlights Kolb's terminology for the four learning styles; diverging, assimilating, and converging, accommodating:

	Active Experimentation (Doing)	Reflective Observation (Watching)
Concrete Experience (Feeling)	Accommodating (CE/AE)	Diverging (CE/RO)
Abstract Conceptualization (Thinking)	Converging (AC/AE)	Assimilating (AC/RO)

Learning Styles Descriptions

Knowing a person's (and your own) learning style enables learning to be orientated according to the preferred method. That said, everyone responds to and needs the stimulus of all types of learning styles to one extent or another - it's a matter of using emphasis that fits best with the given situation and a person's learning style preferences.

Here are brief descriptions of the four Kolb learning styles:

★ Diverging (feeling and watching - CE/RO)

These people are able to look at things from different perspectives. They are sensitive. They prefer to watch rather than do, tending to gather information and use imagination to solve problems. They are best at viewing concrete situations from several different viewpoints.





Kolb called this style 'diverging' because these people perform better in situations that require ideas-generation, for example, brainstorming. People with a diverging learning style have broad cultural interests and like to gather information.

They are interested in people, tend to be imaginative and emotional, and tend to be strong in the arts. People with the diverging style prefer to work in groups, to listen with an open mind and to receive personal feedback.

★ Assimilating (watching and thinking - AC/RO)

The Assimilating learning preference involves a concise, logical approach. Ideas and concepts are more important than people. These people require good clear explanation rather than a practical opportunity. They excel at understanding wide-ranging information and organizing it in a clear, logical format.

People with an assimilating learning style are less focused on people and more interested in ideas and abstract concepts. People with this style are more attracted to logically sound theories than approaches based on practical value.

This learning style is important for effectiveness in information and science careers. In formal learning situations, people with this style prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through.

★ Converging (doing and thinking - AC/AE)

People with a converging learning style can solve problems and will use their learning to find solutions to practical issues. They prefer technical tasks, and are less concerned with people and interpersonal aspects.

People with a converging learning style are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories. They can solve problems and make decisions by finding solutions to questions and problems.

People with a converging learning style are more attracted to technical tasks and problems than social or interpersonal issues. A converging learning style enables specialist and technology abilities. People with a converging style like to experiment with new ideas, to simulate, and to work with practical applications.

★ Accommodating (doing and feeling - CE/AE)

The Accommodating learning style is 'hands-on,' and relies on intuition rather than logic. These people use other people's analysis, and prefer to take a practical, experiential approach. They are attracted to new challenges and experiences, and to carrying out plans.

They commonly act on 'gut' instinct rather than logical analysis. People with an accommodating learning style will tend to rely on others for information than carry out their own analysis. This learning style is prevalent within the general population.





Educational Implications

Both Kolb's (1984) learning stages and cycle could be used by teachers to critically evaluate the learning provision typically available to students, and to develop more appropriate learning opportunities.

Educators should ensure that activities are designed and carried out in ways that offer each learner the chance to engage in the manner that suits them best. Also, individuals can be helped to learn more effectively by the identification of their lesser preferred learning styles and the strengthening of these through the application of the experiential learning cycle.

Ideally, activities and material should be developed in ways that draw on abilities from each stage of the experiential learning cycle and take the students through the whole process in sequence.

source: McLeod, S. A. (2017). Kolb - learning styles. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html

Find out your learning style by using Kolb's learning style <u>questionnaire</u>.



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SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation and personality that concerns people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs, developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard Ryan. It is concerned with the motivation behind choices people make without external influence and interference. SDT focuses on the degree to which an individual's behaviour is self-motivated and self-determined.

Key studies that led to emergence of SDT and STD included research on intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to initiating an activity for its own sake because it is interesting and satisfying in itself, as opposed to doing an activity to obtain an external goal (extrinsic motivation). Different types of motivations have been described based on the degree they have been internalized. Internalization refers to the active attempt to transform an extrinsic motive into personally endorsed values and thus assimilate behavioural regulations that were originally external.

Edward L. Deci and Richard Ryan later expanded on the early work differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and proposed three main intrinsic needs involved in self-determination. According to Deci and Ryan, the three psychological needs motivate the self to initiate behaviour and specify nutriments that are essential for psychological health and well-being of an individual. These needs are said to be universal, innate and psychological and include the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

SDT is centred on the belief that human nature shows persistent positive features, that it repeatedly shows effort, agency and commitment in their lives that the theory calls





"inherent growth tendencies". People also have innate psychological needs that are the basis for self-motivation and personality integration.

SDT identifies three innate needs that, if satisfied, allow optimal function and growth:

- ✓ Competence
- ✓ Relatedness
- ✓ Autonomy

These needs are seen as universal necessities that are innate, not learned (instinctive), and seen in humanity across time, gender and culture.

Deci and Ryan claim that there are three essential elements of the theory:

- ✓ Humans are inherently proactive with their potential and mastering their inner forces (such as drives and emotions)
- ✓ Humans have an inherent tendency toward growth development and integrated functioning
- ✓ Optimal development and actions are inherent in humans but they don't happen automatically

To actualise their inherent potential they need nurturing from the social environment.

If this happens there are positive consequences (e.g. well being and growth) but if not, there are negative consequences. So SDT emphasises humans' natural growth toward positive motivation; however, this is thwarted if their basic needs are not fulfilled.

Needs

SDT supports three basic psychological needs that must be satisfied to foster well-being and health. These needs can be universally applied. However, some may be more salient than others at certain times and are expressed differently based on time, culture, or experience.

* Competence

Seek to control the outcome and experience mastery

* Relatedness

Will to interact, be connected to, and experience caring for others

* Autonomy

Desire to be causal agents of one's own life and act in harmony with one's integrated self; however, Deci and Vansteenkiste note this does not mean to be independent of others

Motivations

SDT claims to give a different approach to motivation, considering what motivates a person at any given time as opposed to seeing motivation as a unitary concept. SDT





makes distinctions between different types of motivation and the consequences of them.

★ Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation is the natural, inherent drive to seek out challenges and new possibilities that SDT associates with cognitive and social development.

Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) is a sub-theory of SDT that specifies factors explaining intrinsic motivation and variability with it and looks at how social and environmental factors help or hinder intrinsic motivations. CET focuses on the needs of competence and autonomy.

Claiming social context events like feedback on work or rewards lead to feelings of competence and so enhance intrinsic motivations. Deci found positive feedback enhanced intrinsic motivations and negative feedback diminished it.

Autonomy, however, must accompany competence for people to see their behaviours as self-determined by intrinsic motivation. For this to happen there must be immediate contextual support for both needs or inner resources based on prior development support for both needs.

CET and intrinsic motivation are also linked to relatedness through the hypothesis that intrinsic motivation flourishes if linked with a sense of security and relatedness.

★ Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation comes from external sources. Deci and Ryan developed organismic integration theory (OIT), as a sub-theory of SDT, to explain the different ways extrinsically motivated behaviour is regulated.

OIT details the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contexts in which they come about. It is the context of such motivation that concerns the SDT theory as these contexts affect whether the motivations are internalised and so integrated into the sense of self.

OIT describes four different types of extrinsic motivations that often vary in terms of their relative autonomy:

Externally regulated behaviour: Is the least autonomous, it is performed because of external demand or possible reward. Such actions can be seen to have an externally perceived locus of causality.

Introjected regulation of behaviour: describes taking on regulations to behaviour but not fully accepting said regulations as your own. Deci and Ryan claim such behaviour normally represents regulation by contingent self-esteem, citing ego involvement as a classic form of introjections. This is the kind of behaviour where people feel motivated to demonstrate ability to maintain self-worth. While this is internally driven, introjected behaviour has an external perceived locus of causality or not coming from one's self.





Since the causality of the behaviour is perceived as external, the behaviour is considered non-self-determined.

Regulation through identification: Is a more autonomously driven form of extrinsic motivation. It involves consciously valuing a goal or regulation so that said action is accepted as personally important.

Integrated Regulation: Is the most autonomous kind of extrinsic motivation. Occurring when regulations are fully assimilated with self so they are included in a person's self evaluations and beliefs on personal needs. Because of this, integrated motivations share qualities with intrinsic motivation but are still classified as extrinsic because the goals that are trying to be achieved are for reasons extrinsic to the self, rather than the inherent enjoyment or interest in the task.

Extrinsically motivated behaviours can be integrated into self. OIT proposes internalization is more likely to occur when there is a sense of relatedness.

SDT argues that needs are innate but can be developed in a social context. Some people develop stronger needs than others, creating individual differences. However, individual differences within the theory focus on concepts resulting from the degree to which needs have been satisfied or not satisfied.

Individual differences

Within SDT there are two general individual difference concepts, Causality Orientations and Life Goals.

★ Causality orientations

Causality orientations are motivational orientations that refer to either the way people orient to an environment and regulate their behaviour because of this or the extent to which they are self-determined in general across many settings. SDT created three orientations: autonomous, controlled and impersonal.

- ✓ Autonomous Orientations: result from satisfaction of the basic needs
- ✓ Strong controlled orientations: Result from satisfaction of competence and relatedness needs but not of autonomy and is linked to regulation through internal and external contingencies, which lead to rigid functioning and diminished wellbeing.
- ✓ Impersonal Orientations: Results from failing to fulfil all three needs. This is also related to poor functioning and ill being.

According to the theory people have some amount of each of the orientations, which can be used to make predictions on a person's psychological health and behavioural outcomes.





★ Life goals

Life goals are long-term goals people use to guide their activities, and they fall into two categories:

- A Intrinsic Aspirations: Contain life goals like affiliation, generativity and personal development.
- B Extrinsic Aspirations: Have life goals like wealth, fame and attractiveness.

There have been several studies on this subject that chart intrinsic goals being associated with greater health, well-being and performance.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Self-determination_theory

additional resources

https://courses.lumenlearning.com/suny-educationalpsychology/chapter/motivation-as-self-determination/

https://en.wikiversity.org/wiki/Motivation_and_emotion/Book/2011/Self-determination_theory_http://selfdeterminationtheory.org





CHAPTER 3

DEVELOPMENT OF CLIENT'S COMPETENCES

As we talk about a client-centred approach in INTENSE we have to think about knowledge & skills with which the client can realize the objectives according to the indicators of employability.

What do we expect of the client in our transition concept?

- ✓ RECOGNITION: Acknowledgement by the client of the existence, validity of a problem
- ✓ INITIATIVE: The client must be able to use the support on his/hers own initiative.
- ✓ OBJECTIVES: The client must be able to develop his/her own objective/goals.
- ✓ PURSUIT: The client must learn how to pursue his/her own objectives.
- ✓ **DEVELOPMENT**: The client will develop his own competences.

These aspects briefly illustrate which items are relevant in case we can speak about the client pursues his/her transition process on his/her own responsibility.

During the coaching process, the transition coach must ensure that the client will develop his / her skills that are identified as 5 indicators of employability:

- ✓ Social skills
- ✓ Personal skills
- ✓ Methodological skills
- ✓ Social stability
- ✓ qualification

If we look at the target group with their needs, it seems clear that social, personal, methodical skills and social stability need to be developed before a client is able to extend his/her school and vocational competences. This consideration only becomes integral as the Transition Coach uses the context of the "extension of school and vocational competences" to support the client's development in the mentioned soft skills.

SOCIAL SKILLS

Communication

OBJECTIVES (KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS)

This training module enables participants to articulate in a self-confidently way, promote the expression and train the participants to listen to others.

The practical exercises encourage the willingness to improve communicatively, to interrogate and self-critically examine specific communication situations. The participants' ability to express themselves will improve, because the basics of communication will be mediated and reflected by simulations.





In addition to trainings to gain skills for self-presentation and free speech, the participants can also solve conflicts after completion of the module. Thereby their self-confidence will also increase.

★ Basic communication

- ✓ Talk and listen to each other
- ✓ Verbal and non-verbal communication
- ✓ Role play

Learning goals:

- ✓ Participants can express verbally and non-verbally appropriately
- ✓ The participants learn about reactions to nonverbal and verbal communication
- ✓ The participants understand how misunderstandings can arise.

Talk and listen to each other

Moderate and train!

