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Erziehungswissenschaft und
Weltgesellschaft

Claudia Bergmüller, Susanne Höck,
Bernward Causemann, Jean-Marie Krier,
Eva Quiring

Quality and Impact in Global Education

Empirical and Conceptual Perspectives
for Planning and Evaluation

WAXMANN

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Claudia Bergmüller, Susanne Höck, Bernward Causemann,
Jean-Marie Krier, Eva Quiring

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Forewords

Dear readers,

“We are the first generation that can put an end to poverty and we are the last generation that can put an end to climate change”.

These words, uttered by former UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, are a wake-up call: We are standing at the crossroads. If we want to ensure that our planet remains liveable for humans and enable all people to live a dignified life, we need to take action. At the same time, this quote is also encouraging: we have the knowledge and the possibilities to change course now. We can eliminate poverty, stop global warming, improve health, education and equal opportunities, and use resources in a sustainable manner. With the 2030 Agenda, the United Nations have committed to a contract for the future of the world that mentions all of these major challenges and simultaneously offers concrete approaches to provide solutions.

As to whether the necessary transformation towards global sustainability is successful, this is also up to us. It is not just a matter of politics: every single one of us can and must do our part. We need to address our consumption, our everyday decisions: has my food and my clothing been produced in a fair and ecologically sustainable manner? Will my waste also end up in the ocean as plastic waste at the end of its cycle? In what areas can I consciously avoid CO₂ emissions?

One thing is clear: awareness is not something that can be ordered from above. And only those who understand global connections and the effects of their actions on others will actually assume responsibility for change. Development education and awareness raising programmes of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) close the gap between Germany's international obligations and the responsibility of the individual. They aim to enable people to shift from being an observer to becoming an active participant in sustainable development.

But does development education and awareness raising in Germany actually achieve its goals? What do people who take part in an information event or visit a seminar on the topic of sustainable development learn? What influences their learning? Which impacts can realistically be expected? In development education and awareness raising thus far, there has been a lack of systematic consideration of such questions. With the present study, this gap is now being closed.

To put it simply, we can now say: development education and awareness raising works!

Especially when it comes to imparting knowledge about global connections, development education and awareness raising has already managed to achieve a great deal. However, the study makes it clear: it is far more difficult to provide evidence of actual changes in patterns of action and behaviour. But there are promising answers here, too. This is why, on the basis of this study, models have already been developed describing how development education and awareness raising programmes can be designed in an improved and more effective way. With this in mind, I hope that the study reaches a wide readership and makes for stimulating reading for you!

Dr. Gerd Müller

Federal Minister for Economic Cooperation and Development, Germany

Dear Colleagues

I am delighted to recommend the English translation of this important German study to those interested in the increase and improvement of global education, development education and awareness-raising in Europe. The Maastricht Declaration, back in 2002, called for an increased focus on quality enhancement and quality assurance in Global Education; we have been working in this direction ever since.

GENE, Global Education Network Europe, works towards the day when all people in Europe – in solidarity with peoples globally – will have access to quality global education. If we are to adopt and to succeed in such a rights-based, universalist approach to access to quality, then there is a need for strengthened political and policy-maker ownership and support. This can only come about if strategies to increase the reach and funding to increase the spread of GE are accompanied with an emphasis on improvement, on quality, on standard-setting, and on evaluation.

This study can provide an important and valuable contribution to the current debate on the nature of, the importance of, and the need for differing models of evaluation in GE/DEAR. Having had the pleasure and privilege to work, in very different settings over many years, with Susanne Höck, Professor Dr. Claudia Bergmüller, and Dr. Jean-Marie Krier, I was sure that the study would turn out to be an invaluable and very nuanced contribution to current debates. It is exactly that. The study takes a critical along with an empirical approach, and a life-long along with a life-wide learning focus.

The predominance of results-based and impact-oriented evaluation in much GE/DEAR in Europe, coming as it does not from the disciplines of education or from the side of learning, but from a very specific model of public sector planning and a narrow development cooperation paradigm, has been critiqued in recent years. The question of whether – or not – this model is fit for purpose is increasingly being asked by those involved in GE/DEAR practice, policy, and planning. The current study is an important contribution to this debate, as it engages in the detailed and painstaking task of asking the questions of the evidence and of the data, across several sectors and timescales. While the study leads to questions regarding the very nature of impact-oriented and results-based evaluation, it also shows the rich and important insights that can derive from such approaches, if accompanied by a critical stance.

It should also be mentioned that this study adds to the rich heritage of German-language research in the field of evaluation in GE/DEAR. We hope that publishing in English will help to broaden the debate across language boundaries. I urge the reader to explore concepts such as the “unburdening of impact demands”, or the “search for suitable resonance spaces” – I mention just two of many – which, translating as they do the precision of the German terms, will hopefully open up possibilities not previously well-considered.

GENE has been glad to support the development of this publication in English, thanks to the support it receives from the European Commission and from our supporting Ministries and Agencies. We look forward to continuing the debate on the need for a variety of resources and models in the evaluation of GE in Europe and thank the authors and editors and organisations involved for this significant contribution.

Liam Wegimont
Executive Director
GENE – Global Education Network Europe

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Dear committed people, multipliers, educators, full-time workers and interested parties, dear readers,

development education and awareness raising aims to motivate and enable people to participate in the shaping of the world society in an engaged, informed manner, and to advocate for sustainability and a peaceful, just coexistence. For one thing is clear: sustainable development and fair globalisation can only be achieved with the help of a societal transformation.

Against the backdrop of these ambitious goals, we have always been driven by the question of what kind of mark our involvement and our work leaves. We ask ourselves which approaches, which methods, topics and which formats are best suited to encourage people to think and act within the world society in a self-critical, reflected way. What contribution do we make with our creative education projects and advocacy campaigns? How transformational are different approaches? Impact orientation is a way to self-critically examine, reflect upon, question and continually readjust the impacts of one's own work.

VENRO has long been involved in the discourse surrounding impact orientation in development education and awareness raising. During this process, new questions have come to the forefront: What does the observation of impacts tell us about our work? Is more achieved through certain formats and methods than through others? How can impacts be measured with an appropriate level of effort? And given the complexity of learning and development processes, can we even make statements about the impact of our work?

As early as back in 2011, we saw an emergence of the impulse to investigate these questions on a scientific basis and to provide the practitioners with the results of this research. VENRO and dedicated members helped to advance this process, and are grateful that the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) supported and financed the research project. Civil society was intensively involved throughout the two-year research project, for one in the scope of the highly engaged steering group, which provided constant support to the researchers, for another, via a VENRO project that provided an opportunity for simultaneous learning and exchange between the realms of science and practice. Ultimately, the results are essentially based on eight NGO projects. They too have made a contribution to this study in the form of a great deal of time, energy and practical experience.

We are all very pleased that the study has now been completed. It represents an important milestone in the discourse, although it does not conclude

the matter. For the mere existence of the study is not sufficient to anchor the topic of impact orientation in the practical application of development education and awareness raising and to enable practitioners to realise impact-oriented approaches accordingly. To ensure this, we want to continue to dedicate our joint efforts towards these goals in future. The study has motivated us to place even greater focus on the impacts and the alignment with the target group when planning the projects. Consequently we want to critically reflect, as a collective, upon how impact orientation can be made manageable for practical application. We also want to discuss the extent to which development education and awareness raising can contribute to societal change, and which quality characteristics encourage transformational learning processes.

On that note, I wish you much enjoyment in the reading of this book, and hope for active participation in the continuing discourse.

Chris Boppel
VENRO board member

Acknowledgements

The process on which this entire research project is based would not have been possible without the accompanying input and active involvement of numerous people, to whom we would hereby like to extend our heartfelt thanks. All of them, in some way or another, allowed us to benefit from their in-depth experience, facilitated valuable insights into their work and supported us in finding answers to our research questions.

We would particularly like to thank the project managers of the eight organisations who agreed to collaborate with us for almost two years. They allowed us access to internal documents as well as to many of their offers and they were willing to present their work in joint workshops.

In addition, we were also able to survey many groups of people who belonged to the respective target groups as well as to specific cooperation partners of the eight organisations: students and teachers, instructors, multipliers, visitors at theatre productions and at political information events, participants in seminar weeks, users of development education materials, stakeholders from the local community and more. To all these people who were involved in one way or another, we would also like to express our heartfelt thanks for their willingness to collaborate and for their openness.

Of exceeding value to us, in addition, was the supportive, always constructive accompaniment by the members of the steering group: in joint workshops and telephone conferences, all the steps of the research project were coordinated together, thus achieving a close interlocking of science and practice, which will now hopefully promote a productive transfer of the study results from theory to practice. Such a participatory approach is not to be taken for granted, which is why we would also like to express our warmest thanks for this exchange once more.

Furthermore, we also sincerely thank VENRO and the employees responsible within the organisation for the accompanying project, which was carried out in parallel to the research project. This made it possible for us to present the project in the scope of multiple workshops, and to receive further feedback on impact experiences from the field of development organisations.

It was crucial to the success of the project that we were able to count on the trust and support of the contracting entity, the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), at all times. For this, as well as for the financing of this entire research project and the support for the resulting publication, we would also like to issue our sincerest thanks. We also thank KommEnt GmbH for the extensive organisational management of the research project.

Last but not least: This translation of the publication was funded by GENE, the Global Education Network Europe, on the basis of the support it receives from the European Commission and from various Ministries and Agencies in Europe. We are delighted and very grateful that in this way GENE helped to further spread the findings of the study. In 2019, at the GENE roundtables in Berlin/ Germany and Valetta/Malta, core results were already presented and vividly discussed among representatives of the GENE member states. We hope that the translation provides further insights and inspiration with regard to both theory and practice of Global Education in Europe, as well as stimuli for continuing and deepening the debate within the GENE network and beyond. In this context we are also deeply grateful to our translator Lizzie Warren Wilson for her highly professional work and the wonderful cooperation throughout the entire process of the translation.

Claudia Bergmüller, Susanne Höck, Bernward Causemann,
Jean-Marie Krier, Eva Quiring

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1. Introduction

Claudia Bergmüller, Eva Quiring

1.1 Background of the study

How can development education and awareness raising be implemented in a better, more effective, and more high-quality manner? This question has driven the scene of development education in Germany for many years now. Sparked by the Aid Effectiveness Debate (see, among others, White, 1992; Hansen & Tarp, 2000) and reinforced by the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness which was published in 2005 (OECD, 2005), as well as the Accra Agenda for Action (OECD, 2008), the concept of impact orientation was propagated initially in the field of development cooperation and then, somewhat later, also in the area of development education and awareness raising (see, among others, VENRO, 2010; 2012a, b; Berliner Entwicklungspolitischer Ratschlag & Stiftung Nord-Süd-Brücken, 2010, 2015). The concept of impact orientation is connected with the idea of ensuring and further developing the quality of measures by means of the deliberate planning of impacts, and an impact analysis based on this planning. Specifically, this means: on the one hand, it is assumed that, in the course of an impact-oriented approach, those responsible for projects and measures gain a clearer idea of what they want to and are able to achieve and can thus organise their use of resources in a more rational way. On the other hand – so goes the assumption – by evaluating these plans in the course of impact analyses, they should also recognise potential for change and further development, and accordingly be able to improve said impacts (see, among others, GIZ, 2017; VENRO, 2012a, b; Phineo, 2013).

Against the backdrop of this debate, and following similar debates in the context of development cooperation (see, among others, Caspari et.al., 2008; Jungk, 2010; Mack et.al., 2011, NONIE, 2009; Rosen, 2010; Seitz, 2010; Stern et al. 2012; VENRO, 2010), a discourse developed within development education and awareness raising in Germany as to what specifically can be planned and analysed as an impact. In particular, the focus here is on the question of the extent to which impacts can be attributed to a certain measure.

This question is by no means trivial for development education and awareness raising as it aims to:

- “impart knowledge of global connections, unequal national and international power relations, post-colonial structures and the principle of individual responsibility, bring attention to the living situations and perspectives of people in countries of the South,

- enable people – in the sense of skills orientation – to understand themselves and their own living environment within the global context and to assume responsibility,
- demonstrate opportunities for participation in a just, sustainable world society, and
- win over the decision-making powers of politics, economy, society and church to think and act in line with global justice and sustainability” (VENRO, 2012d, 3, own translation, and similarly, among others, BMZ, 2008; UN, 2015; VENRO, 2014).

A large part of this treatise, therefore, is focused on learning.

With regard to the realization of an impact-oriented working approach, a substantial number of authors within the respective discourse promote the idea of designing an “impact logic” when conceptualising projects and measures – a logic in which the goal is to frame “specific project measures in a plausible context with the intended impacts and the higher-ranked political objectives of development education and awareness raising (e.g. increased action against racism, the development of sustainable ways of living, or general shifts in attitude or consciousness)” (VENRO, 2018, 2, own translation). At the same time, from an educational science perspective, it is noted that learning is a complex, self-referential and usually multi-causal process that need not necessarily have a direct correlation to external impulses, and that a “plausible” impact “logic” is therefore able to summarise it only to a limited extent (for more on this, see Bergmüller et al., 2013, and also chapter 2). Various empirical investigations show that the question of what effects learning in the field of development education may have is dependent not only on the nature of the educational programme itself, the knowledge and the convictions of the instructor/s, and the institutional context in which the respective measure is embedded, but also on the individual learning potential the participants bring with them and the social context into which they are embedded.

The differentiation, as suggested in conceptual publications, between direct impacts as “changes in the target group of a measure” and indirect impacts as “changes in the environment of the target group all the way to overarching political goals” (VENRO, 2018, 2, own translation, and similarly, for example, Phineo, 2013) helps only to a certain extent in the context of development education and awareness raising, since this differentiation only highlights a gap in the attribution of individual measures to societal changes. In development education and awareness raising, by contrast, increasing consideration is being given to the extent to which we must accept that there is an attribution gap even within the changes in the target group itself, thus making it necessary to differentiate between direct and indirect impacts here, too (see, among others,

Berliner Entwicklungspolitischer Ratschlag & Stiftung Nord-Süd-Brücken, 2010, 2015; VENRO, 2013, 2018): “This raises the question [...] of whether changes in the awareness, behaviour and lifestyle of the target group can be a direct impact” (VENRO, 2018, 2, own translation).

Empirical studies such as, for example, those carried out by Asbrand (2009a) or Wilmsen (2012), imply that in most cases, such changes can rarely be traced back to individual impulses, but must instead be regarded as a longer-term interplay between a variety of factors whose actual proportionate impact can – if at all – only be analysed with a considerable amount of distance in time. At the same time, however, many of those who are actively involved frequently discover that even brief, one-off measures can actually have immediate, very far-reaching impacts. Beyond this, the current development policy semantics within the Sustainable Development Goals feed into this perspective. For example, the federal government’s sustainability strategy in Germany lists as an objective the capacity to impart “comprehensive competence to take action and shape the future” by using education for sustainable development as a central didactic approach, in order to “enable people to actively get involved in participation processes and to shape their future, for themselves as well as collectively” (Federal Government, 2016, 83, own translation).

Against this backdrop, it is easy to understand why among those who are actively involved in the field of development education and awareness raising in Germany and who are attempting to implement an impact-oriented working approach, there is widespread uncertainty as to what can and cannot realistically be attributed as an impact resulting from an individual measure. Until now, no systematic investigation of causal relationships exists in the field of development education and awareness raising that reflects on the specifics of this field with its diverse activities and that could also offer an empirical basis for conceiving of effective measures and steering qualitative developments.

The same applies for the question of how impacts can be effectively analysed by the stakeholders of development education and awareness raising themselves. The fact that this question is not trivial either is demonstrated, amongst other things, by the as-yet-unresolved discussion of how and to what extent the impacts of development education and awareness raising can actually be proven in a counterfactual sense (see, among others, Caspari et.al., 2008; Jungk, 2010; Rosen, 2010; Seitz, 2010; VENRO, 2010). In addition, the current discussion regarding the operationalisation of global capabilities in the context of PISA 2018 once more makes it clear how difficult it is to formulate appropriate indicators by which the impact of development education can and should be determined (see, among others, Sälzer & Roczen, 2018; cf. further also Adomßent et al., 2012).

The question of what can be planned and analysed as an impact of development education and awareness raising, as well as the question of how impacts in the field of development education and awareness raising can effectively be ascertained, were discussed together by stakeholders from non-governmental organisations (NGOs), funding bodies and the scientific community in the years 2011¹ and 2012 at two conferences on the topic of “impact orientation in development information and education work in Germany”. Specifically, in 2011, those involved in development information and education work sought to find answers to the following questions:

- “To what level can changes [in the context of measures of development education and awareness raising in Germany] realistically be observed?
- To what extent can these changes be attributed to the specific measures?
- In what way can it be helpful to ask oneself which changes would have occurred even without the measure?
- Are the results of practice-oriented impact observation transferable and generalisable?
- Can projects that are designed to be short-term actually provide significant impetus for a change in behaviour?
- What impacts can be expected here?” (VENRO, 2012a, 6, own translation)

The discussion surrounding these questions was continued in a follow-up conference in 2012. During this exchange, it became clear that many of those involved in development education and awareness raising in Germany were still struggling with this issue. In particular, the following three problematic aspects were highlighted:

- “Doubt in the fundamental measurability of the impact of development education and awareness raising”,
- the realisation that “not all of the stakeholders involved would possess the necessary professional and methodological tools to “internally observe and evaluate their measures with adequate effort with regard to the impacts”; it was further emphasised that this applies “above all with regard to the necessary demanding design of the analysis, which – if the intention is also to record mid and/or long-term impacts – must almost inevitably include ex-post evaluations”, as well as
- the observation that “the implementation of impact evaluations not infre-

1 See VENRO (2012c). Annual Report 2011, 14-15; available on: https://venro.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Dateien/Daten/Publikationen/Jahresberichte/VENRO_Jahresbericht_2011.pdf (accessed 29.04.2020)

quently fails due to a lack of personnel and financial resources” (BMZ [Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development], 2016, 2, own translation).

Following these two conferences, and reinforced by debates in the VENRO Working Group on Education², all three previously mentioned stakeholder groups expressed the desire to more systematically examine questions about regarding the impact of development education and awareness raising and the possibilities of impact observations in this field, in the framework of a research project. This research project was commissioned in 2016 by the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), under the title of “Impacts and methods of impact observation in development education and awareness raising in Germany”, with a running time from May 2016 to September 2018, and – in accordance with the basic participative orientation of the discourse – was accompanied by a steering committee (for more information, see also Chapter 1.4).

1.2 Aim of the study

In light of the background described above, this study is intended to further promote the discourse on impacts and impact orientation in development education and awareness raising in Germany with regard to two perspectives:

First of all, it aims to illustrate which impacts can potentially be achieved with development education and awareness raising, and which factors can influence these impacts. The idea is to record these factors within the framework of an empirically validated impact model.

Secondly, this study aims to provide ideas as to how stakeholders who are active in development education and awareness raising in Germany can carry out a valid impact assessment themselves. With this in mind, this study aims to reflect upon *methods* of impact analysis as to how or under which conditions these methods can be implemented in a valid and effective manner

2 At the time of publishing, this working group now operates under the name of “VENRO WG Education local-global“ (see <http://venro.org/themen/themen-bildung0/> [26.05.2018]). This WG has been intensively tackling issues surrounding the evaluation of the work in Germany, impact observation and quality development for several years now, and is, not least, also responsible for the necessary votes being organised in a strongly participative way in recent years and ensuring a continuous exchange between civil society, funding authorities and the scientific community.

beyond the scope of scientific contexts of use, including within the realms of project-related self-evaluation initiatives as part of the work within Germany (see BMZ, 2016).³

With these two perspectives, this study is directed on the one hand at those who are practically involved as well as at funding bodies, and it aims to provide systematised, empirically substantiated, in-depth knowledge that contributes to a better understanding of education and information practice and, against this backdrop, a more conscious concept of this practice. On the other hand, the study also serves as a stimulus for discussion regarding a continued scientific examination of impacts in development education and awareness raising.

1.3 Subject of research and main questions

The focus of the research project lies on measures of development education and awareness raising in Germany. Development education and awareness raising in Germany is a very diverse field per se: according to VENRO, it ranges “from educational trips to media campaigns to project days” and “takes place in the context of formal education, but also in less formal places of learning such as youth centres or garden shows” (VENRO, 2012a, 8, own translation). In this process, it makes use of various formats, beginning with informational events and training courses, to (class) projects, all the way to the creation of materials and online tools / social media (see VENRO, 2013, 8ff. as well as Bergmüller, Causemann, Höck, Krier, Quiring, 2016).

For the research project, together with the steering committee accompanying the project, we agreed to concentrate on the development education and awareness raising in both the academic as well as the extracurricular context, and, in the field of campaign work, to focus on education and information-related campaign work in the academic context. Thus a distinction is made between formal and non-formal education, and it is accordingly taken into consideration that development education and awareness raising takes place in a variety of organisational contexts that enable an approach to the target group that is, in part, significantly different in terms of content, didactics and strategy (for more on the difference between formal and non-formal contexts with regard to development educational, see also Bergmüller, 2016).

3 This second focus is not included in the English translation of the study. However, you can find further information for this perspective in English on <http://www.wirkungsorientierung.net>.

Overall, together with the steering committee, a total of eight case studies were selected for the research project. These case studies can clearly be allocated to the area of development education and awareness raising and, for one, reflect this part of work in Germany in all its different facets, and for another, also ensure a sufficiently applicable general validity of results (for more on this, see chapter 2.3).

Nonetheless, the research project does not consider itself a comprehensive stock-taking of the effectiveness of development education and awareness raising. In any case, in view of the organisational and methodical framework conditions imposed upon it, the research project could not afford such an ambitious goal. Its focus is on using the analysis of selected, criteria-based case studies as well as a meta-analysis of pertinent research activities to demonstrate content-related and methodical reference points that can help to facilitate the impact-oriented planning, evaluation and reflection of individual measures.

Against this backdrop, from a content-related perspective, the following questions were posed:

- 1) what impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising, as well as
- 2) what characteristics can be identified that may promote the effectiveness of measures taken development education and awareness raising.

From a methodical perspective, the following question was also asked:

- 3) how impacts can efficiently be recorded in evaluations of development education and awareness raising.

These questions were operationalised as follows:

With regard to the first question as to what impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising, attention was directed specifically to:

- what direct impacts occur in the examined measures for development education and awareness raising,
- how sustainable these impacts are,
- what reach the examined measures have,
- to what extent short-term measures can actually have longer-term impacts, and
- what unintended and possibly negative impacts are produced.

With regard to the second question of what characteristics can be identified that may promote the effectiveness of measures in the field of development education and awareness raising, a closer look was taken at:

- how different forms of learning and (didactic) approaches impact the effectiveness of the measure,
- what significance can be attributed to the various types of measures,
- what added value instructors with a migration background may potentially bring,
- which effects can be traced back to the use of resources assigned a varying level of importance,
- the impact that different framework conditions and places of learning have,
- the extent to which impacts may be connected to different target groups and
- which additional factors are responsible for the effectiveness.

As for the third question of how impacts can be efficiently recorded in the framework of evaluations in development education and awareness raising, the focus was lastly turned to the following:

- to what extent the recorded changes (e.g. changes in consciousness and behaviour) can realistically be observed and measured,
- what qualitative and quantitative indicators are appropriate for the measurement of impacts,
- what qualitative and quantitative evaluation methods and designs prove successful for the various types of measures and target groups (in particular with regard to efficiency and feasibility),
- what added value qualitative and quantitative designs and methods or instruments of evaluation can offer,
- how much effort is required of the NGO for its own application of the various designs and methods (cost-benefit assessment) as well as
- to what extent the changes observed can be attributed to specific measures (reflection of the methodical approach and the design).⁴

4 This third section is not included in the English translation of the study. However, you can find further information for this perspective in English on <http://www.wirkungsorientierung.net>.

1.4 Participating players

The research project was carried out by a consortium, consisting of Prof. Dr. Claudia Bergmüller (University of Education Weingarten), Bernward Causemann (Causemann Consulting), Susanne Höck (EOP-Evaluation), Dr. Jean-Marie Krier (former KommEnt – Gesellschaft für Kommunikation, Entwicklung und dialogische Bildung GmbH now retired) and Eva Quiring (EQ EvaluationsGmbH). A steering group accompanied the consortium throughout the entire two years. It included the following people: Chris Boppel (VENRO), Albert Eiden (KNH/VENRO executive board), Marius Haberland (agl/coordinator of the promoter programme), Imke Häusler (KNH), Thomas Knoll (CARE), Peter Krahl (Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development [BMZ]), Sigrun Landes-Brenner (Bread for the World), Stephan Lockl (BMZ), Angela Lohhausen (Misereor), Sarah Louis Montgomery, Jana Rosenboom and Katharina Stahlecker (VENRO), Martin Lübke (BMZ), Mary Whalen (Berlin Development Policy Education Centre [EPIZ Berlin]), Simon Ramirez-Voltaire (agl/VENRO executive board), Andreas Rosen (SNSB), Jana Rosenboom (VENRO), Christiane Sevegnani (Engagement Global), Katharina Stahlecker (VENRO), Daniel Stollberg (Engagement Global), Kathrin Walz (CBM).

An accompanying project by VENRO ensured the transfer of the (interim) research results to a wider circle of protagonists. This supplementary project comprised, among other things, a range of workshops in which contents of the study were tied in to the development education scene in a formative way. These workshops – a total of five throughout the entire period of the study – were conceptualised and implemented in collaboration with members of the consortium.

Thus, this interaction between the consortium, the steering group and the accompanying VENRO project means that the already discussed participatory character of the impact discourse is also maintained within the study.

