NON-VIOLENT DISCIPLINE

A guide for training professionals

Save the Children

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Editors: Dominique Pierre Plateau and Deborah Muir

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Ts. Odonchimeg, Mongolia
S. Tumursukh, Mongolia

For further information please contact:

Save the Children Sweden
Regional Office for Southeast Asia and the Pacific
14th floor, Maneeya Center, South Building
518/5 Ploenchit Road, Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel: +662 684 1046/7 Fax:+662 684 1048
Email: scs@seap.savethechildren.se
Website: http://seap.savethechildren.se

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Introduction

This training programme is intended to raise awareness among professionals working with children and families about the effects of physical and psychological punishment on children and the need to end such punishment. It promotes positive education and discipline for children, based on the rights of a child to enjoy healthy development and not to suffer any form of violence.

This guide is based on a translation of materials developed by Pepa Horno Goicoechea, of Save the Children Spain, and used in 'Love, Power and Violence: A comparative analysis of physical and psychological punishment patterns' (2005). The original material was developed and tested through 2003 and 2004, during which time workshops were conducted in South Asia, South-East Asia, Latin America and Europe. More than 3000 people who work in the fields of social welfare, education, health care, policing, law and the media have participated in the training.

Methodology

The methodology focuses on training at a personal level. The approach is two-fold: to help the participants gain a clear vision of the problem of physical and psychological punishment of children, and to encourage the participants to recognise and act against forms of violence that they themselves may have to deal with in their personal non-professional lives. It is essential that the participants are able to address violence in their own personal lives so as to strengthen their professional interventions against violence within the families with whom they work.

The participants are guided to see that physical and psychological punishment of children is commonly a socially-accepted form of violence, and that such violence against children is most usually inflicted by the people who are closest to them. Where violence occurs in the guise of 'discipline' and 'love', countering deep and socially-rooted practices and attitudes requires that professionals working with children and families call on their personal strengths and experiences to understand why physical and psychological punishment is violence, and why it must end.

An empathetic understanding of the phenomenon of physical and psychological punishment of children is a first and essential step towards eradicating such punishment. Empathy comes with understanding the concept of violence and the limits of violence, the psychological and relational dimensions between an aggressor and their victim, and the consequences for the development of the person who suffers violence. If people cannot feel the problem – by understanding it and knowing of the pain caused by any form of violence – they will not be able to rid it from their personal lives and work against it in their professional lives.

The acquisition of knowledge provided through this training is based on the premise that change in social attitudes comes from the personal sphere. The workshop exercises therefore need to be kept simple and direct so that the participants can become emotionally involved with the work. To establish emotional involvement, two basic resources are used – examples from the personal lives of the participants and theoretical devices for elaborating on these examples for broader understandings. This type of work requires the trainer to be able to manage the participants' emotions, to verbalise them and to include them as part of the work, while also dealing with defensive reactions such as negation, silence, blocks or even crying. The emotional content of the methodology can be very powerful, which plays a significant part in its effectiveness.

Physical and psychological punishment is not a strange or unusual phenomenon. It is part of everyday life in most countries, across most cultures. It is so normalised that even professionals working with children may not perceive it to be violence. A key to promoting change is to make people fully aware of the violence inherent in physical and psychological punishment. This is why it is important to work with the examples extracted from the everyday lives of the participants – from their relationships with their children, their partners, the families in which they grew up, and their close friends. Such examples are easily recognised and can resonate strongly. Think, for example, of a child's tantrum in a supermarket, or a quarrel between spouses or friends where they say hurtful things that they later regret.

The participants will find themselves questioning not only their behaviour with their own and other children, but also the behaviour of their families of origin and how this has affected their own development (a family of origin comprises the people who play parenting and caring roles and need not be biologically based). When the participants are listening to the discussions, they are not likely to think, 'I hit my child the other day and nothing happened'. They are more inclined to think, 'my parents hit me and I have become a good and stable person'. This reflection is commonly in the mind of the listener, whether they vocalise it or not. Such deep-seated attitudes should be brought to the fore and made explicit within the workshop in order to explain the conditioning that generates such thinking and to highlight the value of changing it.

Models of personal and emotional relationships are almost always learnt from a person's family of origin. The training should focus on this as a means for modifying such models. Working on violence and emotions is to work at a very personal level that goes beyond an individual's specific behaviour. Wider patterns of behaviour are guided by entrenched beliefs and social attitudes, which are the focus of attention in the methodology used here.

As already noted, physical and psychological punishment exists in all cultures. The participants, however, are likely to see it in terms of being unique and specific within their own cultures, communities and countries. They will say, 'in my country …'. All countries have sayings such as 'you have to be cruel to be kind', or 'spare the rod and spoil the child', yet participants are likely to regard these views as somehow specific and typical to their culture. Participants need to come to an understanding that physical and psychological punishment of children occurs universally and has more to do with the way people perceive personal relationships and manage tensions and power within them than with culture. This is a primary objective of the training work around the concept of violence.

Violent punishment is also universal because it affects all individuals, not just all societies. Everyone in the workshop, including the trainer, will have experienced physical and psychological punishment in some form - they will have used it, suffered it or witnessed it. The participants need to understand that they too may be violent with people close to them and that violence is much more than a slap. This recognition will place the participants in a better position to understand rather than judge others who use and justify physical and psychological punishment. Seeing situations from another person's perspective will assist the participants as professionals in their work to change attitudes and guide people to adopt positive and non-violent ways of bringing up children and resolving conflict within families.

Structure and process

This guide is presented in three parts: Training Notes (process and comments for the conduct of the workshop), Information Sheets (to be distributed among participants) and Additional Training Notes (extra details and background information for the trainer's benefit). The trainer is advised to adapt the content and examples to suit the participants and the local context. The trainer may wish to rework the material in some parts of the workshop into more formal presentations, and may also choose not to include all sessions.

The full workshop is expected to run for about 12 hours, or more if translations are needed (that is, about two full days). The time required to complete each session will vary and it is up to the trainer to design a suitable schedule. Some of the sessions are presented in the Training Notes as a series of activities or discussions for ease of reference, but these sessions should not be interrupted by gaps. Breaks should be timed to occur before and after complete sessions. Note in particular that a significant break is required between Session 2 and Session 3, either a lunch break or an overnight break, so that the participants have time to reflect on the especially personal content in Session 2.

PART 1:
Training Notes

INTRODUCTIONS

Description: The participants introduce themselves to one another in a way that sheds light on their own personal histories.

Objectives: To create a warm atmosphere among the participants and to encourage them to consider their backgrounds, social conditioning, and negative and positive responses to others.

Materials: Pen and paper.

Time: 1 hour

INTRODUCTIONS (CONTINUED)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	This activity allows participants to introduce each other in relation to more personal aspects of their lives rather than their professional careers.
1. The trainer informs the participants they have a schedule for three meetings. One will take place at 9.10am, the next at 9.20am and the third at 9.30am. They need to make a note of their schedule (as in a diary).	*(This activity links with the role of family of origin, conflict resolution and positive emotional bonds).*
2. The trainer explains that he/she will manage the time. Each 10-minute interval will be just five minutes of real time.	
3. The participants are asked to find three people who wish to meet with them (either one at a time or in pairs). They are asked to organise this quickly and preferably to meet with people they do not already know.	
4. When everyone has their appointments arranged, the trainer tells them the topic of each meeting.	• Meeting 1: The participants tell each other the origin of their name and why they were so named. • Meeting 2: The participants tell each other when they last became angry, with whom they were angry, and why. • Meeting 3: The participants talk about the last time someone said something to them that they enjoyed hearing and made them feel good, and how they responded and felt. While the first meeting places the participants within the realm of their family of origin and encourages them to think about things they may not usually consider, the third meeting is intended to create a favourable atmosphere for participants to open up emotionally before the next exercise.

INTRODUCTIONS (CONTINUED)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
5. After the meetings, the trainer asks the participants to introduce one of the people with whom they met. They are asked to say who the person is, what they have told them about themselves and what they enjoyed or found significant.	
6. The trainer draws the participants into discussion.	Re: Meeting 1, names are a gift from parents or carers. A name is something that parents or carers choose for us, and it plays a part in conditioning and shaping our lives. Note the positive aspects of motivations for naming people in certain ways and the meanings names may have. Re: Meeting 2, most people will have been angry with people to whom they are close – parents, children, a partner, a friend – or people or situations in which their response was due to personal factors or situations that affected their ability to manage frustration without aggression. Re: Meeting 3, it is small things that people appreciate – words, looks and expressions, small but meaningful gestures, usually coming from people with whom they are close.
7. The trainer informs the participants that – now that everyone knows at least a little more about each other – the group will begin to work on the workshop's key concepts and themes.	The trainer compares the second and third meetings and notes how quickly and easily participants recall emotionally charged positive memories.