What someone says and how the other person perceives it can be different things. Sometimes someone says something and it is understood quite differently, because the persons are e.g. don't know each other or they think it sounds funny. Communication always consists of a sender and a receiver.

Ask the participants how to react to the following question:

"What is the vegetable in the soup?"

Possible answers are:

- ✓ I say what kind of vegetable it is, because I understand it as a pure question of information.
- ✓ I think that food does not taste because the tone sounds funny.
- ✓ I say the next time you should cook because I feel attacked.
- ✓ I am offended and go without asking what is really meant by the question.

The transceiver model presented here is based on 7 steps of communication:

- 1. Communication partner A has an intention.
- 2. He translates them into words.
- 3. He pronounces them and sends them to the receiver.
- 4. The message is sent.
- 5. Communication partner B hears the message.
- 6. He translates it.
- 7. It interprets the meaning.

In order to assure that a message will arrive properly, one should be able to assess the receiver. In addition, the right emphasis is very important. If the conversation partner is unknown irony, unclear formulations and ambiguities should be avoided.





On the other hand, there are listeners. Different types can be distinguished:

- ✓ The objective listener: are very close to what is heard (only what has been said)
- ✓ The empathic listener: Respond / reflect the feelings of the dialog partner
- ✓ The sensitive listener: react emotionally; feel quickly offended or attacked
- ✓ The action-oriented listener: they want to be active immediately.

Divide the participants into groups of two and then distribute an exercise sheet with example dialogues for each group. Each group has a speaker and a listener. The speaker have to read the dialogues. The listener have to say how he understood it. Both have to exchange. The dialogs should read out alternately so that everyone is once in the role of the speaker (transmitter) and the listener (receiver).

This exercise is intended to train the correct formulation of questions and self-reports, as well as active listening.

Verbal and non-verbal communication

Information and practice

Communication does not just mean talking to each other. Each person also communicates while he/she not talks. Communication means more than words. In various situations of conversation, non-verbal communication is very revealing about what individuals are thinking or feeling. E.g. in job interviews attention is paid to non-verbal communication. Crosses he/she arms (disinterested), is he/she constantly tapping with the fingers on the table (nervousness) or is he/she trying to keep eye contact (self-assurance)?

In the course of a conversation, gestures, facial expressions and attitudes often show more clearly than words the true inner attitude towards the dialog partner(s). Our body expresses thoughts, feelings consciously and subconsciously. A convincing personality emerges from the unity of spoken words and body language.

Exercise instructions:

Show the participants images of different people from the internet. Ask the participants how they would assess the people. Without hearing or knowing about the people, we all have certain ideas about body postures, gestures or facial expressions.

Then, solve how the people are really to be judged. Show the participants a table, which can produce body language, gesture and mimic.

Role play

1. non-verbal communication:

In order to train the verbal and non-verbal communication as well as the listening, the participants perform a rolling game. The participants are divided into two groups and an inner and an outer chair circle are formed. The people in the inner chair circle are given cards from the moderator. Each card has a different emotion that the participants should express non-verbally (aggression, body language) (aggressive, anxious, angry, delighted, frightened, disappointed, bored, etc.). The observers in the outer circle have





5 minutes to watch all participants. After 5 minutes the observers are asked how the participants feel in the inner chair circle. Let the answers be justified. The respondents have time to correct the responses of the observers. This should lead to a dialogue between the participants.

2. Verbal communication

The next step is the verbal communication. When speaking in the same sentence, different feelings can be expressed by different intonations and have different effects in the listener: depending on how the sentence "You have got again great!" emphasizes the volume at which it is spoken or how gesture and facial expressions are used,. Express: surprise, admiration, accusation, disappointment, anger, insecurity, damage, irony or gratitude.

All participants speak this sentence aloud and get the task of expressing a certain feeling with the speech. Then the participants try to interpret what is being said and tray it to a specific mood. The speakers can correct the answers and get an assessment of their own effect on others.

* Expressiveness

- ✓ Everyday language vs written language
- ✓ Forms of expression in application letters

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants understand the difference between everyday language and literary language
- ✓ The participants can express themselves appropriately in a letter of application

Information and discussion

We can express ourselves through different media. We can communicate directly with people; we can communicate with each other via whatsapp, SMS and email or on various social media platforms. By using all the communication channels, we express ourselves differently. For example, a whatsapp message is often used with abbreviations and emoticons. The same happens in direct conversation situations we behave differently. We communicate with teachers, trainers or parents differently than with close friends.

In the application process, it is very important that the receiver of the application get a positive picture of us. The first impression begins with the receipt of the application documents. A letter of application has to be formulated differently than we normally express ourselves in the everyday language.

Manual:

Show participants a negative example of a job application. Give the participants a little time to take a closer look on it. Then ask the participants what they think about the cover letter: What could be improved, what is already good? How could it be that the applicant was not invited to the interview?





After a first approach to the topic, ask the participants specifically for the expression in the cover letter: How does the application affect you? What are your impressions of the applicant? How is this impression aroused by you?

Discuss with the participants the rules for the preparation of an application and the importance of formal letters to official authorities.

★ self-presentation

- ✓ Rhetoric basics
- ✓ Dealing with nervousness
- ✓ Exercise free speech and safe handling of nonverbal communication

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants learn the basics of rhetoric and their importance for lectures.
- ✓ The participants understand why signals from listeners are very important.
- ✓ The participants learn to deal with nervousness.
- ✓ The participants can hold short presentations before a group.

Rhetoric basics

Exchange in plenum

There are personalities, participants will gladly listen and there are personalities, the listeners will not follow for a longer time. Ask the participants when they will listen attentively to someone. What is special? How does the person speak? How does the person behave? Keep the utterances on a flipchart.

For a person who gives a lecture, listeners are very important. Listeners give important signals about how the person is performing and the performance acts on them.

Ask the participants what kind of signals listeners can send to a speaker. Keep these responses on the flipchart too. Combine the aforementioned answers about positive lectures and behaviours with these answers. Entitle the flipchart with "Lectures and Listeners' Reactions".

Examples of signals from listeners can be:

- ✓ They are bored (yawning, eyes closed)
- ✓ They roll their eyes
- ✓ They keep their attention on other things (talk with the neighbour, paint)
- ✓ They slide around the chairs
- ✓ They keep eye contact with the speaker
- ✓ They write down important aspects the lecturer was pointing out

Now make clear that rhetoric is important in presentations. Rules for a well-used rhetoric are, for example:

- ✓ Clear structure of the lecture
- ✓ Interesting and understandable





- ✓ Use the voice in a way that is described alive and exciting
- ✓ Using facial expressions and gestures to emphasize what has been said
- ✓ Convince by make use of your expertise

Dealing with nervousness

Exchange in plenum

Many people who have to give a lecture do not feel comfortable. In some people, the anxieties that occur are so strong that the head is completely empty. The heart begins to run, the mouth becomes dry, the throat is constricted, and the stomach has a sullen feeling. All this is an expression of stress and leads to nervousness.

Ask the participants, if they had to give a lecture (alone) and how they felt. Have they been nervous, too? How did that happen? How did they try to get the nervousness under control?

There are various ways to get a little bit of nervousness under control:

- ✓ be well prepared
- ✓ Practice before the mirror, friends or parents beforehand
- √ drink something
- ✓ take a deep breath
- ✓ turn oneself more often in these situations
- ✓ Hold the hands together at the fingertips and press firmly
- ✓ look at someone who has been known for some time during the lecture
- **√** ...

Ask the participants which measures they consider and find appropriate to reduce nervousness. Keep the answers on a flipchart so that the participants can record the answers.

Exercise free speech

Free speech and narration should be practiced. We will begin with tandem-talks followed by lectures. Through the "warm-up" phase in the tandem groups, fears can be relieved. Share a "Listening and Evaluating" worksheet for each participant beforehand.

Procedure:

- 1. Pictures (also objects or photos) will be distributed on the floor. Each participant should walk around and choose a picture.
- 2. The participants should look for a tandem partner. Each participant presents the picture to the tandem partner and describes what he/she is linking with this picture. The short talks about the pictures can take up to 5 minutes.
- 3. The participants will asked to present their picture in front of the whole group. Duration 3 minutes.
- 4. Each participant in the plenary has the task to take notes about the lecture: How was the body language? How was the emphasis? Was the lecture exciting if not, why not? How understandable was the lecture? There is no direct feedback here (except for the moderator).





Finally, reflect the exercise together with all participants. How did the individual participants (flash light method). Then ask what notes are on the sheets (anonymously) and what they have learned for future lectures.

* Assertiveness

- ✓ Self-perception and perception of others
- ✓ Reasoning strategies
- ✓ Courage for feedback and dealing with criticism

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants learn how discrepancies arise between self-perception and perception of others.
- ✓ The participants learn to argue.
- ✓ Participants learn the rules of argumentation.
- ✓ Participants know how to give and receive feedback.
- ✓ The participants learn about how to deal with bullying and how they can assert themselves in such situations.

Presentation

The moderator asks the participants if it has ever happened that they were judged differently by people than they perceive themselves. Then the moderator asks what the participants thinks, why this discrepancy has occurred between self-perception and perception by others. The reasons collected from the group should be recorded on a flipchart.

Subsequently, the presenter shows the Johari window (after Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham). Using this model, it is possible to understand the discrepancies between self-perception and perception by others. There are areas of behaviour of a person in which he/she produces unintended messages about themselves, while most of their own perception is switched off. It is only possible to perceive a very small part of other's behaviour consciously in comparison to all the important elements of the behaviour that have an influence in a presentation.

	Know to self	Not know to self
Know to oth- ers		
	Arena	Blind spot
Not know to oth- ers		
	Facade	Unknown

After the moderator explained the core idea of self-perception and perception by others, the participants should carry out an exercise. All participants should give a short lecture (5 minutes). Topics could be: hobbies, prejudices, etc. In the lectures, the participants are recorded by a video camera. After the lectures, they have to assess themselves. After the self-assessment, the participants will be shown their presentation records. They have to self-reflect briefly by using the questions:





- ✓ What was my feeling after the lecture?
- ✓ How do I see my lecture now?
- ✓ Is there a difference between my self-perception and the video recording?
- ✓ What do I learn from it for my future appearance?

Reasoning strategies

Pro and Contra Discussion

We discuss in school, among friends, with parents or in working contexts. It can happen that conflicts arise when one feels personally attacked or misunderstood. A clear expressiveness and a factual discussion with convincing arguments can help to close a discussion reasonably.

Manual:

Form two groups among the participants and write down on a flipchart any topic to be discussed. Topics can be e.g. "Birds should be fed in the winter." "A move is conducive to my work career."

Now give the instruction that one group is PRO the statement (= pro group) and another is against it (= contra group). Everyone from the group should say something at least just one statement. Run the discussion 15 minutes and pay attention to the different argumentation strategies. Unless you feel the participants are too stuck, be offensive, etc. intervene immediately. Otherwise, let the discussion come to the end.

Ask the participants about the obstacles and the promoters of a discussion and write the aspects on a flipchart with headlines "Obstacles to a discussion" and "Promoter of a discussion".

As soon as all the points of the participants are gathered, the participants should form sentences that can be a point of reference for a good argumentation strategy: "Good argument means ...". Keep the sentences so that participants can record them.

Rules can be:

- ✓ Good argumentation means allow others to finish their speaking.
- ✓ Good argumentation means referring directly to the statements of others.
- ✓ Good argumentation means focus on facts and avoid conflicts on a personal layer.
- ✓ Good argumentation also means accepting opinions.

Courage for feedback and dealing with criticism

Information and instruction

Feedback always consists of two components: taking feedback and giving feedback. At the end of lectures, e.g. the listeners are asked to give feedback to the speaker. The goal behind this is that the speaker is given the opportunity to learn from specific experiences and thereby improve him- or herself. But how can you tell a person that she can improve without getting hurt? Frequently it is the case that we like to feedback others





but we are afraid to receive feedbacks and critics. To learn how to deal with criticism, rules for giving and taking feedback should be developed.

Manual:

Give the participants the task to set up rules for expressing and dealing with criticism. The participants have 20 minutes.

