

WP3 Agri-social Training

WP3c TRAINING PATH

Integrated Training Path

(Draft 1.0)

**PLEASE NOTE: THIS IS A WORKING DOCUMENT AT THE PRESENT
STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT (30/04/2011)**

Document Control

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Introduction

< the document will contain the materials and tools circulated among the list for the agri-social training in the frame of DIANA project >

<to be completed>

1. Assumptions

1.1 The fundamental distinction between deficit and handicap

Let's begin with the fundamental distinction between deficit and handicap. This could be "interpreted" through the concept: "accepting deficit and reducing handicap".

This distinction proves essential every time integration processes involving people with deficits or difficulties are activated.

By **deficit**, we mean an absence, any kind of "malformation", a lack of or anomaly in an organ, etc. of a mental, psychological or physiological function.

This is a "given" element, which cannot be modified and, in contemporary medical terms, is irreversible. It must therefore be considered a permanent part of the structure of the individual.

Example of a deficit situation

Let's take, for example, a deaf person: their sensory deficit, manifested through a reduced or total inability to perceive sounds and noises, represents a permanent characteristic. It's an "objective" feature, measurable in the same way as their body type, colour of hair, colour of eyes, etc.

The use of a hearing aid which compensates for or amplifies the missing function of the sensory organ can, to some extent, reduce the effects of the deficit: helping increase auditory perception, but without modifying the deficit or malfunction of the auditory system, which remains unchanged.

By **handicap**, in contrast, we mean the result of a social and cultural process: it is the consequence of the meeting between the individual – with his/her own physical and psychological (including any deficits) characteristics – and his/her personal history and context.

Example of a handicap situation

Beginning with the existence of a certain degree of auditory deficit, a subject can develop a personal history of adaptation to the different contexts in which they find themselves growing up and living. This deaf person may be surrounded by an environment which does not consider their deficit a serious impediment and, therefore, does not undervalue them as an individual. Or vice versa.

Handicap is not innate in a person, but is a "contextual condition". We speak about a "**handicapping situation**" (which can occur even when there is no deficit), determined by the meeting between diverse variables, therefore modifiable.

1.2 Conceptual framework for the DIANA training

The assumptions on which the training path is designed are:

a. Inclusive approach to disability

The approach to disability is inclusive (work and social inclusion) and interactive (role of the context and the quality of communication). Therefore we don't follow a medical model: *we work on the reduction of handicap*. Reduction of handicap, for example, means to choose, organize activities, spaces, use ways of communication and interaction which allow persons with disabilities to be as autonomous as possible (autonomy = self ruling). Autonomy means being able to make choices, carry out a decision and take the responsibility of it. This choice excludes for professionals:

- a) The role of simple assistance. Assistance implies an un-modifiable nearness between the person who assists and the one who is assisted. Assistance builds up a relation based on substitution ("I do it in your place") and/or a communication process based on an order/execution scheme ("do this", "do that", "I know what's good for you").
- b) A predetermined pattern of care/tending for specific pathologies whose steps follow strict, standardized rules, without taking account of individual characteristics.

b. Active role of persons with disability

The aim is to improve the active role of persons with disabilities and the mutual learning between professionals and users (co-evolution). It means working to change roles, self-perception and social perception of persons with disabilities: from people in need of care to people who can take care of (plants, animals, other people).

c. Co-evolution and mutual adaptation

It is the same logic of organic/biodynamic farming. It means the maintenance and implementation of what does exist and functions. Like persons with disabilities, soil, plants, animals are not passive beings to be manipulated and addressed as we like it. They are active beings which act and react in different ways according to contexts and inputs. Both organic/biodynamic farming and an inclusive educational approach to disability follow the logic of the living: *co-evolution and mutual adaptation*. The interrelations person/context and person/person are the "connective tissue" of both. Therefore "we think that both educational and farming training have a common ground" (Polish self-assessment). The common ground is: daily working actions and interactions.

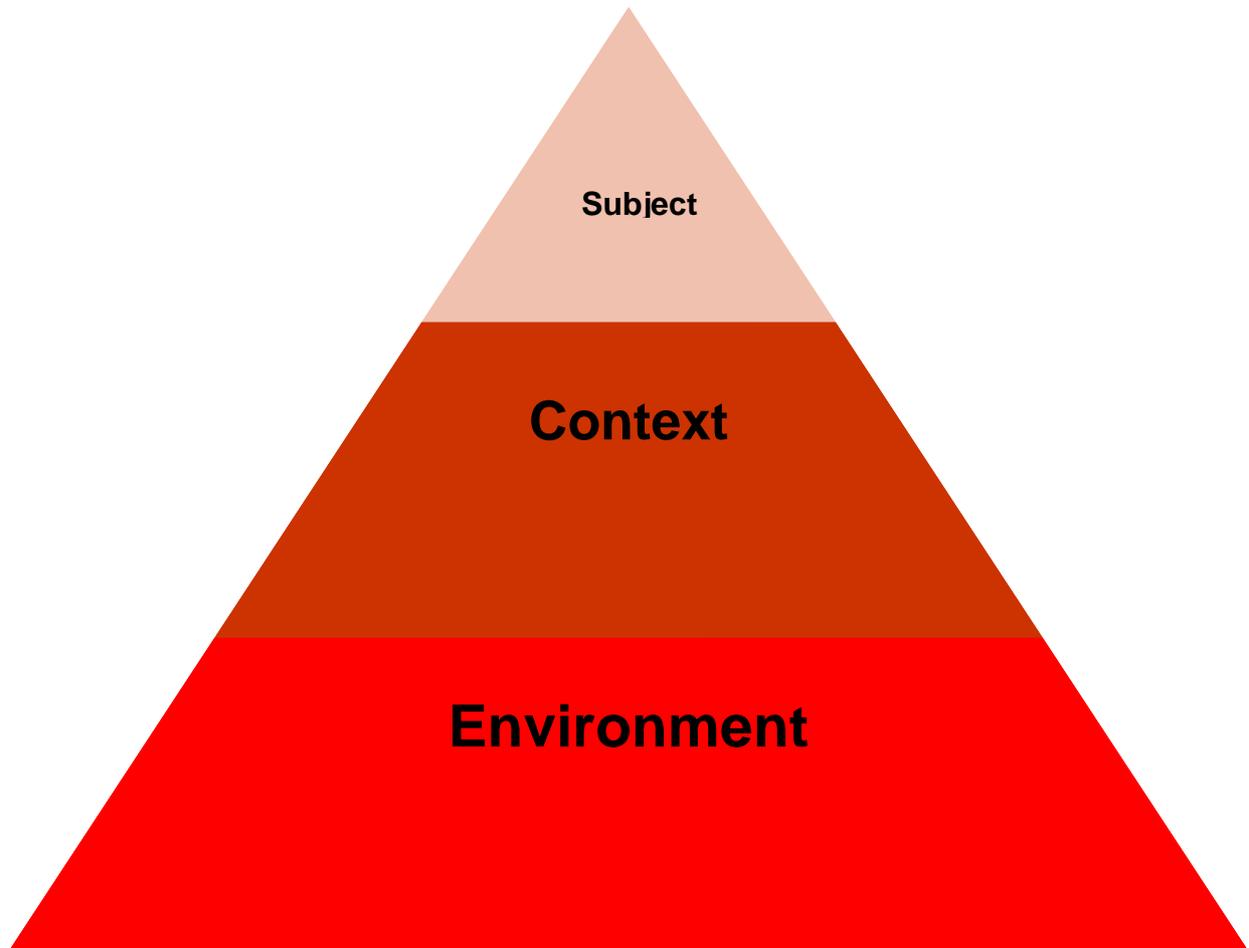
d. ICF as reference

The common, formal frame (internationally recognized) is ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Health and Disability). We are interested in the bio-psyco-social logic of ICF rather than its items and specific classifications. According to ICF, the quality of an active life, participation and active citizenship depend not only on the functions a person may have or have not (e.g. walk, speak, see...) but on functioning. *Functioning* is made of dynamic interactions between different functions, activities and contexts. Functions are static while Functioning is dynamic. It means it has intrinsic social and interactive aspects. As an example, a person with autism can walk (function) but if his walking has not a goal related to other functions and goals (to go somewhere to do something), this very important function leads him nowhere. He may also be able to speak (function) but if he doesn't use it to communicate, talk, ask, etc., then this function remains isolated and doesn't enter into functioning. He may even be able to hammer a nail (an

action which requires functions like mobility of the arm and eye-hand coordination) but if it is not connected to other actions and aims, it remains meaningless.

1.3 The value of the context: the concept of milieu

<introduction missing>



This pyramid is designed to illustrate the hypothesis that, in order to be an active, self-efficient person, the subject needs to interpret their environment as a context. In other words, they need to give a meaning to the component parts that constitute their environment, a symbolic/operative meaning which transforms everything into a perceived and perceivable context. E.g., what for some may seem to be a general room for miscellaneous objects, for others may immediately appear to be a study or library, a workshop or a kitchen, etc....

2. From training needs to training design

<introduction missing>

The training needs summarized in Krakow are strictly connected to one another and, directly or indirectly, related to professionals' relations with users, i.e.:

“ability to communicate at several levels “, “ability to communicate with users”, “ability to communicate with peers .“

To increase our ability to communicate with others, we need to understand their codes (i.e. the rules and the meanings they apply to verbal and non-verbal signs.) Therefore “to communicate” doesn't only imply verbal language but also - and with some users like autistics even mostly - body language, gaze, tone/timber of voice, use of interpersonal space, etc.