1.5 Structure of the book

The publication at hand is structured as follows: to begin with, the next chapter (chapter 2) maps out the empirical design of the study: we explain which considerations guided us in the creation of this empirical design and the development of the impact model (chapters 2.1 and 2.2), depict how the case studies on which this study is based were selected (chapter 2.3) and which methods of data collection and data analysis we used (chapter 2.4). In conclusion, we provide an overview of the underlying sample basis used for our

analyses. In the third chapter, we present the results of our impact analyses. For a long time during the course of the research process, it was undecided as to whether the result of the study should represent a shared impact model for all measure categories of development education and awareness raising in Germany, or whether each measure category required its own impact model. Although the analyses showed that there are certainly correlating impact factors that hold true for all measure categories, in the end we did consider it more meaningful to depict each individual measure category in a separate impact model, if the models are to serve as a guide for both the planning as well as the analysis of the practical implementation of development education in Germany. In this respect, the results of our impact analyses in chapter 3 are, to begin with, individually presented for each measure category (see chapters 3.1 through 3.3) and at the end of each sub-chapter, specific conclusions are drawn for the effective conceptualisation of events for the respective measure category. In chapter 3.4, the focus is then expanded and, by means of a retrospective biographical analysis of all case studies, we tackle the question of which influencing factors can lead to professional involvement in development education and awareness raising in terms of a person's individual biography.

In the last chapter of the book (chapter 4), the central findings from our study are summarised and considered from the perspective of development education and awareness raising, with a more holistic view on development education. In this section, the focus will be on the following questions: What do the measure-specific results mean for the discourse surrounding impact orientation of development education and awareness raising in general? What orientations can the results of the study provide to practitioners? And in which areas does a need for further research become evident?

2. Design of the study

Claudia Bergmüller, Bernward Causemann, Eva Quiring, Susanne Höck, Jean-Marie Krier

2.1 Preliminary remarks

The objective of this research project is, firstly, to analyse the impacts of development education and awareness raising as such, and secondly to examine the influence factors associated with these impacts and to map them out in an impact model. In doing so, the research project is reacting to the trend of impact models having gained greatly in significance in the context of impact-oriented project planning and evaluation. This trend has become noticeable (not only) in the context of development education and awareness raising over the last 10 to 15 years.

Underlining this observation, for (larger) impact evaluations related to development cooperation projects as well as development education and awareness raising, it has by now become almost standard practice to use impact models, and they are even explicitly required in the OECD DAC quality standards for development evaluations (see OECD, 2010, 8ff; DEval, 2014, 11). As a rule, what these models have in common is an impact-oriented logic that can be depicted via the levels of input, activities, output, outcome and impact. This logic can be described as follows:

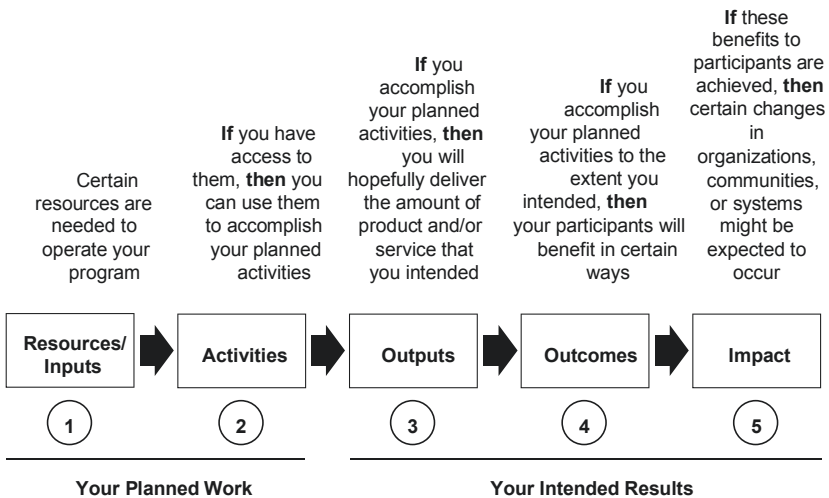


Figure 1: How to read a Logic Model (W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004)

Generally speaking (depending on the target of evaluation), the resources used for the underlying project, programme or measure concept are viewed as the *input*.

Activities, as a rule, refer to all the actions carried out by the people directly collaborating in the project, programme or measure in order to create an actual offer that corresponds to this concept for whatever kind of target group it may be directed towards.

Output usually describes, for one, the results of these activities, that is to say the services and products that were created through the previously mentioned actions and that are now offered to the target group. Secondly, the term “output” is, in part, also used to describe the actual *use* of these services or products, and occasionally even the *satisfaction* with the products (for more on this see, for example, Stiftung Mercator Schweiz, undated; PHINEO, 2013). At this point, some models (see, among others, Massing et al., 2010; VENRO, 2013) decouple the “use of the service” as a separate aspect, so as to establish a more detailed degree of differentiation. Similarly, in some publications, the “satisfaction of the target group” is also no longer situated with the output, but is instead attributed to the next level, the outcome (see Adams, 1965; Koschate, 2002; Lind & Taylor, 1982; cited in Stock, 2000, 62f.).

The *outcome* generally describes the impacts that manifest themselves amongst the immediate target group and that can, to a relatively unequivocal extent, be attributed to a preceding intervention. This is why – in contrast to the following impact level (for more, see the explanations in the next paragraph) – one also speaks of “direct” impacts.

Lastly, according to the model depicted in figure 1, *impact* refers to the effects and changes that go beyond the immediate target group and that are placed at an organisational, systemic or societal level. However, there are also impact models in which effects are then described as an “impact” when they are still related to the immediate target group itself, but are (as a rule) not able to be directly associated with a specific measure (see, among others, DAAD, o.J.). In such cases, reference is then often made to “indirect impacts”.

But this impact logic – as is demonstrated by the current practice of development education and utilisation – frequently falls short in particular when it comes to the evaluation of impacts in this field, since in essence, development education and awareness raising is about enabling people to live in an increasingly interconnected global society, while also understanding the need for (social, global) justice and being able to operationalise this aspiration for themselves and their own actions. Even if the current normative political discourses about “transformative education” strongly aim at a change in lifestyles (see, among others, the current VENRO, 2018), such learning processes cannot be conceived of as a linear acquisition of knowledge that – in a similarly

linear manner – leads to a certain behaviour. However, in the context of the current impact orientation in development education and awareness raising, this type of correlation is, to some extent, often suggested rather hastily. In truth, learning is much more of a complex, self-referential and constructive process that does not necessarily have to be directly connected to outside impulses, but that is actually also heavily dependent on individual previous experiences, values, patterns of interpretation, convictions and interests of use. As a result, knowledge cannot simply be imparted to the learner ‘just like that’, but is always generated in a dynamic manner (see, among others, Maturana & Valera, 1984/2010; Arnold & Siebert, 1995; Siebert, 1998). When developing impact assessment models, this constructivist perspective should be kept in mind.

Against this backdrop, when creating our impact model, we took our lead from the logic of already existing provision and utilisation models as have been in use in school and classroom research as well as in research in the context of pedagogical professionalisation for some time now (here, see, among others, Helmke, 2007, 2009; Klein, 2011; Lipowski, 2010 and similarly Haertel, Walberg & Weinstein, 1983; Helmke & Weinert, 1997; German Consortium PISA, 2001; Seidel, 2014). These models take into account the complexity of impact references. We consider this to be a format that is very compatible with development education and awareness raising. In a manner comparable to the currently prevailing logic of impact-oriented planning in this field, which manifests itself above all in the applications submitted, the components of provision, utilisation and result are explicitly set in relation to one another. In doing so, this incorporates not only the nature of provision and utilisation, but also the context in which the relation of these components is embedded (for more, see Bergmüller, Höck & Quiring, 2017). Specifically, these models thus take into consideration, on the one hand, the complex effects of contextual conditions, organisational and learning group-related influencing factors as well as the individual learning conditions of the target groups and their interactions (see Seidel, 2014). On the other hand, indirect connections between educational offers and characteristics of the learning success are also observed by means of modelling and investigating the utilisation and processing stages of the respective target groups.

In the scope of our data analyses, we have successively adapted these models for the area of development education and awareness raising. The first step in this process entailed the analysis of the current state of research on impacts in crucial fields of reference for development education and awareness raising, for which a comprehensive literature review was undertaken, with a total of 104 studies included in the modelling. These findings were amalgamated with the empirical results from our own data collection, meaning that the model-

ling carried out by us is built upon a significantly larger database than that which could be generated by our own data collection alone.

As a result, a total of four impact models geared towards different areas of development education and awareness raising were created, of which three shall be presented in the context of this publication.

2.2 Case selection

According to the mission of the research project, the aim was to identify four “measure categories” characteristic for the field of development education and awareness raising and to find two respective case studies for each, in which impact analyses could be carried out representatively. Based on the research project’s proposal, the following characteristics of the field should be reflected in the composition of the case studies:

- the diversity of the target groups (children/adolescents and adults),
- the diversity of the duration (one-off versus longer-term interventions) and the associated varying reach of the intended impacts,
- the organisational embedding (individual measure or embedding of the measure in a set of measures or a broader project context),
- the diversity of resources and framework conditions (represented, amongst other things, by the available project budget and the setting of the NGO responsible for the project),
- the diversity of the didactic approaches as well as
- the possibility of working with control group designs.

In addition, the consortium also supplemented this with

- the distinction between the formal (school) and non-formal (extracurricular) education sector,
- the potential for transferring the insights gained to other projects as well as
- opportunities for comparison, both internal and external to the case.

Based on a nationwide call for proposals, we were able to select eight targeted case studies from an available set of 24 submitted case studies. The following table provides an overview of how these case studies were distributed amongst the school or extracurricular areas, as well as the extent to which they could be deemed an individual measure or part of a larger set of measures.

Table 1: Placement of the case studies (n=24) according to their institutional embedding (individual measure/set of measures) in the school and extracurricular context)

	Extracurricular	School⁵	School and extracurricular
Individual measure	2	3	2
Set of measures	4	7	6

In addition to the already mentioned criteria, attention was also paid to a somewhat balanced regional distribution, insofar as this was possible considering the lack of applications from Bremen, Hamburg, Rhineland-Palatinate, Saarland and Thuringia, as well as relatively few applications from more densely populated states such as Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Hesse and Lower Saxony. Furthermore, we also paid attention to secured project financing, whereby the intention was for the projects not to have yet begun at the time of the call for proposals, if at all possible, in order to enable to collection of baseline data. It was largely possible to observe the targeted budget spectrum (see Fig. 2), even though very “small” recipients operating with an annual budget of under €2,000 had not applied and thus were not available for selection.

In consultation with the steering group, the eight case studies selected were assigned to the following measure categories:

- learning activities of short duration e.g. theatre visits, panel discussions, project/seminar days or project/seminar weeks (case studies 1 and 2),
- school-related campaign work (case studies 3 and 4),
- multiplier training courses (case studies 5 and 6) as well as
- development and use of materials (case studies 7 and 8).⁶

5 The slightly higher proportion of projects from the school context seen here is owed to the fact that more projects from the school context were submitted. However, several of the results obtained for the school context also apply to the extracurricular area in a very similar fashion. In the depiction of the results for the respective measure categories (for more on this, see chapter 3), explicit reference is made to these parallels as well as to differences.

6 In the context of the present English version of the study, the depiction of this measure category has been omitted. However, the impact model largely corresponds to that of the learning activities of short duration. For further information see www.wirkungsorientierung.net.

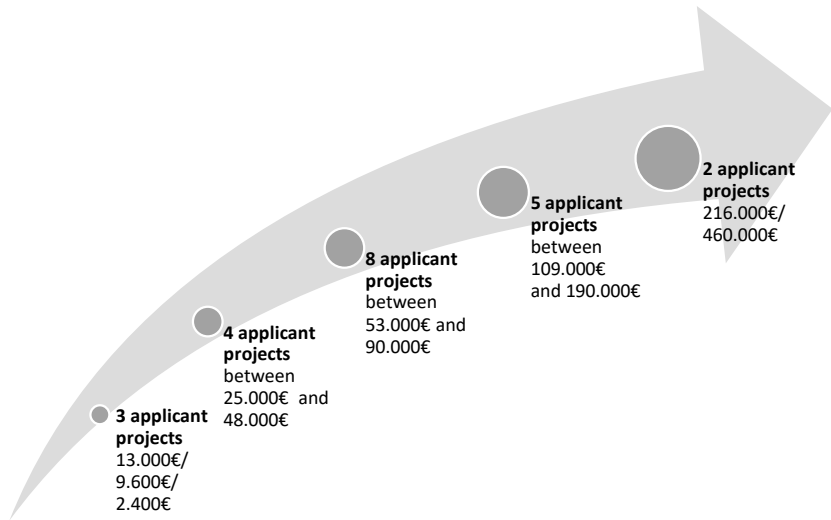


Figure 2: Spectrum of the funding amounts of the applicant projects

2.3 Data collection and analysis methods used

After a few fundamental considerations, in what follows we shall now describe which methods of data collection were used in the research project and how the collected data was analysed.

2.3.1 Fundamental considerations

The research design was based on the following fundamental considerations:

– *Mixed methods approach*

In order to provide the greatest possible scope for gaining valid information (for more on this, see, among others, Mayring, 1999; 2014), while also fulfilling the research project's mission of providing insight into which qualitative and quantitative data collection and evaluation methods are suitable for impact analyses (including in particular self-evaluation analyses) in the context of development education and awareness raising, qualitative and quantitative methods were combined. The guiding principles for the combination

of the methods were a) the logic of the convergence model (see Kelle, Kluge & Prein, 1993), whereby methods are employed for bilateral validation, and b) the logic of the complementarity model (see *ibid.*), in which qualitative and quantitative methods supplement each other mutually in their focus on certain findings. In consideration of the question of determining the most effective possible methods for a practice-oriented impact analysis, furthermore, the methodical design of the study was purposely created as a combination of complex impact analysis methods on the one hand, and low-threshold evaluation methods on the other.

– *Investigator triangulation*

To guarantee the intersubjective verification of data analyses (see Flick, 2008), the data from all eight case studies was collected, prepared and analysed by at least two members of the consortium, and the results of the data analyses were then validated by the entire team.

– *Data collections at different points in time*

In order to provide insight on the sustainability of impacts, the time frame for the research project was set up so that within each of the case studies, it was possible to investigate short and medium-term impacts in particular, whereby we regard medium-term impacts as changes that are still noticeable until approximately one year after the measure. Depending on the circumstances in the respective case study, data was therefore collected for up to three different measurement dates (t_1 = ex-ante, t_2 = immediately after an intervention and t_3 = a few days to 18 months after the intervention; for more on this, see the sample overviews in chapter 2.4).

– *Survey of selected items throughout all measures*

The original intention was to identify a small number of predominantly competence-related items to be quantitatively investigated across all eight case studies. Following the selection of the case studies, this proved to be difficult, since the groups of people, didactic contexts and framework conditions in the case studies were, in part, so different that a standardised survey did not seem appropriate.

In order to nonetheless fulfil the underlying aim of finding out more about influencing factors that encourage engagement in the field of development policy, instead, biographical interviews with the project leaders as people who are active in development education and awareness raising were carried out for all eight case studies. For further details on this method, see chapter 2.3.4).

2.3.2 Quantitative methods applied

The following quantitative methods were applied in the research project:

– *Standardised and partly standardised questionnaire surveys*

In seven case studies, standardised or partly standardised questionnaires were used to find out the short, medium and longer-term effects amongst a variety of target groups at the level of the cognitive increase in knowledge, the level of sensitisation and reflection, assessments and the willingness to take action. In part, already existing questionnaires from the case studies were used to collect further comparable data. In other cases, existing questionnaires were adapted, appropriately modified or, indeed, entirely new questionnaires were developed for the respective case study. For certain cases, we also drew on data from questionnaire surveys that had already been carried out in relevant educational research (see use of secondary data).

The questionnaires were implemented both online as well as in the form of a print version, or as a combination of a question presented on a projector and provided via answer cards. For the online questionnaires, we worked with the systems SurveyMonkey and LimeSurvey. The print versions were mostly (either under the autonomy of the project leaders or multipliers, or by members of the consortium) implemented in the form of classroom surveys. In some cases, they were given to the participants to fill in later. The sum of data collected in this way was captured in Excel and analysed using univariate analytical methods (absolute frequency, relative frequency, frequency distribution, calculation of location parameters such as mean value and median) and bivariate methods (cross-tabulation).

– *Clicker survey*

To rapidly gauge prior knowledge and existing opinions before a measure, as well as short-term effects at the level of increased knowledge and sensitisation after a measure, a so-called clicker system⁷ was implemented during the survey in one case study. This involves an electronic feedback system that enables anonymous voting. In the event analysed by us, the clickers were handed out to the participants prior to the event. Then, in the further course of the event, a beamer was used to display multiple-choice questions, once right before and once right after the event, which the participants answered by clicking a button on their clickers. Using radio frequency and receiver technology,

7 See, among others, <http://www.stil.uni-leipzig.de/wp-content/uploads/2013/02/ARS.pdf> (accessed 01.02.2020)

the answers were transferred to a computer as individual results, where they were stored electronically. This made it possible to trace the individual change in the answering behaviour for each item surveyed before and after. The data collected in this way was recorded using SPSS and evaluated, amongst other things, using simple linear regression analyses.

– *Sociometric positioning*

With the goal of gaining access to selected short-term effects with regard to cognitive increases in knowledge and changes in the level of sensitisation and reflection, sociometric positioning was also carried out in three case studies. For this special form of verbal survey, an imaginary axis was defined in the room immediately before and after an event, the beginning and end points of which marked two extreme positions (e.g. “I completely agree” versus “I don’t agree at all”). Then the participants were asked to position themselves along this axis in response to various questions or statements in such a way that the position they took most closely corresponded to their personal stance on the question/statement. Alternatively, in one case study, those surveyed were able to place representative objects in the position adopted by them. To supplement this method, participants were randomly asked to justify their respective positioning. The arrangement of the various stances was recorded as an image or in the form of brief written documentation, and analysed using univariate analysis methods. The justifications were analysed via content analyses and transformed into qualitative data.

2.3.3 Qualitative methods used

– *Guided group and individual interviews*

In all case studies, group interviews were carried out with the project leaders and their colleagues. The main objective of these interviews was to provide insight into the *shared* perspective of the case study to be examined and the associated impact expectations, and also to gather the most comprehensive context data possible on the case study. Going beyond this, in one case study, group interviews with teachers and students from various schools as well as cross-school interviews of teachers and students also played a significant role. Here, the focus was particularly on whether and to what extent certain opportunities resulted in impacts not just amongst individuals, but also *collectively* and at an organisational level, for example amongst the teaching staff, the student body or in the institution of school as a whole. In two cases, the group interview was combined with the method of the impact matrix (see the

corresponding section below). In addition, in five case studies, guided (e.g. telephonic) one-on-one interviews were carried out with people who played different roles so as to gather information on the respective project and its context. For the large part, audio recordings⁸ of the group and individual interviews were made, and then anonymously transcribed and analysed as regards content using both a deductive and inductive categorisation of results.

– *Group discussion*

With a view, primarily, to examining the impact of the multiplier training courses, but also with the aim of surveying the explicit and implicit knowledge that guided students' actions, group discussions were held in two case studies and analysed with the help of the documentary method according to Bohnsack (2007). Thus – in contrast to the above-mentioned methods that mainly provide insight into the knowledge “*of and about something*” – it became possible to gain access to bodies of knowledge that Bohnsack describes as knowledge “*surrounding and within something*” (see Bohnsack, 2007, 27, own translation). What is meant by this is knowledge that was acquired during first-hand practice, i.e. practical experience in which the protagonists themselves were involved. This close connection to practical experience is crucial, since beyond the understanding of the knowledge ‘of and about something’, it is possible to acquire insight into the manner in which certain bodies of knowledge (beyond the level of ‘*theoretical world cognition*’) also take on meaning in the *practical effect they have on actions*.

– *Activity list*

To be able to draw conclusions regarding the significance and the sustainability of activities, an activity list was implemented in one of the two case studies on multiplier training. This instrument has the objective of allowing a group of people, who will later be interviewed, to compare prescribed activities of a project with a view to a) the importance of these activities and b) the relation between the effort and the benefits in a systematic manner (see Brenner, 2012a)⁹. In the course of our study, an activity list that was *heavily adapted* to the case study to be analysed was implemented. In this case study, the surveyed target group participated in two workshops that took place approxi-

8 For the audio recordings, the consent of the individual person i.e. the entire group is required. In a few cases, this was not provided; in these cases, written documentation of the respective interview is available.

9 This method was adopted by NGO-IDEAs and adapted for the research project. See also Brenner (2012a) http://www.ngo-ideas.net/mediaCache/Activity_List/Guide%20to%20ActivityList.pdf

mately 6 months apart (one workshop for information and planning, and one focused on implementation). In the first workshop, as part of a pre-analysis, the participants were asked to describe the planned activities as well as the expected impacts and prerequisites for successful implementation. In the second workshop, the participants were tasked with contrasting the original planning with the actual implementation thereof in a post-analysis. The data gained using this method was qualitatively evaluated by means of a comparison of the target and actual situations.

– *Participatory observation*

Participatory observations were carried out in four of the case studies in our research project. These were of an open and unstructured nature (i.e. not using any templates or guidelines) and took place in the natural situation of the event (i.e. not in a separately generated laboratory situation). The goal of these observations was to collect comprehensive context and process information for short-term events, project weeks and multiplier training sessions in particular, in order to gain greater insight into the arising or absence of impacts. The observations were all summarised in an observational protocol, which alongside describing the occasion, place and date of the observed activity, as well as the number and role of the participants, also briefly depicted the order of events and special aspects of the activity. In accordance with the outlined issue, the observational protocols were conducted as supplementary data material and were not further categorised.

2.3.4 Hybrid forms of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods

– *Impact matrix*

In one case study, with the intention of analysing systematic connections between activities that had taken place and impacts observed by the group in a (partial) project, an impact matrix¹⁰ was used in addition to group interviews with teachers. This instrument is designed to quantitatively analyse the degree of manifestation of these impacts. The impact matrix was elaborated in two groups via the following steps, under the instruction of a consortium member.

10 This method was adopted by NGO-IDEAs and adapted for the research project. For more, see Gohl & Causemann (2012).

- 1) The group agreed upon central changes that they had observed. These were entered one after another in the left column of a table (see table 2).
- 2) The group listed significant project activities that they considered to be closely related to the observed changes; these were recorded in the first row of the table.
- 3) The group agreed upon the strength of the influence of each specified activity on each observed change, whereby 0 stands for no influence, 1 for little influence, 2 for some influence, 3 for a high influence and 4 for a very high influence.
- 4) After the group had come to an understanding regarding all values in the individual cells, these were added together to yield column and row totals.

The following table shows an example of an impact matrix for multiplier trainings:

Table 2: Example of an impact matrix

Project activities	Material	Seminar for MPL*	Blog	Website	<u>Passive total</u>
Have an influence on the following observed changes					
Knowledge level of the MPL*	3	3	0	2	8
Frequency of exchange between MPL*	0	3	3	0	6
Individual educational offers by MPL*	3	4	2	3	<u>12</u>
Knowledge level of young people attending the offers of MPL*	3	3	0	1	7
Research skills of the young people	2	2	0	3	7
<u>Active total</u>	11	<u>15</u>	5	9	

* MPL: Multipliers

The matrices were photographed and documented in the form of a table (see illustration above). Note was taken of which activities had a particularly strong influence (high active total) and which changes were perceived as being particularly pronounced (high passive total).

– *Kasese tool*

In one case study on the measure category “school-related campaign work”, furthermore, the so-called Kasese method¹¹ was implemented. This method of surveying has the objective of leading a group of interviewees to systematically reflect on the achievement of certain goals. For this purpose, at the start of the survey, the group visualises the starting point and the desired goal, for example with regard to a certain aspect of a project (e.g. in our case, the activities of multipliers after a training session had taken place). The second step involves each individual rating the extent to which the goal has been achieved on a scale of 1 to 10 (10 being fully achieved, and 1 not achieved). Lastly, each person is asked a) what was decisive for their evaluation and b) why they did not award the full score, if applicable. All the answers were documented. The reasons for not awarding the full score are discussed in the group, and a plan of activities is created as a result. As part of our study, the intention was for multipliers who had previously been trained in the method by a consortium member to implement this method themselves in their school events. The idea was then to gather comprehensive, comparable data from different schools on the basis of this process. Unfortunately, the first training session for the multipliers in the summer of 2017 had to be cancelled. In the second session carried out in November 2017, the multipliers received training in the application of the Kasese tool. However, by the end of the data collection in February 2018, only two multipliers had been able to implement the instrument. The two available sets of data did not provide a sufficient amount of comparable data, with the consequence that they were not further analysed.

– *Partly standardised biographical interviews*

With impact analyses – as is also true for the case studies examined here – it can be observed that a common approach is to take an intervention or a project as a starting point for analysing which impacts arise from these interventions. With this type of approach, however, it is barely possible to measure which impulses are scattered far and wide and display an impact after a *long* time. This information gets lost in the haze, so to speak. In addition, the contribution made by other factors often remains underexposed. “When there is an extensive evaluation demand i.e. for impact evaluations, therefore, it seems sensible to adopt a broader perspective and to orient oneself not just by the project, but to take the reality of the people’s or target groups’ lives as a starting point.” (Neubert, 1999, 57, own translation) This is why in development

11 http://www.ngo-ideas.net/mediaCache/Tinytools_Overview/Tinytools-Overview.pdf

cooperation, instruments have been developed that investigate the contributing factors with regard to their impact. These instruments initially examine the context. “In a contextual impact analysis, the question is posed of whether and to what extent the identified social changes can be traced back to the project work.” (ibid., 15, own translation) Examples of such analyses can be found, amongst other things, in the examination of changes in a small, manageable space such as MAPP – Method for Impact Assessment of Programmes and Projects (Neubert, 1999, 2010), or in a residential area of around 20,000 people like PADEV – Participatory Assessment of Development (Dietz et al., 2013).