Rules for giving feedback can be:

- ✓ Do not become personal. It should only the WHAT and the HOW be criticised.
- ✓ We should start every time with the positive aspects, then constructive criticism should be practiced.
- ✓ Feedback should be objective and non-infringing.
- ✓ Feedback should be descriptive, avoid evaluations and interpretations.
- ✓ Bleating, scolding and insulting is inappropriate!
- ✓ Improvement proposals should be specifically identified.

Rules for taking feedback can be:

- ✓ Allow others to finish their speech. You never know what the other one really wants to say until he has finished his feedback.
- ✓ Do not justify or defend yourself. The opinion of the other should be accepted first. Afterwards one can consider whether the proposals should be implemented.
- ✓ Be aware that feedback can help you to figure out how you affect others.

If all participants have written down feedback rules, collect the rules on a flipchart. Please also check whether all participants agree with the results or which points should be changed.

sources:

https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kommunikation

http://www.teachsam.de/deutsch/d_lingu/pragm/pragm_nonvkom0.htm

https://wiki.zum.de/wiki/Rhetorik

https://www.lmz-bw.de/kunst-der-rede.html

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Johari_window

https://wiki.zum.de/wiki/Kompetenzen

Teamwork

★ Objectives (knowledge and skills)

In order to work effectively in the team, it is important to understand how the collaboration in team works. The good collaboration depends on the constellation of a team. It is clear that not everyone has the ability to ignore personal conflicts. In order to achieve a good work result, the participants are primarily to be given the advantages of teamwork in relation to aspects of diversity.

A successful team is built up of different personalities who together pursue a common defined goal. Due to a variety of personalities, a team can achieve a challenge from





different point of view. The participants learn that they can look beyond their own ranks through teamwork.

However, there are certain personalities in a team that can collaborate better than others can. Roles that will complement each other, the importance of each individual team related to individuality are aspects that will be taught in this module.

Teamwork depends on successful communication processes too. In various team exercises, the participants learn and elaborate which communication and behavioural rules constitute and influence a team positively.

★ Creation of teams

- ✓ Compilation of teams
- ✓ When do teams work effectively?

Learning goals:

- ✓ Participants learn that working in teams can be very effective.
- ✓ Participants learn that heterogeneous teams create different perspectives.
- ✓ Participants learn that teamwork is a communication and negotiation process.

Fire Earth Water Air

By assigning them to one of the elements fire, earth, water or air, the participants should learn to consider special qualities in themselves and in team members. The participants should learn that the elements complement each other - just as different personalities complement each other in a team.

Manual:

Each participant writes his name on a card. The moderator now calls the terms "fire, earth, water and air" and asks every participant to spontaneously write an element on the card.

The moderator collects the cards and sorts them according to their elements.

The moderator asks those members who represent the same element to form a group. The members of the group should be aware of why they have decided this particular element and what kind of image they associate with it (for example, bonfire, candlelight, etc.). The group should develop a setup that they play together in a non-verbal manner in which all the established manifestations of the particular element occur.

Evaluation:

- ✓ How did I feel in "my element"?
- ✓ How did I experience the other features of the element?
- ✓ How could I get through with my personality in the group?
- ✓ How did I perceive others and myself in the game?
- ✓ Have other elements been missing? If yes, why?





If only 1 or 2 elements have been represented, you can finally discuss in the plenum: "If our team consists only of earth and fire ...". "In our team air is underrepresented..."

Colour game

There are many ways to form teams. But not all teams work equally effectively. If teamwork is to be perceived as something positive, the atmosphere must be right. Group processes require time, in particular to enable clarification within the team. A group formation can take place according to three criteria:

- ✓ The group is composed according to certain characteristics: Resistance can occur
 due to controlling processes, as long as there are conflicts among the team members.
- ✓ The team members find themselves according to their own preferences: groups with members who are close friends may prevent different viewing angles and are not oriented to the reality of the working life.
- ✓ The group is created on a random basis: Well-accepted version that has the advantage of heterogeneity.

Manual:

Depending on the group size, there are different numbers of different coloured cards. For example, there are 4 cards, each with a red, a blue, a green and a black triangle. These cards represent the group's spokesperson.

Further, there are e.g. 4 cards with red, 4 cards with blue, 4 cards with green and 4 cards with black circles. These cards represent the group members.

The cards should be placed upside down on a pile. Each participant draws a card. Participants with the same colour gather at one particular place in the room.

After the teams have been set up, a first exercise in the team will take place:

Each team member gets a pen from the moderator. It is important that each team member have a different coloured pen. The moderator gives the first participant a piece of paper and asks him to draw a line on it. Then the sheet has to be passed on to the next team member. A next line is to be drawn. Each participant can turn the sheet, as he/she wants it. The goal is to create a picture.

When the sheet has been around a few times, the moderator asks the team to agree on a title for the picture. The group spokesperson presents the picture at the end in the plenum and explains what it should represent.

Reflection

After each completion of a task, the teamwork should be reflected by the members. After the above-mentioned exercise, the teams will discuss their work process by using the following questions:

✓ How was the collaboration between the members while drawing the picture?





- ✓ Is everyone in the team agreeing with the meaning of the picture and the title? Why or why not?
- ✓ Is it more difficult to paint the picture or find a suitable title for it?
- ✓ Is it easier to work alone as part of a team?
- ✓ Why is it so important to be able to work in a team?

The teams get cards and pens. On a bulletin board, the moderator has already prepared a metaplan sheet with the headlines "difficulties of teamwork" and "advantages of teamwork". The teams discuss the questions and keep their answers in short key words on the cards. After about 30 minutes of discussion, the teams are stepping forward. Each team member attaches their cards to the wall, either under "advantages" or under "difficulties". Each participant should briefly explain his or her statement.

* Advantages of teamwork

✓ Managing complex tasks / problems

Learning goals:

✓ The participants learn that problems and complex tasks can be better solved in a team.

Change of direction

Teams are required to handle complex tasks and provide efficient work results despite any challenges. The aim of this exercise is to create a team spirit while heading a challenging task.

Manual:

For this exercise, an object is needed that is long and narrow. For example, several tables can be pushed together. The moderator asks the participants to climb into the tables in any order. When all have taken their position, the team must change the direction of "march". That means, the far left participant must move to the far right, and his/her neighbour must follow him. It is not allowed to touch the floor. If someone falls off, the exercise should start again.

Points for discussion in plenary:

- ✓ Should everyone in the group help others to cope with the task?
- ✓ Has anyone not agreed?
- ✓ How did you feel because the tight body contact was unavoidable in this exercise?
- ✓ Was it about trust? Why or why not?

Snowball method

In several work steps, the group size is doubled while two teams joining.

Manual:





- 1. At first, the participants are asked to think and note about a topic / problem ("How can I concentrate better?").
- 2. The group should formed pairs, for comparing their considerations and have to find at least three ideas, where the partners agree.
- 3. From two pairs, build groups of four and instruct them to have the same work order. If more than five groups have been formed, a further step is useful:
- 4. To the final possible group size, give a flip-chart sheet on which the results must be recorded. The results have to be presented in plenary.

The following questions are useful as a discussion in plenary:

- ✓ Are the solutions good?
- ✓ How was the agreement process based to find three solutions?
- ✓ Is the individual process to find a solution better than the team process? Why, why not?
- ✓ Are there cultural differences in problem solving?

* Behaviour in the team

- ✓ Rules for behaviour in teams
- ✓ Rules for communication processes in teams

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants know how they should behave in teams so that teamwork works.
- ✓ The participants learn about different roles within teams that complement each other.

Presentation

Divide the group into teams of 4. Each team gets a flipchart sheet and pens. The job is: "Please think about the communication and behavioural rules that is needed for good teamwork." The participants have 30 minutes to agree on a maximum of 10 rules.

Subsequently, each team will present their established rules in the plenum. After all the results have been presented, the group will discuss with each other and agree on the 10 best proposals. The moderator must write these suggestions on a flipchart. After the 10 rules have been mentioned, the flipchart is marked with the heading "We behave in the team".

Conversation and behaviour can be:

- ✓ Do not make private conversations while a discussion is running.
- ✓ Try to participate in the conversation.
- ✓ Let others always finish their speech.
- ✓ Stay objective do not scream.
- ✓ Try to be open to other perspectives.
- ✓ Everyone works with.
- ✓ Each group member is responsible for the group result.





- ✓ Anyone can freely express their opinions.
- ✓ Accept opinions of the others.

Roles in teams

Train teams with 4 participants. Distribute 4 cards in each team with roles from team members:

- 1. The Logger: Writes results of the group work.
- 2. The Timekeeper: Make sure that the agreed time will be respected. Reminds the other team members if there is a risk that "time runs out".
- 3. The discussion leader: Is chairman of the group, opens the topic and conducts the conversation.
- 4. The presenter: Provides the results of the group work in the plenum.

The team members draw one of the cards and thus know what role they play in the team. Write on the cards key words to define each roll.

Now every team gets a topic that should be discussed. Everyone should remain in his role.

After about 20 minutes of group work, all groups should meet each other in the plenum. With the flashlight method, it should be finally reflected how the team members played their role and how they perceived the other roles.

Learn to show positive regard

The work in the team not always smoothly. Conflicts and misunderstandings can arise which impede the team and hinder the work process. The participants have already learned what roles are there in teams and how the team members should behave in order to assure productive work. In the final step of a collaboration tasks it is important to evaluate the teamwork and to show positive regard.

Manual:

The moderator divides the group into smaller teams of 2-4 participants. The teams should be separated so that they cannot hear each other. Each team gets a few sheets as well as pens. Each team must be assigned to another team and should be asked for writing down the names of the members in the other team.

The team should be asked to invent a story in which all members of the other team are present. In this story, the team members should be presented with their positive qualities.

When all the stories are ready, the assignment of the groups must be announced and the stories will be read.

Points for discussion:

- ✓ Have you been surprised by what attributes have been assigned to you?
- ✓ Do you have other characteristics that would fit into a member of the group?





✓ How can these positive character traits be used to improve the team or self?

sources:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Team_building https://www.lehrer-online.de/unterrichtseinheit/ue/inklusiver-unterricht-einfuehrung-in-die-teamar-beit/

Mobility

★ Objectives

After attending the module participants know how important mobility can be and how they can benefit from better opportunities on the labour market. Increased mobility means a greater opportunity for integration and employability.

If the participants are aware of the benefits of increased mobility, they should learn how to improve their mobility. At the end of this training session, the participants can read the city and timetables and deal with the route planner.

Professional mobility is also to be addressed. By highlighting a number of occupations within a professional field, the participants should also recognize that professional flexibility does not be opposed to their personal interests.

Important authorities, which are to be contacted before or after a move, are mentioned in order to avoid possible fears of moving. The re-enrolment in the new city is also a topic, so that the participants are prepared for a regional change at the end of the module.

★ Importance of mobility

- ✓ Impact the individual view on the labour market
- ✓ Barriers to mobility
- ✓ Benefits of increased mobility

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants recognize that mobility can increase the chances of integration.
- ✓ The aim is to activate the mobility willingness and to create the basis for a successful mobility.

Presentation

The moderator introduces the topic of mobility by clarifying the link between mobility and integration opportunities.

A pro and contra discussion is a good way to get into the topic.

The moderator writes the heading "regional mobility pro and contra" on a whiteboard. At the same time, the moderator can simultaneously draw a picture of possible obstacles for mobility, which he can refer later on.

After the discussion, the participants perform a mobility test.





According to the self-assessment on the subject of mobility, the moderator gets feed-back on topics of particular interest to the participants.

Client's question: How do I orient myself?

The goal of this building block is to further activate the mobility readiness, which was previously examined and discussed with a mobility test.

Procedure:

At the beginning, the participants should discuss their professional ideas. This creates a link between mobility and occupations. Topics can be:

- ✓ Presentation of trend professions / unloved professions
- ✓ Prospects of the professions in the region
- ✓ What are the experiences with applications?
- ✓ What are the basic positions in the group on VETs in other regions?

Subsequently, the participants should work together on a table that is projected onto the wall. The table should be filled with aspects about changes that can arise from a trans-regional VET. Particular attention shall be paid to the dimension of the change referring regional and trans-regional VET and employment. Various characteristics such as social and cultural aspects should also be addressed.