To understand their “interpretation rules” we need to observe what they do, how they do it, how do they re-act to our actions and words. At the same time, what do their actions tell us about their attention, motivation, feelings, emotions, memory, adaptability, perseverance, understanding of social rules, autonomy, etc.

In the same way, “to be open minded”, “translate the complexity of reality”, “develop reflexive abilities”, “adapt ourselves to the needs”, “back upon different skills and know how on which the team is built” etc. can mean, as an example:

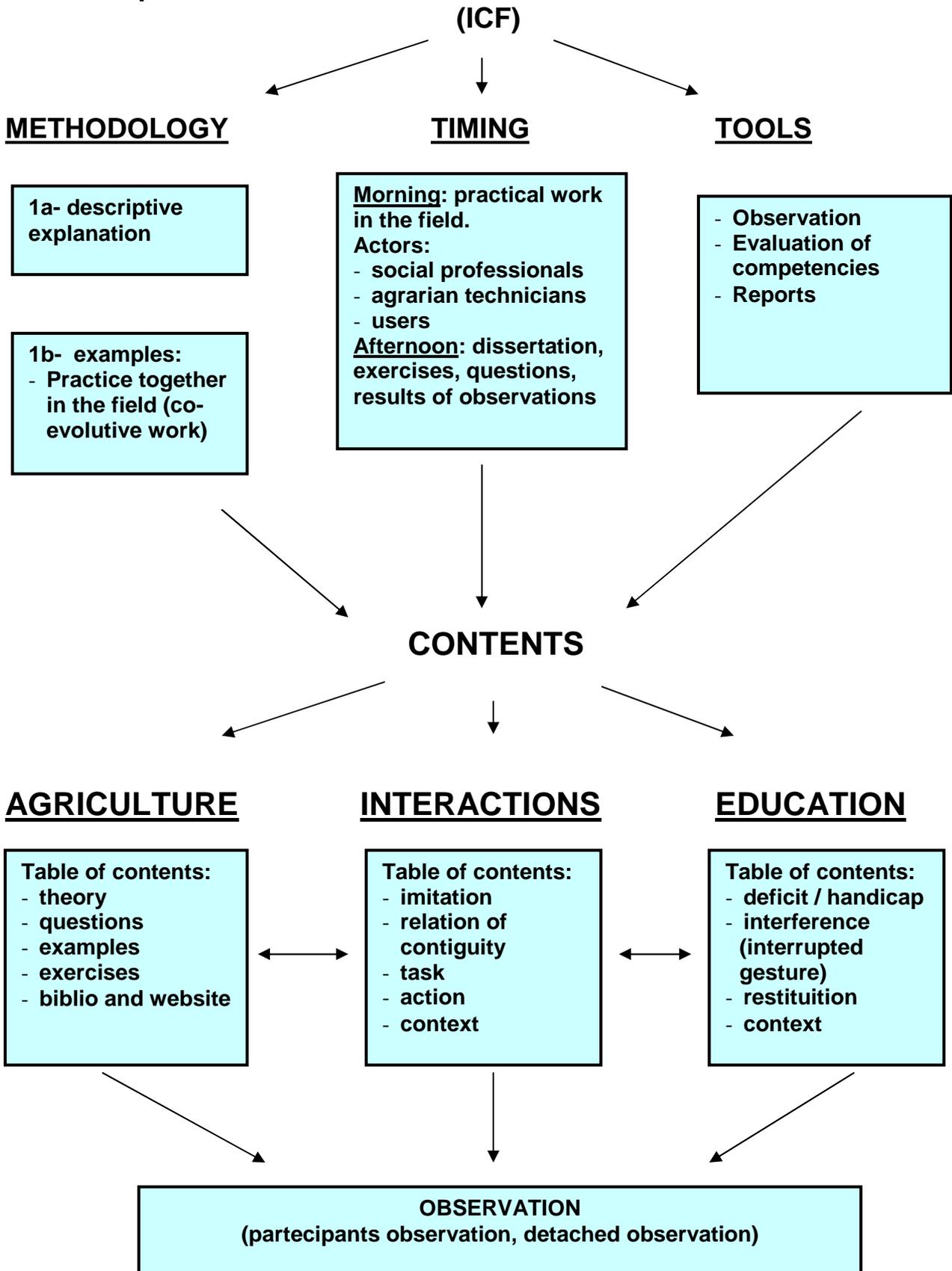
- a) Which aspects of a given context (spaces, activities, timing, interactions...) are too complex for Pierre? The same aspects are too complex also for Michel? It means to look for an individual not a general adaptation of a context valid for all users;
- b) To develop reflexive abilities we need a good deal of self-observation and readiness to discuss and compare (“ability to communicate ad different levels”) educational/training choices with our colleagues, using concrete, specific words and examples.

All these training needs can be met through the following methods:

- a) *Observation*: self-observation, participant observation, detached observation
- b) *Evaluation of competences*: it doesn't need to be formalized always. With the help of some guidelines it aims to bring out and focus past experiences, one's own values, personal characteristics, working motivations, skills and know how.

3. Training design

3.1 Conceptual framework



Notes to the diagram:

The conceptual framework should be composed of a simple methodological part divided into:

Methodology:

1a. conversional part (TRAINING PATH DRAFT)

1b. practical examples on how to develop part 1a, e.g.: ways of cooperating, planning of daily training between field experience and discussion, workshop exercises, exchange of observations/feedback, report, papers, etc...

This section is clearly open to all kind of advice and proposals from the partners, part 1b in particular.

Timing:

How many hours per day? How many mornings on the field? How many mornings (on the field) and afternoons (theoretical training) per week? Etc...

Results due within...

Adjustment are expected according to the specific demands of the different realities.

Tools:

Slides and materials concerning the observation from which comes part of the reasoning and the pattern of competencies.

Evaluation of Competencies for worker and, where possible, a sample of 2 users for the administration of the EoC.

Feedback and documents.

Contents: should be divided into three thematic areas having a transversal methodological element in the observation process and common theoretical elements in the central frame (INTERACTIONS).

Each area should have its own basic device of theory and didactics as a reference, e.g.:

Agriculture: a short and simple introduction to the subject of soil or insects in the area;

Interactions: context, imitation, ...; Education: deficit, interference, ...

A short file concerning the contents of topic subjects should be followed by guidelines about exercises, discussion and conclusions (Feedback, documents).

It is very important in this particular part that all the farms cooperate in creating common guidelines.

3.2 Methodology: experiential learning

DIANA training path is based on *experiential learning*. It means neither “do as you like it” nor to fetch spot solutions for emergency problems. It means to focus daily tasks and activities with users as *educational and training experiments* about problems and needs directly connected with users. Then compare and exchange points of view, suggestions, ways of doing. Experiential training has little to do with formal training which usually implies a face to face teaching about general subjects (e.g. ASD) or technical matters (e.g. food processing regulations).

Experiential learning and related reflective practice (as opposed to learning through the delivery and comment of presentation materials) is important for learners working with disabilities. This approach is upheld by current adult learning theory which strongly supports the benefits of experiential learning and associated reflection, with opportunities to examine and experiment with on-going support¹

<theoretical approaches for experiential learning to be added>

E.g: the experimental task is to collect cauliflowers. Both professionals (social and agricultural) and users collect them.

The general aims can be

- a) to observe how they collect them: if they search random or along the rows,
- b) if they recognize the ripe ones (closed or open heads), how they cut and clean them (use of the knife);
- c) timing (rhythm, speed, pauses).

Abilities or difficulties to be detect could be:

- a) orienting and organization of his/her own actions in open spaces;
- b) attention, ability to search
- c) discrimination, evaluation, choice
- d) precision, fine motility
- e) continuity /distraction
- f) self-evaluation
- g) search for help

The kind of interactions between professionals and users depend on the professionals' aims:

- a) simple observation: I let them try with no intervention;
- b) training/didactic: various degrees of intervention (little verbal support, showing how to do an action, directions step by step, working at a distance, side by side, etc);
- c) productive

Different aims lead to different types of interactions.

- 1) **Shared reflection.** After the experiment, round a table professionals compare personal experiences of the working task (difficult, easy, tiring, too long, too short...) different points of views, suggestions, ways of doing with the users. E.g.: “why with you he is concentrated on his task while with me he is often distracted?”. This implies an observation of and reflection on different ways of doing and interacting with the same user and the same task.

¹ Fry, H., Ketteridge, S. and Marshall, S. Understanding Student Learning. In Fry, H., Ketteridge, S. and Marshall, S. (eds.) A Handbook for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education 2nd Ed. London: RoutledgeFalmer, 2003.

In this case detached observation (videotaped interaction) is very useful. Perhaps we discover that we have different opinions of that user or implicit different educational aims. In this way each professional can be both trainer and trainee (mutual learning).

- 2) **Relation of contiguity.** The pivot of the training is what may be called “relation of contiguity”. It means that the attention and actions both of professional and user are aimed at the working task (shared attention). and its output (e.g. only good vegetables or bread are sold and bought), that is something outside them. On the contrary, often the educational task is aimed at the user (doing something for the sake of doing it, without meaning for the user). It’s very important to communicate, make clear, share the meaning and the aim of the task. E.g. “we are collecting cabbages because the cook needs them”...” We have to make 20 moulds of cheese for the market day” or “the bread you are making is very appreciated by our costumers so hurry up because they are asking for it”. It can be a strong *motivation* tool for the user and an help for his *cognitive decentralization* because, as we all know, most persons with disabilities, whatever is their pathology, are self-centred and have difficulties to put themselves in others’ shoes.