Thus with a similar motivation in our study, transversely to the eight case studies, a retrospective observation was carried out of what had led to people getting involved in development policy. To this end, ten biographical interviews were held with people who, within the context of the case studies, are engaged in development education work as their main profession. Here, strong motives and a high degree of reflection could be expected (and therefore reliable statements), and the individuals were motivated and easy to reach.

As an introduction, the interviewees were asked to name the three most important moments, experiences or events that had awoken their interest in development education and awareness raising. In a second block of questions, they were asked to state whether they had been influenced by any of six different spheres (youth, training/higher education, people from the Global South, contact with development workers, travel or stay in a country in the Global South, reporting in the media). A third block of questions required participants to consider 13 influencing factors and state whether these had been “formative” or had had “significant, little or no influence”.¹² The questions did not touch on ethical or personal motives or specific topics¹³, but these were in fact mentioned by some individual interviewees.

The answers were documented in keywords, then coded and analysed with regard to their content, with the exception of block 3, which was quantitatively analysed. In a separate analysis, the third block of questions was posed to

12 The list of influencing factors (see chapter 3.4) proved its reliability, with one exception: the point “encounter with people *from the* Global South (in Europe or North America)” was supposed to only refer to migrants, their descendants and guests. However, to some extent it was also understood as including encounters with people *in the* Global South. This specific result, therefore, is hard to evaluate. Specialist literature and other specialist publications were not a topic of the interviews.

13 In pre-tests, those surveyed had indicated that solidarity with countries and regions (Vietnam, Central America, South Africa) was a strong influence.

a further 30 multipliers in addition to three teachers who are professionally active in the realm of education for sustainable development, in the scope of an online survey (Bergmüller & Quiring, 2018). This data was also factored into the investigation.

2.3.5 Document analysis

In all the case studies in our study, alongside preparatory analyses of relevant documents (especially project applications, interim reports, where-used lists, meeting minutes), ongoing analyses of new incoming data (such as the latest statistics) or continuously changing sources of information such as websites were also carried out.

2.3.6 Use of existing secondary data

Some data that was already available in the case studies in the form of raw data or prepared data was made accessible to the research project. Unlike the document analysis, this data was subject to a separate quantifying evaluation or content analysis. The data was available in the following form:

- written questionnaires
- raw data set from telephone survey
- edited online survey
- programme websites from educational institutions
- organisation websites (NGO, schools)
- blog entries
- applications for participation
- feedback forms
- documentation of lightening rounds.

2.4 Sample

Below we will outline which methods were used with which frequency for the data collection for each individual measure category, and thus how many sets of data were collected at which measurement time points.

For measure category 1, we were able to collect comprehensive data in all three case studies, in particular for the measurement time points t1 and

t2. In three out of seven activities, data was collected at three measurement time points. The interval between t2 and t3 was from four weeks (follow-up questionnaire teachers & learners) up to twelve months (online questionnaire teachers & learners) for the project days, two months for the information

	41 project days	7 project days	
t=1	t=0: Questionnaire teachers registration 1x / n=41	Sociometric positioning 18x / n=370	Sociometric positioning 7x / n=97
t=2	Questionnaire teachers feedback 1x / n=30	Sociometric positioning 18x / n=367	Sociometric positioning 7x / n=84
		Questionnaire pupils feedback 41x / n=778	
t=3	Questionnaire teachers follow-up 1x / n=16		
	Questionnaire teachers online 1x / n=4		
accompanying	Group interviews with project leaders and speakers 3x	Group interviews with project leaders 2x (see also under project / seminar week)	
	Document analysis	Document analysis	
	Information events		Theatre events
t=1	Online clicker survey 1x / n=63	Questionnaire treatment-/comparison-group 1x / n=47/n=20	Questionnaire participants 1x / n=80
	Participant observation 1x / n=70 (approx.)	Participant observation 1x / n=110	Participant observation 1x / n=80
			Participant observation pupils 1x / n=250
t=2	Online clicker survey 1x / n=63	Questionnaire treatment group 1x / n=47	Questionnaire participants 1x / n=80
			Card-based questionnaire pupils 1x / n=227
t=3		Questionnaire treatment-/comparison-group 1x / n=20/n=19	Group discussion pupils 1x / n=6
accompanying	Interviews with project leaders 2x		
	Document analysis		

Figure 3: Data collection methods, measurement time points and sample sizes in measure category 1a: seminar and project days

events and almost four months in the case of the theatre events. For the information events, comparative measurements were carried out between a treatment group and a comparison group at two measurement time points.

Extensive quantitative and qualitative data is available for project/seminar weeks, collected using partly standardised questionnaires. The t3 data was collected from one participant group after six months, and from a second group after 18 months (=participants of the same seminar in the previous year).

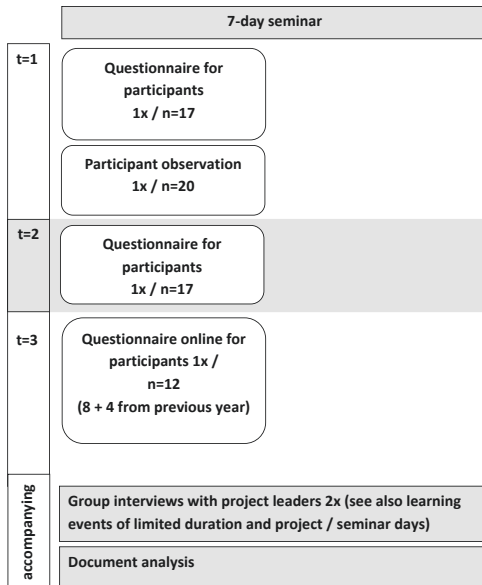


Figure 4: Data collection methods, measurement time points and sample sizes in measure category 1b: seminar and project weeks

For measure category 2 (school campaigns), data is only available for point t3. Due to the context of the research, it was not possible to collect baseline data (i.e. data a good amount of time before participation in the campaign) in schools that were not yet participating and subsequently correlate this data to t2 or t3 data. Similarly, the comparison of the schools' applications to participate in the advocacy campaign with the so-called renovations of title for which they applied two years later, which was intended to enable a comparison between t1 and t2/t3, also proved to be fruitless, since the applications are not drawn up in a manner that is differentiated enough to compare them with the documents for the renovation of title. However, in group interviews, teachers and students were asked to provide a retrospective assessment of t1.

The students interviewed have been involved in the advocacy campaign since 2013 (and in one case since 2012), meaning that medium to long-term estimations of impacts were possible. Furthermore, the relevant documents (e.g. blogs, website contents) came from schools that have been members of the campaign since as early as 2013. With the help of a secondary analysis of a partly standardised survey of 198 interviewed teachers, the sample was supplemented with a comprehensive set of quantitative data.

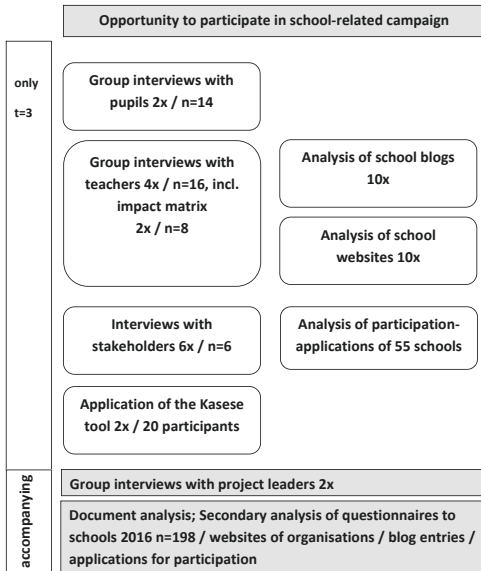


Figure 5: Data collection methods, measurement time points and sample sizes in measure category 2: school campaigns

For measure category 3 (multiplier training sessions), in one case study, data collection was carried out at two measurement time points. Thanks to substantial quantitative as well as qualitative data from the questionnaire for the workshop leadership as well as a representative analysis of event programmes, it was possible to triangulate the questionnaire data for the participants. The ‘activity list’ instrument was utilised by only a few participants and not entirely as intended, with the result that a significantly smaller quantity of valid data was obtained here than planned. In the second case study for this measure category, four different methods were implemented at three different measurement time points. The data collection for t3 was carried out in the form of three group discussions. A group discussion with multipliers took place al-

most five months later, and two group discussions were held around one and a half years after participation in the corresponding training modules.

	3 Workshops A	Workshop B	5 training sessions from 3 four-hour modules
t=1	Activity list for participants 1x / n=3	Activity list for participants 1x / n=6	Participant observation 1x / n=20
t=2	Questionnaire for participants 3x / n=32	Questionnaire for participants 1x / n=7	Feedback form 3x / n=49
	Questionnaire for workshop leaders 3x / n=3	Questionnaire for workshop leaders 1x / n=1	Questionnaire: feedback from participants 1x / n=49
t=3			Group discussions with students & pupils 3x / n=11
			Provision of interview with teachers & learners 1x / n=1
accompanying	Interview with project leader 1x		Interview with project leaders 2x
	Document analysis Analysis of programme descriptions: 95 of 905		Document analysis

Figure 6: Data collection methods, measurement time points and sample sizes in measure category 3: multiplier training courses

3 Empirical results

3.0 Preliminary remarks

Claudia Bergmüller, Eva Quiring

In this chapter we shall now address the question of which impacts can potentially be achieved through development education and awareness raising and which factors can influence the effectiveness of corresponding measures in this field. With regard to this question, two aspects became clear in the course of the data analyses. These shall be outlined, at first from a general perspective, as an introduction to this chapter. In the following sections, these two aspects will then be specifically outlined for each of the measure categories examined in the study, that is 1) for the short-term learning events, project/seminar days and project/seminar weeks, 2) for the school-related campaign work as well as 3) for the multiplier training.

- One aspect is the observation that the initially described differentiation between direct and indirect impacts seems to fall short when applied to the discourse on impact in development education and awareness raising. To this end, we have developed a different set of distinguishing categories for the concept of impact, by differentiating between impacts of varying “orders”.
- Secondly, it also became evident that the surveyed impacts are influenced by a diverse range of factors, which despite differences that are specific to the individual measure category, do share comparable similarities, meaning that it was possible to operationalise an impact model designed in parallel for each measure category.

Both aspects are briefly expounded upon below:

a) Impacts of varying orders

The impact analyses carried out in the scope of the research project were, first and foremost, related to individual and collective/organisational learning. In these analyses it became clear that immediately after events, it was possible to observe changes in the sense of direct impacts that, in accordance with the understanding of impacts up until this point, would technically have had to

be recorded as “indirect” impacts¹⁴. We find, therefore, that the currently prevailing distinction between direct and indirect impacts that dominates this discourse does not quite do justice to development education and awareness raising. Thus we moved away from this distinction and, drawing upon our analysis results, undertook a differentiation of the impacts observed by us into three different “orders”. We use this notion of “orders” to encompass the following three aspects:

- the diversity of the (cognitive, affective, operative and/or structural) level of penetration of individual and – particularly in the measure category “school-related campaign work” – collective/organisational learning,
- the differently paced consolidation of the impacts identified by us, as well as
- the varying frequency with which these impacts were able to be observed.

With this in mind, the impacts that we designated as *1st-order impacts* were those that, although they did display a rather low level of penetration, were, then again, consolidated relatively quickly and showed up comparatively frequently in our data analyses. In the context of development education and awareness raising, these impacts can thus potentially be most easily achieved in the follow-up to an event and are therefore also most likely to be attributed to this event as an “impact.”

We summarised *2nd-order impacts* as changes of a medium level of penetration, for which our data showed that the consolidation thereof was increasingly dependent on person/organisation-related or context-dependent influencing factors when compared to the *1st-order impacts*. In addition, these impacts were no longer observed with quite such frequency in the field. Nevertheless, under certain circumstances, *2nd-order impacts* can also be achieved with a relatively high degree of success in the context of development education and awareness raising, albeit no longer with the same potential attainability as was the case with the *1st-order impacts*, according to our data.

Lastly, we defined *3rd-order impacts* as the changes to which, on the one hand, a high level of penetration can be attributed, but that – to an even greater extent than *2nd-order impacts* – seem to rely on person/organisation-related or context-dependent influencing factors and were thus observed considerably less frequently and less systematically. In development education

14 See, e.g. OECD-DAC, 2002, 24, defining impact as the “positive and negative, primary and secondary long-term effects produced by a development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended”; OECD-DAC (2002): Glossary of Key Terms in Evaluation and Results Based Management. Paris. Available on: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/2754804.pdf> [28.05.2020]

and awareness raising, therefore, it is our view that this type of impact can hardly be expected as a direct consequence of a particular measure.

b) Parallel impact correlations in different measure categories

The impact correlations that were surveyed in the course of the data analyses, and that can be operationalised in parallel, were set out as a model of provision and utilisation (in accordance with the decision we made as part of the desk study; see chapter 2.1). The respective measure is thus conceived of as a provision that can be individually designed by the NGO and accordingly made use of by the participants in each case. This means:

- At the *provision level*, we find, on the one hand, the characteristics of the provision itself (i.e. the characteristics of instructors and materials used, as well as the mediation processes), and on the other hand, preceding or supplementary context-related aspects such as the systemic context, the organisational conditions of the NGOs and any potentially involved training or further education institutions, as well as the context of the target group of the provided measure.
- The *utilisation level* comprises the learner/s with his/her/their learning potential, the learning activities carried out against the backdrop of this potential, and the respective learning setting in which the use of the provided measure is embedded.
- The *results level* encompasses the above-mentioned 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts¹⁵ as well as the context of the application towards which the impacts are geared.

15 Due to the similarity of this three-step model with the competence levels of “recognising”, “assessing” and “acting” in the “Curriculum Framework Education for Sustainable Development” published by the Federal Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development (BMZ) and the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder (KMK) (KMK & BMZ, 2007; 2016), at this point it should be noted that this conceptual framework focuses purely on competences, whilst our models go well beyond the competence perspective. In this respect, an overlapping of content can be observed. However, our models are to be understood as independent from the models constructed in the framework.

The image below illustrates this basic composition:

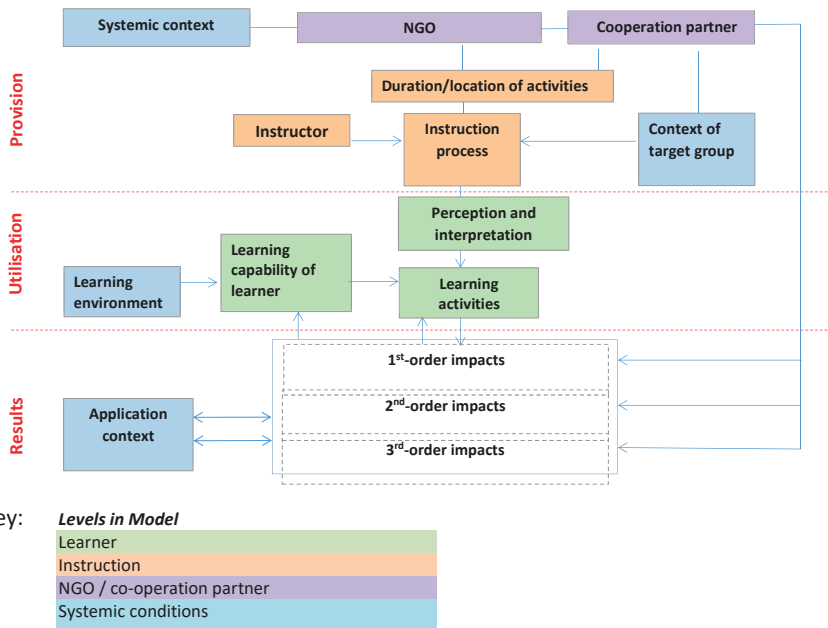


Figure 7: Basic structure of the impact models

A brief note: it is inherent to the nature of models to reduce complexity. Models consider excerpts of a far more complex reality, and they focus on influencing factors that are meaningful for the observed area of application without claiming to depict all of the actual possible influencing factors. This would not even be possible anyway, “since the number of dependent and independent variables, of endogenous and exogenous factors, of biographical and sociocultural influences is, in principle, [...] unlimited.” (Siebert, 2009, 35, own translation) Thus our models depict, first and foremost, the correlations that either stand out particularly prominently in our data, or have been accordingly proven in relevant further research studies (for more on this, see Bergmüller, Höck & Quiring, 2017). Consequently, connections observed in individual cases, which can certainly play an important role at the individual practical level, are not portrayed here.

In the following sections, an explanation will now be presented of how this structure should be specifically differentiated for the respective measure categories. Each section shall start with a central characteristic of the respective

measure category. Subsequently, in reference to the respective case studies, we shall explain the correlations that emerge at and between the individual levels, and shall outline which of the observed changes we characterise as 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts. Chapter 3.4 will then take a closer look at the results of the biographical interviews. Based on this retrospective observation, biographical influencing factors will then be analysed as to the extent to which they played a part in the interviewees' professional dedication to development policy. The aim of this analysis is to establish an additional approach to aspects that may hold a great deal of activating potential.

The three measure categories presented in this publication do not depict the entire spectrum of events currently employed in the scope of projects related to development education and awareness raising in Germany. However, they do represent facets of projects that are to be found in the field with relative frequency.

3.1 The interdependencies of impacts in learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks

Susanne Höck, Jean-Marie Krier

Learning activities of short duration, project or seminar days and weeks represent one of the most common event types in development education and awareness raising in Germany. Based on certain conceptual similarities such as the orientation towards personal learning, the tightly limited time frame of the learning opportunity or the didactic insularity with a clear beginning and end, these three types of event shall hereafter be summed up as one “measure category”. Nonetheless, we would like to start by briefly highlighting each of them:

In the research project, *learning activities of short duration* are defined as formats of development education and awareness raising that generally last between approx. one and a half hours (frequently set up as a double lesson in schools) to a maximum of three hours. They occur in a variety of forms, for example – as seen in the scope of our study – as a lecture, podium discussion, reading or expert talk. In addition, as part of the research project, theatre events with a clear pedagogic focus were also included in this measure category. These forms are also often combined with one another (e.g. a lecture or theatre performance with a subsequent discussion) and in part consolidated as a series of events on one or more topics.

The term “*project or seminar days*” refers to all the educational opportunities in the academic and extracurricular context that are usually set up as a whole-day event lasting between five and eight hours and that present a clear methodical didactic structure, such as workshops in which phases with input from instructors are alternated with phases of group or individual work.

The project or seminar weeks are to be understood as a learning opportunity similar to that of the project days. In the sense intended here, they belong to the classic learning opportunities with children and youth, as well as adult education. In adult education in particular, but in part even in young people’s education, the participants decide of their own accord whether they wish to visit such an event, and are also willing to accept costs to some extent. Project or seminar weeks are designed by NGOs as an integral unit when they come up with the contents and the methodical didactic aspects. These activities are frequently organised and carried out in collaboration with one or more cooperation partners. A distinction should be drawn between these activities and the project weeks in schools, which are often described by the same term. In these school-related project weeks, as a rule, students address a specific topic outside of lessons or as a supplement to lessons over the course of several

consecutive days, with external instructors frequently invited to these events. In contrast to the seminar or project weeks in the sense of the research project, the responsibility for the contents and realisation does not fall to the NGOs. Accordingly, the contribution made to these activities by the NGOs is very limited. School project weeks, therefore, are not the subject of this examination. In the scope of this study, *learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks* were examined with the help of three case studies that offer different activities to address different target groups. The following types of learning activities of short duration, project days and project weeks were analysed:

- Case study 1: project days with a duration of five hours for students of different ages and at different types of schools;
- Case study 2: extracurricular whole-day workshops¹⁶ for young people and young adults as well as extracurricular seminar and project weeks for adults;
- Case study 3: extracurricular one-off events such as panel discussions, informational events and readings; also, theatre performances both as part of a lesson unit at schools as well as in the form of a one-off event for an adult audience, with a duration of approx. 2 hours.

Below, the findings available from the research project with regard to the impact of this measure category shall be described. In accordance with the logic of providing and using learning activities as already explained (chapter 2.2 and chapter 3.0), we shall begin at the level of the provision. Here we will illustrate 1) which features of the context in which a learning activity of short duration, a project/seminar day or a project/seminar week can be placed, as well as 2) which conceptual features of these types of event have proven, in the course of the study, to be decisive for how these events can be offered. Following this, we shall shift our attention to the level of utilisation, focusing on the question of which factors can influence the utilisation of these types of activity and of the contents offered therein. As a third step we illuminate the results level and explain, against the backdrop of our data, which impacts can be observed in connection with factors at the provision and utilisation levels. Chapter 3.1.4 contains the impact model as a diagram, while in chapter 3.1.5, pivotal conclusions are drawn from the preceding representations.

Here it is worth mentioning in advance that the circumstances of the activities summarised in this measure category bear resemblances to each other, as just described, in many ways, but are different in two crucial aspects that

¹⁶ In principle, these are also offered for schools; however, in 2017, it was only possible to collect data on the extracurricular activities.

are of significance for the modelled interdependencies of impacts. These are, firstly, the so-called experimentation incentives that enable additional learning activities during project/seminar weeks and partly also as part of project days, but not in the course of learning activities of short duration. Unlike the learning activities of short duration, the two other formats are embedded in a didactically comprehensive way. Furthermore, in the case of the project/seminar weeks, the willingness of the target group to make an extra effort must also be emphasised, since this in turn is closely connected with the acceptance of the incentive to experiment (for more on this, see the section describing the context of the target group in 3.1.1).

3.1.1 The context and provision structures of learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks

As described in 3.0, the provision structures are composed, for one thing, of context factors: according to our data analyses, these include a) the systemic context, b) the organisational circumstances of the NGO offering the events, c) specific context factors of the participating cooperation partner as well as d) the context of the target group. What is more, e) features of the provision itself also proved to be constitutive for the question of how the provision can subsequently be used and the impact it will have. Last but not least, in development education and awareness raising, f) the directly active instructors as well as g) the nature of the respective mediation processes initiated also play a determining role. Lastly, for the learning activities of short duration and the project days, the duration and location of the activities also turned out to be especially important, as will be demonstrated in more detail below.

a) The systemic context

For the provision of the *learning events of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks* as well as the mediation activity associated with this provision, our data showed that systemic framework conditions such as those constituted by education policy guidelines, the educational context (formal or non-formal), the regional location and even relevant funding guidelines take on a central role:

Education policy guidelines such as, for example, ministerial regulations or curricula, provide the framework that serves as the basis of legitimation for all educational work. They specify focus areas, support financing enquiries and prepare an appropriate foundation for the cooperation of various protagonists in the educational context. Against this background, they are a large influenc-

ing factor for all types of educational work on the way in which educational opportunities are offered and made use of. This applies – as is evident from our data as well as from other research activities (see, among others, Bergmüller, Höck & Uphues, 2014; Bergmüller & Höck, 2017; Seitz, 2008a; Seitz, 2008b) – especially in such a normative field as that of development education and awareness raising. As remains to be expounded upon in greater detail in chapter 3.2, here education policy guidelines play an even greater role in the school context than they do for education opportunities in the extracurricular context.

This is directly connected to the nature of the institution of school, which brings us to the next relevant influential factor in the systemic context, namely the embedding of the educational opportunity in the *formal or non-formal education sector*. As documented by the following transcript excerpts from two of the three case studies, whether an educational opportunity is embedded in a formal or a non-formal educational context can make a substantial difference. According to those who were surveyed in this study, this difference is founded on the following factors:

- the varying levels of motivation of the participants,
- the varying institutional settings,
- the specific age structure, if the participants are adolescents,
- the varying degree to which the participants are already informed, as well as
- the nature of the school as an institution that upholds society.

In line with this, those carrying out the project in case study 2 state the following:

Bw: So, what we really wanted to do was something similar to organisation B, that is to develop project days at schools that can then be carried out by many people, in order to sort of achieve widespread implementation.

And now, (.) because we are receiving more and more requests, well actually right from the start we received a lot of invitations from youth groups in an extracurricular context [...] so these are young people who were or are already a little bit interested in the topic, and then of course for a day like that there are completely different conditions. [...]

Am: I also get the impression that the structure is much freer, that the schools often simply prescribe such strict or inflexible specifications as to how it may take place. Plus, the institutional setting of the school within which students move about, since we are also working precisely with age groups that may no longer be exactly enthusiastic about

school. From 15 years onwards, these are often difficult phases, and my experience is that often, what is actually missing is the kind of intrinsic motivation, which perhaps also has a lot to do with the circumstances, with the fact that they basically have to go there in the mornings and don't really feel like it. The kind of project day that we always offer may be able to stir up some enthusiasm, but as you just mentioned, it has also been my experience that the students are actually rarely informed of what this is supposed to be about, and the effort of providing information is frequently left up to us; we first have to establish why we are actually here.

(Transcript segment group interview with project leaders in case study 2; own translation)

The problem of the nature of schools as societal institutions is also viewed as an influencing factor in the role of the cooperating teachers, and is thus transferred away from the school as an organisation and onto the individual. The project leaders in case study 1 broach the following issue:

Dm: Yes, and I also sometimes get the feeling that teachers, as employees of the government, don't dare to have their own opinion. That they don't adopt any position at all. For whatever reason they may have for doing so. But I do sometimes get that feeling, because during the project day we do polarise to some extent, or we might present especially unjust examples in the group work or something like that, where you actually have a chance to help shape their opinions when it comes to possibilities for action, where you can really take a stance if you want. And with the teachers I sometimes had the feeling that they don't even want to adopt this position, that they kind of want to remain on a completely neutral playing field, without really presenting their own opinion, I don't know why.