★ Dealing with city and timetables

- ✓ Using of city maps
- ✓ Using of timetables

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants can read city and timetables.
- ✓ The participants can search for travel connections.

Each participant applying for an apprenticeship or workplace will be invited to an interview. But the company / business is not always located in the immediate vicinity of the place of residence. Therefore, it may happen that the route has to be covered by the public transport or the car. City and timetables should be readable in order to arrive at the right destination.

The moderator distributes printed timetables and explains in an example how to read them:

- ✓ Find a connection from ... (location) to ... (destination).
- ✓ You are driving on ... (date)
- ✓ At the latest by ... you should be in ... (destination).

The moderator and the participants look at the timetables. After the moderator explains the examples and answers questions, he distributes a task sheet with the task:





"Imagine if you had received an invitation to an interview in another city. You would like to go there by public transport. With the help of the timetable you have the possibility to get information about your travel times and connections." As soon as the connection is found, it should be entered on the worksheet.

After the exercise a reflection round should take place. What did you find easy? Where can I get more support?

To increase the difficulty of the task, the moderator now distributes city maps (previously printed). An exercise takes place as described above. This time the participants have to find the way from the bus stop to the specific address.

★ Handling of internet media

- ✓ Dealing with Google Maps
- ✓ Dealing with the route planner
- ✓ Online timetable information

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants can determine tour routines using Internet route planners.
- ✓ The participants know how to deal with electronic timetables on the Internet.
- ✓ The participants can put the lessons learned into practice.

Information

Show the participants Google Maps (or a route planner of your choice) and go specifically to the route planner. Ask the participants for a start and a place to go. Starting from the wishes of the participants, you show how the desired route is calculated. Try to involve the participants when you communicate the contents of the route planner.

Show the possibilities to calculate taking a car or public transport. The next step should be the use of an online timetable / app, filling all the specific data that is needed to get an entire information.

Training

First of all, pending questions must be clarified. If you have the impression that the participants are still a little insecure in dealing with the presented media, you should form two groups. Otherwise, the exercises should be done individually.

The participants know how to handle the route planner and the online media for timetable information. The moderator gives various tasks on these topics:

- ✓ Imagine if you drive from ... (start) to ... (destination). Please find the fastest route on the internet using Google Maps (or a route planner of your choice). Whoever has found the route, please give a hand signal. Then I come and look at the result.
- ✓ Check the timetable information provided by national rail. On ... (date) you want to go from (time) to (destination). What time do you arrive?





- ✓ You are not sure if you have enough time to get from the station to your destination. Therefore, consider getting an earlier connection. When would you leave?
- ✓ You have received an invitation to a job interview in(city). The interview takes
 place in a particular district. Find a connection via the website of the public
 transport company. The interview is on ... (date) in the ... (street) and takes place
 around ... (time). Note: Here, each participant can choose the departure location.
 If each participant leaves his own living area, the search becomes more realistic.

Excursion

After the participants have learned in the various training units how to deal with the use of city maps, (online) timetables and route planners, the knowledge should be practically tested. In this implementation phase, participants have to find the right way with the help of factory tours or district visits. The participants should think about a schedule for this training unit and the place they would like to go to. The schedule will be handed to the responsible trainer / coach. The participants take the lead for the routes they propose. In other words, they must know the route and have to research it before. This leads the participants to practical self-determination, to try out abilities for problem solving and to test the team's ability.

If the route takes too much time, the schedule will be cut down in the way that some of the individual sub-targets will be removed.

★ And when I move?

- ✓ All important authorities
- ✓ Do not forget to enrol!

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants learn what they must observe during a move and which authorities are relevant.
- ✓ The participants learn that they can apply for relocation costs.
- ✓ The participants are informed that work is also possible abroad and where further information is available.

Presentation and self-assessment

The moderator asks the participants who has already moved. If there are already participants, who have already moved, the moderator asks what everything had to be thought of. All mentioned responses should be recorded on a flipchart.

The moderator asks which aspects are particularly obstacles for a move. We should also discuss particularly encouraging factors. The moderator should address the factors in the ongoing process. The factors can also be recorded on a flipchart.

It is also important to inform about certain authorities. The moderator can ask the participants if they know authorities who are important for a move. On a flipchart, the an-





swers should be recorded and discussed. Figure out important offices such like employment agency, Town Offices, registration office. Please refer to the deadlines times in the explanation of the individual authorities.

source: https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mobilitätskompetenz https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verkehrspädagogik

PERSONAL SKILLS

Stress management

★ Objectives

An introduction to the training module includes a clarification of stress understanding. Many people understand stress as an evil that affects them externally, to which they are passively exposed. According to the training module, the participants know that stress situations are solvable problems and that everyone can actively contribute to the stress situation as well as to the coping process.

In order to be able to cope with stress effectively the causes must be identified first. By creating a "stress card", the participants learn how to name their individual stressors and can differentiate stressful situations from less stressful situations.

Warning signals from one's own body are often ignored. The training module examines the different areas of the body, which are subject to stress reactions. This shows the participants how their body reacts to stress. In addition, you can recognise signals from the body that are refer to stress.

In order to cope with long-term stress causes, the participants create an individual action plan. The participants can make use of this plan for future situations. This way the participants can not only overcome stress, but also prevent stressful situations.

The training will provide short-term options for coping next to long-term coping possibilities. The participants learn, methods such as breathing technique, thought-stop or the positive self-talk. With these methods, participants can overcome stressful situations in the short term.

★ What is stress

- ✓ What is stress?
- ✓ Differentiate between positive and negative stress

Learning goals:

- ✓ Participants develop a definition of "stress".
- ✓ The participants recognize that stress is perceived differently.





Presentation

While the primitive human beings were well prepared for fight or flight reactions due to the suddenly available energy when stressed, the modern person is seldom confronted with life-threatening situations. The recovery phase began immediately after the stress situation. Nowadays one is only in certain situations able to start a directly recovery phase because of general stimulus overload or professional stress. This can lead to a variety of stress reactions.

It is important to emphasize that stress is not equal to stress. There is a difference between the positive stress that inspires us and the negative stress that overwhelms us.

Stress reactions do not only occur in negative situations. Positive triggers such as sports, a surprise party or an unexpected reunion with old friends bring the body in full blast. Typical stress reactions take place and the positive not the negative effects predominate. Therefore not every form of stress is perceived as negative. In order to tackle specific tasks, stress is needed in a certain dosage.

Method

The moderator asks about positive and negative stress situations that the participants have experienced. The answers should be recorded on a flipchart sheet and classified into positive and negative stress.

The brainstorming does not end with a summary, but an evaluation of the ideas. This is to make it clear that stress is not only negatively affected.

★ Stress causes

- ✓ Identify causes of stress
- ✓ Create a stress card

Learning goals:

✓ The participants know individual causes of stress and can assign different meanings to them.

Often the participants do not know why they are struggling. The colleagues, the workload, the constant deadline pressure or the balancing act between career and private life. Usually it is not a single aspect that causes stress reactions. Many different things come together and make you be stressed.

Method

For this reason it is important that the participants get an overview of the personal stressors. By creating a personal stress card, the participants can order their stress levels and assign different meanings to the various stressors.

At the beginning, the moderator should visualize some key questions on a flipchart, which will make it easier for participants to find out their personal stressors. The central questions could include the following aspects:





- ✓ Which situations trigger physical reactions such as stomach pain, sweating, restlessness or nervousness?
- ✓ What causes negative feelings like anger, fear and helplessness?
- ✓ When do negative thoughts go through your mind like "Oh no, not that", "I can't do that", "push off and away!!"
- ✓ What kind of tasks cause lack of concentration?
- ✓ In which situations do you increasingly use cigarettes, alcohol, coffee or sweets?

Manual

The participants receive a large piece of paper and write the word "STRESS" in the middle of the sheet. They call it the stress centre, which means the most stressful feeling they have. From there to the edges, the stress decreases.

On this sheet, the participants now have to write everything that triggers stressful feelings and reactions (persons, situations and activities).

The most stressful things come in the middle, the less stressful to the edge. This provides them a good overview of who or what causes particularly stress. It is important that they list everything they can think of on the sheet. Particularly strong stressors can be highlighted in colour.

★ Stress reactions

- ✓ Cognitively
- ✓ Emotionally
- ✓ Vegetative
- ✓ Muscularly

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants recognize the warning signals of their body and can react to stress at an early stage.
- ✓ The participants will be aware of the particular stress factors that are particularly burdensome.

Method

Participants must be asked to specify their individual stress reactions on a prepared worksheet. The guiding principle of the task is that one only gets ready with stress or overload, if one has a certain knowledge about how stress and / or overburden is presented. Typical stress reactions can serve as a kind of early warning system. Participants should be familiar with their stress reactions and keep them in writing in order to be able to use them as warning signals for timely switching in stressful situations.

This gives you an overview of the level of particular stressors and they can deduce where they are going to relieve their stress.





★ Long-term stress management

✓ Create an action plan

Learning goal:

✓ The participants focus on major stress causes and develop an individual plan of action to cope with stress in the long term.

Participants can overcome stress only through their own actions. Through the previous work steps, the participants have recognised their individual stressors and stress reactions.

For an effective and long-term stress management they should concentrate on a few stressors.

Method

The next step for the participants is to create an action plan. This plan should include specific action steps, which clarify what the participants want to do against the stressors in the next 4 weeks.

The plan should not be too demanding. It must not overstretch the participants in time and not be too complicated. It should be feasible and simple. The participants should be made aware that there are also stressors, where they can only change a little. That is why they should focus their energies on what they can change.

Manual

The participants should note on one sheet the stress causes which they want to process in the next 4 weeks. They should be limited to a maximum of two stress causes, which they feel as a heavy burden and a maximum of 4, which they think will not be difficult for them to cope with.

The participants should write down the measures, which they want to implement, to the right of each of the listed stress causes. In the third column the dates are to be defined when they will implement each individual measure within the next 4 weeks.

★ Short-term stress management

- ✓ Breathing technique
- √ Thoughts stop!
- ✓ Positive self-talk

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants know a way to relax quickly and quickly, to perceive consciously their breath and to use it in a targeted way.
- ✓ The participants learn to interrupt their negative stressful thoughts.
- ✓ Participants can recognize and change stress-generating and stress-enhancing thoughts.





Methods for short-term stress management are useful when:

- ✓ The situation cannot be changed, if the cause of the stress cannot be eliminated.
- ✓ You are in an acute stress situation and want to continue to think clearly
- ✓ To avoid escalations

Breathing technique

When learning relaxation techniques, an undisturbed atmosphere should be taken into a darkened and well-tempered room.

The clothing should be comfortable and the body position should be relaxed. After each relaxation phase, activation of the organism should take place by means of loosening and stretching. A participant should not be compelled to carry out the exercise.

Execution

The participants should be informed the day before to bring along blankets.

Talk to the participants about the benefits of the exercises: It is a good method to reduce stress before you step in front of a group or before a difficult situation to cope with. Deep breathing relaxes and supplies the body with oxygen.

Three-stage breathing

Repeat every exercise 5-10 times.

1st stage: collarbone inhalation

Breathe in - the hands lie on the upper part of the thoracic cavity, slowly inhale, so that the chest increases slightly.

Breathe out

While breathing out, make sure that all the air flows out to allow room for new oxygenrich air. The hands remain passive, lie loosely on the chest and feel the lifting and lowering of the chest.

2nd stage: breast breathing

breathe in

Place both hands on the ribs so that the fingertips almost touch each other. When inhaling, feel the ribs widen to the outside and the hands apart.

Breathe out

When exhaling, the fingertips approach again.

3rd stage: abdominal breathing

Breathe in





Place the hands at the level of the navel on the abdomen. First exhale. When breathing in, the abdomen lifts. This lowers the diaphragm and the lower lung areas fill with air. The hands are thereby pushed upwards.

Breathe out

When exhaled, the diaphragm returns to its dome-shaped position. The abdomen becomes flat and the hands return to their starting position.

Thought Stop!

Stress causes need to be explored so that you can get rid of them. But until that is possible, the stressful thoughts do not have to be delivered continuously. With the stop technique, stressful thoughts can be interrupted most effectively.