Agricultural professionals are naturally oriented to the working task (planting cabbages, feeding animals, making cheese...) and therefore to the *relation of contiguity*. E.g. in Bellechambre we saw the dairyman (cheese maker) doing his job together with a severely disabled user. But his attention was on the task (e.g. sequence and timing of actions) and not on the user’s stereotyped behaviours. So he used basic verbal and non-verbal communication succeeding in making the user doing some actions of the task. This approach has an intrinsic educational value .

Their technical competences allow them to understand at once if the task is on the whole easy, difficult for the user, what skills it requires, which actions are within his/her range, if the task needs to be split. So the agricultural training (including stock, dairy, bakery etc.) will be the core both of agricultural and social/educational training.

3.2 Methods

3.2.1 Observation

Participant observation

When a professional interacts with a user, he/she is always in a context of participant observation. Therefore he/she takes a double role:

- Actor/partner of the interaction;
- Observer of the kind and progress of the interaction.

But the user too makes observations and descriptions, never mind how severe is his/her disability. Therefore the professional is also an object of observation. His/her description of the user’s behaviour consists of actions and/or verbal messages which, in any case, influence his/her “object” of observation (the user’s further actions). In other words, the professional uses his/her own action as an explorative tool because only through it he/she can bring out implicit meanings or build new ones.

It means that his/her observing action has an experimental characteristic. Being so, it cannot be judged according to a true/false parameter but according to the parameter “It works/does not work”, that is if it has obtained the expected answer, has brought out new elements.

While observing, the professional must become, metaphorically and methodologically, cross-eyed: being, at the same time, inside and outside the interaction in order to observe the user from within

and him/herself from without the interaction. As a consequence, the participant observation is also an attempt to a self-description as a form of self-control of his/her own behaviour. It can be carried out in different ways. It can be an almost detached observation when the professional decides to interact little with the user in order to understand if he/she is able to work without suggestions, help, or just to understand better his/her characteristics, ways of doing. On the contrary, it can consist of dynamic actions where immediate answer is required and there is very little time to decide it.

Participant observation gives information which no other kind of observation does. For instance, a small change in the muscular tonus, a start, a quick glance or a kind of regard can be highly enlightening to understand the emotional state or peculiar ways of a user in that situation.

The limit of participant observation is the irreversibility of the time arrow: what is past is past. Therefore there are some risks:

- an act which could be interesting or meaningful may not be seen or taken into consideration;
- If the professional's act of observing consists of a practical action or words, it has already influenced the situation and can't be undone.
- It is difficult to keep under control the unavoidable psychological phenomenon of projection and identification.
- Focusing only some aspects of the interaction or the user's behaviour, may lead to find what one wants to find.

Detached and deferred observation

The easy and cheap use of video-camera allows professionals to make a detached and deferred (other time and space) observation of the interaction. It compensates the limits of the participant observation because the videotaped actions and interactions can be observed as many times as one wishes (rewind, slow motion, still frame). The distance in time and space from the videotaped interaction allows the observer to modify his/her own interpretations without influencing the "object" observed. This means that the detached and deferred observation has real projecting and training values

The deferred observation is most useful:

- At the beginning of the therapeutic, educational or training path when it's necessary to state general goals and strategies;
- During the periodic reviews/controls of the path;
- When there are crises or bottlenecks in the user's evolution, to try to find out causes and/or exit strategies;
- For the professionals' training.

Whereas the participant observation is necessarily an individual activity identified with the direct interaction, the deferred observation is necessarily a shared activity because different persons have different perceptive habits, different ways of connecting data. It requires the translation of real actions into words, said or written ("paper words"), because only the language allows the inter-subjective discourse, the analysis and control of interpretations.

The first and most important difficulty in translating concrete actions into words consists of giving the right name to actions, keeping the descriptions separate from the interpretations. Concerning this, we quote an interesting statement of Ester Bick, founder of Infant Observation: "When we must describe the facts observed, we realize that every word is full of implications. Must the observer say the nipple has" gone out" of the baby's mouth or that it has "slipped" out of it, was "pulled away", "removed" or has "escaped"? (Bick, 1964).

These are not useless semantic nuances because choosing a word or another one means to make different interpretations of the interaction which is going on. The problem can be solved describing the action with more molecular categories, that is the ways of the action. For instance, what is the difference between “pull away” and “remove”? The last one is a neutral term whereas “pull away” may imply strength and speed which belong to the categories of time and muscular tonus.

A neutral and shared description of actions and their ways will allow to make useful and complex interpretations, avoiding personal impressions and feelings. We wish to point out that the ways of actions are both the most useful observation tools and the bricks of an interaction’s rules and meanings. For instance, to say that a person is aggressive is not an observational description but just a very generic definition because it carries neither descriptions of behaviours, actions chosen to say so nor of the context in which these actions happen. Moreover it doesn’t suggest any strategies or tools to change the situation.

Just another example: let’s observe the gesture of offering an object. It’s an apparently trivial action but it has a significant meaning. Through it the person offering make more valuable the object offered, devote time to the person to whom he/she offer the object, send a message about his/her identity and their relation. But this action hides a problem pointed out by the inverted commas of the verb “offer” because it is an interpretation of an action which should be described as “move an object from a person to another one”.

We can accept and share this interpretation if we analyse the way the person offering extends his arms (usually rather slowly), how he/she holds the object, because these are the ways which shape the relational meaning of the action. If he/she doesn’t use the “right” time, the result is a hasty action which cannot be seen as an offer. In the same way, if he/she doesn’t look at the person he/she is giving the object to, the action can’t be an offer because “offer” requires a direct attention to the addressee. If the muscular tonus is high, it will impact on the other one’s instead of meeting it. Also the context in which the action takes place contributes to its meaning (e.g. previous and further actions). The more complex the interpretations are, the more detailed must be the description of actions and their ways. The aims are:

- Avoid the “cramp” of automatic interpretation which usually is the most trivial one.
- Transform insights and intuitions into checked and shared information which can be used to verify the state of interaction and provide tools/strategies to improve its quality.

We said that the deferred observation must be a collective activity in order to be really effective. If observation is an exploration activity which aims at finding and understanding something new, an individual observation runs the risk to find what a person already knows or to look for evidence of what he thinks he knows. On the contrary, a collective observation advances the comparison and integration of different perceptive habits, interpretive paths and the building up of a common descriptive language.

The observation of the observer

Deferred observation is also an observation of second degree: it’s not only an observation of the interaction between professional and user or user and user, but at the same time, also an observation of the observers. that is, the elements of the interaction (actions, gaze, posture, time, etc.) that each observer thinks meaningful, important, the ways he/she connects them and the meanings he/she thinks they have. Therefore it’s necessary to:

- multiply the points of view and therefore the different interpretation paths;
- explore and make explicit the knowledge, know how, theories each observer has referred to in his/her interpretation path.

It means to be conscious of the visible and concrete elements on which the observer has based his/her interpretation of the interaction or user's behaviour. The result is that this kind of observation has an inner training value. The awareness that there are more than one possible interpretation of the same action or interaction can have practical outputs because it can change the quality of a relation or interaction. for instance, it can provide the practical tools to break the self-supporting vicious circle that often takes between the meaning carried by pathological behaviours and their symptomatic interpretation by the professional. in such a way it is possible to pursue. the final aim of every care relation which is also the answer to an ethic imperative: "always act in such a way to increase the number of possible choices" (Von Foerster 1982).

In this kind of observation the most difficult task is up to the observer who is also an actor of the observed interaction because he/she has the uncomfortable double role of being, at the same time, observer and "object" of the observing description. "we human beings feel very much un easy when somebody starts interpreting our behaviours translating the into words concerning the relationship. We prefer very much that our messages about the aspect remains analogical, unconscious and unintentional" (Bateson 1972).

He/she has to communicate his/her interpretation as participant to the observed interaction: e.g. "I did so an so because I wanted that...", "I thought that he wasn't able to...". moreover he/she has to compare his/her interpretations as participant observer and those as detached observer, to point out accordance and differences. and last, but not the least, to allow the comparison between his/her interpretations and his/her partners'.

In order that deferred observation and observation of observer may be a useful training tool, providing useful information about professional and user's relation, the state of therapeutic or educational path, successful strategies, etc., two conditions must be met:

- a "gentleman's agreement" among the professionals
- the progressive building up of a shared descriptive language.

"Gentleman agreement" means that the various descriptions and interpretations must not be a judgment on the colleague's actions and choices (right/wrong, good/bad). In order to achieve this, the descriptive language should be as denotative and neutral as possible. for instance, to say that an action is "fast" or "hurried" carries very different meanings. The first one is a neutral description, the second one implies a judgement on its author.

A shared descriptive language means that observers agree to use the same concrete and "visible" words to describe an action or an interaction. On the basis of a shared description it's possible to put forward and compare different interpretations. this is a strong training tool because it "obliges" each professional to bring to conscience and explain why he/she has connected the descriptive elements in such a way while others have connected them in a different way (**self awareness**: a training need stated in Krakow). And then compare his/her own interaction style with others', trying to understand which one is more effective with Karl and which one with Antonio (**mutual learning and adaptation to the need**: other training needs stated in Krakow.).