(Transcript segment group interview with project leaders in case study 1; own translation)

In this passage, the tension between normative positioning and a neutral presentation that is so characteristic for development education and awareness raising in schools becomes clear. The teachers are accused of not daring to have their own opinion and not taking a position in their capacity as public servants. At the same time, the very work carried out by the NGOs themselves is attributed the function of being able to shape opinions by taking a correspondingly clear stance. This role model function is deemed important for activating students, and is seen as an authentic contribution towards students' learning.

Alongside the issue of embeddedness in the formal or non-formal education sector, in all three case studies our data also shows that the respective *regional location* of both the NGO offering the activities as well as the cooperation partner can influence the structure of the provision. Underpinning this finding, in case study 2 the didactic concept of the seminar week hinges to a substantial extent on cooperation possibilities with a local cooperative as well as access to various projects in the local surroundings. In case study 3, the significance of the regional situation was made clear in two respects. The NGO concerned specialises in several specific areas in the field of development education and awareness raising, as a result of which it is in part active beyond the borders of the federal state in which it is based. While activities organised by the NGO in this federal state benefit, amongst other things, from the fact that the NGO has a series of event locations as well as a dense network of cooperation partners with a diverse range of profiles at its disposal, activities in other federal states present a challenge insofar as collaboration with event organisers or cooperation partners is less established, and therefore involves significantly more effort in terms of coordination and organisation.

Last but not least, for the NGO's provision, the respective *funding guidelines* represent an influencing factor that is not to be underestimated. Our data and several comparable evaluation studies in the field show their immediate effects on the NGO making the proposal, and thus also on the nature and characteristics of the provision: project leaders and multipliers of a case study welcome the option of two-year grant agreements, which they say allow them more flexibility and significantly better adjustment to the rhythm of the school years. In the event of one-year grants, they explained that due to not having the funding approval at the start of the year, it had often thus far not been possible to offer events in January or February. Accordingly, the schools had cumulatively requested supplies in autumn, which then led to staff shortages within the NGO (see the following section).

b) The circumstances of the NGO

In the three case studies examined here, the limits of the NGO's respective reach can be seen clearly; these limits correspond to the *size* and *availability of resources*, and thus concomitantly also to the *organisation structure*. Two of the three case studies reviewed have to make do with scant personnel resources, which means that almost all of the activities that come up, such as the application for funds, the design and realisation of the project activities, public relations measures, documentation and reporting of their activities as well as self-evaluation activities are carried out by just a few people. A more intense specialisation, which could also contribute to an increase in quality, is either

very hard to put into practice or is done so with a great deal of unpaid effort. What this entails, among other things, is that either a) existing formats are adhered to over a long period of time, which may pose a contradiction to the school's own expectations of innovation (and potentially also expectations on the part of the funding providers), and/or b) volunteers or freelancers are frequently brought in, which implies additional challenges such as a rapid turnover of employees and the corresponding frequent induction of new people.

The following excerpt of the group discussion demonstrates practical challenges that arise from a demand from schools that is hard to control, as well as from the fact that many instructors who are active in development education and awareness raising do this work on a part-time basis or voluntarily and earn their living elsewhere.

Yw: What are some of the biggest challenges for 2017 when you think back to the project days? [...]

Bw: Perhaps arranging dates.

Am: Well I would appreciate it if the dates were spread out more evenly throughout the year, for me what happens is that from October to December I work more than half of my yearly workload, more, two thirds, and I'm almost never home [...]

Cw: [...] in my case it's also getting more and more difficult time-wise, I'll probably get even more hours in my full-time job next year and then even the four project days that I did this time will be pretty difficult for me to cover.

[...]

Am: It's simply difficult, what's difficult about it is, for example for [person X], he is actually already self-employed and as a rule, you can't really live from this activity alone, basically keeping plenty of time free between October and December so that you're nice and available, but then for the rest of the year you'd better find something else because it's not enough to live on. So that's kind of the challenge, I believe, and even a student often can't afford to do so, because he is already involved in some other work and so on.

(Transcript segment group interview with project leaders in case study 1; own translation)

In case study 2, the project leaders talk about the challenge of satisfying the internal and external quality requirements with few resources. The following transcript excerpt first broaches the issue of the advantages of the standardisation of one-day events. This is followed by reflections regarding the effort of increasing the quality of a project week by means of additional preparations, which stands in contradiction to the available financial and staff capacities

of the organisation. In this way, the person concerned finds themselves in a conflicting area between their own and the external quality standards for one thing, and for another their own efforts to keep the workload to a minimum.

BW: I think the idea of standardising was mostly about, well when there are one-day gatherings, or one-day events, so that we don't have to completely redesign the whole thing from scratch each time [...], i.e. what we want. But I can already feel this tension now in the preparation for the seminar, for the five-day seminar that I'm holding next week; it's precisely this question of how much time do we invest into really doing a great job and with the hope of somehow triggering a transformational process amongst the participants, and to what extent do we also have to consider our sparse time capacities and limited financial resources, and also what is the payment like that we receive for this effort, and is it in some way reasonable to put an extra two, three days into the preparation, which may have the potential to raise the quality to a different level but then on the other hand, it's really already underpaid. And I perceive it, precisely because I'm perhaps not able to handle it confidently, as an area of total tension, in which I'm kind of always pivoting between: I really want to make an impact here and I want to keep the effort required low, and I can tell that there comes a point where these are mutually exclusive. Add to this the external stipulations as to what contents need to be included.

(Transcript segment group interview with project leaders in case study 2; own translation)

c) The circumstances of participating cooperation partners

Depending on the type of cooperation partner, on the one hand, the points that were listed under b) for the NGOs apply equally for the cooperation partners. On the other hand, what also proved to be important with respect to the collaboration between NGOs and cooperation partners was the set of values of the cooperation partners being in harmony with that of the NGO, corresponding topics of NGOs and cooperation partners, as well as the learning environment and the learning climate provided by the cooperation partners. The empirical analyses in two case studies show, for example, that the NGOs approach cooperation partners with the clear aim of creating access to attractive event locations where they can provide a favourable learning environment. The spectrum here ranges from providing learning events at well-known locations to practical collaboration with a cooperation partner. The event locations can, as will be illustrated further on, have a positive effect on the learners inasmuch as they are able to offer a specific framework for the ex-

perimentation of actions. As a further effect of cooperation with (renowned) event organisers, the interest in the event may be increased.

The correspondence of topics is particularly relevant for cooperation of NGOs in the school context, since the connection between the provided educational activity and an already existing range of topics at the school could positively influence both the design of the activity and its subsequent use in the school (see above explanations on formal vs. non-formal learning).

d) The context of the target group

The research literature (see, for example, Seidel, 2014; Hattie, 2013; Asbrand, 2008) and our data prove that both the composition of the target groups and the cognitive and linguistic preconditions of the target group have an influence on the mediation process. Our data shows, for instance, that in a relatively small group of participants who are already sensitised to the topic, experimental learning approaches can have a good rate of success. With larger groups of students, however, according to the statements in case study 1, it is more difficult to accommodate, for example, longer phases of individual work such as independent internet research in a limited time period. Three observational accounts from participants in case study 3 as well as the evaluation practice of the consortium suggest that good knowledge of foreign languages on the part of the participants (and the use of appropriately employed interpreters as needed) are elementary if, for example, experts or artists from the Global South are involved in projects of development education and awareness raising. The composition of extracurricular youth groups, which in part displays significantly more heterogeneity, e.g. in the context of the Voluntary Social Year (Freiwilliges Soziales Jahr, FSJ) or the Voluntary Ecological Year (Freiwilliges Ökologisches Jahr, FÖJ) requires a differently structured mediation process than the comparably homogeneous groups in secondary schools. At the same time, extracurricular groups of voluntary participants, as the project leaders in case study 2 emphasise, are more motivated from the get-go, and share a common interest in the event. A further important aspect with regard to the context of the target group is the group's willingness to make an extra effort. Our data corroborates that precisely this factor is an important prerequisite when it comes to actually being able to implement experimentation incentives included in learning activities.

e) General characteristics of learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks

In the field of development education and awareness raising, learning activities of short duration, project days and seminar weeks address a *broad spec-*

trum of topics. In the three case studies examined by us alone as part of this study, this ranged from food security and sustainable economies, to migration and flight, all the way to fair trade. A large proportion of the learning activities of short duration and project days focuses on the *target group of students*. What is also common are extracurricular formats, such as various types of evening events for adults.

Learning activities of short duration or project days, especially in the school context, are frequently carried out by appropriately trained volunteer or full-time *instructors*. Typically, the instructors are a) closely connected to an NGO (see here case studies 1 and 2) or b) work for several NGOs on a freelance basis. But beyond this, learning events of short duration also offer *experts* from different areas of society (economy, science, politics, religion) an opportunity to impart their knowledge and experience to target groups outside of their usual field of activity. Just how varying these types of events can be becomes clear with a glance at the activities that were reviewed in the case studies in this context:

In case study 1, half-day workshops with external instructors were offered for various schools. These workshops focus on a topic that can be used as an example to depict global connections, such as chocolate, clothing, the economy and growth or migration. An instructor communicates these issues in a way that is appropriate for the respective types of schools and age groups. The supply described is booked around 40 to 60 times per year by teachers at the various types of schools (primary schools, secondary schools, vocational schools).

The second case study includes activities aimed at adolescents and young adults, with whole-day workshops (six to eight hours) that are offered as individual one-day events and are in part tied into programmes lasting several days. The organisation implements around 20 events each year in both the school context as well as the extracurricular setting (as investigated by us), e.g. with FSJ or FÖJ youth. The second opportunity examined in case study 2 brings together interested people of different age groups at seminars covering several days with a distinctive experiential character, shared accommodation, study phases and practical activities. The organisation carries out a handful of this type of seminars throughout the year, each with around 20 participants.

In the third case study, the focus of the research project was on the following activities: a political discussion event for adults on the issue of the deportation of refugees, a theatre event with actors and actresses from an African country on the topic of fair trade and migration (in the school context and in an extracurricular setting for adults), as well as a reading/information event on apartheid and anti-Semitism in the school context.

f) *The instructors as intermediaries*

The general characteristics as well as the professional competencies of the instructors, lecturers and presenters are essential for the effectiveness of educational formats, as is also extensively documented in the research literature (see, among others, Arnold, 2008; Paseka, 2010; Bauer, 2004; Gräsel, 2010). There is already a broad awareness for this in the field of development education and awareness raising, which can be corroborated not only by looking at the significance of training courses for instructors or multipliers (see, for example, the instructor training sessions of the programme “Bildung trifft Entwicklung” [Education meets development] as well as chapter 3.3), but also by the case studies examined here. Underpinning this, in the previously discussed case study 1, the high-quality requirements for the instructors to be used are formulated as follows: “All instructors... have at least 5 years of experience as an educational instructor on the topic of Global Learning. They all have a university or college degree as well as international experience in the Global South.” (Request to funding providers, 16f., own translation). As figure 8 demonstrates below, these high standards had a very positive impact on the perceived didactic methodical quality of the learning events, according to a survey carried out amongst 778 students at the schools that had booked project days with this NGO.

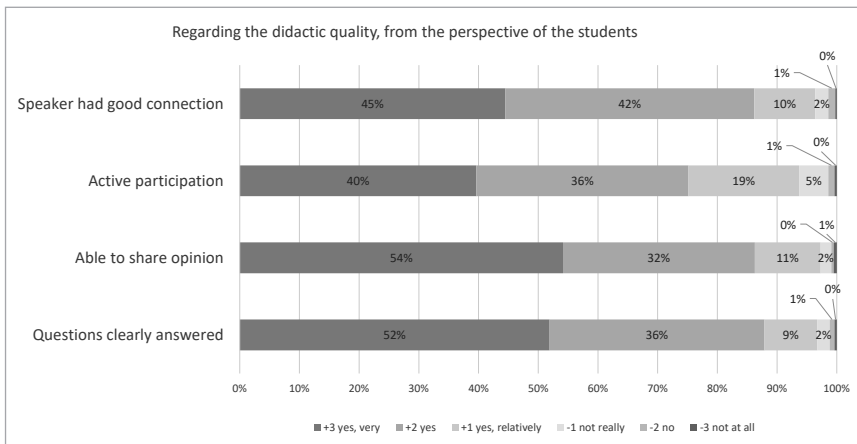


Figure 8: Didactic quality from the perspective of students, n = 778, case study 1

Between 40% and 54% of the students rate all four items¹⁷ with the highest level of approval.¹⁸ When one sums up the three positive evaluation possibilities, this results in percentage values between 94% and 97%. This provides confirmation that the atmosphere during the project days is exceedingly friendly, open, participative and sustained by the competence of the instructors.

Numerous studies on the correlation between the perceived satisfaction with the didactic quality of an educational offer and its effectiveness (see, among others, Lipowski, 2010; Hattie, 2013) suggest that a good starting position for the effectiveness of the educational offer can thus be achieved.

In this case study, it can also be demonstrated that instructors with and without a migration background received similarly positive evaluations, namely from both the perspective of the teachers as well as the students.¹⁹

In the previously mentioned case study 1, half of the project days (21 out of 41) in 2017 were carried out by instructors with a migration background (here defined as people who were born and grew up in the Global South). Of 778 surveyed students and 22 teachers who were interviewed several times, there are a total of just two statements that make explicit reference to the migration background of the instructors (one statement from a teacher and one from a student). In the feedback sheets for the project days, 30 teachers evaluated the didactic-methodical quality of the instructors based on several items, of which here the four are reported that also formed part of the questionnaire for students²⁰. The table shows that all average values of the evaluations by the teachers fluctuate between the values 2.6 and 3.0 (on a scale from -3 to +3).

17 These were: The instructor had a good connection to us / I was able to actively take part / I was able to state my opinion / My questions were answered clearly

18 For this, the 6 possible answers from “yes, very” to “not at all” were weighted with values of +3, +2, +1 and -1, -2 and -3.

19 The issue addressed here was formulated as an explicit research question for the present research project: What added value may instructors with a migration background potentially bring?

20 These were: The instructor had a good connection to the students. / The students had sufficient opportunities to actively take part. / The students had sufficient opportunities to state their opinion. / The instructor answered questions competently. For each of these, the 6 possible answers from “yes, very” to “not at all” with values of +3, +2, +1 and -1, -2 and -3 were offered.

Table 3: Instructors with/without migration background: Perception by teachers, case study 1

Teachers evaluate... n=	... instructors...	... in the following aspects:			
		a) good connection to students	b) possible active participation of the students	c) It was possible for students to express opinions	d) competent answering of questions
17	... without a migration background	2.7	2.8	3.0	2.8
13	... with a migration background	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.7

The students provided answers to the same dimensions in the context of a feedback sheet. The questions here were adapted to the perspective of the students. They were consistently more critical in their evaluation of the didactic quality of the instructors with and without a migration background; the average values fluctuated between 1.9 and 2.3, whereby the differences between the values for the two groups of instructors were smaller than amongst the teachers.²¹

Table 4: Instructors with/without migration background: Perception by teachers, case study 1

Students evaluate... n=	... instructors...	... in the following aspects:			
		a) good connection to students	b) active participation possible	c) It was possible to express opinions	d) competent answering of questions
379	... without a migration background	2.2	1.9	2.3	2.3
399	... with a migration background	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.3

21 This can be taken as an important indication that when it comes to evaluations i.e. research projects, it is of importance to consider not only the perspective of mediators and teachers, but also to allow the actual final target group itself to have a say.

The above data suggests that in the context examined, the migration background does not imply any significant differences in the perception of the didactic quality. The rather homogeneous evaluations made in the two groups of both students and teachers may reflect a certain homogeneity of the supply, which is affected not by the variable of “migration background”, but which is instead achieved by certain requirements stipulated by the provider of the instructors (university or college degree, five years of experience in the field of global learning, long stay in one or more countries in the Global South). These requirements were met by all four instructors employed.

Rather than pointing to the relevance of the migration background, data from evaluations by the consortium as well as relevant research projects (e.g. Thimm, 2006) seem to point to the effectiveness of the factor of authenticity. Whether instructors describe situations in other parts of the world authentically, whether they answer follow-up questions from the children and adolescents competently, and whether they structure learning environments in such a way that participants can discover and learn as much as possible – this should be the crucial issue. In his analysis of the cooperation of schools with extracurricular partners, Thimm (2006, 48) makes it clear that precisely such relations to authentic experts outside of the school indeed represent one of the most long-lasting experiences that schools can offer. In comparison to this, encounters with objects or thoughts that are imparted, for example, through people, texts and classroom projects, fall far behind. A great example of this is “Bildung trifft Entwicklung”²²: as one of the largest programmes for development education and awareness raising in Germany with more than 5,000 learning events throughout the year, it sets particular store by the “authenticity” of its instructors. These are either people who have returned from development missions, people who have returned from voluntary service or people who come from the Global South and live in Germany: they all stand for “authentic” experiences.

What is more, in a further case study, a direct connection between the competence of the instructors or presenters and the satisfaction with the provided learning activities was observed. Specifically, a member of the consortium witnessed how in case study 3, the didactic setting of an event was adapted by two instructors after they received comprehensive briefing from a teacher on the students’ level of knowledge. Furthermore, the instructors also carried out a short student survey in order to get their own idea. The participatory observation showed that the students were extremely attentive and

22 The programme was evaluated by members of the 2016/2017 consortium; see Grobbauer H., Höck S., Krier J.M. (2017). Externe Evaluierung Bildung trifft Entwicklung. Unpublished report.

focused. In the same case study, moreover, the participatory observation of two events exposed the pivotal importance of adequate language skills on the part of the lecturers i.e. the problem of a lack of interpreters for an audience that lacks sufficient foreign language skills. When examining observations in the scope of evaluations made by the consortium, similar findings show that although the authenticity of instructors is in part considered, the significance of language skills is not given sufficient attention, thus risking participants not being able to completely understand the contents of events.

g) Significant factors in the mediation process

Alongside the quality of the instructors, the nature of the mediation process with its array of factors proved to be highly relevant for the benefits yielded by educational processes. This includes the various aspects that are a direct part of the instructor's teaching, such as a clarification of objectives, participant and activity orientation, a point of reference to the interests and problems of the addressed group as well as a balanced presentation, the consolidation of results and sensitivity for the topic. This applies equally to learning activities of short duration, project days and project or seminar weeks. For the project and seminar weeks, furthermore, the so-called incentives for experimentation are also of relevance. What is meant by this is trialling various patterns of action within the protected framework of the mediation process, which is able to stimulate more comprehensive learning activities than a mediation process without this trialling of actions. Further important factors for a successful mediation process include group management and moderation, the quality of the teaching and learning material as well as an appropriate learning environment. In the scope of the research project, it was not possible to investigate these aspects extensively. However, as is true for the quality of the instructors, when looking at the development education and awareness raising as a whole, it can be ascertained that there is already a high level of awareness in the field when it comes to many of these factors. This can be seen, among other things, in the definition of obligatory quality criteria e.g. for NGO offers at schools, such as those that were laid down between the responsible Berlin Senate Administrations and the Berliner Entwicklungspolitischer Ratschlag (BER e.V., Berlin Development Policy Counsel) in the "Framework agreement on the cooperation of schools and development policy initiatives"²³.

23 Framework agreement on the cooperation of schools and development policy initiatives between the Senate Administration for Education, Science and Research and the Berlin Development Policy Counsel (BER e.V.).

In addition, for the offers examined in the case studies, it can be shown that the NGOs are aware of the importance of the majority of factors in the mediation process. Several factors, such as the switching of methods, activity and participant orientation as well as the right balance of the presentation have, by now, become standard in development education and awareness raising, as is documented, for example, in the funding application for case study 1:

"The project days are characterised by a change in methods in accordance with the age group. The participation of the students takes highest priority. For this reason, frontal elements are largely done away with. Instead, active methods are employed in which students are able to process the facts themselves. Methods used include, among others, group games/role play, worksheets, group exercises, opinion barometers, student presentations, meta-plans, brief video sequences and occasionally also Powerpoint."

(Application to funding providers, 17; own translation)

These demands concerning the school's own actions, which were formulated in the financing application to a funding provider, are honoured on the basis of the feedback from the students. It is true that with a total of 318 mentions, a strong dominance of two activating methods can be observed (carrying a sack of cacao and role play), which together make up 55% of the mentions (see table below). However, it becomes clear that over the course of the mediation process, the students become acquainted with a wide range of methods, since up to seven different methods are mentioned per project day.

Table 5: Feedback from students on the question: Which method did you like best?
n=318;

Event	Carrying sack	Role play	Setting up barometer	Photo puzzle	Group exercise	Watching film	Tasting	Discussion / option for action	Chocolate ingredients	Other	All	Total
EV09	2									11		13
EV10	4					4				2		10
EV11	10	1								8	4	23
EV12	4	1				1	3	1		5	5	20
EV20	16		2	2		2	1		2	4		29
EV21	12		11	2		4	1					30
EV22		11	1						1	1		14
EV23	14					1	6			3	1	25
EV28	7					4				1		12
EV29	5									1	3	9
EV30	7					4	1		6	1	4	23
EV31	16					1	1				3	21
EV33		15				7			1			23
EV34		17			3	1				1	1	23
EV38		16		2	1						4	23
EV39		16			1					1	2	20
Total	97	77	14	6	5	29	13	1	10	39	27	318
in %	31%	24%	4%	2%	2%	9%	4%	0%	3%	12%	8%	100%

In case study 2, it can be seen that two further aspects that are of importance for a successful mediation process were also implemented in the seminar week under review. The surveyed participants largely confirmed that the event was oriented towards their needs (consideration of their daily routine, inclusion of their own skills) and that it also included a multi-perspective presentation of the topics addressed.

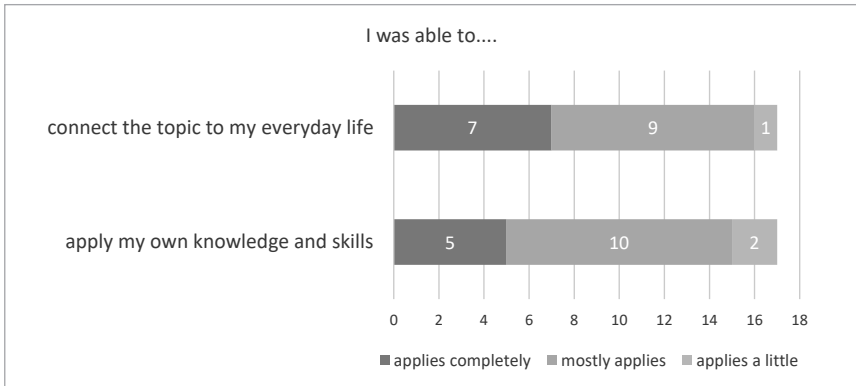


Figure 9: Feedback on the connection of the topic to students' daily life, n=17 (case study 2)

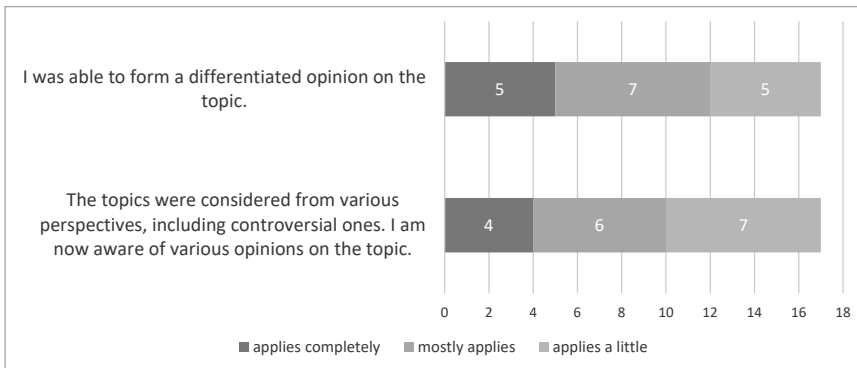


Figure 10: Feedback on the balance of the presentations in one seminar week, n=17 (case study 2)

In addition, the significance of further impact-related factors such as the consolidation of results and the provision of a suitable learning environment was attested to in one case study. Specifically, during the previously mentioned foreign language theatre event for students, the German-speaking leadership of the theatre group was not prepared to be available for questions and discussions, among other things, at short notice following the performance. Thus, the event was missing a didactic framework that had essentially been counted upon, which according to assessments from the participatory observation as well as the perception of one of the project leaders, partially resulted in irritation on the part of the students and difficulties in the discussion that was subsequently held in English.

Lastly, in case study 2, it was possible to observe the potential of didactic settings that foresee the experimentation of actions within the learning activities and thus, as already portrayed above, enable active learning through application, trial and error and therefore tap into experiences of the capacity for action (see Asbrand, 2008 as well as Asbrand & Martens, 2013).

During the seminar week examined in the case study, for which adult participants sign up individually, there are ongoing opportunities for self-organised learning, practical activities and visits to several projects in the surroundings of the site of education that are relevant to the topic at hand. 14 of 17 surveyed seminar participants considered themselves prepared to take actual action immediately after the seminar, and agreed with the statement (nine “mainly” and five “completely”) “I think that I can help shape my environment and society”. In case study 7 (see chapter 3.4), in the course of which incentives for experimentation also play a major role in the mediation process, it is similarly about collecting new experiences through conscious mobilisation of the participants (in the relatively protected context of the media project day) in the form of actions, such as the organisation of a flash mob or the creation of materials (e.g. a poster).