SESSION 1: WHAT IS VIOLENCE?

Description: The session includes three interconnected discussions that centre on developing a clear understanding of violence.

Objectives: 1) To work with the participants on the concept of violence from a psychological and relational dimension, 2) to identify physical and psychological punishment as violence, 3) to differentiate punishment from positive discipline, and 4) to recognise the importance of unequal power to the emergence of violence in relationships.

Materials: Flipcharts, marker pens, Information Sheet 1.

Time: 2 hours

Key concepts:

- Violent and non-violent punishment.
- The difference between punishment and positive discipline.
- Abuse of power.

1.1: The difference between violent punishment, non-violent punishment and discipline	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
1. The trainer asks the participants, 'Do you remember when you were a child, and you did something wrong? How did your parents respond?'	If the group finds the exercise difficult, broaden the question to include teachers.
2. The trainer draws three columns on a flipchart. He or she writes each of the participants' answers in one of the columns. The trainer makes no comments while doing this and does not write headings for the columns.	The left column will be made up of examples of punishments in which violence is used. These physical and psychological punishments will be marked by violation of a child's dignity, harm to a child's development and self-esteem, a child's suffering, or an abuse of power. Such punishments commonly are enacted quickly and easily, without much thought. Examples include hitting, insulting, shouting, silence, blackmail, threats, etc. The middle column will be made up of examples of punishment that do not involve violence. These actions are "penalties" imposed on a child from a position of power. They include such punishments as forcing a child to sit in a corner or on a chair, or not allowing a child to watch TV or go out with friends. The right column will include examples of positive discipline – i.e., teaching the child through explanation, reasoning, problem-solving, negotiation and conflict resolution. Discipline is not imposed from a position of power, does not involve coercion and does not denigrate or humiliate the child; for example, showing a child how to repair harm done and helping him or her to do the same. These actions will be well-considered and take more time than punishments. Usually, most of the examples of violence involve physical punishment. If this occurs, the trainer should provide some examples of psychological punishment for inclusion in the left-hand column. An example might be the use of silence *(for a long time and without explanation)*, where a parent stops talking to a child in response to a particular behaviour.

1.1: The difference between violent punishment, non-violent punishment and discipline (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	The difference between the left and middle columns is that that **the punishments on the left involve violence (that cause pain and/or emotional harm) while the punishments in the middle do not.** The difference between the middle and right columns is that even non-violent punishments are imposed on a child from a position of power. Positive discipline is carried out from the perspective of teaching, not punishing, the child. For example, if a young child is playing with something dangerous, the parent might: slap the child's hand (violent punishment); tell the child to sit in the corner (non-violent punishment); or explain how playing with the object could hurt the child and ask the child to help find a safe place for it (positive discipline). In this example, the object is not taken away from the child as a punishment. Rather, the parent engages the child in understanding and solving the problem.
3. After the three columns are finished, the trainer asks the participants, 'What differences do you see among these columns?'	The trainer notes that some parental acts may sometimes seem to be the same, and yet the way they are imposed can be violent, punitive or positive depending on the situation. Consider, for example, three scenarios of "time out". Locking a child in a dark place is a violent punishment because it causes emotional harm. It teaches the child to fear the parent, but does not teach the child how to resolve the conflict. Calmly telling a child to sit in a corner for a short time is a non-violent punishment because it does not harm the child but it is imposed from a position of power and it does not teach the child how to resolve the conflict or solve the problem. (It should be noted that although sending a child to sit in a corner, on a chair, or in her room may not be immediately harmful, it can escalate the conflict and quickly become violent.) Telling a child that *you* need to go to a different room

1.1: The difference between violent punishment, non-violent punishment and discipline (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	until you both can calm down and find a solution to the conflict is positive discipline because it is not coercive or imposed from a position of power, and it teaches the child a way of managing anger and preventing escalation of the conflict. During this discussion, participants may reconsider the placement of some responses in the chart. Concepts to be addressed include perceptions that physical punishment is more violent than psychological punishment, the risk of escalation inherent in any punishment, the importance of forethought and reflection to carrying out positive discipline, and the importance of shifting parents' focus from punishment to positive discipline. Participants commonly name as violent punishments those that are more physical and perceived to be more forceful. The trainer should note in the column on the left the participants' examples of psychological punishment. Note that violence need not require physical force. For example, silence or humiliation can have a strong psychological impact on a child. In response to these questions, the group will recognise – if it has not done so already – that the key is dignity. That is, violence harms a person's self-esteem and feelings, it humiliates them, or makes them feel sad or angry. The trainer links this with a child's right to respect for their physical integrity and dignity and their right not to experience violence. As they discuss this issue, participants may recognize that many punishments they previously classified as non-violent actually humiliate or degrade the child. These should be moved into the left column.

1.1: The difference between violent punishment, non-violent punishment and discipline (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	Punishments may be seen to be implemented hastily and without thinking. While some forms of punishment are thought out, most violent punishments are not. Positive discipline takes some forethought, consideration and reflection. Education takes time. The column on the right is made up of responses that are educational, which is not the case with the other two columns. The trainer should encourage the participants to recognise the difference between education and punishment. The point is very important. The aim is not to prevent parents from educating their children and setting limits that are necessary for a child's development and safety. The aim is to realise that violence and much punishment are in opposition to education. A parent has a responsibility and a right to establish norms and limits, and a child has a right to be guided by appropriate norms and limits because their healthy development rests on their reference points and recognition of limits. This does not require violence and is most effectively taught through positive discipline. Violence is often more subtle than imagined. The idea of violence commonly brings to mind extreme forms – physical battering or sexual abuse, for example. The trainer should note the way in which silence, a look or a word can also constitute an act of violence, even if the impact is not felt physically.
4. The trainer asks, 'How do you know whether a punishment is violent or non-violent?' The answer is that violence harms the child physically and/or emotionally. Ask, 'Why do they hurt? What is the violation or harm?'	It is important to point out that violence is not defined by the outcome of the act (e.g., bruises), but by the act itself. Much violent punishment does not leave physical marks, but it leaves psychological scars. Violence that occurs within the context of a 'special', 'affective', 'nurturing' and 'unique' relationship violates the child's trust and exploits the child's dependency. The psychological damage caused can be long-lasting.

1.1: The difference between violent punishment, non-violent punishment and discipline (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
5. The trainer reminds the participants that the question they were asked was about how their parents or carers responded when they did something wrong. The question did not refer to violence, yet their answers include forms of violence of which they may not have been conscious. 6. The trainer leads the participants into the next activity and discussion, leaving the flipcharts as they are (they will be referred to again later).	The trainer may offer a case example here or ask for an example from the participants. You also can refer to the list in the left column of the chart for examples.

1.2: The difference between punishment and discipline	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	The difference between punishment and positive discipline tends to raise many questions. This discussion goes into detail to assess the difference and makes the transition from Session 1 to Session 2. Depending on the group's progress, the trainer may prefer to include this activity in Session 2. *Prepare handouts of Information Sheet 1*
1. The trainer notes that there is a difference between punishment and discipline. Distribute Information Sheet 1 as a basis for discussion. 2. The trainer encourages discussion about the relationship between punishment and positive discipline.	There are three key concepts that must be understood: 1. What is the difference between punishment and positive discipline? Punishment is imposed on a child from a position of power. It involves imposing something aversive on the child or depriving the child of something positive, as a penalty for real or perceived wrongdoing. It may or may not be violent. Positive discipline is a way of teaching the child how to do better next time, how to resolve conflicts and how to understand the impact of their behaviour on others. It involves giving the child information and ensuring that the child has an environment where it is physically and emotionally safe to try, to make mistakes and to learn. Positive discipline never involves violence. 2. Violent and non-violent punishment both are based on the belief that children learn through some degree of suffering. A caregiver who hits or yells at a child believes that physical or psychological pain will teach her not to behave that way again. A caregiver who isolates a child in a corner, prohibits him from watching TV or sends him to bed without supper believes

1.2: The difference between punishment and discipline (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	that depriving him will teach him not to behave that way again. Neither form of punishment gives the child the information needed to succeed or motivates the child to learn. 3. Because most caregivers love their children and want the best for them, many people who were punished are likely to think that punishment is a sign of love. This is true even in the case of violent punishment. Many people who have been hit, for example, do not consider that to be violence. They assume it is normal. This non-awareness is part of the socialisation process that establishes a relationship between violence and love that seems to be 'natural'. It is important to become aware of how people are socialised to regard both violent and non-violent punishments as normal, logical and acceptable. Punishment involves imposing a physically or psychologically painful penalty on a child. Positive discipline involves giving a child information appropriate to his or her developmental level, and supporting the child's learning in a physically and emotionally safe environment.
3. At the end of the discussion, the trainer summarises the concepts punishment and positive discipline for the participants. 4. The trainer leads the discussion into the next part of the session and the difference between using power and teaching. The group's attention will return to the two columns of punishment examples on the flipchart.	