3.2.1.1 TASK TABLE (example)

This is just an example of tasks to be performed and observed during the training path. The items of the table have both an educational and agricultural aim. The results of the observation (participant and detached observation) should be discussed during the afternoon meeting. There are three main themes: the task and related actions, the context and a self-observation by social professionals. You can focus other tasks according to the characteristics of your farm, users and needs.

<p>TASK Example</p> <p>TO HOE:</p> <p>Aims: to weed or to move the soil</p>	<p>Users</p> <p>Preparatory actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Understand the order: verbally, with the help of gestures, repetition... b) Is the aim clear? c) Does he wear working clothes (boots, trousers, gloves...) spontaneously or on suggestion? d) Get hold of tools/materials (location of tools, right tools, time to get them...) e) Orienting in the fields (directions, hesitations...) <p>Course of the main action</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Use of tool: handling (right/wrong, idiosyncratic...) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Posture: correct posture, postural characteristics.. b) Strength: does he adapt the strength according to the soil and the aim? c) Rhythm: continuous, changing speed... d) Space: does he hoe in the right space, systematically or random e) Physical resistance f) Accuracy: is the action precise, does he pay attention to plants? Does he tread on them? Does he recognize weeds from plants? g) Pauses: does he pause? Why? h) Interruption: does he interrupt the task? Are there any causes? Does it happen often? i) Distraction: is he easily distracted? What for? j) Imitation: does he spontaneously imitate other people's working ways (users, professionals) k) Efficacy: does he succeed in his task? l) Self-evaluation: does he recognize if the task is successfully performed, his errors? 2) Related actions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Comments: related to the task or not? b) Questions: about the task/other topics c) Asking for help/opinion d) Chat
<p>Context</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Where is the action carried out: Indoor/outdoor 2) With whom (alone, in pair, in a group) 3) Aim of the task: explained/not explained, clear/not clear 4) Other actions: related/not related to the task 5) Other professionals/ users doing the same task, other tasks 6) Interactions
<p>Self-observation (by professionals)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) How is the order given (words, gesture, accompany, corrections) 2) How I feel with the tool 3) Task: difficult, easy, tiring (skills needed) 4) Physical resistance: is it hard or not? Do I tire easily? 5) Interest: is the task boring/interesting? 6) My rhythm compared with user's: differences. Do I adapt my rhythm to his or do I ask him to adapt his to mine? Usually or with specific users? 7) Nearness/distance: do I work side by side or at a distance? Usually

	<p>or with specific users?</p> <p>8) Interaction: help, comment, facilitate, correct..., with others</p>
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3.2.2 Evaluation of Competences

Evaluation of Competences (from now on, EoC) is a tool and a process that has been used for many years in diverse contexts with varying aims. Specifically, in the DIANA project, we would like to use it as a tool for mediation and a process to achieve greater awareness.

For the present project's purposes, EoC could be adopted for incoming staff (agricultural and educational), i.e. those being employed for the first time by one particular farm. In this case, the evaluation strategies for the selection of personnel are already a kind of EoC, although not necessarily formalized.

Another very important instance when the application of EoC is extremely important is when a member of staff has been working for an organization for a considerable period of time. In this case, EoC becomes an opportunity to check and self-evaluate in order to improve staff/context interaction. E.g., after a certain amount of time in the same working environment, we get into habits and rhythms which do not always allow us to verify the efficacy or adaptability of our actions. This moment of pause for reflection allows us to reconsider a routine which sometimes has to prioritize deadlines and other organizational factors over interaction with disabled co-workers.

EoC is basically divided into 3 phases:

PHASE ONE self-narrative (or reconstruction):

- reflecting on previous training and professional experiences
- personal history/hobbies and interests, pinpointing the events and phases which have made a particular impression on the subject's development
- brief analysis of the current situation: difficulties, expectations and hopes for improvement, etc....
- focussing on areas of knowledge and competence

PHASE TWO observation

- verifying the subject's context/user interaction through observation (i.e., making sure that their self-narrative reflects reality)
- brief summary of observations made

PHASE THREE return (feedback)

The subject is given a brief summary of their strengths and weaknesses, which of their competences should be prioritized, and how to optimize their time and skills.

This final phase is very important in terms of its value as concrete evidence of a process of self-awareness.

With regard to disabled people, the process of EoC is not dissimilar but, of course, has to be adapted according to the type of disability. E.g., some social farms include co-workers with mental disabilities and autism. In such cases, the self-narrative aspect of Phase One is less relevant or

inapplicable. Consequently, Phase Two, the observation phase (see the 'tools for observation' table), becomes the most important part of the process. In fact, it is essential to fully understand which factors are intervening, which factors are causing obstacles, and what is improving users' competences within their context.

It is useful for user EoC to be carried out by staff (one or more members). Collective reflection (together with the user) on daily actions/activities and goals is extremely useful for the professionalism of agricultural and educational workers. It offers them the opportunity to understand the way they relate to their disabled co-workers. (see the 'interrupted gesture' table).

4. Planning of the training

4.1 General advices

- 1) As far as possible, use internal professionals as trainers because “when experience is grown the needs of training should be concentrated on individual problems, needs, interests, motivation of users” (Polish self-assessment report) But, of course, if you think you need an external expert for some topics, you can use him/her.
- 2) As we think it's not possible that all the professionals of a farm can participate to the training (who looks after users?), choose by common agreement a mixed group of professionals according to the size of the farm and total number of professionals.
- 3) Choose a coordinator inside or outside the group. His tasks are: coordinate the discussion inside the group and , organize the activities chosen as experiments on the field, keep the timing, organize the farm report.
- 4) Choose some users you think more interesting as examples of general training need topics, comparing their needs, difficulties with others'. Use them as a sort of case studies to re-think professionals' opinions and strategies.
- 5) Videotape the tasks performed by agricultural, social professionals and users. We wish to make clear that the role of professionals that of instructors or teachers standing outside the task but that of working partners who, of course, can instruct or help during the same task
- 6) A defined time and space of common reflection (round a table). The discussion should be focalized on concrete and specific working and relational problems with users and their personal characteristics. An informal evaluation of competences of some professionals can also help to bring out and detail different know how and attitudes. Whenever is possible (type and degree of disabilities) we suggest to make an evaluation of competences also to two/three of your users. The results can be useful to compare their self-evaluation, self-awareness with your evaluation of them.
 - a) Formalize (write down): an agreed list of problems/abilities you would solve/improve concerning some of your users. Be as detailed and practical as possible. Decide some strategies to be tested (e.g. changes in activities, spaces, length, approaches, composition of the work team ...).
 - b) Experiment these strategies “on the field” to see if they give the expected outputs.

4.2 Duration and timing

We suggest *ten days* distributed from May to October. In the morning, experiential training in the fields (stables, dairy, bakery...). In the afternoon discussion (questions, answers, explanations, comments) about both agricultural and educational training. Plus *five half days* dedicated only to educational training using the problems, skills and needs of two/three users as a kind of case studies to answer the training needs stated in Kracow. In both situations observation (verbal, written, videotaped) and evaluation of competences are the main tools.

4.3 Visits of the special guests to be reviewed

In the frame of DIANA project, two visits of special guests from each farm should be provided, in the planning stage one for the self-assessment and one for the pilot training were planned. The

partners have decided by common agreement to change the visit for the self-assessment as a first visit in the frame of training pilot. This is a very good opportunity in order to provide a wider mutual learning and sharing of methods and strategies among the farms both on the agricultural and the social sides because two professionals from each farm can visit two different farms.

Special guest role

Visit time: about one week

General organization:

- 1) Introduction to the professionals and users of the farm and explanation of the aim of the visit and his/her role.
- 2) Acquaintance of the farm activities and organization.
- 3) In the morning the special guest works with the professionals and users of the farm. The activities may be decided by the farm or chosen together by guest and farm. In the afternoons when there is a formal training (discussion, exercises..) the guest participates to it. His/her role is very important because he/she can provide an external point of view.
- 4) He/she prepares an open list of questions which will serve as a kind of guideline to interview the professionals of the farm and, if possible, (language and/or disability difficulties) a couple of users. If allowed. the interviews are first taped and then written. In any case their contents (complete or summarized) will be part of the report he/she will write down after returning home. The report will also contain a comparison between methods, activities, users, organization of the visited farm and his/her own.
- 5) In accordance with the farm, he/she videotapes at least two activities with users he/she thinks useful and meaningful for the training path and the peculiarity of the farm.
- 6) He/she will write down in his/her own mother language a description and analysis of the videotaped activities. The English version of it will be part of the report.

Here is an example of questions a special guest could ask the professionals of the farm he/she will visit for a mutual learning. They are just a suggestion and each special guest can provide his/her own list of questions.

- 1) How is the task chosen for a user? According to his/her abilities, its easiness? Is the task split or not?
- 2) Can users choose their tasks? (Often, sometimes)
- 3) Does the user work alone (often, sometimes) or always with a professional?
- 4) Do you rely on the skills/abilities the user already has or do you bet on what you think he/she could learn (potentialities, implicit skills)?
- 5) How is a work team formed/established for a certain activity?
- 6) Are work teams permanent or do they change according to the task? Why?
- 7) Do users always do the same tasks/activities or do you try to improve their abilities in different activities?
- 8) Is a user entirely responsible of an activity?
- 9) What are the main problems you meet with users? (abilities, responsibility, relations...)
- 10) What are the main difficulties users meet?