Manual

The participants will be guided to imagine something, which stands for immediate interruption of their stressful thoughts. This could be a red stop sign as they know it from road traffic. Another option is they imagine how they turn a water tap and thus immediately stop the running of the water. Each participants should decide for an individual stop image.

The participants should say "stop!" in their own thoughts. If the situation permits, they can also say or call "stop".

They should be supposed to make a positive thought, for example a favourite song or a view during their walks.

If the stress thought recurs, the exercise should be repeated.

Positive self-talk

Positive thinking is necessary because negative thinking often generates stress. An important technique in stress management is to re-program negative thinking into positive thinking.

In self-talks often premature conclusions are drawn, situations are assessed one-sidedly and wrong results are made. The aim of a positive self-talk is to recognize precisely these negative stress-generating thoughts and transform them into positive ones.

Positive thinking:

If the given situations, facts and possibilities are judged appropriately and there exist the willingness change the present actively in order to improve in the future. Positive thoughts are closely linked to self-confidence, self-acceptance, well-being, performance and zest for life.

sources: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stress_management https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coping (psychology)

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mindfulness-based_stress_reduction





METHODICAL SKILLS

Learn to learn

★ Objectives

Participants will be able to learn and work more effectively. They will be taught to use various methods, which are subsequently tested in practice.

In order to better structure, learn and present, it is important to use the time wisely. Participants learn techniques of time management so that they can perform tasks on time and without time pressure. This also helps to create a stress-free learning atmosphere. If stress situations occur, the participants learn how to deal with stress and that stress even can be conducive.

After completion of the module, the participants can acquire independently relevant information, which they need for learning or work and sort them according to importance. This improves their organizability.

Participants will also be taught techniques of visualization and presentation. They can independently prepare relevant information for a lecture and learn how to deal with constructive feedback.

★ Time management

- ✓ How do I use my time wisely?
- ✓ Create a schedule and prioritize tasks
- ✓ Realistic objectives and follow-up of non-achievements

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants learn how to deal with the times and how they can deal with them.
- ✓ The participants prepare schedule and action plans to plan their time better.
- ✓ Participants learn that realistic goals contribute to the goal.

Presentation, self-assessment and discussion

Successful time management depends on the right attitude and enables you to determine your own time and work and not to be determined by it.

Manual:

Distribute a test for the self-assessment. Each participant has 20 minutes to read the test and tick the appropriate answers. Participants should be asked to check how they handle time.

After all participants have performed the test, small groups should be formed with 2-4 persons. In the small groups the results should be compared. Together, it should be considered how can be dealt with the "time thief's". The main questions could be: which





aspects have the greatest influence on themselves? Which aspects are the easiest to change? Why should some aspects be changed?

Finally, each group should design a poster with the 5 most important tips on handling time.

Presentation: Mind map and action plan

Successful time management helps to gain more overview of upcoming tasks and thus to gain more freedom and leisure time. By deliberate handling of time, e.g. stress can be overcome, reduced or even avoided.

Manual:

Each participant creates a Mind Map with time requirements for his / her current life situation. The Mind-Map should include the most important "time thiefs" which should be highlighted with a text marker.

Subsequently, the participants should be asked to consider where the focus of their activities lies and what they would like to change. The participants should consider the following questions: Who will tell me about the plans? Whom will I ask for support?

At the end, the participants should note their motivation to change: What will I do or do not do anymore to realise a better use of my time? Each participant should create an action plan for himself, which serves as an orientation for a better handling of time.

Information

Has it ever happened to you that you have set yourself a goal and then have not achieved it? A realistic goal is very important - also for structuring work tasks. It is a good idea to have completed a certain task at a certain time. However, if the time pressure is not too large, the task completion will be postponed. With the help of the SMART principle, targets can be determined and a target is more likely to be achieved.

Ask the participants if they have already achieved goals. What is the reason for this? Discuss in the plenum the reasons why goals are not achieved.

- ✓ Specific: A clear, positive and specific target definition is important. Objectives must be defined as precisely as possible.
- ✓ Measurable: There must be clearly defined conditions that determine when a target is reached. This measurability of the objectives is important in order to recognize sub-goals. A continuous review of the target achievement allows that further steps can be taken.
- ✓ Appropriate: The objectives must be appropriate referring the effort. This means that goals must be motivating and achievable through own actions.
- ✓ Realistic: objectives must be achievable with the available competences, resources and the time. If goals are not realistic, it can quickly lead to an overload and frustration.
- ✓ Time-scheduled: A goal is a clear deadline. This scheduling is important in order to be able to check the target.





If you realize that a goal is too big, sub-goals should be formulated. It is more realistic to achieve small goals in a certain time, than a great goal in a short time. The same applies to a successful completion of the task. Inform the participants that a large task can be divided into small sub-steps. With this procedure, it is very probable that deadlines can be reached on time. It is the better way to spend a little time every day for a big task than finishing the task on the last day.

★ Information processing

- ✓ Structuring and structuring
- √ Visualization

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants learn to structure read texts and to summarize important contents.
- ✓ Participants learn the importance of visualization.
- ✓ The participants can visualize issues independently.

Information

Sometimes it is necessary to present work results in writing: professional work, presentations, work group results, preparation of a work project, etc.

Not only on the content is important, but also on the external form. The external shape provides a good impression and facilitates the information acquisition of the reader and / or listener. It is important that the structure is clearly structured and comprehensible to the viewer.

After information has been obtained and texts have been edited, similar content is brought together. By combining similar content, a first rough structure will be created for further processing. Then the different contents should be set into a relationship to each other. The principle is: From the general theme to the specific. If the order of the topics is fixed, all topics should be transferred in an outline structure.

Show the participants a pattern for the structure of an outline and ask whether there are any questions or comments for making an outline.

Poster exhibition

Visualization is the addition and extension of the spoken word by optical signs. There are different ways to visualize. Prepare a poster before a lecture, or develop it together with the participants during a lecture and thus actively involve them. Through visual techniques, the speech effort can be shortened and repetitions avoided. Information is made visible and the attention of the group is centred.

Manual:

The participants should be together in pairs. Each pair gets pens and a poster to design. In the middle of the room is a table with other materials (e.g., old magazines, glue pens, scissors, etc.). The teams have 10 minutes time to agree on a topic that they want to





visualize on the poster. Once a group has found a topic be the moderator. If it does not seem appropriate for further editing, provide help for a new topic.

After all groups have found a topic, they are supposed to present this on the poster. For this purpose, they may create e.g. collages (with the materials from the table) with symbols and fonts within 1 hour. Finally, all the posters should pinned up in the room. One of the pair always stays next to the poster the member can have a look at the other posters. The person who is next to the poster will tell interested participants what the topic was. After a certain time, the roles will be changed.

★ Prepare and give presentations

- ✓ Phases of a presentation
- ✓ exercise

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants know how a presentation is structured.
- ✓ The participants can independently prepare, carry out and prepare a presentation.

Information

The process behind a presentation consists of the phases preparation, sequence and evaluation:

1. Preparation of a presentation

It is important to answer the following questions:

- ✓ How do I want to present?
- ✓ Who are the listeners?
- ✓ How can I include the audience?
- ✓ How much time is available for the presentation?

Once the initial preparations are finished, the method for giving the presentation must be selected. The content of an illustrative presentation should be given in a comprehensible, interesting and vivid way. Visualization techniques must be used to explain the content.

A tip: In order not to read the whole presentation, type key words on small cards. This ensures that the voice does not become monotonous (which can happen very quickly while reading).

2. The flow of a presentation

In the introduction, the audience will be welcomed and the topic and the timetable must be presented. The entry may be e.g. a provocative statement or a quote to activate the listeners.

In the main section, all content must be systematically presented. It is important to keep eye contact with the listeners and to speak clearly and intelligibly. Even a hectic run is





not conducive to listeners' attention. Furthermore, sufficient time must be left for questions and feedback. The speaker should also take feedback of the audience into account He/she needs the feedback in order to check whether the schedule is in line with the listeners' expectations or needs to be changed.

The conclusion at the end offers the opportunity to obtain opinions and feedbacks as well as reviews from the audience.

3. The evaluation of the presentation

The evaluation of a presentation offers the opportunity to present strengths and weaknesses and to improve one's own presentation behaviour. Questions to find out this can be:

- ✓ Have the objectives of the presentation been achieved?
- ✓ Were the listeners pleased with the presentation?
- ✓ Was the content of the topic correct?
- ✓ Was the use of media and tools appropriate?
- ✓ How did the presenter feel?
- ✓ How did the presenter deal with time?
- ✓ What was the discussion at the end of the presentation?
- ✓ What are the implications of this presentation for the future?

Presentation

The participants should give a short presentation in front of the group (duration 5-10 minutes). They should use the previously learned tips for the preparation, execution and follow-up of a presentation. In order to prepare the presentation the participants get 1.5 hours' time. They should choose a theme from which they think the other participants are interested. The participants have to consider how the outline looks, how the listeners can be involved and what content should be visualized. The presentation will carried out by using metaplan, flipcharts, cards, pens, pins, etc.

At the end of the presentation, the audience should give feedback to the speaker. Was the structure plausible? Were the contents conveyed in a comprehensible manner? How was the visualization? How were the speech rate and speech volume? How were gestures, facial expressions and body language? What can be improved at the next lecture?

★ Dealing with problems

- ✓ What is a problem
- ✓ How can I deal with problems?
- ✓ How can I solve problems?

Learning goals:

- ✓ The participants can name, analyse and visualize complex problems.
- ✓ The participants will learn methods for developing solution strategies. Development of solution strategies.
- ✓ The participants learn to evaluate different approaches.





Headstand technique

This technique is a reversal method that "turns up" a problem question: How do we achieve action-oriented instruction? Reversal Method: What do we have to do to prevent action-oriented teaching?

An inverse problem question must be asked. Participants should then start the search for ideas for the reversal question. The core of the method is that indented views or thought blocks can be resolved.

The idea-winning process is subdivided into the following phases:

- ✓ Joint formulation of a problem
- ✓ Spontaneous solutions
- ✓ Invert the problem (brainstorming)
- Exploration of ideas: For every idea mentioned, a counter-suggestion is sought, which should lead to the solution finding
- ✓ Solution finding: mentioned ideas should be ordered, evaluated and subsequently formulated to describe overall solutions.

Scenario Technique

In a scenario, a general problem that appears in a specific case must be described and processed with the help of certain questions. This kind of questioning releases creativity, imagination and activity and promotes coherent thinking. It is about describing what could happen and not about what we want.

Manual:

- ✓ Divide the group into small groups (about 5 people per group)
- ✓ Distribute the scenario
- ✓ Distribute the questions
- ✓ Group work in which the questions should be answered. If possible, all members of the group should express themselves. This is the only way to make an intensive examination of the topic as well as formulate their own views. The method requires at the same time a justification of one's own opinion as well as the arguments for the others.
- ✓ Evaluation in the plenum: The results will be presented in the plenum. It is helpful when the group records its most important points on a flipchart. If the group did not agree about an opinion about the questions, the different opinions should be also expressed in the plenum.

Example scenario

After the completion of the secondary education, a young woman decides to achieve a VET as a make-up artist because she feels a special passion and talented. All friends and acquaintances, as well as the professional advice of the Employment Agency, advise against this project, because there are poor job prospects. She should rather learn a future-oriented profession, especially as her grades allow her to change to a higher school. Their parents want to stop them from plan VET as a make-up artist and refuse





to give her financial support. The young woman is faced with the decision: professional safety or realisation of personal preferences, possibly connected with sacrifices.