3.1.2 The utilisation level of learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks

The learning offers of varying scope that are provided as part of the mediation process are made use of and interpreted by individual users, and also edited and processed in the course of individual learning activities. Here, a difference is made between the so-called internal (see below) and external learning activities (see Seidel 2014) such as a) listening, b) asking follow-up questions, c) participating in talks and discussions as well as d) exchanging ideas in groups. It is clear that the nature of the learning offer, characterised for example by its duration or didactic-methodical setting, influences the manner and modality of these external learning activities. To give an example, at a panel discussion, exchanging ideas in groups is less meaningful than in the course of a project day with a methodical sequence that was planned in advance. In the format of the project/seminar weeks, the self-organisation in groups as well as the trialling and application of imparted incentives for experimentation produces different impulses than is generally the case for learning activities of short duration and, in part, even project days, where the time frame is often limited.

The external learning activities provide the structure for the so-called internal learning activities (see Seidel 2014). These comprise a) the comprehension of the learning contents provided, b) the elaboration of this impulse, i.e.

linking newly learned contents with already existing knowledge and the following enhancement of this knowledge, as well as c) the structuring and reorganisation of this thus enhanced level of knowledge (see Seidel 2014).

It should be noted that these learning activities are significantly influenced by the respective individual *learning potential* brought to the table by those interested in the learning activities. The fundamental aspects that are decisive for the learning potential of the participants are a) cognitive, b) motivational and c) volitional determinants (see Klein, 2011; Seidel, 2014). Our data shows that for this measure category, the determinant a) had an effect on the extent to which the supply was taken advantage of in the form of the already existing knowledge of the participants regarding development policy, while the determinant b) had an effect in the form of already existing relevant attitudes and convictions with respect to development policy, and that the determinant c), i.e. the implementation competence described as volition, was observed above all in participants who voluntarily took part in longer events (for the difference between voluntary and non-voluntary participation, see also chapter 3.3).

3.1.3 Impacts of learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks

a) *1st-order impacts: cognitive knowledge acquisition, generation of interest, altering of the level of sensitivity, reflection, experiences with self-efficacy*

The data evaluation shows impacts of varying scope, which – as described in chapter 3.0 – have been arranged into three levels in our impact model. 1st-order impacts that were expressed here included cognitive knowledge acquisition, the generation of interest, an alteration in the level of sensitivity and reflections on and experiences with self-efficacy.

– *Cognitive knowledge acquisition*

As depicted in 3.1.1, our impact analyses make reference to events that were contextualised in a variety of ways. These differences exist with regard to

- 1) their categorisation in the formal or non-formal educational context,
- 2) the associated general tendency of “ordered” participation in a learning opportunity at school versus more voluntary participation in extracurricular contexts, as well as

- 3) the level of knowledge of more homogeneous groups of students versus more heterogeneous groups of young people and adults in non-formal education settings.

The varying length of the events also represents a distinguishing criterion (compare short evening events, project days, and project/seminar weeks).

For all these events, it was possible to record a cognitive increase in knowledge. Underscoring this, in the context of the data collection on the project days in case study 1, it became clear that students were able to gain (in part comprehensive) cognitive knowledge on all topics discussed. This was determined using sociometric positioning at the times t1, i.e. at the start, and t2, at the end of an activity, with students in grades 5 through 13 on various project days. The statements (F1, F2, F3, see table below), on which the students recorded their stance before (t1) and immediately after the respective project day (t2), were tailored to the specific topic of the day. The positions “agree”, “don’t know” and “disagree” were available.

Table 6: Statements for sociometric positioning for various project days

Topic of the project day	Statement
Chocolate	F1: The majority of chocolate is manufactured using child labour. ²⁴
	F2: Through Fair trade, child labour can be avoided.
	F3: I know the Fairtrade logo.
Colonialism	F1: The colonialism of today still has a strong impact on economy.
	F2: I know many possibilities for taking action in order to fight the inequality in the world.
Textiles	F1: I am aware of the global connections in the production of textiles.
	F2: I know how I can improve working conditions and the lives of textile workers.
Growth-driven society	F1: I can explain what a growth-driven society is.
	F2: I am aware of alternatives to a growth-driven society.

The following illustration now shows the change in positioning in the form of a before/after comparison; this change is classified as an increase in knowledge. All project days concerning one topic are summarised as one.

24 This item was not included in the evaluation due to a lack of clarity as regards content.

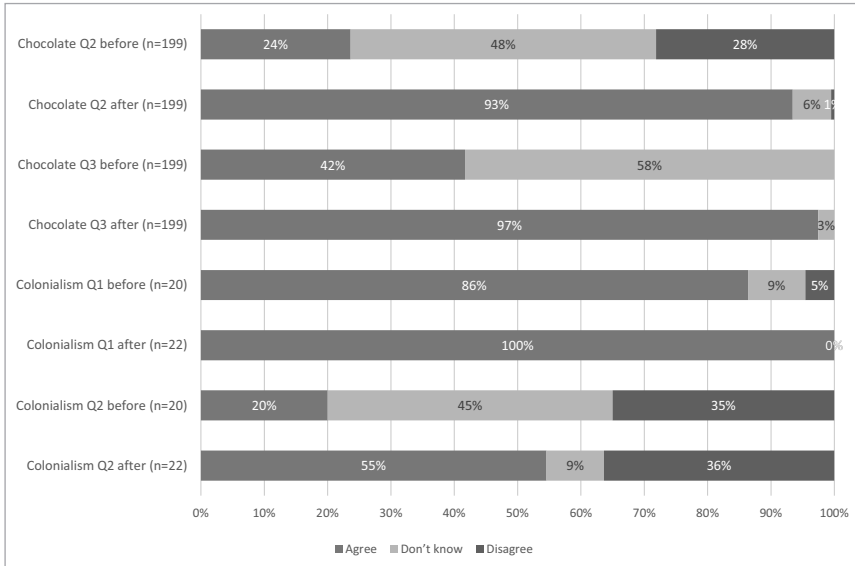


Figure 11: Cognitive knowledge acquisition, data in percentages, (n=370 for t1, n=367 for t2), case study 1, part 1

For the project days on the topic of chocolate, there is a very clear increase in knowledge. Before the project days, 24% agreed with statement F2 that child labour could be avoided through Fair Trade, while afterwards this rose to 93%. 97% (as compared to 42% at the start of the project day) stated that after the project day, they would recognise the Fairtrade logo (statement F3).

The results for the topic of colonialism are somewhat different. Here, with 86% agreeing to item F1: “The colonialism of today still has a strong impact on economy”, a high level of comprehensive prior knowledge is indicated.

With the topic of textiles, the increase in knowledge proves to be similarly extensive as for the topic of chocolate.

In the case of “growth-driven society”, the increase in knowledge is minimal. For statement F1, “I can explain what a growth-driven society is”, the rate of agreement actually dropped from 31% to 28% of the students. The causes for these findings could not be definitely clarified with the project leaders. With regard to the theory that the issue was too complex, there is no evidence to indicate this in the data from the examined project itself, e.g. in the feedback from the teachers. One possible explanation would be that potentially, ‘growth-driven society’ as a construct was not *defined* with sufficient clarity, but was instead immediately *framed as a problem*. In any case, this result points to the challenge of precisely formulated questions as well as the need

to critically examine data that was not collected personally, but instead, for example, by a multiplier. A further possible explanation that comes into question is an error in the transmission of the data by one of the instructors of the project days, e.g. a mix-up of the before and after categories.

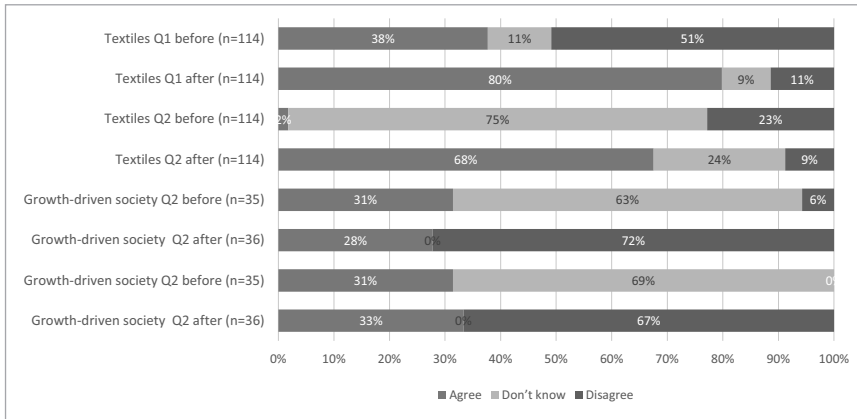


Figure 12: Cognitive knowledge acquisition, data in percentages, (n=370 for t1, n=367 for t2), case study 1, part 2

In case study 3, a comparative group design was implemented for an information event at the secondary school level. According to the performance specification of the research project, the aim was to test whether such designs can be carried out with a low threshold and little effort, and whether they can provide relevant information. The almost two-hour information event/reading that was examined addressed the subjects of anti-Semitism, apartheid as well as moral courage and the significance of getting involved when it comes to tolerance.

In the *treatment group*, that is the group that benefited from the learning activity of short duration, data was collected at points t1 (immediately before the event), t2 (immediately after the treatment) and t3 (three months after the treatment). At the latter point in time, unfortunately only a portion of the students were available, with the result that the first two data collections were carried out with n=47, while the last was performed with n=20. Only data from these 20 students was used for the evaluation.

In a parallel group (*comparison group*), the same questionnaires were used at points t1 and t3, both times with n=19. It was assumed that for this group, the values from t1 also applied to point t2, since no change whatsoever in the observed variables would have manifested itself in this group, which received

no specific development policy-related impulse, in the brief time period of two hours between the start and end of the treatment group's event (t1 and t2). Therefore, only ex-post data on t3 was collected for this group.

In the following, the changes with regard to event-specific factual knowledge are tracked. In this process, at point t2 for the treatment group, the same fact items no longer formed the basis of the questionnaire, but instead questions were posed directly regarding the increase in knowledge ("discovered new things").

Table 7: Treatment and comparison group: development of factual knowledge, total

Summarised score ²⁵ factual knowledge	Treatment group n=20	Comparison group n=19	Difference treatment group – comparison group
Point in time t1 (baseline)	2.8	1.9	0.9
Point in time t2	2.8 + x	1.9 (from t1)	0.9 + x
Point in time t3	2.2	2.5	-0.3
Difference t2 – t1	x	0	X Difference in differences ²⁶
Difference t3 – t1	-0.6	+0.6	Difference in differences -1.2

The increase in learning is portrayed by the assumed change that is measured not directly, but here only indirectly, in the summarised score on factual knowledge based on the event (change by amount x). This input is clearly positive, since almost all the students stated that they had learned something new.²⁷

The event itself, therefore, leads to an increase in the factual knowledge of the *treatment group*. We shall now take a closer look at the question of whether this increase is maintained over a longer period of time (in this case: approx. three months).

25 The total score from the four questions is based on a scale of 0 to a maximum of 8 points for four correct answers.

26 The difference in differences (double difference) measures the so-called net impact, which is calculated as the difference between two gross impacts (with the treatment group and the comparison group) (see Caspari, 2012).

27 For the topic of apartheid, all the students without exception stated that they had learned something new (in varying degrees of intensity), while for the topic of anti-Semitism the figure was 18 out of 20.

As the table above shows, the evaluation of the factual knowledge following the survey at t3 surprisingly reveals that the factual knowledge of the *treatment group* was lower (dropping from an average of 2.8 to 2.2 points) than at the time of the baseline survey (t1). The factual knowledge of the *comparison group*, by contrast, had increased (from 1.9 points to 2.5).

The fact that the *comparison group's* value is higher at t3 than at t1 i.e. t2 can most likely be attributed to the group having broached the subject of anti-Semitism and questions of tolerance and moral courage relatively close to the time of the survey t3, in a double period centred around “Schindler’s List”. This meant that the comparison group had indeed received input that was relevant to the survey; such events can occur quite frequently in real learning situations. As to why the level of factual knowledge in the *treatment group* was lower than before the treatment, this cannot be explained using the data.

In general, it should be noted that, with the exception of the dichotomous question fact-2 (“The white South Africans make up the majority in South Africa”; a priori accuracy rate: 50%), the remaining questions were answered correctly only by a handful of students. The following table depicts how many students answered the four factual questions correctly.

Table 8: Treatment and comparison group: Correct answers factual knowledge, total

Number of correct answers	Treatment group (n=20)		Comparison group (n=19)	
	point in time t1	point in time t3	point in time t1	point in time t3
Fact-1	8	7	3	4
Fact-2	13	9	7	12
Fact-3	2	0	0	1
Fact-4	5	5	7	5

For the *extracurricular area*, our data from sociometric positioning in seven six-hour events with a total of 97 participants establishes a comprehensive cognitive increase in knowledge on the topics of work, the economy and sustainability. 84% of the participants provided evaluations in the positive range, indicating complete agreement with the statement “I became acquainted with a new perspective on the topic thanks to the event”; 5% were of the opinion that the statement did not apply to them; 11% positioned themselves right in the middle. For the individual events, the mean of the respective evaluations varies between +0.4 and +1.4 on a scale from -2 (“Statement does not apply at all”) to +2 (“Statement applies completely”). These mean values should not obscure the fact that each event displayed a large spectrum of individual positions on the statements.

A number of different explanations may apply to the fluctuations in the mean values, including, amongst other things, the differences in the methodical settings and the qualification of the instructors. However, the results also make reference to the correlation between the learning potential and the cognitive determinant that influence learning activities. For example, the varying results for the project days with different topics can be explained to the effect that the respective prior knowledge in the group as a whole was higher, e.g. the prior knowledge on more general sustainability topics in comparison to the more specialised topic of “post-growth”.²⁸ On the other hand, the varying cognitive increases in knowledge on one and the same project day can be linked to the groups that are generally more heterogeneous in the extracurricular sphere, and the rather differing cognitive preconditions of the individual participants.

– *Significance of prior knowledge and learning venues for cognitive increase in knowledge*

The data analyses for non-formal events of shorter and longer duration for adults show that even in the event of a relatively high level of prior knowledge in a group of adults who had all signed up to the event of their own accord, new insights could be gained.

To this end, we can draw up the results of a panel discussion (2.5 hrs) on the topic of deportation. A good 62% of the participants (see table below) had previously explored the topic “intensively” or “very intensively”, while almost 30% replied “somewhat”.

28 In response to the question posed at the start of the project day, “I have already explored the topic of the project day”, to be answered on a scale from -2 (does not apply at all) to +2 (applies completely), project days that focused on more general sustainability topics, for example, achieved mean values between +0.1 and +0.7, while the value for the post-growth project day was -1.3.

Table 9: Prior knowledge of the participants of a learning activity of short duration (n=63 at t1)

How intensively have you explored the topic of “deportation” up until now?					
Value label	Value	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentages	Accumulated percentages
not at all	1	1	1.6	1.8	1.8
barely	2	2	3.2	3.6	5.4
somewhat	3	18	28.6	32.1	37.5
intensively	4	19	30.2	33.9	71.4
very intensively	5	16	25.4	28.6	100.0
.	.	7	11.1	missing values	
Total		63	100.0	100.0	

When questioned how high the novelty value of the event (see table below) was, almost 40% (valid percentages) recorded that they had learned “somewhat” in addition, with a further 13% stating that they had learned “a lot” of new things. Observing these figures in relation to the prior knowledge of the participants, it becomes clear that there was novelty value even for those who had already explored the topic of deportation “somewhat”, “intensively” or “very intensively”.

Table 10: Answers of the participants on the novelty value of a learning activity of short duration (n=60 at t2)

How much new information did you find out about in today’s event?					
Value label	Value	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentages	Accumulated percentages
nothing	1	2	3.2	5.3	5.3
little	2	16	25.4	42.1	47.4
somewhat	3	15	23.8	39.5	86.8
a lot	4	5	7.9	13.2	100.0
.	.	25	39.7	missing values	
Total		63	100.0	100.0	

The two following figures display similar findings. For the group of participants in a project week, it is evident that the event contributed to expanding their existing knowledge even further. The majority of the group had already addressed relevant topics. At the same time, the group confirmed a considerable increase in knowledge for two central topics.

The interdependencies of impacts in learning activities of short duration

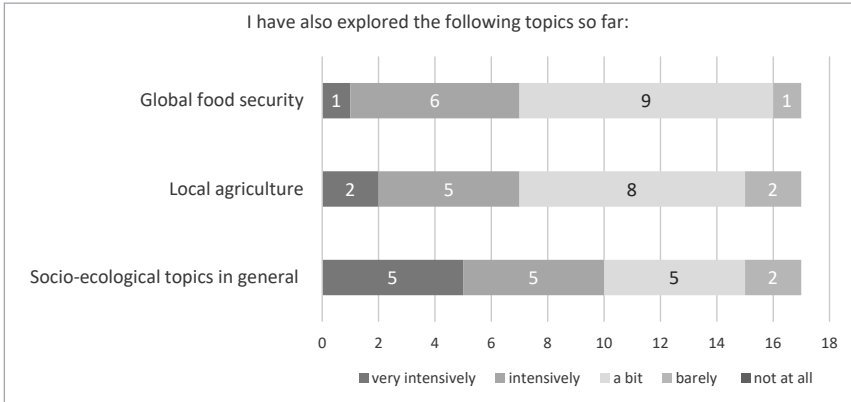


Figure 13: Prior knowledge in one seminar week, (n=17), case study 2

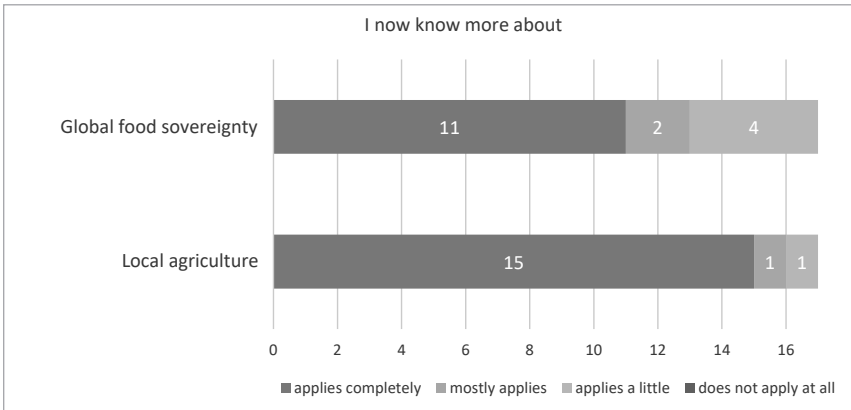


Figure 14: Cognitive increase in knowledge at point in time t2 after seminar week (n=17), case study 2

The cross-tabulation of these two variables “prior knowledge” and “learned information” (see following figure)²⁹ shows that in this case, even people with a good deal of prior knowledge still perceived a high learning value.

²⁹ For this, the mean value was calculated for each of the three items regarding prior knowledge (scale of not at all (1), barely (2), somewhat (3), intensively (4), very intensively (5)) and the two items regarding an increase in knowledge (scale of does not apply at all (1), a little (2), mostly (3), applies completely (4)).

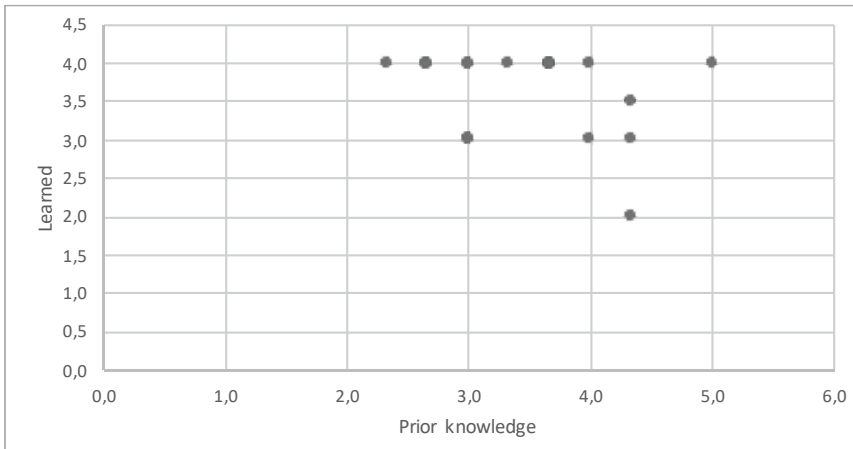


Figure 15: Cognitive increase in knowledge at point in time t2 after seminar week (n=17), case study 2

The data confirms the influence that the manner in which users learn has on impacts, a factor that has also already been investigated in other studies (e.g. Meixner, 2014). For students, Meixner (2014) verified a connection between the duration of the learning units and learning at two different learning venues, with a medium-term increase in settings in the normatively desired direction. Our data analyses corroborate a connection between learning venues and cognitive knowledge acquisition. In this vein, the participants of the specified project week estimate their increase in knowledge on the topic of “local agriculture” to be greater overall than in the subject of global food sovereignty. This can be explained, among other things, by the fact that the seminar took place at a farm over the course of a week, and that a key method of the seminar consisted in closely involving the participants in its processes – including helping out on the farm and in the adjoining market garden, with the aim of thus further awakening their interest in and sensitising them to food production. In addition, a visit to three businesses³⁰ provided insight into local supply structures.

– *Generation of interest*

From the analysis of our data, it can be verified that the events were successful in a) *provoking interest in further engagement with the topics addressed in young people and adults with various levels of prior knowledge in formal and*

³⁰ These consisted of an organic membership store, an initiative for the production and marketing of regional products, as well as an urban gardening project.

non-formal contexts, in various event settings and for various topics. It also became clear that b) the proximity to the participants' own everyday lives is an important factor in creating and reinforcing interest.

From sociometric positioning with 84 adolescents at the end of extracurricular project days (t2), it became clear that the adolescents wish to continue examining the topic of “sustainability” even after the project day. In response to the two statements “Addressing ecological crises and social inequality motivates me to continue examining the topic of sustainability” (FN 4) and “Getting to know options and alternatives for action motivates me to continue examining the topic of sustainability” (FN5), around two thirds of the positions showed agreement with each respective statement. Approximately one fifth of the answers were neutral, and around every tenth answer was clearly negative.³¹ The following figure shows the distribution of negative, neutral and positive stances for both questions.

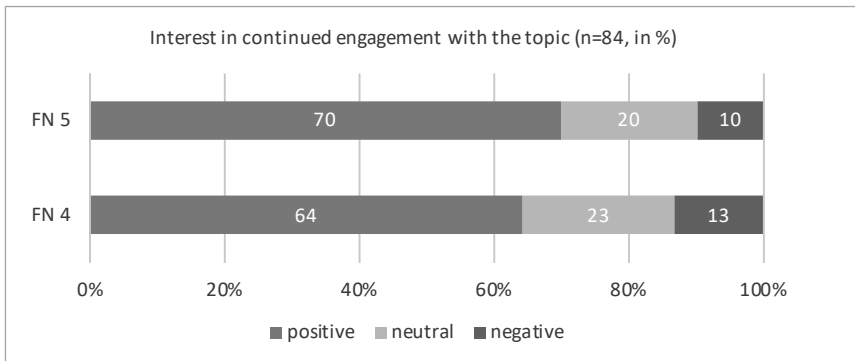


Figure 16: Interest in continued engagement with the topic, data in percentages (n=84), case study 2

The following figure shows that, thanks to the project week, 15 out of 17 adult participants (sum of “mostly applies” and “applies completely”) were made aware of new possibilities for how they can take action themselves. Similarly, 15 people stated that they had already developed ideas for future changes, and 14 of the 17 people already have ideas as to how they can implement what they have learned.

³¹ Both questions had available answers on a scale from -2 “does not apply at all” to +2 “applies completely”. After this, all the positions on the negative side of the scale were added up; the neutral value reflects the proportion of “0” ratings, and the positive value displays the sum of all positive positions.

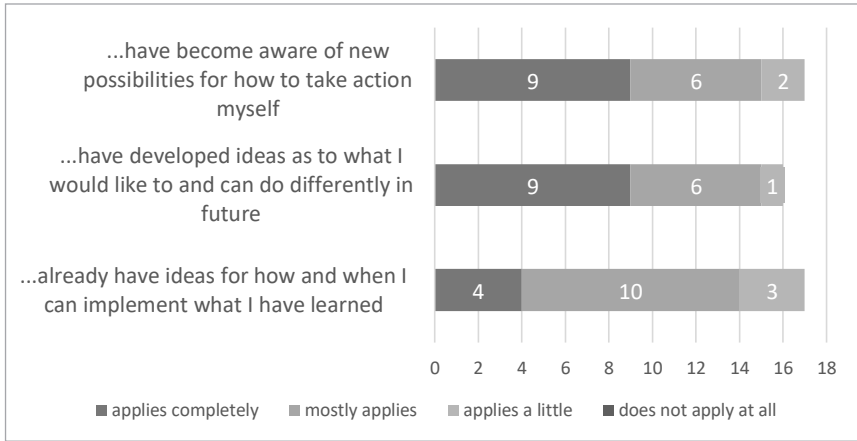


Figure 17: Estimation of incentives to take action and the implementation thereof (n=17), case study 2

Note: there were only 16 answers to item 2.

When reading these results, it must be kept in mind that all the participants in one survey already possessed, in part, considerable prior knowledge from the start. Only two out of 17 people had “barely” explored one of the two central seminar topics before; all the others had already done so with varying degrees of intensity.

The interest in further engagement with topics covered can also be clearly identified for the *context of school* in case study 1. Here, interest was measured by means of written feedback at the end of project days (t2) on various topics. The students recorded which options for action they already practise, and which may potentially come into question for them now after the project day. The following table summarises the answers for all project days.