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Annex 1 – Reference documents

1. The interrupted gesture
2. Mr Down
3. Example of training content 1
4. Example of training content 2

1.1 Interrupted gesture

The expression “interrupted gesture” (it’s difficult to give a good translation of it) was first used by the Hungarian pediatrician and pedagogue Emmi Pikler, director of Loczy Institute in Budapest. It was first applied to child’s development, then to disabled children and adults. It is not a technique to deal with disables but a strategic approach coherent with the proposed conceptual framework (ICF) and tools (observation and evaluation of competences). The interrupted gesture gives confidence to the inner resources and characteristics of the disabled person with the aim to accompany him/her from dependence to autonomy.

It is an action started by the professional, which has an open conclusion and waits to be completed or answered by the child or the disabled person. The interrupted gesture implies waiting for a personal completion by the other one: a choice which can be different from the expected one. It’s just the opposite of “doing instead of”, typical of assistance which confirms and reinforces dependence. Waiting for the completion of the gesture means giving the disable time to understand, to decide, to answer. It implies a strong attention to his/her understanding, abilities, ways of doing. Disables are often used from childhood to wait for help, detailed directions, orders so that their actions are often just reactions and lack initiative. The interrupted gesture transforms an individual action (the professional’s) into a cooperative one, leaving the initiative to finish it to the disable. In such a way the disable must think what the other one does/wants and decide what to do. Thinking and deciding are basic for a real autonomy.

The interrupted gesture is not a special gesture: it belongs to every day actions, even (and especially) the most trivial ones. Let’s give a few examples to be concrete.

A professional wants a user to cut vegetables into pieces. He can give him/her a knife, put the vegetables on the table together with a bowl, show how to cut and where to put them. This is a way to teach the task, often necessary. But if he wants to use the interrupted gesture, he can just put the vegetables, knife and bowl on the table and waits for an initiative. The interrupted gesture is a strategy to explore the user’s abilities and problems at different levels:

- 1) His/her competence to “read” the context: can he/she connect the three objects (vegetables, knife, bowl) and a space (a kitchen or workshop) into unified meaning and task?
- 2) His/her communication competences (non verbal): does he/she understand what the professional wants from him/her?
- 3) His/her relation to the professional: trust, diffidence, mutual understanding...
- 4) Practical abilities: fine motility, use of the knife, how to cut vegetables, different ways of cutting...

It means the user is automatically in a situation of multiple problem solving and choices. According to his/her disability and its degree the answers can be very different and sometimes surprising. For instance, he/she could start cutting vegetables without saying anything. This answer

could be a surprise for the professional: the user is more competent than he/she thought and it's useless (maybe contra-indicated) to give him/her directions for each step of the task. From this situation a dialogue may start: a comment by the professional ("well done"), a question by the user ("Shall I cut in bigger/smaller pieces?" "Do I cut right?") and so on.

Or the user could ask: "What shall I do?", and the professional give more or detailed directions or reply with another question: "What do you think?". In both cases the initiative is in the hands of the user and communication is both ways and not, as it happens too often, one way.

Another example: a user with a severe disability has a tool in his hands (a spade, a fork, a pair of scissors...). A professional needs it at once: he can just take it from his hands. This means that he is oriented only to the task, is in a hurry and/or he doesn't think the user can understand his need/request. Contrarily, if he just extends his open hand, he gives the user the opportunity to complete the action giving him the tool needed. It's a small but important step towards a form of autonomy. This apparently trivial action allows the professional to understand if:

- a) The user pays attention to him/her and what he/she is doing (attention to the context);
- b) Understands the meaning of his/her gesture;
- c) Gives him/her the tool;
- d) Gives it in the right way (e.g. by the handle),
- e) Does something else (e.g. says "no" or runs away).

The last unexpected answers can be a very interesting opportunity to start a reflection about the relation user/professional or user/tool. Maybe he/she thinks the professional wants to rob his/her tool (misunderstanding of the gestural language); maybe he/she is doing something with the tool and the answer "no" means: "I need it. Wait." And so on. In any case these puzzling answers allow the professional to rethink his/her own ways of doing or the mental representation he/she has of that user.

1.2 The syndrome of Down: who was dr. Down and what did he deal with?

Our opinion, what we think we already know

Syndrome: - 'it is a disease'
- 'it is when someone is different'
- 'it is a genetic disease'

Acquired informations:

Syndrome: symptoms which together indicate a particular disease.
(Oxford Dictionary)

Syndrome of Down: it is a genetic condition, not a disease.

Here a synthesis :

The English doctor Langdon Down (1828- 1896) published in 1866 on the "London Hospital Reports" his **Observations on an ethnic classification of idiots**. Down states the need of a classification to enable a definite intervention on a child before it's too late. (from A. Canevaro, J. Gaudreau *L'educazione degli handicappati*, NIS- Roma, 1989)

His idea was to discover, observing the features, the way of being and becoming of a man.

Dr. Down states '... from a recognition of the type we can establish the physical traits of a child as well as his mental and moral ones; this can astound the mother, who finds someone that can anticipate what she should have exposed'. (from J. L. Down *Mental Affections in Childhood and Youth* from the Acts of the Council of the Medical Society of London)

Dr. Down says also that, because of the marked similarity he noticed between children 'with weak disposition' and the different ethnic types of the human family, he finds useful 'to classify his observations about idiots according to ethnic criteria identifying Ethiopian, Caucasian and Mongolian types. Dr. Down wished that all three the syndromes, the Mongolic, Ethiopic and Caucasic, could be considered'. (A. Canevaro, J. Gaudreau *L'educazione degli handicappati*, NIS- Roma, 1989)

Glossary

Syndrome: symptoms which together indicate a particular disease.

Features: characteristics referred to the body.

Idiot: from Greek, **idios**, isolated, peculiar, stupid and senseless.

Remarks

From the reading of Dr. Down's work comes out the concept of classification; this concept is often used in the study of a lot of subjects.

We would like to understand how much 'classification' is useful when dealing with persons, with their problems and behaviour.

Problems and working tracks

- Role and importance of the use of classifications in the knowing process.
- Classifications in the 'scientific method'.

- Relationship between observation and classification (how classifications change when the instruments of observation change; organs of senses, instruments of chemical or molecular research,...)
- Classifications in the study of human behaviour: benefits and risks.
- Classifications and the search for identity.

With which subjects do these problems interact?

WHY DID DOWN TALK ABOUT MONGOLISM?

Our opinion

The definition of 'mongolism' was applied merely on the basis of the similarity of the somatic traits of trisomic persons with the inhabitants of a particular Asian Region.

Acquired information

Here a passage that we found particularly meaningful and that confirms our previous opinion. It is an abstract from the report Dr. Down presented to the Council of Medical Society of London:

"... I've been impressed by the marked likeness of children with 'weak disposition' compared to the different ethnic types of the human family... I had in my care typical examples of the Negroid race, with the characteristic prognathic bones, prominent eyes, thick lips and receding chin. They had woolly hair, even if not black, and the skin hadn't acquired the pigmental element. They were examples of white niggers even if of European offspring.

Some classified the same (children with 'weak disposition') close to the Malayan variety, with black, curly, soft hair, prominent upper jaw and typical capacious mouth...

I also met some examples of the North-American Indian type, with low forehead, prominent cheeks, deep ocular cavities and a narrow, apish nose.

A considerable group is the Mongolic one. They have such marked traits that when they stand close to each other it is hard not to believe that they are not brothers and sisters. The likeness with another member of the group is indeed definitely more marked if compared to the members of his/her own family. They seldom have black hair, like true Mongols, but they have dark, thin, sparse hair. Their face is large, flat, without any prominence. Their cheeks are round and dilated sideways. The eyes are oblique and the inner cavities are more separated than usual. The cleft of the eyelids is very thin, the forehead has transversal wrinkles due to the movement of the occipital-frontal muscles in opening the eyes. The lips are large and thick, with transversal clefts. The tongue is long, thick and very wrinkled. The nose is thin..."

Dr. Down, processing a classification based on the comparison of the somatic traits of persons with mental deficit with people of extra-European ethnic types, thought in first place that he could distinguish a part of the 'congenital idiocy' from the accidental one; in second place he thought he had established, according to a certain number of 'observations' he had done, a datum system that could be used to predict the behaviour and the way to interact with the world of those who, with their mental deficit, were part of a given group of ethnic affiliation.

Certain kinds of personalities and certain possibilities of development should have been correlated to the Mongoloid group, and to the others as well.

(from M. Tagliavini *Dr. J. Langdon Down's criteria of classification of the mental deficit: aesthetic, anthropological and philosophical comparisons in a XIX century's experimental research*, Graduation thesis in Aesthetics, Bologna University.

Remarks

A parallelism is established between the 'idiots' and the races considered inferior to the white one: there's the need to **classify** and place the 'misfits' in a certain group; this need proceeds from the fear of 'close' diversity.

Why does diversity, especially if close, scare?

Here the answers from a group discussion:

1. Because they could have different reactions from ours.
2. Because we are afraid of misunderstanding or being misunderstood.
3. Because we fear what we do not know.

Problems and working tracks

Which can be the attitude towards 'diversity' (physical, cultural, due to deficit)?