Ask:

- 1. How would you decide in such a case, what would you advise the young woman?
- 2. Who would you ask to give advise?
- 3. Can you imagine a situation in which the young woman would not have entered the difficulties described above? How would the situation look like?

sources: https://wiki.zum.de/wiki/Lernen_lernen

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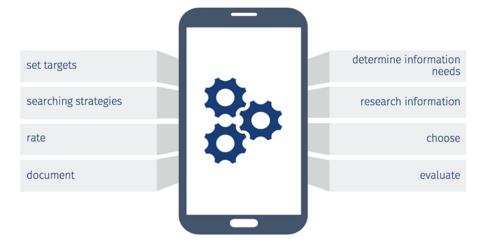
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How to collect and research information

USING THE INTERNET

to collect content for sustainable

KNOWLEGDE



METHODS TO TEACH / LEARN PRACTICAL SKILLS

Project based learning

Project Based Learning is a teaching method in which students gain knowledge and skills by working for an extended period of time to investigate and respond to an authentic, engaging and complex question, problem, or challenge. Essential Project Design Elements are:





- ✓ KEY KNOWLEDGE, UNDERSTANDING, AND SUCCESS SKILLS The project is focused on student learning goals, including standards-based content and skills such as critical thinking/problem solving, communication, collaboration, and self-management.
- ✓ **CHALLENGING PROBLEM OR QUESTION** The project is framed by a meaningful problem to solve or a question to answer, at the appropriate level of challenge.
- ✓ **SUSTAINED INQUIRY** Students engage in a rigorous, extended process of asking questions, finding resources, and applying information.
- ✓ AUTHENTICITY The project features real-world context, tasks and tools, quality standards, or impact - or speaks to students' personal concerns, interests, and issues in their lives.
- ✓ STUDENT VOICE & CHOICE Students make some decisions about the project, including how they work and what they create.
- ✓ REFLECTION Students and teachers reflect on learning, the effectiveness of their inquiry and project activities, the quality of student work, obstacles and how to overcome them.
- ✓ CRITIQUE & REVISION Students give, receive, and use feedback to improve their process and products.
- ✓ **PUBLIC PRODUCT** Students make their project work public by explaining, displaying and/or presenting it to people beyond the classroom.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Project-based_learning

SQ3R

This method helps to memorize content of difficult texts. Explain the method (with the help of a prepared metaplan) to the participants and practice this method with them (with a text of your choice). To edit a text, we recommend the following five steps:

- 1. Survey (gain an overview): familiarize yourself with the essential information of the text (table of contents, headings, authors, summaries, etc.). This helps to quickly gain an overview of the content.
- 2. Question (questions): The text is interrogated by means of central questions, e.g. what information do I need? Are I already familiar with the subject of the text? What additional information do I get in this text? How is the text different from my previous knowledge?
- 3. Read: The text must be read in a concentrated manner. Important passages should be marked / underlined or provided with edge notices.
- 4. Recite: The text will be repeated by chapter or by paragraph, verbally or in writing.
- 5. Review (Repeat): By a final repetition, the sub-results should be combined into an overall result.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SQ3R





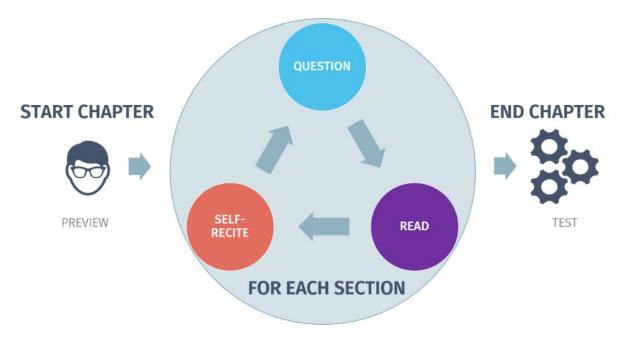
PQRST

★ So what can it do?

The method has been shown to improve a readers understanding, and his/her ability to recall information. In other words, the reader is more likely to learn, and to learn more, of the material he/she is reading. If you use this method, reading won't be a waste of your time.

★ How does it work?

In this method you follow five steps - Preview, Question, Read, Self-recite and Test (PQRST). The middle three steps apply to every section within a chapter whilst the first and last steps apply to the chapter itself. You may find that many textbooks are compiled in a way which makes this method easy to apply, using an introductory passage, and questions at the end.



★ What must I do?

- PREVIEW. First of all, preview the entire chapter skim through it all so you know what you're going to be covering. One way to do this is read the chapter introduction, look at the headings, read the section introductions and check out the figures. Then read the summary at the end of the chapter (it usually tells you what you have learnt in that chapter).
- 2. QUESTION. As you read through each section, start by asking yourself "what am I supposed to learn in this section". This helps to get your brain in to sync with the topic being discussed.
- 3. **READ**. At last, you can actually read that section. Do it carefully, think about the meaning and relate this to other things you know about this and similar topics. Do some underlining or highlighting of key words. Don't overdo it! If you want to take notes, read the whole section first, and then summarise it later.





- 4. **SELF-RECITATION**. Once you have finished reading, think back about what were the main ideas you learnt. Try and recite some of this information aloud (unless you are on the MRT or in the library). Check back against the text, and note the things you missed out. Ensure that you didn't miss them out because you haven't learnt them. Only then go on to the next section and Question again.
- 5. TEST. So now you have finished the chapter (or a major section if the chapter contains large dissimilar sections). Test yourself and review all the material. If you made notes, read through these. Think about the relevance of what you learnt and how it all fits together. Reread any chapter summaries. Even though you have only just read the chapter, now is the best time to test yourself.

source: https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lesestrategie https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Study_skills#Reading_and_listening

Future workshop

The concept of Future Workshops goes back to the ideas of Robert Jungk on how to involve people directly affected by political decisions into the decision-making process and was first published in Future Workshops: How to Create Desirable Futures, by Robert Jungk and Norbert Mullert (Institute for Social Inventions, UK, 1987). While the authors see an application of this method in all fields of society, they themselves concentrate in their work mostly on communities and political action groups.

★ What is it?

A future-workshop is a method for planning and forming future: it helps to find causals, to create a vision and to define aims. This demands two 3 hour sessions. The results are reported in between the sessions and the final outcome is discussed in reflection session among all project partners.

★ How is it used?

Workshops can be used as participatory self-reflective methods of both gathering data and supporting the organisation in the change process.

Future workshop method consists of three phases:

★ Critique phase:

Designed to draw out specific issues and problems in question/producing a critical understanding of the problem

Steps:

- ✓ Collection of critique points (by written cards/brainstorming)
- ✓ Systematisation (clustering) on a pin board
- ✓ Evaluation, condensation, intensification, priorities





★ Fantasy phase:

- 1. Imaginative introduction (meditation, work, walks ...)
- 2. Turn critique points into the opposite (bad to good) as starting points
- 3. Collect ideas (brain writing)
- 4. Preparing and performing a role play, fable, report, painting, fairytale to a fantastic story (as group work)
- 5. A common analysis of these performances with regard to good solutions/ideas
- 6. Extract, write down an "idea store" on a pin board

★ Implementation phase:

- 1. Evaluate the concepts of the "idea store" with regard to realistic conditions and best fit (PM-method)
- 2. Put in more concrete terms, the best-suited concepts (group work)
- 3. Choose the best one
- 4. Build an action plan: Who does what, where, when and how?

★ What does it tell?

The results are used as one source of data for producing the evaluation and foreseeing tool/method for workplace management of productive knowledge workplaces. It indicates the user experience and also works as a supporting method for employees to adjust to new situation.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Future_workshop

Method of Loci

This technique is as old as ancient democracy: The method of loci, used by Greek and Roman senators to hold their intoxicating speeches in front of the senate. It was proscribed to use any kind of notes, so they were using this brilliant technique to jack up their memory. Rhetorical geniuses like Cicero went through their palaces, gardens and any other kind of locations (Latin: loci) and memorized the order of every single object in their paths.

To remember a speech, they broke it into pieces and created symbols for every single part. Then they put those symbols into the different loci. To recall them they visualized the path and went from one station to another, where they remembered the symbols and translated them back into the speech. According to Cicero in "De Oratore", the method of loci was invented by the Greek poet Simonides about 500 BC:

What Simonides did is easy to reproduce, since remembering a route from A to B in its detail has once been part of the survival strategy of mankind. Everyone can try it like this: Close your eyes and remember the objects in your room. You will know exactly where your bed, your sofa, your table and your computer are. Imagine to go outside your room – can you see the corridor and the other rooms? Can you even leave the house





and wander through your garden? Maybe you can jump to your workplace and see your office. You just discovered the method of loci!

Why is the method of loci so powerful? On one hand it is using the natural memory for locations. Even if a client has the feeling to easily loose orientation, he/she is able to remember his/her own room in its detail. On the other hand it provides a logical order. The client just has to walk through the room clockwise or counter clockwise and all the objects will be in a specific order.

Call each route to be created with this method a path. It is a track that represents the most easily navigated way between an origin and a destination. Each time it is used, it becomes stronger and grows wider. A memory athlete is using his paths over and over again.

★ Step 1 – Pick a Location

To use this technique, ask the client to choose his/her first location. It can be anywhere he/she like but the client should pick the one he/she know best for the first path. That could be own room, own flat, house or the own workspace. If a client likes, he/she can also create an imaginary path. But it is harder to memorize in the beginning, so it could be better to choose a real location first.

★ Step 2 – Define the Way-Points

When clients picked first location, they have to define all the objects they want to use as way-points in their path. The way-points will be the stations a client have to pass, each time he/she is memorizing any kind of information with it. The number of way-points will determine the length of the route – and therewith the amount of information client can store on it. One single room can easily include twenty way-points. I suggest that client's first path should have about 10 stations. If you stick to some rules, the path will become more efficiently. But those rules are just a guideline – you can break them whenever you like. Since every client got a different mind and different affinities, you probably have to bend the rules to make them match client's personality.

A process description for the client can look like:

- ✓ Do imagine your way-points in every detail
- ✓ Pick the way-points you first think of they are in most cases the best
- ✓ Keep a certain order of the way you walk your path (i.e. clockwise)
- ✓ Use noticeable way-points every 10 steps to create proper segments
- ✓ Don't make your way-points too small (i.e. a pencil)
- ✓ Don't make your way-points too big (i.e. a house)
- ✓ Don't make them to close together
- ✓ Don't make them to far away from each other
- ✓ Don't use similar way-points in the same path





★ Step 3 – Memorize the Path

Since clients already know the location and finished defining the way-points, it will be very easy to memorize the new path. Ask the client trying to recall it in his/her imagination. If the client miss a few points, ask him/her trying to imagine him-/herself walking through the path and count each and every single way-point on it. Doing that repeatedly the client will strengthen his/her path each time. After a while you can increase the speed dramatically: With a well-trained path client won't need longer than a split second for each way-point. This process is quick and natural.

* Step 4 - Use it!

With the new path Clients are able to associate information like words with every way-point. It will help to remember the correct order and can easily be used over and over again for different purposes. This is because Clients are naturally forgetting their associations after a while, if they will not recapitulate again. This happens in a short period of time and depends on Client's memory.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Art_of_memory https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Method_of_loci





CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY IN REGARD TO THE CENTRAL IDEA OF TRANSITION MANAGEMENT

The intention is to eventually phase out the development of the frames for the client-centred educational concept, in which strategic, quality controlling, organizational and social-cultural problems must be discussed. All requirements which need to be discussed in relation to the dimensions compensation (to help existing NEET's), prevention (to take the initiative so that the society will not "produce" any further NEET's) and structure (overall co-operation to ensure the structural success of the aforementioned dimensions) rank among the rubric strategic problems. All dimensions cannot be distinguished accurately.

In this phase just some descriptions of the concept of Transition Management, only to achieve at the end a workable definition. The descriptions are random and brought together from various sources:

"A transition is a structural social change and the result of interacting and mutually reinforcing developments in the fields of economy, culture, technology, institutions and nature and the environment. For effecting transitions many coherent 'system innovations' are required: innovations at the level of technologies, but also rules and organization." (Wikipedia)

"Transition management aims to deal with persistent societal problems through combining long-term envisioning, short-term experiments in a selective participatory process that supports policy integration, social learning and social innovation. It focuses on frontrunners, entrepreneurs, niche-actors and innovative individuals and organizations in general that are committed to sustainable development." (D.A. Loorbach)

"Change of organizations primarily requires changing yourself. Your organization is in transition. The choice of this change in the organization is already made and you will be expected to go along with this transition and here to give colour. Where should you start? Do you need to broaden your thinking patterns? Should you change your (un)conscious behaviour? Is your goal already clear or do you struggle with the path to this goal? Are you able to be the example for others to make this transition a success?" (School of Management)

"Transition management is aiming at promoting and stimulating social innovation towards a sustainable society. This is based on the notion that this is not compelling and top-down, but rather subtle and co-





evolutionary through a visionary process of scheduling, learning, instrumentation and experimentation. The concept of transition management often evokes the association of control and management. However, this is a misconception. Transition management takes complexity and uncertainty as a starting point and assumes a limited degree of control of social dynamics." (Jan Rotmans. Erasmus University Rotterdam, the Netherlands)

A transition process as described above is difficult to start and implement and must not be compelling and top-down.