Table 11: Interest in continued engagement with the topic, case study 1³²

Activity	n total ³³	already do	will do	I'll think about it	out of the question
Tell others about the topic	771	6.2%	51.5%	38.3%	4.0%
Throw away less	277	36.8%	44.4%	16.6%	2.2%
Buy fairly traded products	548	17.2%	40.3%	37.0%	5.5%
Buy environmentally friendly products	93	15.1%	33.3%	49.5%	2.2%
Repair or recycle things	408	37.5%	32.8%	25.5%	4.2%
Only buy what I really need	375	37.3%	32.0%	21.9%	8.8%
Ask about fairly traded products in shops	554	8.3%	31.9%	46.2%	13.5%
Rethink our purchasing behaviour within the family and shop more consciously	686	15.2%	31.8%	38.6%	14.4%
Save energy	97	50.5%	30.9%	13.4%	5.2%
Buy local products	55	21.8%	29.1%	41.8%	7.3%
Talk about globalisation within my family	55	14.5%	29.1%	49.1%	7.3%
Continue to inform myself about the topic	772	10.2%	26.6%	57.6%	5.6%
Ask about local products in shops	55	9.1%	20.0%	56.4%	14.5%
Work against a xenophobic climate in society	30	13.3%	13.3%	23.3%	50.0%
Get involved with helping refugees personally	63	4.8%	12.7%	36.5%	46.0%
Become politically active (a)	726	4.1%	9.2%	49.2%	37.5%
Purposely seek contact with migrants	62	9.7%	8.1%	41.9%	40.3%
Get politically active in favour of climate protection	34	5.9%	0.0%	55.9%	38.2%

(a): (e.g. petitions, facebook campaigns, protests, collaborating in an association, supporting environmental campaigns)

32 In the table, the activities are ordered according to decreasing value in the column “will do”.

33 The varying case numbers are a result of the feedback sheets that were used on the project days being adjusted to each topic, with options for action that were oriented towards the respective project day.

A significant percentage of the surveyed students expressed concrete interest in telling others about the topic (“will do”; 51.5%), throwing away less (44.4%) and buying fairly traded products. Over 30% wish to purchase environmentally friendly products, repair or recycle damaged objects as well as only buy what they really need. It is evident that those surveyed are primarily interested in more low-threshold, concrete options for action that exhibit a certain proximity to their everyday lives (see, among others, Thimm, 2006). Options for action that would require a higher level of personal commitment, on the other hand, are met with considerably less interest and are even explicitly rejected to some extent (“is out of the question for me”). The latter applies to the action possibilities of “becoming politically active” and “becoming politically active in favour of climate protection”, and in particular from the area of getting involved for refugees and migrants, and the option of fighting a xenophobic climate (46% and 50% rejection, respectively). Furthermore, it is striking that a) the altogether low-threshold option of purposely seeking contact with migrants, which is contemplated by almost 42%, is rejected by almost as many (40.3%), and b) that overall, the most heavily rejected options are all related to migrants and refugees. At the same time, it must also be noted that a significant percentage (36.5%) of the students consider getting involved to help refugees personally, and that 13.3% already actively work against a xenophobic climate. A further 13.3% intend on becoming active in this regard.

Since we have a large sample of different schools in eastern states of Germany here, there may be a correlation of the results to the considerably lower percentage of foreign citizens in the overall population in comparison to the national average³⁴ – a finding that indicates a fear of contact on the part of those surveyed, thus additionally underscoring the significance of proximity to everyday life when it comes to the generation of interest.

– *Change in the level of sensitisation and reflection*

With a view to changes in the level of sensitisation and reflection – impacts that are frequently strived for in particular during learning activities of short duration – our data from two larger school samples as well as for adults in the non-formal sector show that with short-term events (e.g. theatre performances), project days and longer types of events such as project weeks, sensitisation and reflection-related impacts do set in. The data illustrates that (stable) changes to the level of sensitisation and reflection are closely connected to the

34 National average of foreign population in total population at 31.12.2016: 11.2%; Saxony-Anhalt 4.4%, Saxony 4.2%, Thuringia 4.1%, Brandenburg 4%; <http://www.bpb.de/nachschlagen/zahlen-und-fakten/soziale-situation-in-deutschland/61625/auslaendische-bevoelkerung-nach-bundeslaendern>, [30.05.2020]

quality of the mediation process – that is, the structure of the learning environment and of the reinforcement of results as well as follow-up work on the instruction – and also to the initial conditions of the participants. These findings are also documented in the research literature (e.g. Seidel, 2014).

Supporting this evidence, 93.3% of 600 students surveyed in case study 1 were able to actively give specific examples for global inequality following project days. What is more, 67.5% (402 out of 595) of the students were capable of repeating statements by people from other countries that they had read on worksheets or heard in videos during the project day. 165 students provided no statement (27.7%), while 28 (4.7%) expressed an evasive answer (“none”, “no idea”, “nothing”).

It is noticeable that among the valid answers, reference is frequently made to the situation of children and young people in the Global South. Although the latter live in completely different circumstances to the surveyed students, there is obviously a kind of identification with those of the same age; as a result, children and young people are reached at an emotional level and are consequently able to better remember certain contents. We also detected similar findings when dealing with materials when it came to the influence of a didactic approach that facilitated a comparison between the students’ own lives and the lives of others (see chapter 3.4).

In case study 3, we were able to identify changes to the level of sensitisation of 227 students in a play about Fair Trade with a follow-up Q&A and discussion session (total duration 2.5 hrs). The participatory observation as well as the feedback from brainstorming carried out using cards after the theatre showed that the play held considerable inspirational value. According to the feedback, 58 of 227 (26%) found the play to be very inspiring, 83 considered it partly inspiring (37%) and 22 did not find it inspiring; 64 of those questioned did not provide a statement. Therefore around 63% of those surveyed felt inspired or partly inspired.

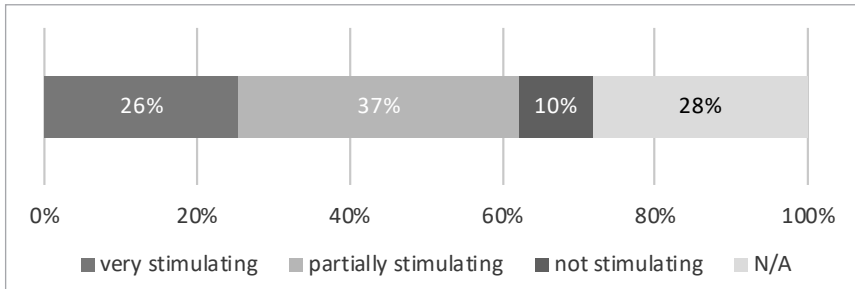


Figure 18: Inspirational value of a play at the school, (n=227), case study 3, source: brainstorming

The analysis of the group discussion, which was held with six students a good three months after the play, reviewing their experiences with and after the play, shows that the topic of the play was still present in the students' minds even after a quarter of a year. Cognitive knowledge had therefore become established amongst the students. In addition, it was documented during the discussion that the students reflected not only on the topic of "Fair Trade", but also on their own learning processes and their own day-to-day routines. In the following interview excerpt, the students express their regret at some topics in the play only being touched upon, thus lacking in motivational value. They criticised the fact that they had received too few impulses content-wise, which they, however, considered to be important for this issue. In their opinion, the consequence of this was that aside from brief discussions immediately after the event, no further reflections took place on the part of the students. Furthermore, the conversational excerpt makes clear their desire for a continued examination of the topic and their disappointment in the fact that the topic was not addressed more intensively. Incentives for further reflection and engagement with the subject matter were lacking, which, the students opined, could have enhanced their sensitisation. Overall, it is evident that the students themselves a) recognise, and demand the recognition of, the importance of incentives for experimentation for continued engagement and b) explicitly hold the lack of central elements in the mediation process (reinforcement of results, follow-up work) responsible for the fact that despite a change in the levels of sensitisation and reflection, different attitudes and potentially also actions simply do not occur to a greater degree.

The interdependencies of impacts in learning activities of short duration

Bm: I personally also think that the topic of Fair Trade was somewhat short-changed in the play. [...] Because for example Fair Trade products, the only thing was this dark chocolate bar, and it wasn't talked about enough to really name it as a point, I would say.

[...]

Dm: Well speaking for myself, in my more immediate circles, I would say that it lasted perhaps a quarter of an hour and then nobody was talking about it any more. So it might sound a bit extreme, but it really is the case that it simply wasn't explained in depth, let's say, actually providing a thought-provoking impulse where people say, now we should actually think about this carefully and really consider the consequences in our personal lives. That's why the subject matter was forgotten relatively quickly.

[...]

Bm: Well, I think that follow-up work should definitely have been carried out in order to really reinforce it. I believe that is the decisive factor for why this follow-up work was simply completely lacking and why no summary was made in general, I'd say, to actually explicitly make the students aware of the circumstances.

Aw And perhaps they could also depict a situation as to how one should act in a shop, how one can act, there were always subject matters such as hunger, but there wasn't really any context, you couldn't really draw a conclusion at the end.

(Transcript segment group discussion after theatre, case study 3; own translation)

For the already mentioned project week (non-formal, adults), which was carried out in the same manner in 2016 and 2017, the data from both participant groups shows that an (in part) extensive exploration of the topics addressed in the project week had previously already taken place. Thus, there existed both interest as well as a certain level of prior knowledge (see Figure 13).³⁵

In the surveys following the project weeks, the participants confirmed that afterwards, they had frequently reflected on the topics of the seminars, sought out further information and exchanged thoughts with others on the topic. More than half of those who answered (seven out of 12) attended further events on these topics; three people had carried out the following additional activities:

- 1) founded a SoLaWi³⁶,
- 2) written a bachelor thesis on nutrition,
- 3) collaborated in the founding of a nutrition council for city X.

35 This figure has already been used further above to illustrate a different correlation.

36 Solidarische Landwirtschaft (solidarity-based agriculture community)

Table 12: Interest in continued engagement with the topic, case study 1

	N ³⁷	n	...reflected on the topics occasionally	...sought further information on the topics	...attended further events on these topics	...exchanged thoughts on the topics with others	...carried out other activities
Participants 2016	18	4	4	4	2	4	2
Participants 2017	19	8	6	7	5	6	1
Total	37	12	10	11	7	10	3

Our analysis thus confirms the links, as documented by research, between existing knowledge and an increase in the level of sensitisation and reflection (see, for example, Hasselhorn & Gold, 2009; Brod, Lindenberger, Wagner & Shing, 2016). In this instance, it becomes evident that during the project week, it was possible to expand the already extensive knowledge of the participants. Interest and sensitisation with an openness towards further information and a corresponding exchange of ideas continue to exist even long after the event. What is more, to some extent we can actually already observe intentions for action or even specific actions that belong to the category of 2nd-order impacts.

b) 2nd-order impacts: personal attitude/conviction, guiding orientation for action

The data for this measure category shows that 2nd-order impacts, i.e. impacts on personal attitude/conviction and guiding orientations for action, can be attained.

We first focus on the stability of personal attitudes and convictions in the non-formal area (adult target group) and in the academic context. After this, we take a closer look at connections between cognitive knowledge and 2nd-order impacts in a more detailed analysis of the school-related data, since many projects are explicitly or implicitly rooted in an impact logic that assumes that changes in attitude in the desired normative sense of the event are dependent upon the volume of respective knowledge imparted. Lastly, based on an analysis of non-intended impacts, we will demonstrate changed attitudes for project days in the school context.

37 Column “N” indicates the number of participants invited to take part in the online survey, while column “n” indicates the number of those who answered.

– *Relative stability of existing attitudes after learning activities of short duration*

Using the data from a discussion-based event on the topic of deportation to Afghanistan, we want to show that attitudes and convictions remain relatively stable following impulses in learning activities of short duration. The participants (n=63) were asked about their attitude to so-called resettlement in Afghanistan shortly before the start of the discussion (t1) and immediately after the end of the discussion (t2). The illustration below shows the stance of those surveyed on the following statement before the discussion: “Resettlement in Afghanistan is reasonable for those concerned in terms of safety, respect for human rights and possibilities for securing their livelihood.” The majority does not agree with this statement “at all”.

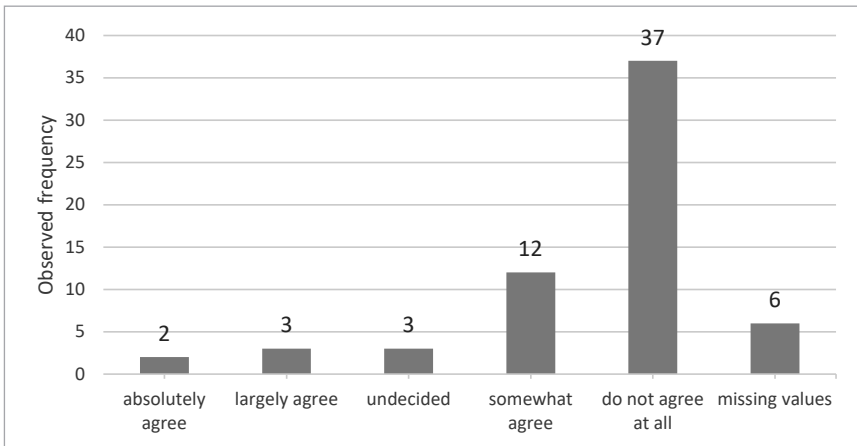


Figure 19: Attitude at point t1 in discussion-based event, n=63, source: clicker survey, case study 3

As the graphic depiction of the changes³⁸ below shows, most people (34) remain with their original orientation even after the discussion (greatest frequency at 0, i.e. no change in attitude for 34 survey participants). The majority of the changes (9 out of 13) are close to the original stance: three people

38 This figure reflects the changes measured between points t1 (start of the event) and t2 (at the end): to calculate this, the assessment of the statement at point t1 is deducted from the assessment at point t2. A positive change value indicates that the person moved from a “negative” position (“do not agree at all” i.e. “agree a little”) in the direction of a positive position, that is to say in the direction of “largely agree” i.e. “fully agree”. More pronounced changes (higher than 1 or lower than -1) are labelled with darker shades of colour.

change their position by one degree of intensity in one direction, while six move one degree in the opposite direction. More strongly defined changes in attitude (changes by more than one point on the scale in either direction) are observed in just four people.

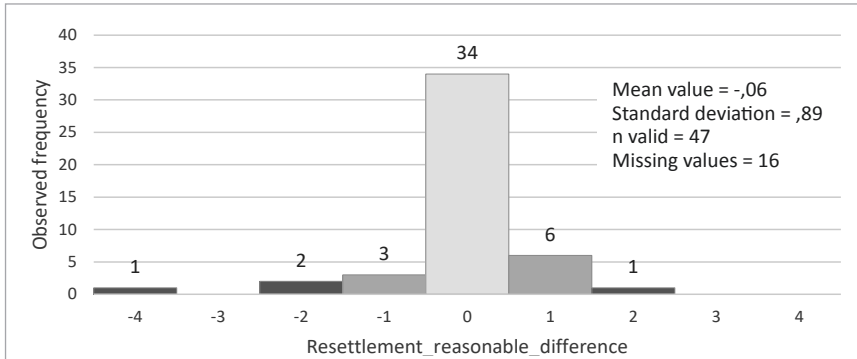


Figure 20: Difference³⁹ between attitudes at point t1 and at point t2 in discussion-based event, n=63, case study 3

The results from a before/after survey on the statement “*Germany and the EU shift the responsibility [with regard to the refugees; author’s note] away from themselves*” paint a different picture. Here, there was already a differentiated set of opinions before the discussion (t1).

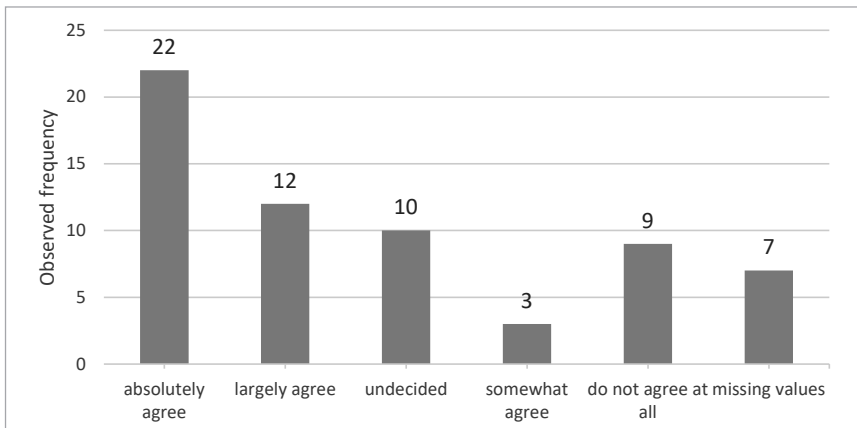


Figure 21: Attitude at point t1 in discussion-based event, n=63; source: clicker survey, case study 3

39 Calculated as value at t2 minus value at t1; what would be desired, therefore, are positive changes.

In this case, after the discussion, the *number* of changes in both directions – agreement and rejection of the statement – is greater than it was for the statement regarding deportation (here we observe 16 changes, while the latter had 13). A connection to the contents of the event can be established insofar as two of the three instructors at the panel discussion were able to very plausibly substantiate their respective opposing opinions on the perception of the responsibility towards the refugees (source: participatory observation), and could thus have contributed towards a differentiation in this way. In addition, the statement that was put to a vote is considerably less normative and emotionally charged than the statement on the “reasonableness of deportation”, such that this may also provide an explanation for a more flexible attitude.

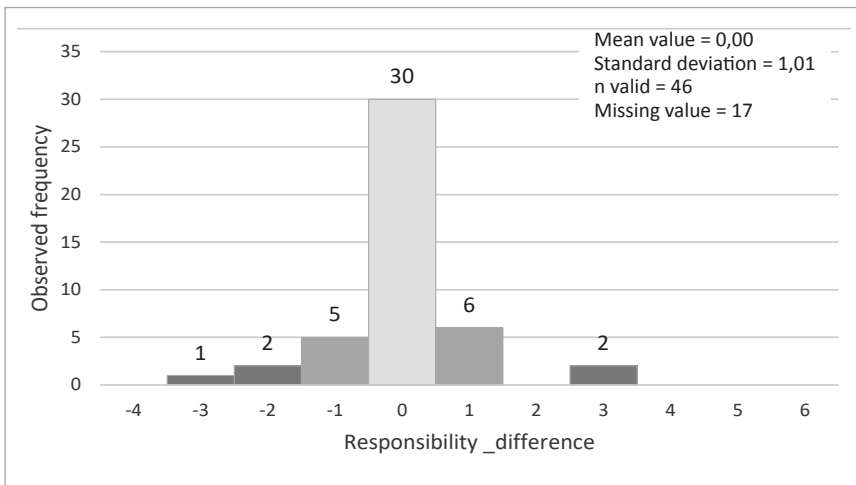


Figure 22: Difference between attitudes at point t1 and at point t2, case study 3

Overall, the outcome that the majority of those surveyed retained the same attitude was not surprising, in particular against the backdrop that a) the specified panel discussion generally already indicated a critical stance towards deportation due to its title and prior information, adding to this the fact that the NGO organising the event could be associated with this conviction, and b) adults with, in part, comprehensive prior knowledge (see table below) took part.

Table 13: Prior knowledge of the participants of a learning activity of short duration (n=63 at t1)

Value label	Value	Frequency	Valid percentages	Accumulated percentages
not at all	1	1	1.8	1.8
barely	2	2	3.6	5.4
somewhat	3	18	32.1	37.5
intensively	4	19	33.9	71.4
very intensively	5	16	28.6	100.0
	.	7	missing values	
	Total	63	100.0	

Thus, a review was also carried out in an information event/reading for students, examining the extent to which learning activities of short duration can change convictions and attitudes. With this target group, in contrast to adults who attend a panel discussion in the evening, it cannot be presumed that there is a relatively homogeneous level of interest. Furthermore, since the contents of the information event had not yet been included in the curriculum, it could be surmised that those surveyed possessed varying states of prior knowledge.

The following illustrations show the students' estimation of their own self-efficacy when it came to influencing the level of tolerance in society before and after an information event/reading. This was about anti-Semitism, apartheid and moral courage, as well as the significance of getting involved when it comes to tolerance. At the point in time before the event (t1), in response to the question: *“How strong of an influence do you believe you can have on the degree of tolerance in our society?”*, the surveyed participants positioned themselves in the middle between “very strong” and “not at all”.

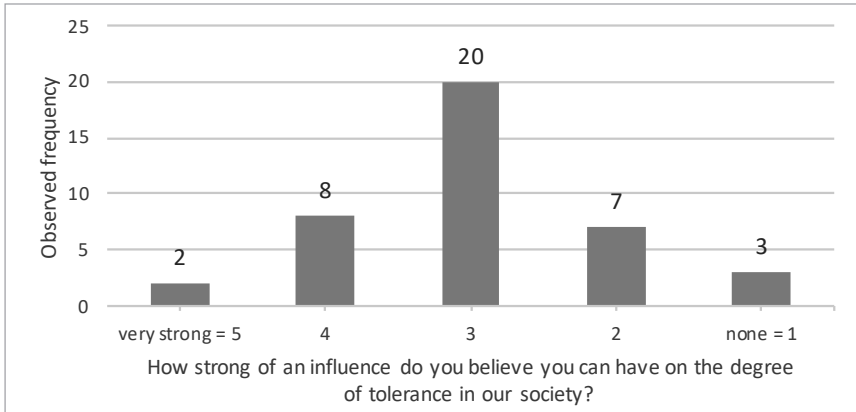


Figure 23: Attitudes at point t1 in information event/reading with students in their 9th year (n=40) Source: questionnaire survey, case study 3

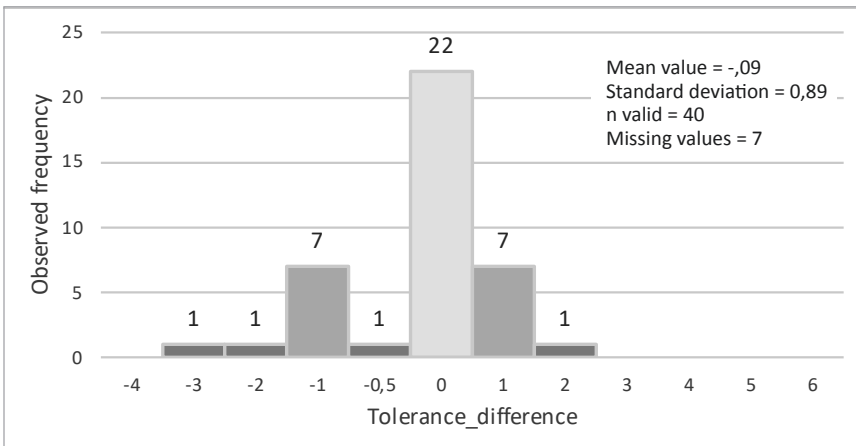


Figure 24: Difference between attitudes at point t1 and at point t2 in information event/reading with students in their 9th year (n=40) Source: questionnaire survey, case study 3⁴⁰

⁴⁰ The differential value of -0.5 arises due to people making an assessment exactly in the middle of two available categories, and this being rated with the mean value of the two categories. The same behaviour explains the values that are not whole for changes in the following illustrations.

After the information event/reading (point t2), the attitude of 22 students, i.e. the great majority of the group, remains unchanged (point 0 for no change in the figure above). Eight changed their stance and estimated their influence to be a little greater (seven by one point, and one person by two additional points on the scale, see figure above). Ten students perceived their influence to be weaker, eight of whom documented a change by up to one point; one person rated their influence as two points lower, and one person even as three points lower than at the start of the event.

A further survey was carried out with part of this group three months after the event (t3, n=20). Again, in this case, we discovered that the attitude towards the question “How strong of an influence do you believe you yourself can have on the degree of tolerance in our society?” had not changed much since the end of the event (t2).

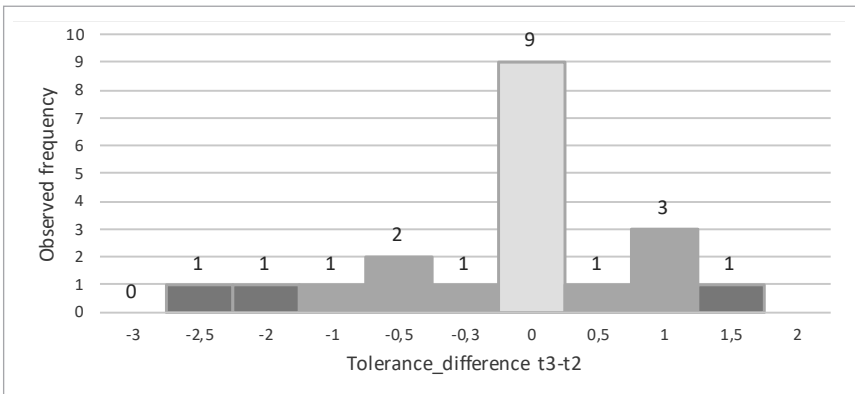


Figure 25: Development of the tolerance estimation over time (n=20), case study 3

Thirteen young people announced that they experienced either no change at all (nine with the value 0) or one that was smaller than one point on the scale (with values from -0.5 to +0.5). This means that three months after the event, the young people rate themselves more or less exactly the same as immediately before and after the event. Nonetheless, we should not overlook the fact that around one third of those surveyed (7) experienced considerable changes in this time, namely in both directions. Three months after the event, three adolescents now believe that they themselves have less influence on the degree of tolerance in society (values from -1 to -3), and four believe that they have more influence (values from +1 to +1.5).

The tolerance estimation was also investigated in the comparison group design as already depicted above. Here we determined that both the *treatment* as well as the *comparison group* displayed a more or less equally pronounced measure of tolerance variables (estimation of self-efficacy in this area) at all three points in time. In all six cases (two groups each for t1, t2 and t3), the corresponding score fluctuates only a little within the arithmetic average.