From research:

"There's the fear that the different other could be too demanding: instead of confirming a diversity that doesn't allow connections and identification, an embarrassing continuity between normality and handicap is presented. The promise of the word 'idiot' can fail: the other could be a bit less idiot, and I could be a bit more idiot..."

(A. Canevaro, J. Gaudreau *L'educazione degli handicappati*, NIS- Roma, 1989).

TO WHICH CONTEMPORARY OR PREVIOUS THEORIES DID DR. DOWN REFER?

Dr. Down refers mainly to the theories developed in XIX century by Gall (phrenology) and Lavater (physiognomy), which substantially aimed to understand and explain the character of an individual with the external appearance. With Lombroso there's the pretence to deduce, from the facial traits, a predisposition to break social rules.

Glossary

Phrenology: it is a neuropsychosomatic theory developed in XIX century by F.J. Gall who thought that every psychic function was correlated to particular protuberances of the cranium, according to which the psychic characteristics of an individual could be determined.

Physiognomy: subject that deduces the psychic characteristics of an individual from the somatic traits, in particular from the facial ones. Spread in antiquity (Averroes, Albert the Great) and in Renaissance, it was resumed in XIX century by J. Lavater and F.J. Gall (see: phrenology) who studied in particular the structure of the cranium.

Criminal anthropology/Criminology: was founded by Cesare Lombroso (1835-1909), a psychiatrist and anthropologist who thought he could single out the distinctive somatic traits of criminals.

Remarks

Phrenology and physiognomy proposed a very simple method of recognition of the 'other'. It was a mechanical way that answered the problems apparently without ambiguity; one could believe he understood and recognized the others without the rich but difficult complexity of interpersonal relations.

It was not perceived that, avoiding these relations, one can't attain those aims that we consider basic, it is to say:

1. the mutual recognition;

2. the rise of a sense of belonging;
3. the possibility of communication and the acquisition of learnings.

About the possibility of understanding the 'other' without any effort of mutual recognition, it could be useful to report an episode/apologue told by Gregory Bateson:

"Dr Stutterheim, a State archaeologist of Java, used to tell this tale: some time before the coming of white men there was a hurricane on the Javanese coasts, close to one of the capitals. Once the storm drove away people went to the seashore and found, among the waves and almost dead, a huge white ape of an unknown species. The seniors of their religion explained that the ape had been at the court of Beroena, the god of the sea, and because of some faults was banished, and that the hurricane had been the expression of the wrath of the god. The Rajah ordered the ape out of the sea and saved. The ape was chained to a stone which reported, roughly engraved in Latin, Dutch and English, his name and the story of his wreck.

This sailor who could speak three languages, didn't obviously established a verbal communication with those who had taken him prisoner. Surely he wasn't aware of their preconceptions, according to which they considered him a white ape and not a potential receiver of a verbal message. They probably never doubted of his belonging to the human race, but he could have doubted of theirs."

This tale/apologue underlines the need of setting, as a basis for learning, not only communication but mutual recognition as well. Without this mutual recognition it seems pretty hard to start both communication and learning.

(A. Canevaro, 1986) <reference missing>

1.2 Training content example 1 (University of Bologna)

AGRICULTURAL TRAINING: MANURES AND FERTILIZERS

Foreword

Plant growth cannot continue if there is not a supply of minerals in a soil.

The materials which are available for this purpose can be divided into two groups: the bulky, organic materials which are called manures, and the more concentrated, inorganic chemical substances which are called fertilizers. Farmyard manure, or dung, consists of a mixture of litter, solid excreta and urine. It contains three most important substances for plant materials — nitrogen, phosphate and potash. Manure is added to the soil for several reasons. It improves the physical condition of the soil. It also keeps up the level of humus in the soil, and maintains the best conditions for the activities of soil organisms. Finally, it makes up for the plant nutrients which have been removed by crops or lost by leaching and soil erosion.

(1) Manures are as concentrated as fertilizers.

(2) Nitrogen, phosphate and potash are the three most important substances for plant materials.

(3) The level of humus in the soil can be kept up by adding manure.

Another kind of manure is green manure. This includes leguminous crops which grow quickly such as clover and lucerne. Such crops supply additional nitrogen as well as organic matter. A leguminous crop which is ploughed under will add as much nitrogen to the soil per hectare as 7 to 25 tons of farmyard manure.

Fertilizers are usually classified according to the particular food element which forms their main constituent. So they may be grouped as nitrogenous fertilizers, phosphatic fertilizers, potassic fertilizers and so on.

The most commonly used fertilizer which contains nitrogen is ammonium sulphate, which is made from ammonia and sulphuric acid, and which contains 21% nitrogen. This element encourages rapid vegetative growth and gives plants a healthy green colour. Another valuable nitrogenous fertilizer is urea, which is made from ammonia and carbon dioxide, and contains 46% nitrogen.

(4) Nitrogen is supplied to the soil by quick-growing leguminous crops.

(5) Nitrogen is the food element which is the main constituent of a nitrogenous fertilizer.

(6) Ammonium sulphate is a nitrogenous fertilizer.

The most widely used phosphatic fertilizer, superphosphate, is made by treating mineral phosphate with sulphuric acid. Phosphorous stimulates the formation of a plant's roots, and promotes fruit and seed production. Tropical soils are very often poor in this element.

Finally, wherever high crop yields are expected, potash is used together with nitrogen and phosphorous. Potassium makes the plant tissues stronger. This helps the plant to withstand mechanical damage such as broken branches and torn leaves. In this way the entry of disease bearing agents, or pathogens, such as bacteria and fungi, is prevented. Potassium is important for all plants but particularly so for those that produce oil and starch or sugars. Oil palm and tapioca plants require potassium in large amounts. It is usually supplied in the form of muriate of potash (potassium chloride), which contains 50 to 60% potassium oxide (K_2O) and sulphate of potash (potassium sulphate).

(7) Fruit and seeds will not be produced if a plant is not given a phosphatic fertilizer.

(8) Help in withstanding mechanical damage prevents the entry of pathogens into plants.

All plants are affected by the degree of acidity or alkalinity of the soil.

The less the nutrient supply, the more acid the soil becomes. Because mineral salts are basic, an acid soil has a low base content. Acidity makes some elements unavailable to plants. If a soil is

very acid, with a pH value of less than 5.0, lime can be added to correct this acidity. The main constituent of lime is calcium, an important plant food. The presence of lime helps to make essential elements of plant food more easily available to plants. Nitrogen, phosphorous and potassium are more easily available in a well limed soil than in an acid soil.

Conclusions based on observations

Mineral deficiencies

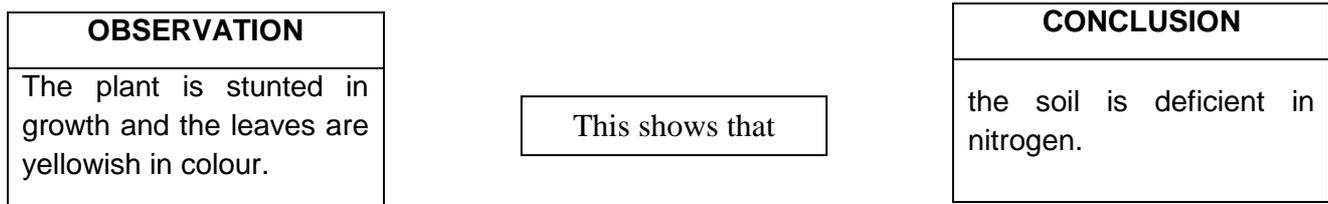
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Soils are sometimes short of plant nutrients:

1)

Symptom	Diagnosis
plant stunted in growth, leaves yellowish in colour	soil deficient in nitrogen

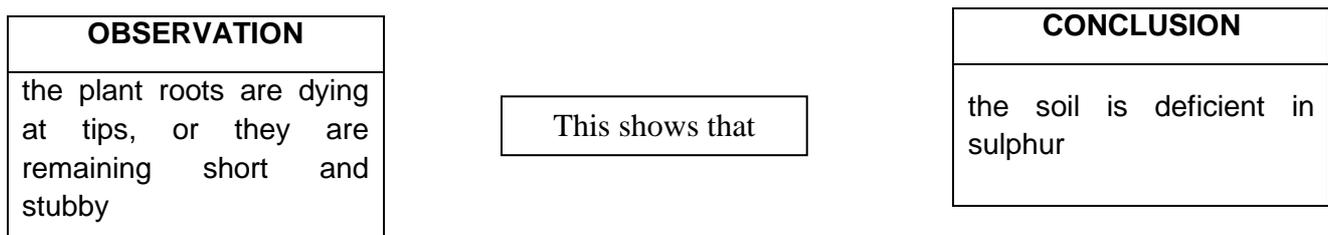
We can express this information as follows:



2)

Symptom	Diagnosis
plant roots dying at tips, or remain short and stubby	soil deficient in sulphur

We can express this information as follows:



3)

Symptom
all parts of plant stunted in growth, with bluish-green leaves, poor fruit or seed development

Diagnosis
plant short of element magnesium

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
all parts of plant are stunted in growth, the leaves are bluish-green, and fruit or seed have poor development

This shows that

CONCLUSION
the plant are short of element magnesium

4)

Symptom
plant tissues weak, prone to attack by insects and fungus

Diagnosis
soil deficient in potassium

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
The plant tissues are weak, and they are prone to attack by insects and fungus