1.3: Using power versus teaching	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	The trainer may choose to move this activity to Session 2, depending on the group's responses so far. This activity is a transitional link between Sessions 1 and 2.
1. The trainer returns the group's attention to the columns on the flipchart and notes that the actions listed in the left and middle columns involve the imposition of power while those in the right column involve the sharing of knowledge. The trainer asks the participants, 'Who has power over you in your lives?'	
2. The trainer lists the answers on a separate flipchart. The trainer draws three circles on the flipchart and categorises the answers according to Physical Strength, Social Status, Authority and Love.	Physical Strength: List people here who have power because they are physically stronger. Social status: List people here who are in socially superior positions, or have more money or access to information. (Note that social inequality leads to power inequality.) Authority: List people here who are in positions of authority and who can impose and enforce laws or regulations, such as the government, police and teachers. Love: List people here who have emotional power, such as parents, partners, children and friends. Notes that while parents fit in this category because their children love them and depend on them, they also fit in the strength and authority categories because they are stronger physically and they can impose and enforce rules.
3. The trainer asks the participants, 'Do you have power over any of the people named in this list? Which ones?'	The trainer notes that anyone who has power over us can impose that power through violence. We too may impose power over others through violence. The participants may not have power over people who are stronger than them, or over those who have authority. But they may have power over people with whom they are close. There is therefore an important relationship between love, power and violence. *See Additional Training Notes 1.3.*

1.3: Using power versus teaching (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	For example, a quarrel between spouses or friends where they say things they know they will regret or use knowledge of each other to hurt one another.
4. The trainer asks the participants to share some examples of the relationship between love, power and violence.	The participants need to understand that they are not better than, or different from, the people with whom they work to end violence. In their daily lives they too face situations of violence and sometimes they may also be violent. It is important to recognise this in order to prevent it.
5. The trainer then notes the difference between imposing power on children and teaching them.	It is important to stress this difference. Note the difference between saying to a child 'you must do this because I say so and because I am your father' and helping the child to understand why the action is important. Explanations help the child to understand the caregiver's motivations. Parents do have authority over their children; they have the responsibility to care for them, protect them and educate them. But authority is a form of power, and that power can be abused. To illustrate, the police are granted authority to protect and preserve social order. If they use that power to harm citizens, they are abusing their power. *See Additional Training Notes 1.3.* A professional who works with parents and children to eradicate violent methods of childrearing must first accept him- or herself as a person who may not only experience violence but who may also use it. The participants may encounter violent situations or act violently in the course of their daily lives. It is important that they understand their need to identify violence, to take responsibility for it and to seek forgiveness if they do act violently.
6. To conclude the session, the trainer reiterates that prevention of violence requires recognising that it emerges in unequal power relationships.	

SESSION 2: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOVE AND VIOLENCE

Description: The session includes three interconnected sections involving group work and discussions around issues related to emotional bonding and personal development.

Objectives: 1) To become conscious of the relationship between love/affection, power and violence, 2) to analyse the process by which emotional bonds are created and to distinguish them from social interactions, and 3) to understand the importance of personal [affective] development for each individual and violence's impact on personal [affective] development.

Materials: Flipcharts, marker pens, Information Sheet 2.

Time: 3 hours

Key concepts:

- Power in personal relationships and in the social sphere.
- The relationship between love and violence.
- Emotional bonds and social interaction.
- Violence and personal development.

2.1: Emotional bonds	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	The participants may be very moved at a personal level by the time they finish Session 2. They will need some time to reflect before continuing the next session. The workshop's scheduling should therefore allow people to have a proper break at the end of Session 2 (a lunch break or an overnight break). *Prepare handouts of Information Sheet 2.*
1. The trainer explains that the participants will now look at the emotional relationships that people establish with those who are close to them, especially children.	The aim is to ensure the participants understand that building an emotional bond with a child requires that someone behave with a child in a way that they may already behave with other people. This activity helps parents to see they need only to act with their child in accordance with the way that they themselves like others to act with them, as when someone makes them feel special. Parents and carers need to show interest in their child, share time and get to know them, commit themselves, stand by them in difficulties, listen to them, accept them as they are, be honest in a positive way and share activities and fun with them.
2. The trainer asks the participants for the names of four animals, which will indicate four groups. The participants are then invited to join one of the groups. The groups should each nominate a presenter.	
3. The trainer asks the participants to remember the day they first met their best friend. They are asked, 'What happened? What was said and how did you feel? What was it that attracted you to this person?'	Depending on the cultural context, the trainer may instead ask the participants when they first met someone whom they love.
4. After the participants offer responses, the trainer summarises these responses as 'attraction'.	
5. The trainer then asks the participants, 'What and how do you feel about these people now?' The responses may be varied so the trainer hands out Information Sheet 2.	The trainer makes it clear to the participants that they are not asked to analyse publicly the third part of the process on the Information Sheet.

2.1: Emotional bonds (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
6. The trainer asks the participants to work together in their groups to analyse the process on the Information Sheet, from the first meeting to a decision between two people to be friends. The groups should list all the things that their friends did that made them feel especially warm towards them. They should not generalise by saying something like, 'He/she was good with me', but be specific regarding actions and gestures.	Some examples may be: • One is made to feel special and worthy and does not feel taken for granted. • Positive gestures are made, gifts offered, there is regular contact. • The friend accepts them as they are and does not mind differences. • Affection is shown by saying, 'I love you', offering compliments and praise. • There is a sense of permanence by keeping in contact and taking care of the relationship as a common project offering security to one another. • There is a commitment, protection and care of each other, support in difficulties, and defence against others. • There is communication and shared time – listening, understanding, having fun, talking about problems, making time to know one another, living together, objective criticism, opening up. • Quarrels may occur but are resolved.
7. After allowing some time, the trainer asks the presenters to share their group's findings with all the participants. The trainer should note the common points and the most repeated actions and then say, 'The process you describe is the construction of an emotional bonding. This construction is all we need for parents to do with their children.'	
8. The group is then asked to reflect privately on how sometimes one may stop doing these positive things with someone.	Sometimes friendships or relationships break up or change. The trainer notes that difficulties may emerge because of lack of care, because affection and the relationship are taken for granted by one or both people. The same thing can happen in adults' relationships with children.

2.1: Emotional bonds (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	Signs of affection are important to create a secure emotional bond. This occurs in different ways and at different levels depending on the type of relationship.

2.2: Emotional bonds and social interactions	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
1. The trainer asks the participants, 'Having described this process of bonding with friends, what is the difference between your relationships with friends and your relationships with, say, a shopkeeper or a bus driver?'	
2. The trainer explains that the differences noted by the participants are what distinguish an emotional bond from a mere social interaction.	In noting the difference between bonding and interaction, the responses often include comments that an emotional relationship is unique and permanent, there is shared time and intimacy, with emotional involvement, joint commitment and no expectation of interest or exchange. Meanwhile, relations with a bus driver or a shopkeeper may be interchangeable, temporal, with no shared emotional involvement or intimacy, and are due to interest and for mutual exchange. People usually bond closely with just a few other people. The process takes time and effort as two people invest a part of themselves in a close and affectionate relationship. Meanwhile, interactions occur continuously with many people who have no extra special significance for us. Some interactions may involve spending a lot of time with other people, such as work colleagues or teachers, but the relationship does not necessarily have an emotional significance.
3. The trainer makes the important point that some parents merely interact with their children and do not establish a special bond. They feed their child, dress them, and they 'bring money home'. But they do not really know their child, do not share time with them, do not commit themselves, and do not share emotional intimacy.	