Table 14: Treatment and comparison group: Development of tolerance estimation, total

Tolerance estimation ⁴¹	Treatment group	Comparison group	Difference treatment group - comparison group
Point in time t1	2.9	3.0	-0.1
Point in time t2	2.8	3.0 (from t1)	-0.2
Point in time t3	2.9	3.3	-0.4
Difference t2 - t1	-0.1	0	Difference in differences (double difference) -0.1
Difference t3 - t1	0.0	+0.3	Difference in differences (double difference) -0.3

The only slightly differing mean values reveal different developments at an individual level. This is illustrated by the following figures, which portray the changes between t1 and t3 for the two groups.

At an individual level, both groups displayed more or less stable estimations, for the most part (changes less than -1 or +1). Alongside this, however, there were also significant changes, to some extent. In the treatment group, six students (of 18 valid answers) changed their estimation by one or more than one point upward or downward on the scale. For the comparison group, this figure was nine out of 19.

41 The score is a result of assigning the following values to the labels: extreme position 1 “not at all”, extreme position 5 “a great deal”, plus the intermediate values 2, 3 and 4.

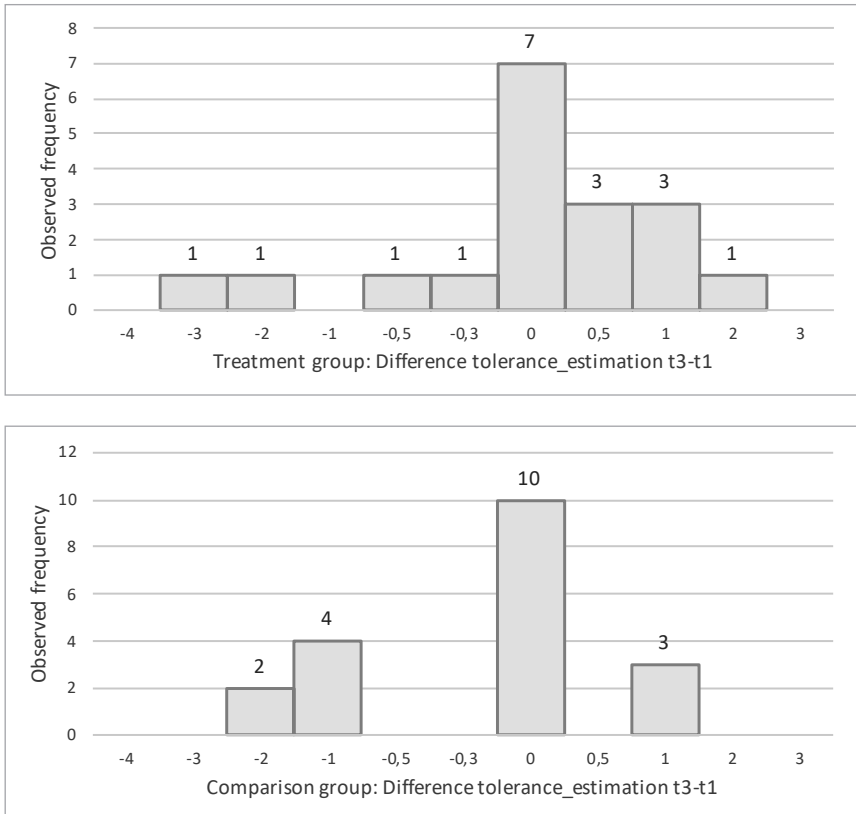


Figure 26: Treatment and comparison group: changes in the tolerance estimation, individual, case study 3

It can be concluded from this that at an individual level, the measured tolerance estimation remains stable amongst some students over time, while with others, conversely, it can develop in one direction or the other. The differences between the two groups, on the other hand, are marginal.

We can thus establish on the whole that both for younger as well as adult groups, attitudes remain comparatively stable after learning activities of short duration, although some changes can be observed among individual people. This confirms the knowledge gained through experience that says that attitudes and convictions are formed over a longer period of time, and barely change based on one single impulse without further accompanying or subsequent associated activities. Nevertheless, as the data show, changes can occur amongst individual people – potentially amongst those who have already vis-

ited a series of pertinent events, and for whom this one event now tipped the scales in the direction of their altered conviction, as a kind of aha! experience.

– *Connections between cognitive knowledge and attitudes*

In a further analysis of the aforementioned information event/reading, we explored the question of whether there is a connection between the new knowledge acquired in the event (as in a novelty value of the event) and the change in attitude. The thesis was: the more new knowledge the participants gain in an event on a certain topic, the sooner a change in attitude sets in in the desired normative sense of the event – a rationale that is adhered to by many information campaigns, for example.

The analysis of the data from the two aforementioned surveys at the individual level at points t1 and t2 and at points t1, t2 and t3 respectively revealed that personal attitudes can indeed be influenced depending on the knowledge acquired; however, this can also go beyond the normative orientation of the event.

In the first case, the specified information event/reading was building on a relatively low level of prior knowledge of the participating students (n=47). As the table below shows, around half of them were unable to correctly answer the four questions on the two topics of apartheid and anti-Semitism (0 as the sum of the scores of the four questions). Only 14 people were able to answer half or more of the questions correctly (4 or more as the total score).

Table 15: Prior knowledge of the participants at an information event (n=47 at t1)

Summarised score	Frequency	Valid percentages	Accumulated percentages
0	23	48.9	48.9
2	10	21.3	70.2
4	9	19.1	89.4
6	4	8.5	97.9
7	1	2.1	100.0
.	0	missing values	
Total	47	100.0	

Consequently, the increase in learning in this group was very pronounced, as shown by the following evaluation of the total scores for two questions, in which the increase in learning (“I learned new things...”) could be indicated on a scale from 1 (“nothing”) to 5 (“a great deal”). Around half of the students stated that they had learned at least “somewhat”, “a lot” or “a great deal” of new things in both dimensions (total score equal to or greater than 6).

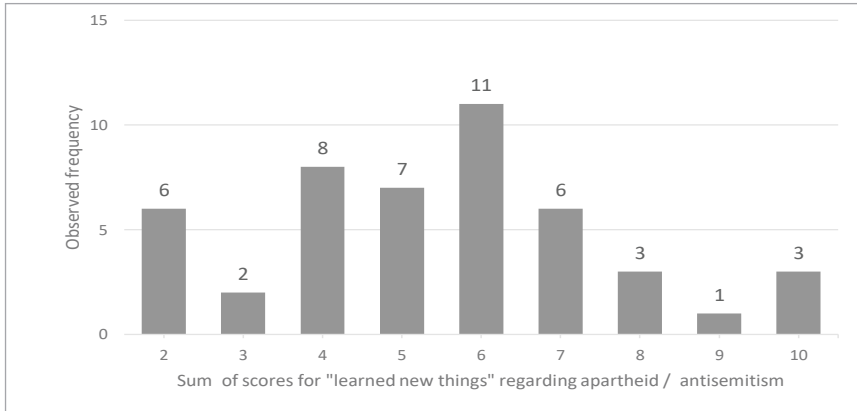


Figure 27: Frequency distribution of “learned new things” at information event (n=47), case study 3

The following figure contrasts this experienced novelty factor of the offer with the changes in the students’ corresponding estimation of their self-efficacy.⁴² The corresponding question was: “How strong of an influence do you believe you yourself can have on the degree of tolerance in our society?”

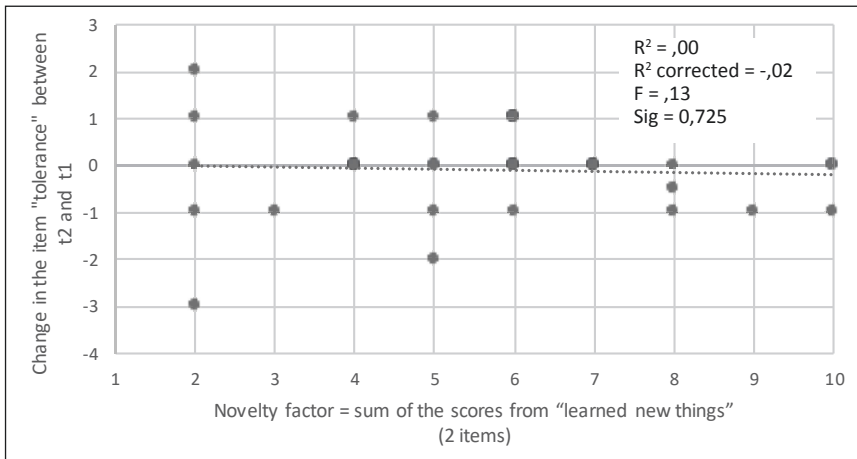


Figure 28: Connection between “learned new things” and change in the tolerance estimation at information event (n=47), case study 3

42 For this figure and the following similar figure, each individual point represents a combination of the two respective specified variables that was actually observed at the individual level.

Although the regression line suggests a tendency of the estimated individual influence on tolerance in society decreasing when there is a greater novelty factor, the illustration in fact shows above all that there are wide-ranging individual differences. The independent variable (novelty factor) explains just 2% of the overall fluctuations (variance) of the variable that in this case was conceived of as dependent: tolerance difference t1/t2 (no significant connection). For students with lots of prior knowledge (i.e. for whom there was only little to no novelty factor), both positive as well as negative changes are possible, that is to say a stronger or weaker conviction with regard to their influence on the level of tolerance in society. This group displays the strongest individual upward and downward swings. With decreasing prior knowledge (i.e. a high experienced novelty factor), the directional swings of the changes become smaller; in the group with the lowest level of prior knowledge, they are the smallest. There (from a total score of 7 onwards) the estimation of personal influence on the level of tolerance remains the same or decreases by up to one point.

Possible explanations for this result may be found in the fact that students with a lot of prior knowledge (low novelty factor) receive further impulses from the event that lead to a differentiation of their earlier attitude, which can then go either in one direction or the other.

We also investigated this connection between *cognitive knowledge and attitudes* in the scope of the aforementioned panel discussion in case study 3. This involved recording the participants' prior knowledge on the subjects of the panel discussion and linking this to their personal attitude at points t1 (before the impulses provided by the event) and t2 (immediately after the event), expressed as a mean value of three respective questions on their personal attitude before and after the event.⁴³

At an individual level, we can again observe varying results for the same event. It is telling that for five of the six levels of prior knowledge, there are changes in attitude in both directions. While these can be significant in the case of relatively little prior knowledge (difference of more than one point on the scale), they tend to be smaller if there is a higher level of prior knowledge. In total, there are 13 people who changed their attitude in the direction of the desired normative result (positive changes, mean value of the changes +0.7), 14 people without a change and 12 people whose attitude was somewhat more critical at the end of the event than at the start (negative changes, mean value of the changes -0.8).

43 These were: 1) Resettlement in Afghanistan is reasonable for those concerned in terms of safety, respect for human rights and possibilities for securing their livelihood. 2) Where on the scale between "necessary from a humanitarian point of view" and "politically possible" would you currently position yourself? 3) Germany and the EU shift the responsibility away from themselves.

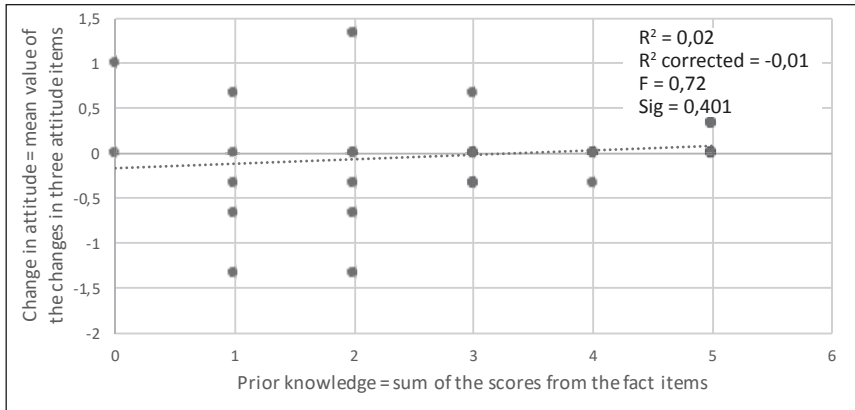


Figure 29: Connection between individual knowledge on the subject matter of the event and changes in attitude after the event (n=53), case study 3

– *Unintended changes in attitude*

As part of an analysis of unintended impacts of project days in case study 1, connections were established between the way in which the mediation process was set up and impacts on the students' attitudes, as well as indirect impacts on the professional orientation of the teachers. The feedback sheets on the project days show that teachers for 17 out of 41 of the examined project days established at point t2 that they had, in part, got to know their students "from a new perspective" after the events held by external instructors. This, they claimed, had led to a greater positive perception of their classes (or parts thereof). This included, among other things, "students who were usually inactive getting involved". The teachers had also noticed that students would apply knowledge from various subjects, carry out further research of their own accord and also exhibit a good understanding of problems. In addition, the well-functioning cooperation in groups was also perceived as an especially positive result. These statements by the teachers thus document, for one thing, that the students structure their own learning processes differently, inspired by the mediation processes of the external instructors. For another, it also becomes clear that the now changed behaviour of the students in turn impacts the teachers to such an extent that their own attitude to the students also changes. This pervasive, as it were, impact of the mediation processes of external instructors on the professional attitude of teachers also becomes evident in chapter 3.4, and offers potential for conscious utilisation of this effect by NGOs, which should be pursued in more detail.

In a group interview with the instructors carrying out project days, the instructors themselves also shined a light on *potential* and *actual* unintended negative impacts. In the following excerpt of conversation from a group interview, they address the fact that complex topics such as globalisation or a critical examination of the political system can, under certain circumstances, lead to students becoming overwhelmed, discouraged and can ultimately dissuade them from taking action themselves.

Fm: I can imagine this very easily, such situations. For example that the students get overwhelmed, an opinion like this can also strengthen right-wing political tendencies, for example, if I explain globalisation tendencies in a complex manner, then of course there's also a lot of intersections. But I haven't received any feedback of the sort or sensed anything in that direction.

[...]

Fm: So I don't know if you're familiar with the idea of "the danger of a single story"⁴⁴, you've probably heard of it, and I believe we've already integrated this into our project days, perhaps not always perfectly, but it is taken into account; in any case, I haven't received any feedback regarding negative images arising. What could of course easily occur is the idea that politics simply isn't actionable, obviously this could be reinforced. [...] Many of our topics do indeed shed a rather critical light on the courses of action taken by federal politicians and EU politics, and here of course this could cause people to form the opinion that politics isn't worth it, it can't do anything, that would perhaps be a negative effect.

(Transcript segment from a group interview with workshop instructors, case study I; own translation)

In the discussion, what predominantly becomes clear are the instructors' concerns regarding the cited possible negative impacts. It also documents the crucial importance of the individual factors of instruction in the mediation process (and here in particular, the relation to the group, the balance of the presentation as well as sensitivity towards the subject matter) so as to not overwhelm the participants, but to also simultaneously enable a multi-perspective view of the subject.

44 TED talk by Nigerian author Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie on the formation of stereotypes and clichés, https://www.ted.com/talks/chimamanda_ngozi_adichie_the_danger_of_a_single_story

c) *3rd-order impacts: (changed) behaviour, broad-scale impact*

3rd-order impacts in the sense of altered behaviour and broad-scale impacts can be verified on the basis of our data for forms of events that are designed to take place over longer periods of time, i.e. for project days and seminar weeks.

An ex-post evaluation (t3) carried out some while ago amongst teachers who had booked 27 project days in the year 2012 shows 3rd-order impacts in the form of altered patterns of practice. The data makes it clear that although these impacts are limited both in terms of quantity as well as quality at the individual level of students and teachers, several permanent changes were indeed brought about at the level of the school as an institution. In line with this observation, the teachers described how in five of these classes, students rethought their consumer behaviour, and in seven classes, students began to pay attention to product labels⁴⁵; one class had also written a letter to a food company. After the project days, almost all of the surveyed teachers had also held conversations amongst the faculty staff that revolved around the topic of the project days and a continuation of the subject matter. At the institutional level, this is contrasted by 14 cases in which, amongst other measures, new information was included on the school homepage, as well as, each in one case respectively, the introduction of fairly traded coffee in the cafeteria or in the student company, the putting up of informational posters on the topics of the project day in the school building, as well as reports inspired by the project day in the school committee and information events for other students.⁴⁶

Using the data for the already described seminar week, we can demonstrate what 3rd-order impacts occurred and what explanatory factors from the logic of the impact model can be taken into account in this regard. Participants from two separate rounds of the seminar week in the years 2016 and 2017 were asked six and 18 months after the event, by means of an online survey, to what extent the emphasis of the aspects “knowledge about the topics

45 It was not possible to retrace the extent to which this behaviour was upheld by the students; in this respect, a degree of caution in the interpretation of the data is advisable.

46 Just four of the 21 teachers contacted responded to an online ex-post evaluation in the year 2017 that built upon this. They reported on the impacts on teachers, students and the school as an institution: according to their accounts, the use of materials from the project day was continued, goods from the One World Shop were bought and there was a “more conscious attitude towards the purchase of food” amongst the students.

addressed in the project week”, “attitude of solidarity towards the topics” and “personally becoming active” had changed for them.⁴⁷

The answers showed that six and 18 months later respectively, significantly greater emphasis was placed on all three dimensions. As the table below shows, there were changes of a similar dimension in both groups with regard to the “attitude of solidarity towards the topics of the project week” and “becoming active”. With regard to the change in the level of knowledge, the differences between the two rounds are more marked. The participants from 2016 expanded their knowledge to a significantly greater degree since the end of the seminar than those from the year 2017.

Table 16: Changes amongst participants in the project weeks 2016 and 2017, case study 3

Mean values Changes amongst	N	n	Knowledge about topics of the project week	Attitude of solidarity towards topics of the project week	Becoming active
Participants 2016	18	4	+2.3	+1.8	+1.3
Participants 2017	19	8	+1.4	+1.9	+1.1

This may be due to the fact that – assuming both years had groups composed of equally interested and previously informed participants – the participants in 2016 simply had twelve months of extra time in which to gain further knowledge. Another possible explanation may be found in the composition of the sub-group from 2016. It is, after all, altogether remarkable for people to take part in an online survey a full 18 months after a seminar; a survey that is presented to them from the outside⁴⁸ and of which they initially know neither the context, nor the authors (thus differentiating them from the 2017 participants). It is also conceivable that these four people represent a positive selection, i.e. the especially dedicated members of the group.

47 This division into three was based on the three-step process “Recognising-Evaluating-Acting”, which is also used as a basis by the orientation framework for the learning area of Global Development.

The questions were: “When you compare the time before the seminar with today: to what degree have the following aspects changed for you after attending the seminar? (-3 a great deal weaker than before... +3 a great deal stronger than before): knowledge about the topic/attitude of solidarity towards the topic/personally becoming active”.

48 The invitation to take part was sent directly from the research consortium to the participants.

For the context of *here*, what is especially significant is that after a lengthy interval of time had lapsed since the project week, both groups stated that they had become more active and that, as the table below shows, they largely attribute this increased activity to the event. The results show that for the 2017 participants, the seminar played an even greater role (mean value 45%) than for the participants of the previous year (23%). But the effects of the seminar week have not completely faded for the latter, either – even 18 months later: they still assign it considerable influence in terms of the changes that have taken place within them in the last 18 months in the three dimensions of “knowledge”, an “attitude of solidarity” and “becoming active”.⁴⁹

Table 17: Impact (in percentage) of the 2016 and 2017 project weeks in the changes amongst the participants, case study 3

Mean value Percentage of the seminar in changes since then	n	Knowledge about topics of the project week	Attitude of solidarity towards topics of the project week	Becoming active
Participants 2016	4	30%	30%	23%
Participants 2017	8	44%	60%	45%

In the analysis of the event, we were able to link the following factors in particular to the described impacts: at the organisational level of the provision of learning activities, successful collaboration between the NGO and the main cooperation partner was an important factor for success. In this way, it was possible to offer the participants an attractive learning environment. The relatively long duration of the event (seven days) and the special character offered by various event locations as well as the nature of the way in which the information was imparted, with manifold incentives for experimentation (helping out on the farm, visiting several projects), were further vital factors in promoting the specified impacts. At the level of uptake, it is particularly worth mentioning the learning potential of the learners, which we had already described above in the form of prior knowledge, but which was also characterised by a high level of motivation. This motivation was demonstrated by their voluntary registration to a demanding project week with high standards.

49 The question posed here was: “When you consider the above changes: What percentage of the changes perceived by you do you attribute to the seminar? (please check the appropriate percentage value): knowledge about the topics / attitude of solidarity towards the topics / personally becoming active”.

3.1.4 Impact model for learning activities of short duration, project/ seminar days and weeks

The impact correlations described in the previous sections are visualised in the following model.

Please note:

1 Instruction: Clarification of goals, activity and participant orientation, relation to interests, problems and the group, balance of the presentation, reinforcement of results, sensitivity for topics

Key

Levels of the model



Learner	
Instruction	
NGO / cooperation partner	
Systemic conditions	

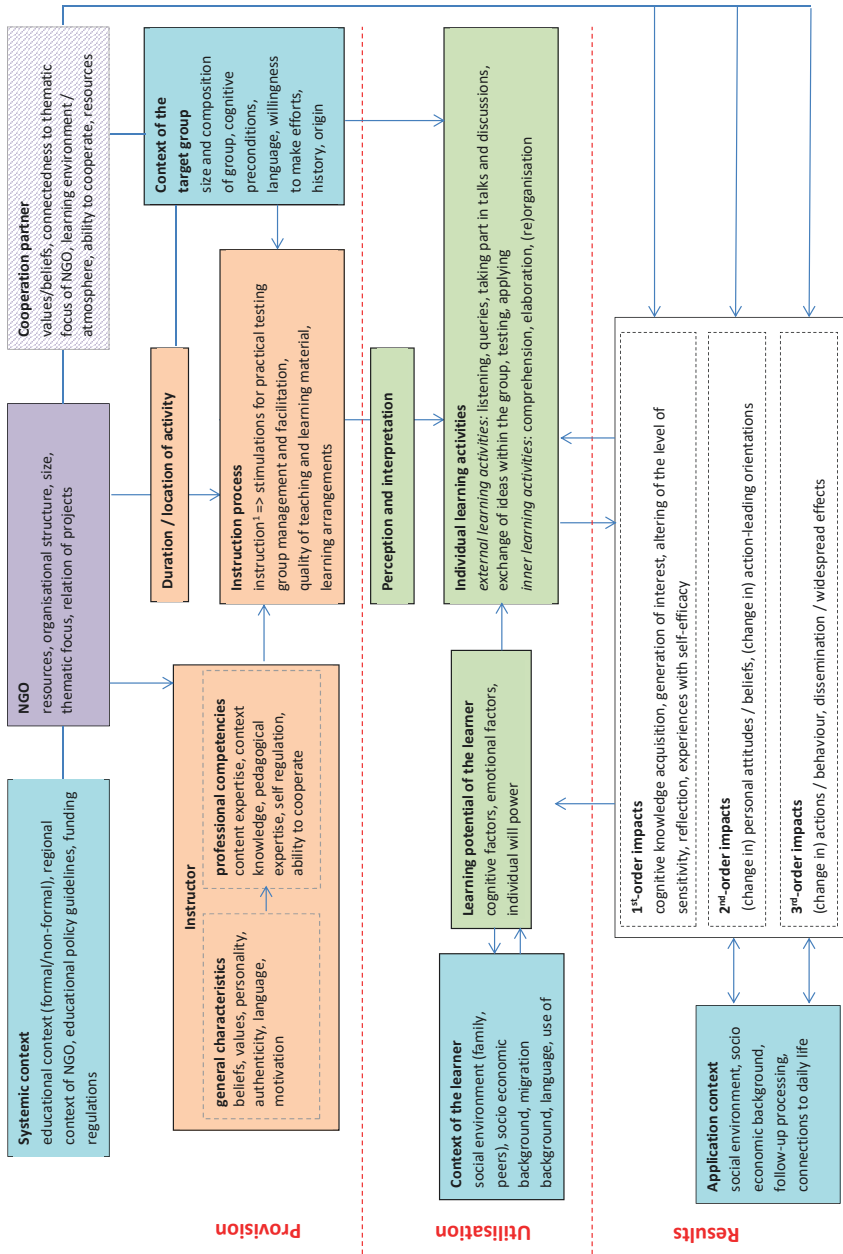


Figure 30: Impact model for the measure category of “learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks”

3.1.5 Conclusions

In the following paragraphs, we shall draw conclusions for the measure of learning activities of short duration, project/seminar days and weeks. Here, this depiction shall be based on the key questions of the research project (1) What impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising? as well as (2) Which characteristics can be identified that may promote the effectiveness of development education and awareness raising? In doing so, for (1), we shall touch upon the impacts identified for this measure category, as well as their reach and sustainability. With regard to (2), we shall draw conclusions on favourable framework conditions and further factors that are responsible for effectiveness, on the available resources, and on the significance of the types of learning in this measure category. Finally, a brief resume on the significance of this measure category within development education and awareness raising shall be given.

a) On (1): the impacts

- 1st-order impacts

An increase in cognitive knowledge occurred in all the examined learning opportunities of varying formats, under various contextual conditions (formal, non-formal), in a diverse range of mediation processes (shorter and longer event durations, various topics) and various pre-conditions of the learners (adolescent and adult target groups, with and without prior knowledge). What is more, for one type of learning activity of short duration in the school context (information event with a reading) as well as for events lasting for a longer period of time (seminar week), we were able to show that cognitive knowledge remains stable, and in the case of the seminar week, the participants actively expand on knowledge already gained by seeking out further information over a longer period of time and attending relevant events.

Our data also made it clear that even for groups with a relatively high level of prior knowledge on a subject matter, new cognitive knowledge can be acquired in both shorter as well as longer events. Our analysis also drew attention to the importance of learning venues for the acquisition of cognitive knowledge – similar conclusions exist in specialist literature as to the connection between learning venues and attitudes, which we were not able to examine in greater depth in our data. Precisely this importance of the learning venues is an ideal point for NGOs to establish a connection, since from the field of development education and awareness raising we know that they can provide attractive learning locations for their target groups.