This shows that

CONCLUSION
the soil is deficient in potassium

5)

Symptom
leaves losing their green colour, becoming yellow at tips, between veins

Diagnosis
soil deficient in phosphorous

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
The leaves are losing their green colour, and they are becoming yellow at tips, between veins

This shows that

CONCLUSION
the soil is deficient in phosphorous

6)

Symptom
new leaves turning yellow, roots and stems becoming long and woody

Diagnosis
supply of calcium in soil is low

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
new leaves are turning yellow, the roots and stems are becoming long and woody

This shows that

ONCLUSION
the supply of calcium in soil is low

7)

Symptom
young leaves developing chlorosis, veins remain green

Diagnosis
amount of zinc in soil insufficient

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
young leaves are developing chlorosis, and the veins remain green

This shows that

CONCLUSION
the amount of zinc in soil is insufficient

8)

Symptom

foliage of field crops,
particularly lower leaves,
has intraveinal chlorosis

Diagnosis
plant suffering from deficiency of iron

We can express this information as follows:

OBSERVATION
the foliage of field crops, particularly lower leaves, are developing intraveinal chlorosis

CONCLUSION
the plant are suffering from deficiency of iron

1.3 Training content example 2 (University of Bologna)

AGRICULTURAL TRAINING: THE SOIL TABLE

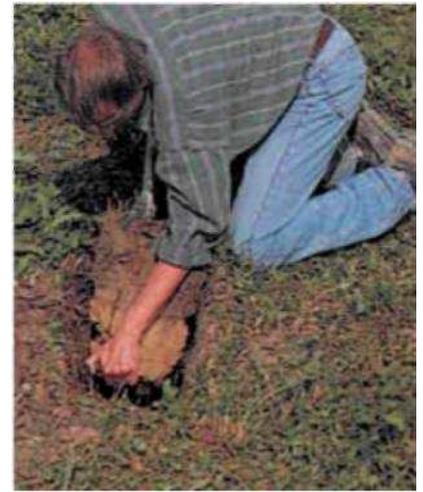
This is just an example of a practical exercise in agricultural training. You can make other tables according to your farming characteristics.

Foreword

The soil is not just ground to tread on or to be manipulate as we like. It's a living entity which is born, grows, reach its maturity and, if misused, can even die. Therefore a close and experiential observation of it is necessary to test his health and learn the complexity of elements, organisms, events and actions which influence its conditions.

It is possible to test the nature, state and the quality of a cultivable soil in an easy way with the *spade analysis*. By observing humidity, smell and color you can understand its nature, needs and dangers.

The spade analysis



- 1) Dig a hole planting vertically a 45 cm. spade in order to reach the not worked layer of the soil. While digging you can make the first observations: do you feel a strong or a weak resistance? How does the extracted earth break into pieces? You can see if the soil is sandy, clayey or slimy. How many earthworms are there? Heartworms are the first and most important sign of the health of the soil.
- 2) From the vertical face of the hole extract a slab of earth about 10 cm thick or less in stony grounds hard to dig.



- a) First test: *humidity*. It tells if you can enter the field on foot or with a machine to work it. Break a clod with the hands: is it hard to break? You can enter the field but you can't cultivate it. Is it friable? The soil is ready to be cultivated, but pay attention to tread on it especially with heavy machines because it is easily constipated. Is it plastic? the earth twists or kneads without breaking: do not enter and do not work it because there are risks of permanent damages.
- b) Second test: *Smell* the clod. It will tell you about the aeration of the soil and decomposition of organic materials. The cultivated layer has a strong smell while the non-cultivated one has no smell. A good smell means that the soil is well aerated and organic materials are well decomposed. A bad smell means the soil is bad aerated and the rotting materials indicate that the soil is constipated (asphyxia).
- c) Third test: *Color*. It shows the degree of aeration, its water regimen and humus percentage. Yellow, brown and reddish colors are produced by oxidized iron and its compounds in a well aerated soil. In soils permanently water-saturated, iron takes on a grey-blue color because of a lack of oxygen. Humus adds grey-black shades. In soil like these the growth of roots is limited. In periodically water soaked soils there are rusty stains and brown-black concretions of manganese. According to colors and smell you can see if there is a degradation of the soil structure which hinders the development of plants.



- d) Fourth test: the *nature* of the soil. It is formed by the structure and the percentage of humus. The percentages of sand, silt and clay constitute the texture which can be tested with a tactile test while the percentage of humus can be seen from the more or less dark color of the soil. Usually soils are divided into: light, medium and heavy. Take a handful of humid earth, press it to form small balls and cylinders. Observe: *adhesion* to fingers, *cohesion* and *plasticity*.
 - If** the earth does not adhere to fingers and is granulose, it is difficult to mould and crumbles easily, small cylinders have a diameter more than 7 millimeters, **then** you have a light soil. **Advantages** of a light soil: easy to work, no water retention, drains and dries easily. **Disadvantages**: it can lose its structure and fertility.
 - If** the earth adheres a little and is rather granulose, can be moulded (with difficulty or easily), has a fissured aspect and the diameter of little cylinders is from 7 to 2 mm., **then** you have a medium soil. It has a better structure, retains fertility easily but also water and is more easily constipated.
 - If** the earth is very adhesive, smooth and bright, can be very easily moulded and little cylinders have a diameter less than 2 mm., **then** the soil is heavy. It has a good fertility but can be easily water soaked and constipated.

Root development

In a full growing crop the extension of root network gives immediate information about the state of the soil. To observe the roots you must carefully clean them from the earth. Apart from feeding the plant, roots contribute to the evolution and stabilization of the soil structure. To evaluate the root development, you must observe: their mass, distribution, directions in the soil and if they have deformations.

Root mass: first of all you should know the “normal” root development of the chosen crop. The evaluation will depend on climate condition, stage of development and the time of observation.

Directions of roots: volumes of soil not explored by roots or colonized only along existing tunnels (fissures or earthworm tunnels) are a sign of the degradation of the soil structure. *Deformation of roots:* they are signs of physical obstacles the roots met.

1.4 Training content example 3 (Bellechambre)

AN EDUCATIVE APPROACH FOR AUTISTIC AND MENTAL DISABLED PEOPLE IN SOCIAL FARMING

1- THE ACCOMPANIMENT IN THE CHEESE FABRIC USING THE REFLECTION:

There is an interaction between: The users
 How to adapt the actions
 The finalities
 And why we need to adapt and to finalize

WHY: Because of their unstructured personality
 Because of their cognitive development
 Because of the consequences of their disabilities
 Because disabled people has the right to exist as a real person

ADAPT: Implies- a very structured fabrication

- the choice of the fabrication
- the choice of the material
- a space for each one
- a mediating techniques

FINALITIES: Implies-a construction of the personality

- cognitive processes
- the access to an recognised identity

2-THE ACCOMPANIMENT IN CHEESE FABRIC IN THE WORK ORGANISATION

We have to stay simple, but very structured and spotted. We always ask ourselves the same questions:

a- What are we doing for the fact that the user comes to work?

-We prepare the work place and the work to do according to the user. For example, David couldn't put in the moulds without anguish if the table isn't in the right place. (If he's anguished he won't be able to think and to understand the orders)

-We go and fetch for the user in his life place or we ask to a worker to accompany him at work (This task is really in relation with autism). For example, it's difficult for Fabrice to go from a place to another place.

-We have to respect the sanitary rules. So the users work with a mask, a special hat, gloves and an apron. In fact it's more than what it is expected in farming fabric.

b-What are we doing for the fact that the user stay at work?

-We adapt the choice of fabrication of the day to the user who will come at work. But however, we take into account the sale needs. For example, David mould the curd as he's seeing himself, that means divided, so he takes very small parts of curd. He can't mould the "Belle Chambre" but he can mould the fresh drained cheese.

-We adapt the material according to the abilities of the user. For example, Serge doesn't have the rotation of the shoulder (The gesture), so he can't use a ladle but he can use the skimmer which needs a translation gesture and not a rotation gesture.

-We adapt the time and the work conditions to the psycho logic mood of the user. For example, Sébastien needs short sequences with a beginning and a end so he can stay quiet and feel secured. So between 2 technical acts we ask him to seat down. So each time he stands up it means for him that it is the beginning of a sequence. Each time he seats, it's the end.

-We adapt the space to the user taking account the technical requirements. For example, Stéphane doesn't tolerate the closeness. So it is not possible for him to work near the other present users. The cheese fabric has been built very big to respect this need of distance. In spite of the distance between the moulding tables, sometimes he still need to stay more in standing back for protecting himself, but in the same time it allows him to stay in the work place.

-We think the work activity, respecting their well-being and their appeasement.

For example, there are many windows in the cheese fabric allowing that the users don't lose the contact with the natural day light (it's essential for autistic people). There is also a special room in the cheese fabric with many windows, it allows to a user to stay and see the work activity. So he keeps his distance need but he can take part in the work even it is not directly.

c-What are we doing for the fact that the user appropriate his work?

-We use the technique as mediation. For example, Philippe refuses to mould with the ladle or the skimmer, he wants to empty his bucket; he becomes nervous, he feels anguished, the pitch becomes higher...the violence isn't far. So we try to calm him, explaining the sense of the moulding, why we need to do it. By this way it is no more the worker who imposes something but it is a technical necessity: to make a good cheese which makes happy a consumer.