2.3: Psychological development	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
1. The trainer explains to the participants that they will discuss a psychological phenomenon known as 'the incomplete smile' in order to understand better the process of a child's emotional development.	
2. The trainer asks, 'Who here is a parent?' Those who answer affirmatively are asked, 'Do you remember when your child was a baby and you thought he or she smiled at you?'	This is the first time such a distinction is made among the participants.
3. The trainer then explains the phenomenon of babies learning to smile.	Babies of three or so months do not yet smile in a social sense but exercise their facial muscles and react to stimuli. A parent, however, responds with enthusiasm when they think their baby smiles at them. The parent exaggerates their own facial expressions. As the parent does this, the baby tends to smile again. The behaviour is reinforced and the baby begins to establish a social smile. Babies learn to smile because someone else thinks they are smiling. Emotional bonding is like a set of mirrors for a child. All the information a child receives about himself or herself in their first years comes via these mirrors. If the information is 'You are wonderful', 'I love you', etc, a child builds a self-image that is different to a self-image founded on, 'I'm fed up with you', and, 'I don't like you'. For babies, their information must come from people who are significant to them.
4. The trainer asks the participants for their comments on how violence may affect a child's development process.	
5. The trainer notes again that physical and psychological punishment is a form of violence against a child. It is most usually committed by people with whom the child is close.	

2.3: Psychological development (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
6. The trainer draws a 'development pyramid' on a flipchart and says that violence committed in close relationships occurs at the pyramid's base. Violence committed by people with whom one does not have a close bond is at the top of the pyramid (the social level).	*See Additional Training Notes 2.3.* It is important to note that violence occurring within an emotional relationship (as is generally the case with physical and psychological punishment) becomes a formative experience. A child who suffers violent punishments will think it is normal to be hurt by people they love and depend upon. Think of the saying, 'You have to be cruel to be kind'. Children may be conditioned to think that the people who are meant to take care of them will also hurt and abuse them. They internalise this understanding as natural. The impacts of physical and psychological punishment are severe because children learn that violence is valid, justifiable and applicable to other contexts.
7. The trainer explains that a person's individual psychological make-up underlies and influences the way they understand the world around them.	Each person has their own psychology and self-identity, developed on the basis of their distinct experience and understanding of the world.
8. The trainer suggests the participants consider two children who live together as siblings raised in the same household and yet are still different from each other. The trainer asks, 'What makes people different in their personal make-ups and understandings of the world?'	People may share the same environment but will still be individuals. The elements that form the personal psychology of a person are founded on interactions and understandings derived from intimate relationships (or their absence). The impacts may be positive or negative. Depending on the responses, the trainer suggests that a big part of the answer lies in a person's intimate relationships with others.
9. In conclusion, the trainer reminds the participants of several points.	• Emotional bonds are reference models for our relationships with people. These models may be positive or negative. • The experiences that are part of an emotional bonding are absorbed into a person's personal psychology and history. The impacts stay with a person throughout their life. A person's understanding of the

2.3: Psychological development (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	experience of a relationship may change over time as they reassess things and have new experiences. • To establish an emotional bond with a person is a privilege. It means we will play a significant role in shaping someone. It is also a responsibility because the effects of such relationships are long-lasting (even if the relationship is not). • An individual's resilience is based partly on the ability to adapt and apply reference models according to new experiences and understandings.
Break	

SESSION 3: NON-VIOLENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Description: The session includes three interconnected sections involving group work and discussions around a central case study of violence in a family.

Objectives: 1) To identify elements to be analysed in a conflict, 2) to analyse the affective elements in a conflict, 3) to identify the psychological process of a conflict, and 4) to define some essential strategies to tackle conflicts.

Materials: Paper, pens, Information Sheets 3 and 4.

Time: 3-4 hours

Key concepts:

- Elements for analysis of a conflict.
- Psychological processes of a conflict.
- Conflict-resolution strategies.
- Emotional bonds, and their role in a conflict.

3.1: Elements in conflict analysis	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	Prepare handouts of Information Sheet 3.
1. The trainer explains that a case study of a family conflict will be used in this session. The case involves four people - a father, a mother, a teenage boy and a teacher. The trainer asks the participants each to choose one of the four characters, preferably one that is not their usual role in everyday life. The trainer asks the participants to form four groups, one for each character, and tries to ensure the group numbers are balanced.	For example, a mother may join the 'father' group. The role of the younger brother in the case study is deliberately not included in discussion at this stage.
2. The trainer gives all the participants or each group the Information Sheet and asks them to read it together. The groups are to discuss what their character did to improve or worsen the situation described in the study. The groups are told that each character has done positive things to try to improve the situation, and also negative things that made it worse. What are these positive and negative actions? Allow 30 minutes for each group to read the worksheet, discuss it and develop an analysis to be presented to all the participants.	
3. The trainer moves from group to group to inform each one of several factors that will be important to the analysis of each character.	*See Additional Training Notes 3.1.* The participants are reminded that they are analysing behaviours and not judging people. The trainer encourages the participants to identify the positive aspects of a character's behaviour. Note that any intervention in a conflict requires first that the positive and negative aspects of an actor's behaviour are assessed. Seeing the positive side of each actor's behaviour helps to build their potential to resolve the situation. (This is to counter the likelihood that the participants may find it easy to focus on negative aspects, especially regarding the father.)

3.1: Elements in conflict analysis (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
4. The groups present their analysis of positive and negative aspects of their character's behaviour.	
5. The trainer asks all the participants, 'Which character do you think has behaved the worst in this case?'	Most participants are likely to say the father or the mother. The trainer should point out that each person has initiated, in their own way, strategies to solve the conflict, even if they have not succeeded. The trainer may note that the teacher (who has a professional duty to support the boy) does not intervene until he is contacted by the family, even though the boy has had problems at school and has missed classes. Even then, the teacher listens only to the parents' version before approaching the boy. The teacher seems to give more weight to the parents' views until he realises that the boy is not a 'no good' son. The trainer stresses that analysis needs to look beyond appearances and include assessment of the well-being of the people involved, their responsibilities and the best interests of a child.
6. The trainer asks, 'Do you think the family has an emotional bond, or are they merely interacting?'	Most participants may think that there is no emotional bond. The trainer points out that there is one but that it has been highly affected by and deteriorated because of lack of communication, time… (which are factors conducive to conflict). The trainer notes, however, two things that reveal an emotional bond among the family members, even if the bond has deteriorated. 1) All the family members have tried to resolve the situation in their own way, and they are all willing to talk with the teacher. It is important to understand the difference between a family in conflict and a family with no emotional bonding. A continuing bond, even if diminished, will greatly assist in conflict resolution (as all members of the family are affected by what is happening).

3.1: Elements in conflict analysis (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	2) The boy's behaviour and words also point to his emotional bond with his parents (the boy follows his father as model; before following a model there must be an emotional bond).
7. The trainer asks, 'Who is the boy modelling his behaviour upon?'	Beyond words and apparent conflict, a child commonly follows the models set by his or her parents or carers. In the case study, the boy follows his father's example in trying to be self-sufficient and his mother's example in being submissive to his father. To extricate himself from the situation, the boy looks for a job; he tries to be self-sufficient - strategies taught to him by his father.
8. The trainer refers to the exercise in the introductory session, where the participants noted that most of their conflicts had occurred with people with whom they were close.	The trainer reminds the participants of the mirror aspect of the development of emotional bonding, whereby a child responds to the actions of parents (see Session 2.3). In intervening in an interpersonal conflict, assess people according to what they do rather than what they say and be alert to modelling behaviours, as shown here by the boy. Although a conflict may be serious, this behaviour reveals an emotional bond may still exist, and this can be the basis for ending conflict. Conflicts are a normal part of life. If conflict is understood as a normal part of emotional and close relationships, resolution can be an opportunity to grow in a relationship. That is, conflicts can be resolved and conflicts do not mean an emotional bond does not exist.
9. The trainer asks, 'Do your analyses include all the characters who should be involved in resolving this family's conflict?' 10. The trainer, having ensured the participants are aware of the main elements needed for conflict analysis, moves on to discuss the psychological process of a conflict.	The question refers to the boy's younger brother (a role not assigned to the participants). The point is to show the necessity of including all family members in the process of resolution, so as to break the focus on the older boy. If the teacher had called the entire family together, he would send a message to the parents that the problem not only concerned the older boy but the whole family. Such action would help to prevent the younger boy from having similar problems at a later stage.