TRANSITION PHASES

PHASE 1 - URGENCY. People will only really start to move if they have to. This can be a necessity: it must be done, because we cannot do otherwise, or ambition: we have to, because we do not want to be different.

PHASE 2 - LETTING GO. As soon as people are convinced that there is no escaping, that something is really going to change, they come into the 'letting go' phase. There they get a view of what is about to be lost, where they have to say goodbye. This can concern concrete issues such as an old system, the old workplace or colleagues, but it can also be about organizational values, forms of cooperation or products.

PHASE 3 - NOT KNOWING. In this phase the old situation is no longer there and the new situation is not there yet. Here, people experience the no man's land in which there are no new routines yet, where they need external navigation and sometimes lose the most basic skills. People get completely lost in this, sometimes they are in a state of panic.

PHASE 4 - CREATION. After 'not knowing' comes the phase of 'creation'. That is the phase in which experimenting is being tried out. Proof balloons are made to go, new connections are made. There is a lot of hope and positive energy in this phase.

PHASE 5 - NEW START. After the 'creation' the 'new beginning' follows, the phase in which a feeling is created of the new identity: that's how it feels, that's how it smells, that's how it sounds to be at home in the new situation. There are new routines and people experience pride.

As you can see all phases are necessary for a meaningful change. Each transition phase has its own indispensable contribution to the change from A to B. If you manage to see and acknowledge that contribution, you can go to B. more easily and quickly.

In every change, in every organization these phases are the same. To get a successful transition, an organization has to go through all phases. The colour of these phases, and the way you have to manage the phases, is different in every organization. This is determined by the dynamics of the organization (the history and the patterns in the organization). Without intervening in that dynamic, there will be no change.





Finally, the transition is influenced by factors from the context. The change has consequences for the context; the context influences the change. For a successful transition there must therefore be an interaction with the context in which the organization operates.

Behaviour during the transition can not only be read as an expression of the different phases of transition, but also as an expression of the patterns of the organization. Particularly in the 'not knowing phase' the dynamics of the organization play an extra role: the weak spot of the organization is getting much worse here. That is the normal, and thus predictable, reaction of the system to change. Resistance to change therefore provides you with an incredible amount of information about the dynamics in the organization, and therefore leads to intervene. If an organisation wants to keep a grip on the Transitions they want to develop, it is necessary to analyse the developments continuously, for embedding a project like INTENSE in the organization it must be done properly, otherwise the project is doomed to fail.

Transition is a process in which not only the structures change, but also and especially the people. And only if the people change **TRANSITION** is possible.

sources:

https://www.praxisframework.org/en/knowledge/change-management

Govender, V., & Rampersad, R. (2016). Change management in the higher education landscape: A case of the transition process at a South African university. Risk governance & control: financial markets & institutions, 6(1), 43-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.22495/rgcv6i1art5

To help an organisation and the teams with this process we introduce **THEME CENTRED INTERACTION** and show back to the **COMMUNICATION SQUARE (4 SIDES OF A MESSAGE)**.

THEME CENTRED INTERACTION (TCI)

TCI is a concept for

- ✓ Working with groups and teams
- ✓ especially for counselling and coaching clients but also
- ✓ directing institutions and their employees

The goal of TCI is to facilitate the interaction between tasks and individuals in order to encourage the development of factual, social and self-competence.

It is appropriate for all areas in which people need to work together successfully in all kinds of teams and groups. TCI is in particular helpful for people, who desire to use it to re-structure their personal lives. Therefor TCI is one of the most widely used methods in the areas of Humanistic Psychology and of Education.

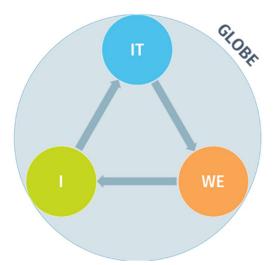
Why should a coach or a director make use of TCI?

- ✓ the trainer is able to observe and reflect group processes from a meta level point
 of view
- ✓ the concept is designed to take care of the individuality
- ✓ using the concept allows to gain the performance and more efficiency





✓ and the concept delivers the coach the structure to reflect group conflicts and their backgrounds



Every group is defined by four factors: I (the individual), WE (the group interaction), IT (the task) and the GLOBE (context).

The triangle itself is placed in a circle, symbolizing the GLOBE, that is the

- √ organizational,
- ✓ physical,
- ✓ structural,
- ✓ social,
- ✓ political,
- ✓ ecological surroundings,

in a narrow and wider sense, which condition and influence the teamwork of the group, and which in turn are influenced by the work of the group. The globe can create disturbances and it can upset **DYNAMICAL** balance, shifting weight to one corner of the triangle. Thus, one must always be conscious of the globe and the constraints it produces and take it into account

Appreciation and support of equilibrium among the I-We-It-factors in context represents the basis of the TCI group work.

The task of the coach or leader is to pay attention to the **DYNAMIC BALANCE** among the four factors. The term dynamic means that balance is not static like a scale, but, similar to a bicycle, a part of the process.

The **THEME** formulates the common task and the goal of the group work.

It ought to address the participants holistically, recognize where they are in their development, in order to take the next step. The **WE** of the group develops from centering on a theme, that is why TCI is termed **THEME-CENTRED**.

Finally, the theme on which the group is working is influenced by all four factors, not only by IT. This point is specific to TCI.

The leader considers himself to be part of the system. Thus, he is both participant and leader. As participant, he acts as a model according to the postulates, and he selectively and authentically adds his thoughts and feelings. As leader he senses, formulates and presents themes that will help the group process. He suggests possible structures and makes sure that they are maintained. He observes the balance among I, We, Theme and Globe.

The **POSTULATES** arise from the request to recognize reality, not dogma, as an authority.





Be aware of your own internal and external situation and make decisions responsibly taking both the other person and yourself into account. In short: be your own "chairperson!"

Disturbances and passionate involvements take precedence. Look at them as a chance, and regard them as a sign of something that has been over-looked or repressed.

Be responsible for what you do and do not do - in your personal life and in society.

The postulates also arise from values and the view of mankind who are formulated in the following AXIOMS

- ✓ The individual is a psycho-biological unity. He is also part of the universe and is therefore both autonomous and interdependent. A person's autonomy increases the more he becomes aware of his interdependence with everyone and everything.
- ✓ All living entities and their growth and decline deserve to be respected. Respect for that which grows is the basis for all evaluating decisions. The humane is valuable; the inhumane is a threat to what is valuable.
- ✓ Making free decisions happens within provisory internal and external boundaries. It is possible to extend these boundaries.

Auxiliary rules are instructions for realizing the postulates that are based upon the axioms:

REPRESENT YOURSELF WHEN YOUR SPEAK • USE THE "I" FORM • AVOID "WE" OR "ONE"



QUESTION TO YOU. • SPEAK FOR YOURSELF AND AVOID AN INTERVIEW

BE AUTHENTIC AND SELECTIVE IN YOUR COMMUNICATIONS

YOU THINK AND FEEL

CHOOSE, WHAT YOU

WANT TO SAY AND DO

BE AWARE OF WHAT

HOLD BACK ON INTERPRETATION OF OTHERS

- EXPRESS YOUR

 PERSONAL REACTIONS

 INSTEAD
- HOLD OFF FROM
 GENERALISATIONS





WATCH YOUR BODY LANGUAGE AND THAT OF THE OTHERS

BODY LANGUAGE SIGNALS

- APPROVAL,
- REJECTION.
- · PLEASURE,
- ANGER...

WHEN YOU SAY SOMETHING TO ANOTHER PERSON

• TELL WHAT IT MEANS

TO YOU

• I. E. HOW YOU SEE THEM

PRIVATE

EXCHANGES TAKES

PRIORITY

THEY INTERFERE AND ARE USUALLY IMPORTANT

- THEY MAY BRING NEW
 STIMULI.
- EMPHASIZE AMBIGUITIES
 AND MISUNDERSTANDINGS
- OR EXPOSE A DISTURBED INTERACTION

ONLY ONE

PERSON AT A TIME SHOULD

SPEAK

- NOBODY CAN LISTEN TO MORE THAN ONE STATEMENT AT A TIME.
- LISTENING SHOWS THE CONCENTRATED MUTUAL INTEREST THAT HOLDS A GROUP TOGETHER.

"Auxiliary rules help, when they help and are not meant to be enforced as laws" Ruth Cohn.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Theme-centered interaction

IMPORTANCE OF STAKEHOLDERS

What is a stakeholder? And more specific: what is a stakeholder in education?

A stakeholder: A person, group or organization that has interest or concern in an organization.

Stakeholders can affect or be affected by the organization's actions, objectives and policies. Some examples of key stakeholders are creditors, directors, employees, government (and its agencies), owners (shareholders), suppliers, unions, and the community from which the business draws its resources.

"In education, the term stakeholder typically refers to anyone who is invested in the welfare and success of a school and its students, including administrators, teachers, staff members, parents, families, community members, local business leaders, and elected officials such as school board members, city councillors, and state representatives.

Stakeholders may also be collective entities, such as local businesses, organizations, support groups, committees, media outlets, and cultural institutions, in addition to organizations that represent specific groups, such as teachers unions, parent-teacher organizations, and associations representing superintendents, principals, school boards, or teachers in specific academic disciplines. In one word, stakeholders have a "stake" (participation) in the school and its students, meaning that they have personal, professional, civic, or financial interest or concern. Generally speaking, the use of stakeholder in public education is based on the recognition that schools, as public institutions supported by state and local tax revenues, are not only part of and responsible to the communities they serve, but they are also obligated to





involve the broader community in important decisions related to the governance, operation, or improvement of the school." (The GLOSSARY OF EDUCATION REFORM is a comprehensive online resource that describes widely used school-improvement terms, concepts, and strategies for journalists, parents, and community members.)

Based on the text above the coaching of NEETs and the way of working with this vulnerable group is eminently an activity in which stakeholders can/must play a role. Developing a network of stakeholders is important to gain an understanding of institutions, persons and groups to the initiating organization.

The idea of a "stakeholder" intersects with many school-reform concepts and strategies—SUCH AS LEADERSHIP TEAMS, SHARED LEADERSHIP, AND VOICE—that generally seek to expand the number of people involved in making important decisions related to a school's organization, operation, and academics. For example, shared leadership entails the creation of leadership roles and decision-making opportunities for teachers, staff members, students, parents, and community members, while voice refers the degree to which schools include and act upon the values, opinions, beliefs, perspectives, and cultural backgrounds of the people in their community. Stakeholders may participate on a leadership team, take on leadership responsibilities in a school, or give "voice" to their ideas, perspectives, and opinions during community forums or school-board meetings, for example.

Here it is important to distinguish between stakeholders that are essential to an educational organization and stakeholders who play only a small role.

So an organization has to decide: who are the important stakeholders for us, what are they going to do, how are they are going to do that and how do we keep them involved?

Some action must be taken in increasing the involvement of stakeholders and the establishment of a regular consultation structure to maintain the stakeholder's involvement.

- 1. Determine an approach.
- 2. Look for good practices.
- 3. Find links to existing arrangements.
- 4. Inventory internships in companies.
- 5. Approach the relevant municipal and regional institutions to get and maintain support.
- 6. Make someone responsible for direction of these activities.
- 7. Make someone responsible for reporting.

Stakeholder Analysis

As the term 'stakeholder analysis' already says, you make a picture of all stakeholders around your organization, looking into their interests, and asking in what way they can help and how do we keep them involved. On the internet you can find a lot of Analysing Instruments. After this process of analysing you have to decide: who are the important





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Stakeholder mapping in 4 steps

- 1. Define your stakeholders
- 2. Analyse stakeholders by impact and influence
- 3. Plan Manage stakeholder communications and reporting
- 4. Engage with your stakeholders

ETHICS

The European Mentoring & Coaching Council (EMCC) developed A Code of Ethics.