-We always give to the users the possibility to change of tasks and to learn. For example, Hubert doesn't like the changing. But years by years, he began to borrow working in the cheese fabric. So very progressively, and with the advantage to have a big diversity of making cheeses, we could propose to him different kinds of tasks to allow him to perform in a new making. He succeeded in a new know-how and now he's very proud.

-We identify the work spaces to help the users to understand what they are doing.

-We spot all the different steps of making in order that the users understand what they are doing. For example, David doesn't tolerate that an object is at the wrong place or that a task is not made in the right place. He feels well at work when what I am asking him fits to the right place where it must be done. He better understand when I ask him to clean some materials and that in the cleaning room. Each task has its place to make it.

-We put the users in a success situation. For example, Hubert always feels responsible of the quality of cheese. He becomes very anguished and violent when he sees that the curd is not good or when he doesn't succeed to mould it. So we ask him to participate on specific task where we are sure he will succeed and arrive to a result of quality.

1.5 Training content example 5 (Noordheaven)

<available only in PDF format, De Noordheaven should provide DOC format>

1.6 Task table example

Collecting vegetables (Associazione Conca d'Oro)

Hand collecting vegetables may seem an easy, trivial task which needs no training. On the contrary, it is a task which requires knowledge and skills both for social professionals and users. Collecting always implies a choice: this fruit or that one?, Yes or not? Just making choice (doesn't matter if right or wrong) may be a difficult task for some users. It poses five main solving problems:

When to collect (ripeness)

Look for them

Discriminate between the good ones and the bad ones

How to collect them (hand, tools)

Preparing them for selling.

Here are some examples. Please, add as many questions and/or vegetables as you think useful.

a. ZUCCHINI

WHEN (RIPENESS)

The length of the fruits determines when to collect them. It depends on local habits and shop standards. In Italy the standard is about 12-17 cm. It's up to the local farmer to decide about it.

Professional self-observation

Is it easy or difficult for you to decide the right length?

Do you ask for other people's opinion?

Do you collect alone or together with a user?

How often do you check the user's collection?

How do you correct him/her? Just telling? Comparing your zucchini with his/hers?

User:

Does he/she know where the zucchini are?

Was he/she shown the right length?

Does he/she like the task?

Does he/she collect alone or together with others?

Does he/she ask (verbally or not) for an opinion? Often, from time to time?

To whom: professional and/or colleagues ?

Does he make many/few mistakes? Which ones? Too short, too long zucchini?

Does he/she use imitation to decide which ones to collect?

Does he/she realize his/her mistakes?

LOOK FOR

Professional self-observation

Where do you look?

Is it easy to find them?

Do you inspect carefully each plant?

Suggestion: after finishing a row of plants, go back and look again. how many zucchini did you miss?

Do you suggest the user where to look for? How often?

User

Where does he/she look?

Does he/she move the leaves?

Does he/she inspect carefully the plant?

Is he/she easily distracted?

If he/she has collected one zucchini per plant, does he/she look again?

Does he/she miss some plants?

Does he/she interrupt the task?

Does he/she ask for help?

After he/she has finished a row of plants, check how many zucchini he/she missed.

DISCRIMINATION of bad zucchini from good ones-

Visual discrimination:

Shape: Twisted, ill shaped, blistered fruit; brown, rotten tops

Color: discoloring on the surface such as graying; punctured fruit.

Manual discrimination

Squeeze: If the zucchini is not as firm as it should be, it may be rotten or spongy inside.

Professional self-observation

Is it easy for you to decide by the color if the fruit is bad?

After collecting some zucchini you are not sure about, ask the farmer if you were right.

How do you explain the differences between good zucchini and bad ones to the user? Verbally and/or showing some examples?

Do you repeat the explanation?

Do you think the task is easy for the user?

Do you think he/she understand the differences?

How do you react to the user's wrong actions?

User

Does he/she observe the fruit before collecting it?

Does he/she ask the professional's opinion?

Does he/she interrupt the task?

Does he/she make any mistake?

Does he/she realize his/her mistakes?

HOW

Usually zucchini are collected cutting the stem with a knife. This way may spread virosis from a plant to another. It's better to collect them by hand, twisting the stem and using the thumb nail. It is not an easy task: you have to pay attention and weigh you strength. The fruit must have a stump of stem attached to it. Fruits without stumps can't be sold.

Professional self-observation

Do you collect by hand or with a knife?
Is collecting by hand an easy task for you?
Do you use the right strength?
Do you make any mistakes (e.g. fruit without stem)?
Do you help the user? Supporting him/her verbally? Showing how to do?
How often do you check the user's choice?
How do you react to the user's wrong actions?

User

Does he/she collect by hand or with a knife?
Does he/she use the knife correctly?
Is his/her fine motility good or not?
Collecting by hand, does he/she use the right strength/movement?
Is his/her action hurried or careful?
How is his/he timing? Slow, fast, right?
Does he/she tire easily?
Is his/her attention to the task steady or faulty?
Does she/he ask for help/opinion?
Does he/she accept your help?
Does he/she accept your correction?
Does he/she make any mistakes?
Does he/she realize the mistake?
How does he/she react to his/her mistake?

PREPARATION

Clean the zucchini with a cloth, if necessary, before putting them in low crates, in rows, tops up. Each row must be half covered by the lower one. A crate must contain fruits of similar thickness and length.

Professional self-observation

Is the task interesting/boring for you?
Are you too/not much careful in selecting fruits?
Do you think you take the right time?
How do you react to the user's wrong actions?
How do you correct the user? Making yourself the correct action? Explaining verbally? Asking why he/she has done in that way?
Pay attention to obsessive/compulsive behaviours.

User

Does he/she put the fruits in the right order (rows, tops up)?
Is his/her action slow/fast/ hurried?

Is the task interesting/boring for him/her?
Is he/she careful?
Does he/she select fruits with similar length and thickness?
Does he/she work alone or side by side with a professional?
Does he/she need frequent help/corrections?
How does he/she react to corrections

b. BEANS, PEAS, FRENCH BEANS

Collecting beans, French beans (string beans) and peas seems the easiest task because it only requires to pull the pods. While, in our experience, is not a very successful task for users with mental retardation and some kinds of psychiatric problems.

WHEN

The ripeness of **beans** is stated by the colour (e. g. a pinkish-brown speckled skin in *borlotti* beans, a variety of kidney beans) and the fullness of the pod: the seeds inside must be coloured too. For **peas**, it's the fullness of the pod and for French beans is the length and the green colour of the pod (immature beans).

Professional self-observation

Is it an easy task for you deciding their ripeness?
Which decision is more difficult: beans, peas or French beans?
Is it an interesting/boring task for you?
Do you make any mistakes about the ripeness?
Do you collect them staying near or far from the users?
How do you explain which ones to collect? Verbally, showing, letting him/her try?
How often do you check the user's choice?

User

To decide their ripeness is an easy task for him/her?
Which decision is more difficult: beans, peas or French beans?
Which characteristic is easier for him/her to decide about the ripeness: colour and length or fullness of the pod?
Does she/he ask for the professional's opinion?
Doe he/she make many mistakes?
Is it an interesting/boring task for him/her?

LOOK FOR

They are usually planted in long rows and they get ripe bottom up. They grow both on the exterior and the interior of the plant. The main difference is between climbing beans, peas and low ones. The climbing ones are more easily detected

Professional self-observation

What's your favourite posture collecting low beans or peas? Is it comfortable?
Do you search carefully each plant?
Is it sometimes difficult to choose?
Do you get bored/tired easily?
Does the task seem endless to you?
Is your speed slow/fast?
Do you adapt your speed to the user's?
Do you suggest him/her to look better? How often?

User

What's his/her favourite posture collecting low beans or peas? Is it comfortable?
Does he/she often change it?
Does he/she use both hands?
Does he/she get easily bored/tired?
Does he/she search carefully each plant?
Does he/she collect only the fruits inside his/her visual field?
Is his/her attention steady?
Does he/she change rhythm?
Does he/she miss any plants?
The professional's suggestions/corrections are useful?
Does he/she do something else while collecting? Chatting, looking around, talking to him/herself...?
Does this behaviour slow down his task?
Does the professional participate to his behaviour (i.e. chatting) or does he rebuke him/her?
Does he/she stay still for a time without doing nothing?

DISCRIMINATE

Bad fruits: beans: black flattened spots on the pods (sclerotia), distinct brown sunken lesions on the pods (anthracnose), round holes on the pods (corn borer moth).
Withered bean pods are still good.
Peas: discoloured green or yellow peas (mycosphaerella blight); brownish, greyish lesions on the pods (*ascocytha pisi*), withered pods (overripe).

Professional's self-observation

Is it easy for you to discriminate bad fruits from good ones?
Does it slow your rhythm?
Do you have to tell the user to be more careful/attentive?
How often do you check the user's crop?

User

Does he/she pay attention?
Is it easy for him/her to discriminate bad fruits from good ones?
Does he/she ask for other's opinion?
Does he/she make many mistakes? Why? Because it's difficult to discriminate? because he/she is distracted?
Does he/she correct his/her mistakes?

Does he/she accept to be rebuked/controlled?

Annex 2 – Tools

1. Observation table (example, to be changed according to the needs)
2. Evaluation of competences tools
3. Reporting tools (online based PBWORKS)
4. Reporting tools for special guests' visits (to be delivered by May 31st)

<to be completed>