3.2: Psychological process of a conflict and conflict resolution strategies	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	Prepare handouts of Information Sheet 4.
1. The trainer asks the participants, 'What do you think is the reason for the conflict within the family?', and 'When did the conflict really start?' During the discussion, the trainer draws the graphic in Information Sheet 4 on a flipchart to illustrate points made.	The trainer needs to ensure that the participants understand that the motivations leading to a conflict usually lie beyond the immediate reason. Every conflict has a history. In this case, it is apparent that there has been a problem or conflict in the family for at least two years as the boy struggled with school and then in the previous month started to skip classes. The immediate conflict is triggered by the phone call to tell the parents that the boy was missing classes. Later, the mother raises concerns about drugs and asks for help. The participants are likely to identify the moment at which the conflict peaks, which is when the father slaps the boy and the boy responds with shouts and insults. Here, physical and psychological punishment is an element to be analysed in the conflict. But it is not the central problem. Physical and psychological violence results from losing control and not adopting an educational strategy. The problem for the family is deeper than the father hitting the boy.
2. The trainer distributes Information Sheet 4 and explains that there are three possible ends to a conflict: negotiation, resolution, or leaving it alone without discussion (leaving it latent). The trainer then asks the group, 'What do you think is needed to solve a conflict?', and 'Do the parents in this case think they have a problem?'	Two main factors affect the resolution of a conflict: 1) All those involved must have the will to solve it and 2) all of them must be conscious of the problem and of their responsibility within it. Sometimes people do not have the will to resolve a conflict because they think the benefits they obtain from the situation are greater than those that would accrue if the conflict ended. Some people may find it too costly to end a conflict and opt instead to live with the situation.

3.2: Psychological process of a conflict and conflict resolution strategies (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	In the case study, awareness of responsibility is a critical issue. The parents think their son has a problem, which is why they ask for help. But they do not think that they themselves have a problem. The conflict will not end unless the parents become conscious (perhaps through the teacher) of their responsibility as well. A problem in the relationship between the mother and the father is also a factor conditioning the mother's attitude within the family. Neither parent appears to recognise that they have a problem in this sense. The parents approach the teacher to help them negotiate a way out of a problem, not to resolve it fully. They would consider the problem at an end if the boy returned to school and passed his exams. The boy, however, still sees a problem. A final way out of a conflict is to leave it latent (or just to let it lie). The trainer notes that this may be a valid option, but it is not desirable because tensions may continue to re-emerge in outbursts of conflict. Unsolved conflicts are left pending in the case study and could be expected to build up into another argument in the future.
3. Once the participants understand the psychological process of a conflict, the trainer moves onto conflict resolution strategies. The trainer asks the participants, 'When is the best moment to intervene in a conflict in order to end it?' 4. The trainer moves the group into the third part of the exercise.	Resolution is best achieved during the plateau phase, when aggression has eased. Intervention during the phase of escalation can result in aggression against the person intervening. Intervention during the fall phase comes after steps have already been taken to end the conflict (through resolution, negotiation or latency).

3.3: Family role-play	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
1. The trainer asks the participants to 'find their family'. After the initial confusion, the trainer explains that each 'mother' is to find a 'father', a 'child' and a 'teacher', thus creating 'families'. Explain that the participants are to play the role of the character analysed by the group they joined at the beginning of the session.	
2. The trainer asks each family group to imagine that they are about to have a meeting with a teacher, as occurs in the case study. The participants are to play the role of their character. The groups are to discuss and define a strategy for resolving the conflict described in the case study. Allow 30 minutes for discussion, after which the family groups present their strategy to the plenary. They may do the presentation in whichever way they wish – as a role-play drama or in a written summary, for example. The only condition is that all four characters in the group must participate in the presentation, making it clear which role they have assumed and what their character has committed to do.	The trainer needs to ensure that the following ideas are included within the possible resolution strategies proposed by the groups. • The starting point to solve a conflict is communication and forgiveness. Each person needs to be able to express their feelings without being judged. Each must apologise for their mistakes. Working with expression of feelings is a conflict-resolution strategy in itself. • A list of promises or good intentions does not constitute an end to a conflict. Very specific strategies are needed to try to change small things that in turn will help to repair the negative atmosphere in a family. • Valid strategies are based on specific behavioural patterns, including shared activities and bonding, practical decisions, etc. • Valid strategies need to affect all the people involved, and each person must make a commitment and accept responsibility to change things. • A decision to try to resolve a conflict completely can be taken only by those who are involved.
3. The groups present their strategies and the trainer leads questioning and discussion.	

3.3: Family role-play (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
4. In conclusion, the trainer explains to the participants that in understanding the process of a conflict and their roles within it (both as individuals and as professionals), they will be better able to use their skills to facilitate an end to a conflict.	The trainer should be alert to the potential for the participants to express feelings of impotence in their professional work. They may feel there is little they can do when decisions are out of their hands and so it is important that their significant role as conciliation facilitators is emphasised.

SESSION 4: INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

Description: This session is presented as one section, involving brainstorming among groups on the practical application of a theoretical approach to developing and implementing intervention strategies to end violence within families.

Objectives: 1) To develop intervention strategies to end physical and psychological punishment at various levels, and 2) to provide examples of good practises in this regard.

Materials: Flipcharts, marker pens, Information Sheets 5 and 6.

Time: 2 - 3 hours

Key concepts:

- Levels of analysis and intervention.
- Concrete actions for developing a plan of action.
- Identifying factors, agents, and actions for change.

4.1: Levels of analysis – putting theory into practice	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
1. The trainer distributes Information Sheet 5 and explains that the diagram is a tool for social analysis. The diagram – which may also be pre-prepared on a flipchart – depicts different environments, or levels for analysis. Various factors influence people within each level. The influence lessens or intensifies depending on the proximity of the level to the central point (an individual).	*Prepare handouts of Information Sheets 5 and 6.* *This optional session is based on an 'ecological framework' theory, which professionals may find useful in their practical work. The session may not be appropriate for all workshops.* Information Sheet 5 contains a simplified version of a theoretical diagram that depicts different areas for analysis that would apply in assessing a conflict situation. The trainer is advised to avoid using jargon or technical terms. • Level 1 is an individual person. • Level 2 is interpersonal relationships (family, school, friends). • Level 3 is society (neighbourhood, community). • Level 4 is culture (including media and religion). All these levels need to be assessed when analysing a person's behaviour, in the same way that an intervention programme requires action strategies to address issues at all levels. In noting that the influence of factors within levels depends on proximity to the individual, the diagram shows how personal relationships have a greater influence on a person's development. Think of how personal relationships are the medium through which messages from the outer levels are transmitted to an individual. A child, for example, receives social and cultural messages by witnessing the behaviour of family members and people at school.
2. The trainer divides the participants into four groups, each representing a level of analysis. Each group is asked to analyse the problem of physical and psychological punishment of a child from the perspective of the level allocated to their group.	The groups are each asked to identify: • The influencing factors within the level that allow for physical and psychological punishment of a child. • The main agents with whom it would be

4.1: Levels of analysis – putting theory into practice (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
	necessary to work at that level in order to end physical and psychological punishment of a child. • Specific action/strategies to address each factor identified as important within the level. The trainer should remind participants that each factor influences behaviour but does not independently cause it. The trainer should supervise the work of the groups so that they account for all factors within each level. For example, the group dealing with the individual level (Level 1) can work with only two agents - the child and an adult or institution (which may have a relevant programme). Strategies may then include training staff in an institution. At other levels, the influencing factors multiply and so there are more agents for those groups to consider. *See Information Sheet 6 for a summary of some factors, agents and strategies at each level. Hand out the Information Sheet at the end of the session.* *See Additional Training Notes 4.1.*
3. The groups present their analyses to all the participants. 4. The trainer asks the participants for comments in relation to how these multi-level strategies could be applied within their own work in their communities or countries.	The trainer should at some point stress four basic ideas for analysing a situation of conflict and finding the way to address it: • In analysing the behaviour of a person or a social phenomenon, it is necessary to analyse the agents and factors that influence and determine each other at various levels. • In developing an intervention programme to deal with a problem, action strategies need to address each level and also the factors identified within each level.

4.1: Levels of analysis – putting theory into practice (continued)	
Process	**Trainer's notes**
5. The trainer wraps up the session and the workshop, distributing Information Sheet 6 and any other relevant information (such as training materials and examples of strategies employed in campaigns etc).	• Analysis can deal only with factors that have an influence on a problem. Cause and effect relationships cannot be established. • Social agents at the interpersonal level are mediators of meaning (ideas and values and so on) between an individual and society and culture.

CONCLUSION AND EVALUATION

The closing and evaluation of the workshop is for the trainer to determine, and will likely vary depending on the needs of the participants. It is suggested that the evaluation be done in the form of an exercise and that room be made for a final round of questions and information-sharing.