This code of ethics sets the expectation of best practice in coaching (and mentoring) and promotes the development of coaching (and mentoring) excellence.

EMCC is registered as a 'not for profit international association' (IVZW-Internationale Vereniging zonder Winstoogmerk) in Belgium under registration number 0819.495.590. The registered address is: EMCC, 63A Scepterstraat, 1050 Brussels, Belgium

Our correspondence address is: PO Box 3154, Marlborough, Wiltshire, SN8 3WD, United Kingdom

QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Intro

After the introduction of a new approach in education (INTENSE) - the approach has proved to be effective, delivering results that are better compared with previous methods and it must be guaranteed for the future.

Therefore, every project that intends to change teaching and coaching practice needs a quality program.





★ Quality policy (definitions)

- 1. Everything the institution wants to do in the coming years to provide good quality and improve that quality.
- 2. Descriptions of the objectives in terms of quality, quality level, and paths that should lead to it.
- 3. The objectives of an institution with regard to quality, as well as the ways and means which lead to the attainment of these objectives. These should be formally reflected in a management statement.

★ Quality control (definitions)

- 1. That part of the quality management that focuses on meeting the quality requirements.
- 2. Testing the quality standards of a product or service.

★ Quality assurance (definitions)

- All activities of the overall management function that determine the quality policy, objectives and responsibilities and implement it through quality planning, quality control, quality assurance and quality improvement within the quality system.
- 2. Quality assurance can be defined as "the control of a process of continuous improvement in order to meet the quality requirements". This always concerns the relationship between its own goals and aspirations, securing them in policy, management and processes and how the results relate to the goals.

★ From quality control to quality assurance

Quality control and quality assurance are two concepts that play an important role in the context of quality of education. Quality control implies the checks afterwards whether the desired quality is achieved.

By quality assurance we do not only look at the results of the pupils or students, but we look in particular whether all conditions are met in order to achieve good results, so we also look at the learning process, to the support, to the facilities, materials and tests. Unlike quality control that leads to corrective actions, quality assurance focuses on prevention, preventing poor quality products are delivered.

source: Total Quality Management and Operational Excellence. Author: John S. Oakland. Publisher: Taylor & Francis Ltd. Paperback 9780415635509 April 2014

Process quality assurance

As the term "coaching" may embrace a huge variety of meanings to everyone who regards him- or herself a "coach", it is of utmost importance to define a clear coaching procedure that fits our purpose. In order to justify its means as well as to deliver a certain standard of quality in what we do, we shall implement a neat system of quality assurance. By quality assurance, we mean a standardized and operational procedure that will ensure the efficiency of coaching and make the coaching process verifiable.





In the following we set out to present a structural framework with individual steps for quality assurance in coaching situations.



pre documentation

formal personal data anamnestic elevation suitable offer of help establishing the coaching



runtime documentation

formal data essential conversation / coaching subjects process diagnostics



post documentation

formal balancing of the coaching summary of subjects and aspects assessment of the process and effects follow-up activities

- 1 pre-documentation
- 1-1 formal personal data name, date of birth, address, nationality... profession
- 1-2 anamnestic elevation occasion expectation resources what has happened problem analysis
- decision about suitable offer of help
 What does the client need (is there additional help e.g. drug counselling from a specialist necessary?)
 What competences are expected of the coach?
- 1-4 conducting the coaching coaching targets agreement about the number of regular coaching sessions / duration of the sessions information about the nature and the content of the coaching sessions

After the anamnesis, it is up to the coach in charge to decide about the next steps for the client and whether at this point of the process the coach is the right person address the client's needs. It could be the case, for example, that a referral to a detox-centre will be most helpful for the client first, before the coach can start with non-directive interventions.

At the start of the coaching, the coach will explain his or her methodical approach to the client so that he or she can decide if the methodology suggested is suitable at this particular point. Perhaps it is more helpful for the client to balance the interventions pursued and focus on communicative support first, before the client is able to understand further targets.

After a decision on the right strategy of support and the specific offer of assistance has been made, the client will set his or her individual targets with the help of the coach.





Do not forget to inform your client about what you mean by using a client-centred and non-directive approach – tell him or her what you do, what you do not do, and why you do it!

The coach will also have to take notes about the essential subjects of every coaching session. It is important to minute the behaviour of the client, the coach's interventions, and the aspects of the relationship structure between the coach and the client, as well as the agreements made during the coaching session. Of course, the particular problems discussed and the changes in relation to the problems and circumstances in the client's life have to find their way into the minutes as well. Please bear in mind that these meeting notes are strictly confidential, which means that they are only to be shared by the coach and the client.

- 2 documentation throughout the coaching period (runtime)
- 2-1 format of the data, date and duration of the session
- 2-2 documentation of essential conversation subjects behaviour of the client and coach aspects of the client-coach relationship particular problems and difficulties positive or negative changes in relation to the problems and/or life circumstances of the client positive or negative changes with regard to the coaching targets
- 2-3 diagnostics throughout the coaching process

It is appropriate to use standardized questionnaires after every coaching session to assure the quality of the coaching throughout the process. Therefore, it is necessary to use two types of questionnaires – one for the client and a one for the coach.

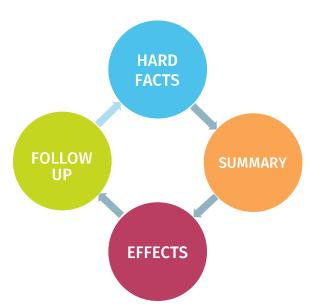
Important aspects to know from the client's perspective are:

- ✓ how he or she is coping with the coach and him or herself during the coaching unit.
- √ how the client experiences change of attitudes, pints of view, and/or behaviour throughout the coaching,
- \checkmark how secure and confident the client feels on a personal level, and
- ✓ how the client feels how good he or she can calm down.

Fundamental issues from the coach's point of view are the perceived interaction and changes of the client. For a proper analysis, it may be insightful to compare both perspectives in general, as well as each single item.

It is also possible to rate the client's self-exploration as well as in how far the coach's conversational behaviour follows the defined values of the client centred approach.





Comparable to how evaluations are usually made after processes and projects, the client centred coaching process will be followed by a clear-cut post documentation. The following information is to be documented:

- ✓ hard facts of the coaching
- ✓ summary of essential conversation subjects and aspects of the coaching process
- ✓ subjective assessment of coaching effects and
- ✓ suggestion for follow-up activities

Therefore, it is recommended to use a standardised questionnaire. The following table shows important structural aspects for the post documentation.

- 3 post documentation
- 3-1 formal facts and data of the coaching
 Duration and number of sessions
 Kind of intervention method
- 3-2 summary of essential conversation subjects and aspects of the coaching process
- 3-3 subjective assessment of coaching process and the effects
 Target achievement and satisfaction rating
 Specifications about interfering influences and unwanted changes
 Client's and coach's view
- 3-4 documentation of follow-up activities Catamnesis – referral

Supervision

If we are talking about supervision in psychosocial work environment, we recognize it as a fundamental method of quality assurance. A supervisor and the other participants of a work group look with an appropriate distance on a problem described by a coach.

In relation with the client-centred coaching, the supervision will support the personal development of the coach. By using the "client-centred supervision" in the professional context, the coach will be helped to understand him/her self and the relation to the client better. In this way, he/she is able to develop action alternatives on the base of his/her own potential.

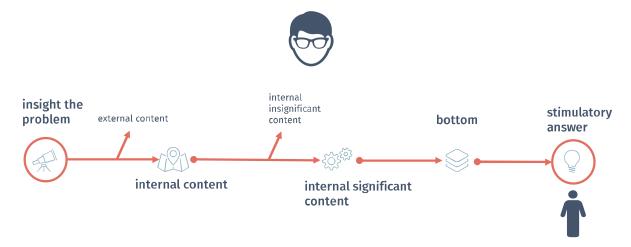
If we face the term "professional context", it is also clear that we will make the organisational and structural aspects a subject of supervision. To get a clear picture what does it mean to supervise a client-centred coaching, we would like to cite an example of a stagnant self-exploration of the client.





The major task of the coach is to get the bottom of client's problem (together with the client) and inspire and stimulate client's self-exploration in the coaching session, that follows the principles of non-directive communication.

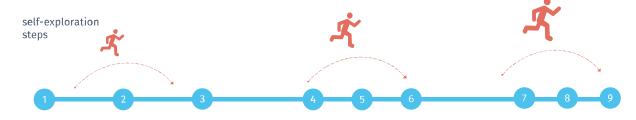
To get an insight of an undifferentiated content it is necessary to distinguish between external and internal, further on between internal significant and insignificant content to get the bottom of the client's problem and formulate stimulatory answers, that the client can go on to reach all the grades of his/her self-exploration.



Supervisor's role is to take the position, which allows him the metacognition of the process in a reflective supervisor-coach conversation.

Throughout the reflection, the supervisor will illuminate every subsequent step of the process to get the bottom of the problem and in parallel the grades of client's self-exploration that come along with it.

Major question in that context is: Did the coach focus on the internal content that is significant to get the bottom and stimulate the client in his/her Self-exploration proceeding?

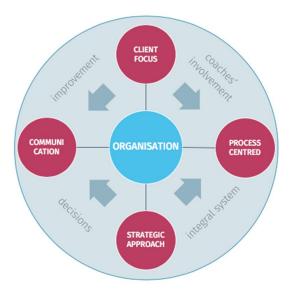


With this kind of process reflection, the supervisor is decoding the actions of the coach and gives feedback whether the coach took an early gateway or can't find the expected stimulatory answer to encourage the client in his/her self-exploration (see also self-exploration).

source: S. Weinberger, Klientenzentrierte Gesprächsführung, 14. Auflage 2013, Weinberg und Basel, S. 145 ff.



Total Quality Management



TQM, also called Integrated Quality Assurance is an extensive and structured approach to organizational management focusing on continuous improvement of product and service quality based on continuous feedback.

Besides William Edwards Deming, Joseph Juran is also one of the founders of Total Quality Management.

Total Quality Management is used primarily in business, but can also be used very well in the non-profit sector, provided that a number of terms are changed. The product stands for the educational goal to be achieved and the cus-

tomers are students and / or teachers.

★ Customisable

It is of utmost importance to realize that customers always determine the level of quality. Regardless of what efforts are being made in the field of staff training or improvement of processes, the customer ultimately determines, for example, whether the measurement of satisfaction or the efforts made have helped to continuously improve product and service quality.

★ Processes are central

Process thinking and processual handling is part of the foundation of TQM. Processes are leading and systems and people support these processes based on the goals that are linked to the mission, vision and strategy.

★ Decisions based on facts

Decision-making within the organization takes place only on the basis of facts and not on the basis of opinions (emotion and personal interest). Data must substantiate this further.

* Communication

A communication strategy must be formulated that is in line with the mission, vision and objectives of the organization. This strategy includes stakeholders, the level within the organization, the communication channels, the measurability of the effectiveness, timeliness, etc.



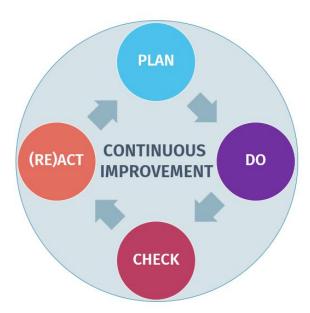


★ Improve continuously

On the basis of the right measuring tools and innovative and creative thinking, continuous improvement proposals are initiated and implemented to develop the organization to a higher quality level.

sources: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Total_quality_management https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/W. Edwards_Deming https://www.scipress.com/ILSHS.32.188.pdf

PDCA Circle



In process work, organizations will always be driven by results. But how can organizations actually send themselves to achieve the desired results?

This so-called Deming Circle is a good control tool for monitoring the quality of changes and improvements within the organization.

The PDCA cycle represents the abbreviation of the four main steps in the circle: Plan, Do, Check and (Re) Act.

The practical approach to Total Quality Management. Implementing TQM is the im-

plementation of a concept. It is not a system that is being implemented, but an idea that needs to be integrated into the organization and its culture.

Practice has taught that there are a number of basic starting points that contribute to the successful rollout of TQM within an organization.

source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/PDCA







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