PART 2:
Information Sheets

Information Sheet 1

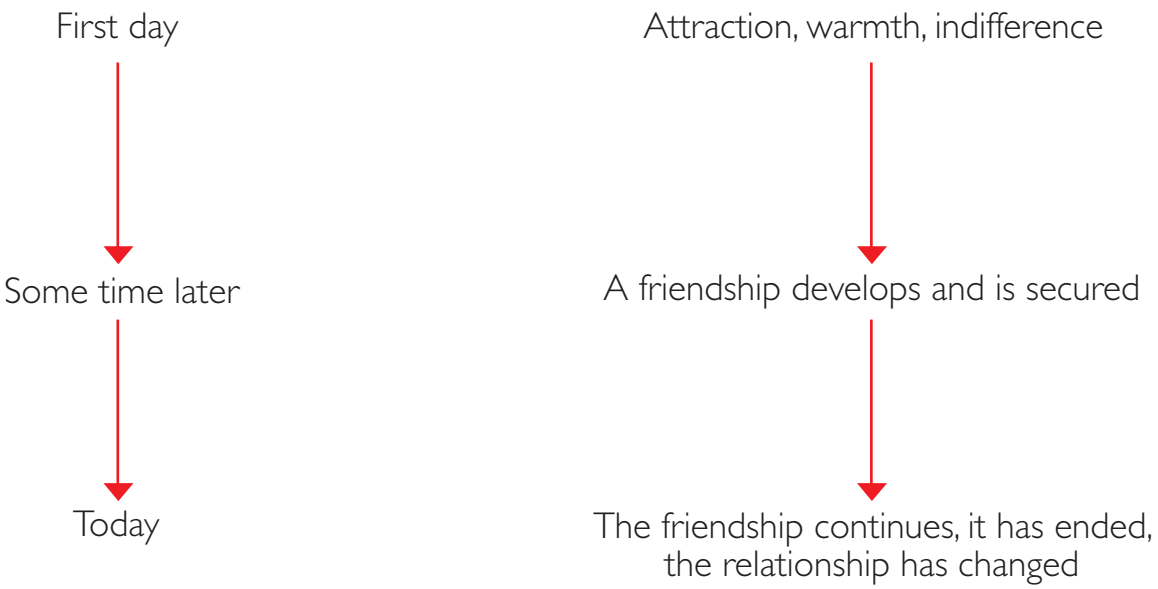
The difference between punishment and discipline

Discipline is a series of measures used by adults to correct the behaviour of children, imposing on them norms and limits and educating them. It does not imply the use of violence. Disciplinary measures can sometimes include non-violent ways of imposing a penalty, such as those listed in the right-hand column below. Physical and psychological punishment involves some form of violence. Violence harms a child's development and is a violation of their rights.

Physical and psychological punishment	Positive discipline
• It is a physical and/or psychological form of violence.	• It never includes violence (physical or psychological).
• Targets the dignity of the person rather than their behaviour.	• It addresses the action and does not target the person.
• It does not offer an alternative behaviour.	• It provides options for different behaviour.
• It is out of proportion to and unrelated to the behaviour to be addressed.	• It is in proportion to and related to the behaviour to be addressed.
• It produces fear as the basis for compliance and does not promote learning.	• It positively promotes a child's learning and understanding.
• It is an abuse of power.	• It is based on positive authority.
• It is usually enacted quickly and easily, without due consideration for the consequences.	• It is always well thought-out and planned, with consideration for the consequences.
• It does not involve a child's participation in decision-making.	• It involves a child's participation in decision-making as much as possible, whereby a child is at least informed of why disciplinary action is being taken.
• It conditions children to accept that people who love them can hurt them and people who have authority can abuse it.	• Penalties may be applied, but never involving any form of violence.

Information Sheet 2

Emotional bonds over time



Information Sheet 3

Case study: The Jones family

Mrs Jones has two children, Sam, 17, and Aaron, 13. She is married to a lawyer and they are well off. Mrs Jones has a full-time job and works away from home during the day.

Mr Jones is a hard-working man, methodical, with stable habits. He began from scratch. He has built his career through hard work and he is proud it. Sam says that when his father looks at himself in the mirror, he admires himself. The virtue which the parents promote and admire most in their children is a work ethic and a sense of effort.

Mr and Mrs Jones became very worried when Sam did very poorly in his high school studies for two years in a row. Aaron has passed his exams for two years, but only just. All the teachers have told the Jones's that their sons have capability, but the boys don't have the will and they study very little.

For the Jones's, the most serious problem is with Sam. Apparently, everything started three months ago, when the school told Mr and Mrs Jones that Sam had been frequently absent from school for almost a month. His parents couldn't believe it. Mr Jones had commented several times that parents were guilty for 'chaos' in their children, and that in his home it wouldn't be like that. Obviously angry, Mr Jones told Sam they had to talk. Mr Jones arranged to come home earlier that night from his job. When he arrived, he burst into Sam's room, who was in bed listening to music. He entered and slapped Sam hard on the face.

'I won't put up with slackers and wasters in my home. You don't deserve the bread you eat,' Mr Jones said, among other things, before he slammed the door and left. 'You will remember this.'

In the morning, Mrs Jones tried to reason with Sam. She began by asking him where he went when he was not in class. 'Somewhere, with some friends,' Sam answered curtly.

Since then, Sam missed fewer classes. When he did not attend class, he managed to come up with justifications by forging letters of excuse. But when he was in class, he was only putting in an appearance and the results reflected this.

A few days later, Mrs Jones met a teacher to talk about the matter. Mr Jones felt it was not worth doing anything because Sam was a lost cause. But Mrs Jones believed that there was a possibility to correct things, though she didn't know how to do this. Her discussion with the teacher went over things to a few years back. Until this problem occurred Sam hadn't had many problems, she said. He always passed his exams with the help of private classes, which also guaranteed some control at that time while the parents worked. 'We have always been very busy due to work,' she said.

The Jones's thought Sam had never had any real problems. He never complained about anything. 'He was a good boy, so quiet. It was always hard for us to make him tell us what happened at school. We never had the need to talk with the teacher because he must have also been a good boy in class,' Mrs Jones told the teacher.

Mrs Jones said that as a result of what had happened recently, she and her husband had stopped giving Sam pocket money each weekend – 'as a punishment and to prevent him going out'. But Sam got money from unknown sources. Finally, they discovered he worked during peak hours in a fast-food place for young people.

This discovery caused another storm at home. It was the first time that Sam did not stay silent or apologise. 'I'm fed up,' he said when questioned about it by his parents. 'You have never loved me. You have only been concerned about my grades. Leave me alone. Let me live my life. I know what I want.'

Sam didn't wait for a response. He went out, slamming the door behind him. Mr Jones was speechless and Mrs Jones began to cry. Since that day, Sam began to behave in an openly hostile manner. He came home when he wanted, he answered back and he led his own life.

Things went on like this for a while and Mr Jones decided not to talk about it. He and Sam hardly looked at each other and they almost didn't talk to each other.

When Sam was not present, Mr Jones made comments such as, 'I didn't have the help he does. I learnt how hard life is by myself. Leave him alone, he will soon realise the hardships of life.'

The Jones's suspected that drugs were freely available in the restaurant where Sam worked. This prompted them to seek out the teacher again to ask him to talk with Sam.

The teacher agreed to do so, and decided to raise the conflict issue directly with Sam.

'Sam, your parents have come to talk to me. They are very concerned about you and have asked me to see if I can help you,' the teacher said.

'Do you really believe that?' Sam answered in a sarcastic way. 'They are concerned by my grades, because they feel ashamed that I'm working in a restaurant. I know my real problems don't concern them, especially my father.'

'Why your father?'

'Because he only wants school results. Tell him not to start quarrelling at home. This has no solution anymore. I will look for a job that allows me to leave and live independently.'

'Let's not escape from the problem, Sam. Let's admit your parents have made mistakes with you. Your father would be willing to accept it. Isn't it time for you to talk about it and to put things in order?'

Sam was thoughtful and quiet for a while. Then he said, 'You don't know my father. You can't talk to him. You always have to listen to him. I would have liked telling him more than once that I was wrong, that I wanted to change and that I wanted him to help me! But he would have laughed at me. He would have told me that I was no good, which would have showed him that he is always right.'

The teacher responded, 'Your problem is that you have never talked seriously. When was the last time you had a conversation, at least about … football?'

‘I don’t remember having had any conversation with my parents. They gave me recommendations. I listened to them with my head bowed. They never played with me. My father couldn’t be disturbed at home. I have swallowed so much TV just out of boredom! I have talked a little bit more with my mother. But it is always the same – your father says, your father wants, see how your father works – but, she didn’t make a fuss.’

Sam then changed tone and said:

‘I’m not saying they are bad parents. I recognise they have always wanted the best for me. They are hard-working and it doesn’t seem to me that they abuse people in their professions. I only say they don’t understand me, that for them I do everything wrong, that I have never been good at anything. I would have liked …’

Sam began to cry.

The teacher was disconcerted by his reaction. Of course Sam is not the ‘no good’ son Mr Jones has depicted to him several times. The teacher continued talking for a while, but really it was Sam who talked to the teacher.

The teacher asked, ‘Are you ready to tell all this to your parents at a meeting with them in a few days?’

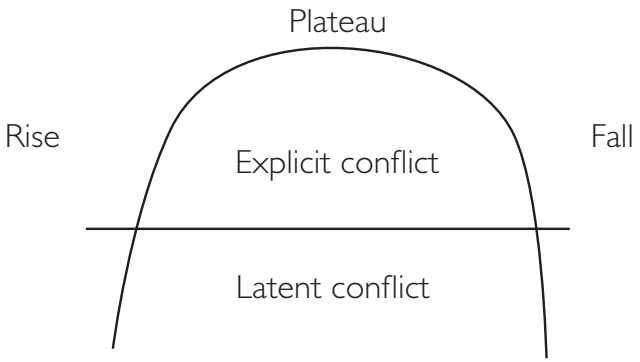
Sam said he needed to think about it. He said he would answer the teacher soon and he left.

‘Now that I know him, I’m sure I know what his answer will be,’ the teacher thought to himself.

This example is adapted from materials developed for the ‘Educate, don’t punish’ campaign against corporal punishment, run by Save the Children Spain with UNICEF, the Spanish Confederation of Students’ Parents Associations (CEAPA) and the Spanish Catholic National Confederation of Students’ Parents (CONCAPA).

Information Sheet 4

Phases in the psychological process of a conflict



1. Latent conflict
2. Explicit conflict: Rises/escalates, plateaus, falls
3. End of conflict: Resolution, negotiation, or left latent

From the moment a conflict is triggered, intensity begins to rise. A conflict escalates when all strategies that may solve it or stop it fail. One person may perceive another as aggressive or ill-intentioned, and this perception in itself can fuel a conflict. The point of escalation is the moment at which everything seems to get worse and the people involved lose control of their behaviour, possibly responding with violence.

At this stage, the basic conflict-resolution intervention strategy is to allow the people involved some time to calm down rather than respond to immediate aggression. A high level of aggression cannot be maintained for long. When people have calmed, they will be better able to listen and to communicate. Sometimes, a conflict ends because of the timing of what is said, rather than what is actually said.

The next phase in a conflict is the plateau. The level of aggression may fall but the conflict continues to simmer. In the case study, a silent war is waged within the family as the people involved know there is a problem but everyone avoids each other and avoids talking about the subject. The plateau period ends when someone takes the initiative to try to end the conflict. In the case study, the mother does this by trying to talk to her son and then asking the teacher for help.

This is the beginning of the fall stage, which finally leads to an end of the immediate conflict. In this stage the people involved are more receptive and willing to listen to each other.

Some conflicts cannot be resolved altogether and instead require negotiation. This means that the people involved reach an agreement or understanding based on minimum expectations of each other. Through agreement, all parties obtain something and can assume the cost. Those involved may not get exactly what they want, but at least the conflict ends.

For example, a teenager and parents may negotiate a time at which the child must be home on a Saturday night. The adolescent may think the time is too early while the parents think it is too late. The conflict itself is not necessarily resolved completely, but a compromise is agreed through negotiation.

Two main factors affect the resolution of a conflict:

- All those involved must have the will to solve it.
- All of them must be conscious of the problem and of their responsibility within it.

Sometimes, however, people do not have the will to resolve a conflict, despite its violence and costliness. This can be because they feel the benefits they obtain from the situation are greater than those that would accrue if the conflict were resolved. Some people may find it too costly to resolve a conflict and opt instead to live with the situation.

In the case study, the awareness of responsibility is a critical issue. The parents think their son has a problem, which is why they ask for help. But they do not think that they themselves have a problem. The conflict will not end unless the parents become conscious (perhaps through the efforts of the teacher) of their responsibility as well.

There is also a problem in the relationship between the mother and the father, and this is an important factor conditioning the mother's attitude within the family. Yet neither parent appears to recognise that they have a problem in this sense. The parents approach the teacher to help them negotiate a way out of a problem, not to resolve it. They would consider the problem at an end if the boy returns to school and passes his exams. The boy, however, still sees a problem.

The final way out of a conflict is to leave it latent. This may be a valid option, but it is not desirable because the conflict will continue to re-emerge. Unsolved conflicts are left pending in the case study and could be expected to build up again into another argument in the future.

Conflict resolution strategies

Resolution is best achieved during the plateau phase, when aggression has eased. Intervention during the phase of escalation can result in aggression against the person intervening. [The only possible intervention during escalation is contention – when an aggression is taking place.] Intervention during the fall phase comes after steps have already been taken to end the conflict (through resolution, negotiation or leaving it latent).

Basic conflict resolution strategies involve the following.

1. Ensure that all those involved are conscious of the problem and of their responsibility within it. Assess their will to resolve the problem.

2. Be aware of the need for careful timing and be prepared to wait for the right moment to intervene. In a first phase, always use contention strategies.

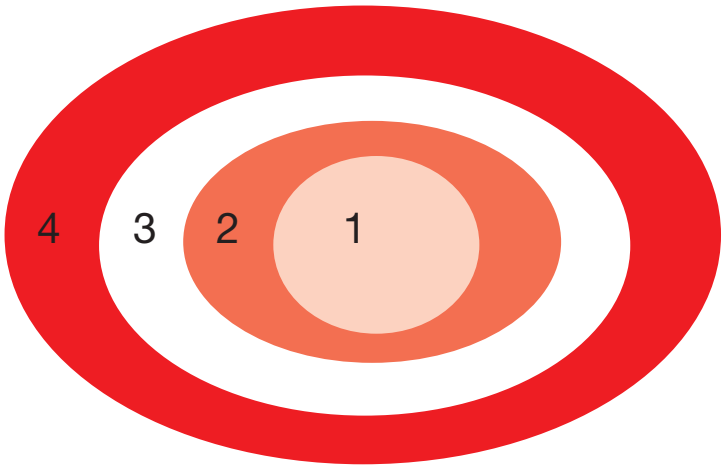
3. Be alert to identify whether a conflict can be resolved altogether or instead must be negotiated to reach a compromise.

4. Ending a conflict depends on the personal decisions of the people directly involved. An outsider may assist and create the conditions for positive dialogue, but the will of the people involved is an essential factor in reaching resolution.

Information Sheet 5

Intervention strategies and levels of analysis

Below is a simplified version of a theoretical diagram depicting different environments, or levels for analysis, that apply in assessing a conflict situation and related intervention strategies. This way of analysing a problem is known as an 'ecological' framework.[1]



Level 1: The individual person

Level 2: Interpersonal relationships (family, school, friends etc)

Level 3: Social relationships (society, the neighbourhood etc)

Level 4: Cultural (culture, media, religion etc)

Each group is to analyse the problem of physical and psychological punishment of a child from the perspective of one of the above levels (or environments). Each group should identify and discuss the following:

1. Influence factors within the level that allow for physical and psychological punishment of a child.

2. The main agents at that level with whom it would be necessary to work in order to end the physical and psychological punishment of a child.

3. Specific action strategies to address each important factor within the level.

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[1] See Bronfenbrenner, U. 1979. The ecology of human development: experiments by nature and by design. Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press.
Bronfenbrenner, U. 1989. Ecological systems theory. Annals of child development, Vol. 6. Six theories of child development: revised formulations and current issues. R. Vasta. London, Jai: 187-249.

Information Sheet 6

Factors, actors and strategies for interventions

Briefly, here are some examples of factors, agents and strategies that may be considered at each level of analysis.

Level 1: The individual

Factors: Characteristics of a child's personality, introversion, a previous experience of violence.

Actors: The person who is the subject of the intervention programme (in this case, a child who suffers physical and/or psychological punishment) and the entity responsible to take action (an NGO, an institution).

Strategies: Training staff running the programme, psychological support for the child, child participation at different levels of the programme.

Level 2: Interpersonal relationships

Factors: Parents with a history of violence, intra-family conflict, social isolation, encouragement of competition at school, violence among peers.

Actors: Parents, siblings, extended family, other children who live in the household, teachers, school principals, government bodies in charge of education and social affairs.

Strategies: Parenting support, joint activities to promote bonding between parents and children at school, teacher training.

Level 3: Social relationships

Factors: Existence or not of a protection system for children, training of actors involved in this system, the socio-economic situation (including the employment situation).

Actors: Police, a social welfare system (psychologists, social workers), community leaders.

Strategies: Training professionals, leisure activities to promote community cohesion, public information campaigns and presentations.

Level 4: Culture

Factors: Respect for the rights of a child, cultural acceptance of physical and psychological punishment, violent content in the mass media.

Actors: Religious leaders, media professionals, well-known and influential people in the cultural sphere.

Strategies: Training for media professionals, meetings with religious leaders, media-promoted public debates.

PART 3:
Additional Training Notes

The trainer may use this extra information to prepare a more formal presentation to the workshop or to inform the discussions.

Session 1

1.3: Power and authority

A person can have power over someone in four ways: authority, love, strength and inequality. Physical strength and love or affection are naturally acquired within relationships. Power through authority and inequality are created socially.

Power is the capacity to influence others' lives. The effect depends on how it is used. Violence is always an abuse of power. The person inflicting violence does it because they have the power to do so. Every human relationship includes elements of power (love and strength) while power can also be acquired socially (authority or inequality). Power is used in two ways:

- Positive: Power fosters individual growth via relationships that benefit the individual or a group and/or provide protection (as in socially legitimated forms of power accepted by community members). Physical strength provides protection. Love and affection encourage developmental growth. Authority serves education and the general welfare of a group of people. Differences among individuals can enrich a society.

- Negative: Power generates violence and harms people. Physical strength can be used by someone to abuse someone who is physically weaker. Love can fuel dependence and manipulation and psychological abuse. Authority can become authoritarian. Differences among people can be the basis of inequality.

Negative uses of power become forms of violence and negatively affect the development of the person who experiences them.

Authority and violence come together in the physical and psychological punishment of a child. The convergence sees violence socially legitimised as an expression of authority. This also has the effect of masking the violence inherent in physical and psychological punishment, for example when a parent or carer applies harmful punishment to a child although they do not wish to harm the child and do not recognise that they do so.

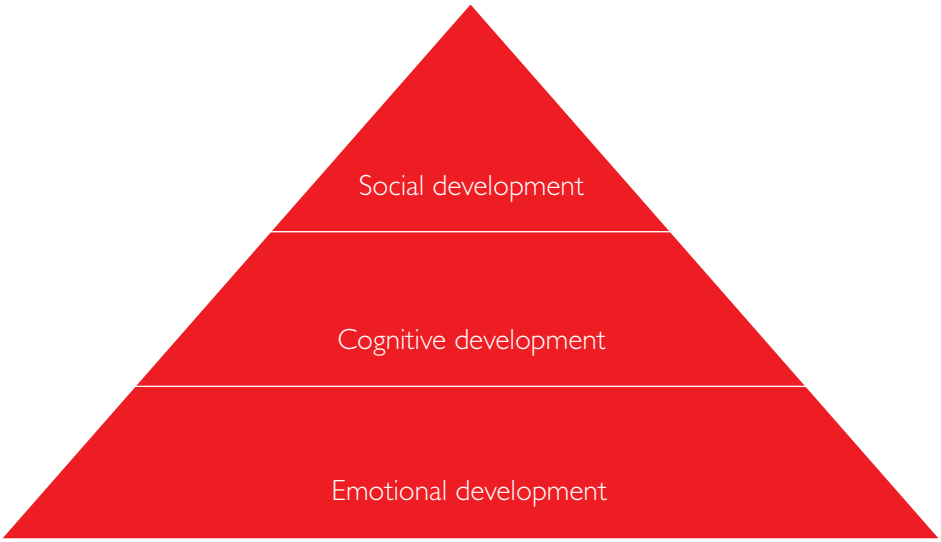
As for authority and power, while most people do not have power over people who are stronger than them or who have authority over them, they do have power over those who are close to them in their personal lives. This means they do have power in their lives. Love and affection can give people power over others, and abuse of that power can lead to violent behaviour. This relationship between love, power and violence is a key concept.

Some factors can make the effects of violence more or less severe for a victim. The possibility of recognising a cause for violence may moderate the impact on a victim. It may also have the effect of justifying the harm. When a child says 'Daddy only hits me when he is drunk', the child is seeking to account for the violence they experience by referring to factors seen as external to the relationship. Thus, from the child's point of view, the relationship is saved. This may make the experience of violence seem milder than in a situation in which a child can find no justification for the violence he or she suffers.

Sometimes it is difficult to identify the limits of violence. Many forms of violence are accepted and legitimised within our societies. (National laws are required to change the situation so that violent punishment of children is considered socially unacceptable and illegitimate.) But if one is to understand the parents and children with whom one is working in order to eradicate violence, one must first learn to accept oneself as a person who may be the subject of violence and who may also be violent. The participants need to understand that they are not better or different to the people with whom they conduct interventions. They too face situations of violence and may sometimes be violent, and they also must accept responsibility for mistakes.

Session 2

2.3: Psychological development and the developmental pyramid



Emotional and personal bonding play an essential role in the construction of a person's self-identity and their personal development. Role models (or reference points) shape a child's relationships and filter the basic information that informs their cognitive development, and then their social development – that is, these models are the basis of a child's whole development.

A baby's smile is an example of this process. The parent performs a function with the baby through which the baby learns to smile. Smiling is a cognitive capacity that allows for and promotes the establishment of other social relationships.

Violence committed by people with whom a child has bonded emotionally (reference points) directly injures a child's personal development, and this in turn influences the child's whole development. The consequences vary depending on the person. But rather than discussing consequences, the trainer is advised to encourage analysis of the development process to see why certain consequences arise.

Violence done by other people (which a child may witness or receive) and environmental factors may affect a child's social development. But if the people close to a child provide models of safe and stable personal relationships, the consequences of experiencing violence from a third party will be much less severe. This is because the child already has resources to deal with the experience (provided by those close to them, at the base level of their development).

Session 3

3.1: Elements in conflict analysis – case study

Mother
Positive: She is the only character who keeps communication with the whole family going. She recognises a problem and does not give up on trying to solve it. It is she who seeks the teacher's help.

Negative: She is submissive, her sense of personal identity is weak, she often talks through her husband, and she does not communicate with her husband about her children.

Father
Positive: A hard-working man, he loves his children, tries to talk to his son by coming back from work early (even though this does not end well), he agrees to talk with the teacher.

Negative: He evaluates his children according to their academic results, he wants his children to follow in his footsteps, he lacks self-criticism, he spends insufficient time at home with his family, he is violent towards his son, he does not think the conflict can be solved.

Boy
Positive: He looks for work (a positive rather than destructive option to try to resolve his situation), he talks to his teacher, he recognises the value of his parents.

Negative: He does not communicate with his parents, he deceives his parents by missing classes, he forges notes to excuse himself from class.

Teacher
Positive: He manages to talk with the boy and his parents, he establishes a favourable environment for discussion with the boy.

Negative: He does not take action sooner even though the boy is having problems at school and missing classes, he intervenes only when the mother calls him, he talks to the parents before talking to the boy, he accepts the parents' perspective of the boy before even listening to the boy's version of the situation.

Session 4

4.1: Levels of analysis – putting theory into practice

A person develops in a series of concentric environments (or levels). The first level is that of the individual, with their own personality and personal history. The second level is that of personal relationships established between the person and family, friends and school. The third level is that of the social environment in which personal relationships occur such as the neighbourhood, the community, institutions working in the community etc. The fourth level brings together all the cultural factors that frame the social environment, including cultural values, religion and the influence of media.

All these levels need to be assessed when analysing a person's behaviour, in the same way that an intervention programme requires action strategies to address issues at all levels. In noting that the influence of factors within levels depends on proximity to the individual, the diagram depicted in Information Sheet 5 shows how personal relationships have a greater influence on a person's development. Think of how personal relationships are the medium through which messages from the outer levels are transmitted to an individual. A child, for example, receives social and cultural messages by witnessing the behaviour of family members and people at school.

If an intervention is necessary, the personal relationships level is critical and cannot be ignored. From there, while the influences of factors at the outer levels decrease the further removed they are from the individual, these factors still need to be taken into account in any analysis of a violent situation. For example, messages transmitted by media play a role in a child's development but are also filtered by the attitudes and values of people close to the child (unless adults leave a child to watch television for hours with no supervision of programmes watched).

No single factor at any of the levels can be considered to be the solitary cause of a behaviour. Social agents cannot hide behind single factors as a way of denying responsibility. Social agents at each level have to assume responsibility and act to change a combination of factors that has a harmful influence or act to promote factors that have a positive influence. For example, violence in the media may be a risk factor regarding the use of violence, but it is not the only cause of violence against or among children. A much more complex analysis is needed.