Furthermore, it can be verified that events for young people and adults with various levels of prior knowledge in formal and non-formal contexts, in various event settings and on various topics were successful in generating interest in a further examination of the topics addressed (also a 1st-order impact). It also became apparent that the proximity to the participants' own everyday lives is an important factor in creating and reinforcing interest (for more on this, see the depiction further below).

Changes in the level of sensitisation and reflection – 1st-order impacts that are frequently strived for in particular during learning activities of short duration – were observed in data from two larger school samples as well as for adults in short-term events such as theatre performances, in addition to formats such as project days and seminar weeks. Here, a connection to the nature of the mediation process (structure of the learning environment, reinforcement of results, follow-up work) and to the initial conditions, as in the participants' prior knowledge, was demonstrated – both findings that are documented in specialist literature.

– 2nd-order impacts

For 2nd-order impacts in the sense of altered personal convictions and guiding orientations for action, the investigations show that both for adult target groups in non-formal contexts as well as for students, the personal attitudes and convictions remain relatively stable after impulses from learning activities of short duration. This is an unsurprising result confirming our common knowledge that attitudes and convictions are formed over a longer period of time, and that only seldom do they change substantially based on one single impulse. One-off results in the learning activity of short duration for adults could be cautiously interpreted such that the stability of attitudes towards strongly normative and emotionally charged topics (such as the deportation of refugees) may potentially be more pronounced than it is for attitudes towards more “matter-of-fact” topics, such as is the case for the responsibility of institutions. Nevertheless, from the data it is also evident that changes in attitude do take place in some individuals, namely immediately after the event and even at later points in time, as the analysis of data for a learning activity of short duration at a school three months after the impulse was able to demonstrate. However, here we also become aware of the methodical challenge of assigning these changes to the impulse.

The changes noted here always go in two directions, that is to say that changes in attitude may occur in the desired normative direction but also in the direction not desired by the event, and even if the event was able to impart a lot of new knowledge. The straightforward conclusion that it is simply

a question of imparting sufficient information in order to contribute towards changes in attitude can thus be refuted. Instead, the value of the events consists specifically of their contribution towards a reflection and review of personal stances that can be carried out without fixed expectations, and which can then form the starting point for further conversations, media reports and events.

Based on the data for project days in the school context, we were able to deduce that unplanned positive 2nd-order impacts also arise as a result of a successful mediation process on the part of the NGO.

– *3rd-order impacts*

A change in behaviour could be observed in our data on the events of a longer duration. The results for project days in the school context made it clear that collective organisational impacts were more distinctive. They make reference to the interplay between individual and collective organisational impacts, which seems to be significant not only in measure categories for which the organisation focus is very explicit (e.g. for school-related campaigns, see chapter 3.2), but also for the measure categories described at present. Thus, these potential organisational impacts should be kept in mind both in terms of planning as well as the evaluation of opportunities within this measure category.

Eventually, in the investigation of the seminar week, it was possible to identify not only the *occurrence of 3rd-order impacts*, but also to determine the (strong) *impact that two rounds of the event* had on both a cognitive increase in knowledge (1st-order) and the attitude (2nd-order) as well as the actions (3rd-order) of the participants. The strength of the impact can be explained by the fact that during the seminar week, a series of factors are taken into account that are held responsible for impacts according to the provision and usage model. These shall now be described in what follows, alongside other factors.

b) On (2) Features that promote effectiveness

– *Consideration of the framework conditions*

In both the school context as well as the non-formal context, learning activities of short duration and project days showed impacts at all levels.

Within the framework of school-related projects, to put it bluntly, it is a question of making do with what is available. What proves to be beneficial for NGOs here is being conscious of the relatively fixed conditions imposed by the school system (curricula and thus potentially certain thematic restrictions, time constraints and attachment to annual school rhythms as well as values

defined at the school) and, to the extent possible, actively taking these up in the learning offer provided. The practice of grants covering several years, which has been established for some time now, is very helpful here, since in long-term projects lasting more than a year, say, it is possible to meet the time-related needs of schools. Framework curricula and subject curricula represent comprehensive possibilities for points at which NGOs can join in – an explicit reference to this can function as a door-opener for the NGO's offer.

In the non-formal area, an NGO is less bound to systemically prescribed or thematic specifications. A different, less strict or largely lacking institutional framework allows for more freedom in terms of topics. The participants are often volunteers who generally have a strong interest and high level of motivation, potentially also with good prior knowledge of the available topics. The high potential for impact in work with voluntary participants has been sufficiently proven in our data (see also chapter 3.3).

– *Further conducive aspects at the provision level*

Beyond the systemic and organisational impact-related conditions, the investigation of the projects in this measure category revealed that further factors also contribute to effectiveness at the provision level too. The first aspect worth mentioning here is the duration of the event. In the differentiation between learning activities of short duration as well as project days and seminar weeks, reference was made time and again to the varying lengths of time of these formats. Although “longer” cannot necessarily be equated to “more effective”, it is clear that activities lasting several days provide more impulses and more time for learning, and therefore that the potential for these opportunities to generate impacts is greater.

The importance of event venues that offer the participants an attractive learning environment has been illustrated for learning activities of short duration and for activities covering longer periods of time. Here it is particularly worth mentioning venues that have strong relevance for the topic (seminar week on global nutrition held at a farm and with visits to places that supply local resources) and that provide learners with possibilities to try out actions in the form of incentives for experimentation in a “protected” setting.

This brings us to the mediation process in general: it became clear that in the examined case studies, in practice, there is already a high degree of awareness for learning environments, demonstrated for example through consideration of a change in methods or participant orientation. Reinforcement of results and follow-up work are further important factors that we were able to identify. However, in the field, these often entail challenges, in part also due to somewhat unfavourable systemic conditions (lack of time at school, diffi-

cult communication with teachers, lack of access to or fluctuation of target groups). This is why for NGOs, knowledge of and experience with these typical problems in the interface between non-formal and formal education are important conditions for success. Lastly, looking at our data, we were also able to demonstrate that the link between topics or options for action and the living environment of the participants can contribute to interest and changed orientations that serve as a guideline for action. However, this should not be interpreted to mean that target groups should only be confronted with issues and requests that are already completely familiar to them anyway. Instead, what can be taken from the findings on this aspect in the examined case study is that the reference to the living environment (as in the reference to the participants' lives) should be taken seriously, but that then again, with appropriate opportunities, a contribution should also be made towards successively expanding the participants' experiences in such a way that their living environment can also be expanded.

The influence of qualified instructors on the mediation activity has been extensively researched, has also been documented in several studies for the area of development education and awareness raising and can already be found in many good practical applications, as was also established in the research project. For a long time now, particular attention has also been devoted to the so-called authenticity of instructors in the field. Reference is also made to the effectiveness of these instructors in educational research, and this is also documented, to give an example, in the role of contemporary witnesses within educational processes in the subject of history. With regard to the effectiveness of using people who provide this authenticity, for example, based on their professional experiences in development cooperation or due to their biographical background, it should be emphasised here that this characteristic should be viewed as one of several important prerequisites that are necessary for high-quality development education. However, if basic methodical, contextual or language knowledge is lacking, there is a risk that the potential of this authenticity will also be lost (see Bergmüller, Höck & Uphues, 2014).

– *Available resources*

In two case studies for this measure category, explicit reference was made to the partly precarious work situations. This feedback reflects the frequently common practice in the field of development education and awareness raising in which people who are often highly qualified and motivated are working on a part-time or voluntary basis. In addition to self-exploitation and the corresponding implications for those involved, this means, for example, that the demand – especially of institutional partners such as schools – for the conti-

nuity and reliability of the provision of learning offers cannot be sufficiently met. What is more, the working conditions described are disproportionate to internal and external organisational quality standards. It must thus be noted that the current availability of resources frequently fails to live up to the requirements that are conducive to the standard of quality that can truly make a difference in development education and awareness raising.

– *Importance of the types of learning in this measure category for the field of development education and awareness raising*

Overall, the formats summed up in this measure category show great potential for 1st and 2nd-order impacts, with the formats of a longer duration also showing potential for 3rd-order impacts. Learning activities of a short duration are able to repeatedly create occasions in which existing attitudes can either be substantiated or put to the test with further, topical arguments. The biographical review (chapter 3.4) verifies that – additively – even learning activities of short duration can contribute to more long-lasting impacts. In the field of development education, against the backdrop of the results, we can also observe that one function of learning activities of short duration in particular is to provide a near-term reaction to current topics and impart relevant information in concise formats. Project days offer a deeper examination of various topics in a more detailed, yet still compact form. External instructors help to create the possibility to become acquainted with new perspectives and learn using different methods. Seminar or project weeks have a value as a format that provides the opportunities mentioned in an elevated form, and that in addition also holds great potential for activation.

3.2 The interdependencies of impacts in school-related campaigns

Claudia Bergmüller, Susanne Höck

In this chapter, the results of the impact analysis regarding the measure category “school-related campaigns” are presented. It should be pointed out that in fact, *no* campaigns in the classic sense were examined, but rather – in accordance with the understanding of the steering group accompanying the research project – in particular, the “education and information-related parts of campaigns”.⁵⁰ With regard to these parts, it is possible to distinguish between two target dimensions, which will subsequently be examined at first separately, when it comes to the analysis and reflection of the interdependencies of impacts, but which at the same time are also closely connected. The topics being dealt with are a) information and education activities that are aimed at the individual learner with the goal of informing and mobilising, as well as b) activities that are addressed at groups or certain targeted institutions and that, beyond the element of individual mobilisation, also focus on organisational development. The interdependencies of stand-alone short-term events have already been pointed out in the previous chapter 3.1. This format of learning activities represents a crucial core element in the context of many school-related campaigns or campaigns created in an extracurricular context, which is why the results depicted in chapter 3.1 are also of relevance for school-related campaigns. The same goes for materials that are used as part of campaigns in schools). In this chapter, however, an increased focus will now be placed on the above-mentioned fusion of individual and collective organisational learning respectively, which – as remains to be illustrated in what follows – is particularly relevant for development education activities at schools.

In German-speaking countries, but also in several other European nations, a whole slew of such school-related campaigns has existed for a long time in the context of development education, education for sustainable development (ESD) and environmental education. They are fundamentally different from advocacy campaigns in the sense that the latter are generally oriented towards a specific political goal to be achieved within a certain time, with a clear focus on a transfer of information in the media and the short-term mobilisation of people (e.g. to sign petitions or to participate in demonstrations). In this vein, the campaign “Make chocolate fair!”, for example, had the goal of winning over a certain number of European citizens within three years, who would de-

50 See inception report on the implementation of the BMZ (Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development) departmental research project “Impacts and methods of impact observation in development education and awareness raising”, 7.

mand that the chocolate industry produce fair-trade chocolate.⁵¹ In the measure category examined in this research project, on the other hand, the focus is on convincing entire institutions – here, first and foremost schools – to take up a specific issue, e.g. sustainable development, fostering civic courage or fair trade, and to commit to this issue in the longer term, e.g. by ensuring that the campaign topic is deemed relevant for the institutional profile and that the professional action is correspondingly taken with this in mind.

The organisational approach of the school campaign examined by us is comparable with many other school-related campaigns: at first, people or groups of people in the corresponding institutions are addressed via various channels of information so as to win them over for campaigns. Once this is successful, the campaign organisation uses various methods to get the actual campaign process under way, goes into more depth on the content with individuals and groups, and tries to win over additional allies, as well as contribute to an organisational anchoring. In this process, as a participant, the campaign organisation always remains in the background, and acts as more of a motivator and consultant. For that matter, a significant, albeit somewhat fluid difference to school development projects in the narrower sense can be distinguished herein, which is similarly prevalent in the context of Global Learning/ESD (see, among others, the initiatives of Welthaus Bielefeld or EpiZ (development educational information centre) Reutlingen; for more on this see Bergmüller et al. 2014; Bergmüller & Höck, 2017; Bergmüller, 2016). The objective of these projects is to undertake an institutional embedding of Global Learning/ESD to the extent that schools act autonomously as quickly as possible and are able to implement Global Learning/ESD without further systematic NGO support.

Examples of school-related campaigns in Germany include

- “Schools of the future – Education for Sustainability” (see www.schule-der-zukunft.nrw.de),
- “Schools without racism – schools with courage” (see www.schule-ohne-rassismus.org),
- “Environmental schools in Europe – international Agenda 21 schools (see www.umweltschulen.de),
- “Fairtrade schools” (see <http://www.fairtrade-schools.de>),
- “Nature park schools” (see www.naturparke.de/aufgaben-ziele/bildung/naturpark-schulen.html) and
- “Consumer schools” (see www.verbraucherstiftung.de/verbraucherschule).

51 See Finep (2016) “Evaluation of the project Make Chocolate Fair!” Campaigning for more justice in global cocoa value chains. Esslingen.

Furthermore, similar approaches can also be found amongst the UNESCO project schools as well as the EMAS environmental schools (see Müller-Christ et al, 2017). The “Fair School”, on the other hand (<http://www.faire-schule.eu/>), regards itself decidedly as a school development programme.

According to Müller-Christ et al. (2017), out of over 44,000 schools in Germany (see Federal Statistical Office, 2016), which includes roughly 15,000 primary and 15,000 secondary schools respectively, approximately 1500 German schools are certified through these campaigns and programmes. With a total thus far of 444 schools (as of the end of 2017), the school campaign under review, therefore, reaches around 1.5% of all of these primary and secondary schools in Germany as well as almost a third of the schools that join a school-related campaign.

Below, the findings available from the research project concerning the impact of the measure category “school-related campaign” shall be described. The empirical basis for this is, above all, the data collected for case study 4 (for more, see chapter 2.4).

In accordance with the logic of the provision and utilisation model as already explained earlier on (see chapter 2.1 and chapter 3.0), we shall begin – similarly to the previous impact model on short-term events, project/seminar days and weeks – by explaining impact-relevant characteristics of the provisional structures. We shall then point out which conceptual characteristics of school-related campaigns exist as well as which context characteristics have, in the course of the study, proven effective as influential factors when it comes to how the campaign activities can be brought to schools (chapter 3.2.1). After this, we will observe the utilisation level and analyse the question of which factors may influence the use of school-related campaign activities (chapter 3.2.2), before using our data to back us up in clarifying which impacts may be seen at the results level in conjunction with factors at the provisional and utilisation levels (chapter 3.2.3). In chapter 3.2.4, the results shall be transferred to an impact model, and in 3.2.5, conclusions will be drawn for the conception and implementation of school-related campaigns.

3.2.1 Provision structures of school-related campaigns

a) *Characteristics of the learning services provided by school-related campaigns*

In the school campaign examined by us – similarly to other campaign opportunities in the field – the service consisted of didactic materials, counselling and training opportunities, in addition to the possibility of an award or certification. The task of designing the content of these services fell, in particular, to the NGO responsible for the campaign.

The central importance of good didactic *materials* for the appropriate use and the corresponding intended learning result has already been intensively described in the field of development education and awareness raising (for an overview, see, among others, Asbrand & Lang-Wojtasik, 2009). As a result, here this aspect is only discussed to the extent that against the backdrop of the school campaign examined by us it can be pointed out that the materials provided (in this case free of charge) by the NGO, which also included so-called giveaways⁵², were by far the most frequently used element of the campaign. Accordingly, in response to the question “How often do you make use of the following opportunities of the campaign”, 94 out of 198 surveyed teachers stated that they used the free shipping of materials “as often as possible”, while 60 participants responded “when I have time”.⁵³ In the structured interviews with teachers at campaign schools, a high level of satisfaction with the “large number of very good materials” is also expressed. These results are supported by other investigations in the field. For example, in the evaluation of the campaign “Schools of the future”, it becomes evident that – especially free – materials are of central significance for the implementation of the campaign (see Ministry of Education and Training of North Rhine-Westphalia et al., 2015, 328). However, both in our survey as well as in the aforementioned evaluation, it becomes clear that the teachers (despite all their general satisfaction) still desire a better adaptation of the materials to their lessons. Here, the adaptation to the school year (or grade) and the type of school is deemed particularly problematic – a challenge that has also been observed in other studies on the cooperation between schools and NGOs (for more on this see, among others, Bergmüller, 2012b; Bergmüller, Höck & Uphues, 2014; Bergmüller & Höck, 2016; Bludau, 2016; Bludau & Overwien, 2012).

In the campaign examined by us, according to the teachers’ perception, the element of *teacher training* is considerably subordinate to the materials as

52 Giveaways: small advertising gifts such as textile bags, stickers, pencils etc.

53 The results are taken from a survey conducted by the examined campaign organisation itself (original questions and answers in German; own translation).

an element of the campaign package. Here, 43 of 198 surveyed teachers say that they take advantage of the participation in conferences and networking meetings “as often as possible”, while an additional 80 teachers do so “when there is time”⁵⁴. What is important here is that in the case study, there have so far been no specific teacher trainings at all, but rather teachers who together with their student groups have visited training courses oriented particularly towards students and have taken advantage of the opportunities for exchange and networking there. Hence, in a conversation with members of the consortium, the project leaders emphasise that they want to tackle the teacher training “in a new way”.

Cw: We want to tackle teacher training in a new way; the experience at the last few events was [...] that there were always a lot of teachers who had demands that were entirely different from simply carrying out workshops. They want to be trained in the area of fair trade, so that they can actually teach this at school and so that they are also able to persuade their teaching colleagues, the sceptical ones, they want to have their questions answered, so here we simply need to find a different format and these should be teacher training courses without students, so really just teachers, who can then exchange ideas and experiences amongst one another, but also pepper us with their questions.

(Group interview with project leaders in case study 4; own translation)

In 2017, the *training courses for students* were offered in two federal states as a day-long event in collaboration with numerous cooperation partners, and in part also with representatives of municipalities and ministries of culture and education. The objective was to recruit the participating students from various campaign schools as “ambassadors” for the dissemination of the campaign cause. These training courses were in high demand. In federal state 1, 150 students from over 50 campaign schools took part (as of March 2017)⁵⁵, while in federal state 2 this figure was 110 students from 10 campaign schools (as of December 2017)⁵⁶. The training courses received good ratings from the students (an average of the school grade 2.1 [of 1-5, with 1 being the best] for

54 These results are also taken from the aforementioned survey conducted by the examined campaign organisation itself.

55 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 16 as well as information from the leaders of the case study from 02.05.2018; number of the campaign schools from internal overview of the case study from 22.03.2017

56 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 16 as well as information from the leaders of the case study from 02.05.2018; number of the campaign schools from internal overview of the case study from 20.03.2018

the training course in federal state 1 and 1.9 for the training course in federal state 2).⁵⁷

By contrast, in the campaign examined by us, the *consultation* as part of the campaign package seems to be the least important factor for the teachers. To highlight this, only 25 of the 198 teachers surveyed make use of the consultation opportunity “as often as possible”, and 51 teachers do so “when there is time”. 95 teachers make use of the consultation “rarely” or “not at all”. One possible explanation may be the fact that the consultations primarily deal with the outwardly directed commitment of the schools, which may potentially not be in line with the central consultancy needs of schools, which are frequently confronted with the problem of this commitment resting on only a few shoulders. This discovery becomes evident not only in our data, but also in other studies on the implementation of development education and awareness raising/Global Learning/ESD in schools (see, among others, Asbrand, 2009b; Heinrich, 2009; Bergmüller, 2015; Bormann & Hamborg, 2015; Bormann, 2017).

The *awarding of the title of campaign school*, however, plays a prominent role; for this, certain criteria must be fulfilled (in the impact model, these are listed under primary organisational impacts). The campaign organisation or, where applicable, an external jury reviews the observance of the criteria and awards the new campaign school a corresponding certificate in the course of an awards ceremony. As will later on be explained in greater detail, this award frequently leads to a stronger sense of commitment to the requirements to be met, and can thus have a positive impact on the effectiveness of the implementation of development education content in schools. This applies especially if – as is true in our case – the certified schools have to prove that they still fulfil these criteria if they wish to keep the certification. This is also true, albeit to a lesser extent, for relief campaigns and competitions which contribute in part to creating a permanent commitment on the part of the school when it comes to the topic of child labour.

b) The context of school-related campaigns

In the course of analysing the data, it became clear that in school-related campaigns too, a) the systemic context, b) the organisational circumstances of the NGO – in this case the one offering the campaign, c) specific context factors of the participating school as well as d) the context of the target group are central influencing factors when it comes to the manner in which the learning activities are provided to the target group. These correlations are described in more detail below.

57 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 16

– *The systemic context*

Especially in the school context, the major significance of systemic framework conditions can be observed. This applies in particular to the (in this case formal) educational context, development and educational policy-related guidelines, the regional location of the school or also corresponding funding guidelines. These framework conditions play a pivotal role for the structuring of the campaign activities as well as for the associated act of mediation. What proved to be particularly relevant here were the *educational policy guidelines*, since after all – despite all the developments in the direction of greater organisational autonomy – schools are still embedded in hierarchical regulatory structures. In this respect, educational policy guidelines such as national strategies or framework curricula represent an important legitimising basis for the implementation of new concepts in schools (for more information in this context, see, among others, Bergmüller, 2016; Bormann, 2017; Bormann & Hamborg, 2015; Heinrich, 2009 and in a historical perspective Scheunpflug & Seitz, 1995a, 347ff.). Accordingly, 145 of 198 teachers surveyed in our study evaluate the fact that the topic of sustainability is by now explicitly anchored in the curricula as an important determining factor for the participation in school-related campaigns. This corresponds with the conclusion of the study “Does fair trade change society?” (Bäthge, 2016, 84) that the topics “sustainability” and “ESD” have gained in importance in the curricula and education plans and thus offer new points of reference. The same applies for the resolution to promote democratic education as adopted by the education ministers in 2009, in which a claim was made for the “assumption of responsibility by children and adolescents for their living environment”, and reference was made to “the expansion of initiatives such as ‘schools without racism’”.⁵⁸ These provisions create a framework of legitimacy that makes it considerably easier for interested teachers to take up appropriate initiatives and implement them in their respective school. It does seem noteworthy to us at this point, however, that in the related conversations with stakeholders no reference was made to the orientation framework for the learning area of global development, which after all is to be seen as a joint initiative of the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK) and the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) (see, in its current edition, KMK & BMZ, 2016). Even upon explicit enquiry, the majority of the teachers stated that they did not know the orientation framework.

58 Quoted from Schools without Racism – Schools for Courage, website: <https://www.schule-ohne-rassismus.org/wer-wir-sind/projektgeschichte/>; accessed 20.04.2020

Alongside the educational policy guidelines, as observed in our data, the respective *regional location* of both the school as well as the campaign organisation proved to be of significance – and here, in particular, with regard to the federal state: aside from federally contingent differences in the structuring of the school system (for more with regard to the institutionalisation of development education, see Scheunpflug & Seitz, 1995a), the individual states have a development policy scene and working culture that in part take on very different forms, and thus offer a correspondingly varying environment in terms of cooperation possibilities between schools and NGOs. In this vein, the coordination of the campaign examined by us is performed by an independent charitable foundation under civil law that was set up by the Landtag (federal state parliament). In another federal state, school-related campaigns such as that described in our case study are, by now, supported by the government both staff-wise and with material costs in order to regulate and foster the nation-wide strategy of education for sustainable development. This enables a completely different scope of action in the creation of structures, and therefore of continuity, than in the case of states where this type of support is not (yet) available.

For the campaign organisations – and therefore indirectly also for the schools – after all, the respective funding guidelines are an influencing factor that is not to be underestimated when it comes to how and to what extent the provision of campaign activities can be conceived of and implemented. Both in the data we obtained as well as in the context of comparable evaluation studies in the field, it is continuously demonstrated that funding regulations have a direct effect on the organisation making the application and this organisation's resources. In particular, the often limited duration of the funding period in the field of development education and awareness raising frequently contradicts the desire for a reliable source of support at least in the medium term, which seems to be typical in the school context. Numerous studies on matters of organisation and school development support this desire: development processes at schools require both a certain constancy among staff members as well as sufficient preparation time before being established in the long term within the lesson structure and in everyday school life.

– *The circumstances in the campaign organisation/NGO*

When looking at our data, it became clear that the extent to which NGOs were equipped with resources had a considerable effect on the nature and scope of what they were able to provide. In the case of the campaign work under investigation here, the focus was on the staff and financial resources for

the creation and analysis of (new) materials as well as for the conception and implementation of counselling and training for the schools.

The size of an NGO, in addition to its organisational structure, also plays a role in terms of the learning opportunities that the NGO is able to provide. In our case study, it became evident that larger organisations can have access to know-how and resources from other departments (e.g. public outreach work) that can be useful for the specific campaign (legwork for the website, provision of knowledge, networking with important figures), whereas smaller institutions may potentially be able to react to changing requirements of the schools in a rapid and flexible manner, but – in exchange – are barely able to cope with financial dry spells, for example.

– *The circumstances in the school*

With regard to the question of whether and in what way the provision of external learning opportunities of NGOs tie in with schools and are able to flourish there, factors such as the school profile, the type of school and the integration of the school in extracurricular contexts play a significant role. In this manner, according to the evaluation results of the collaborative GEMINI project “Politics and participation in full-time school”, we can observe the potential for cooperation between different institutional partners in particular when there are clear interfaces between the school programme and the curriculum (see Thimmel & Riß, 2006). Accordingly, in our research project for two schools it was shown that the school-related campaigns were able to develop a higher organisational impact among schools with a greater awareness for school development processes, since the campaign was integrated into existing processes or the school actively searched for interfaces. A similar result was also demonstrated by the evaluation of the campaign “Schools of the future”. It showed that the campaign reached many schools that indicated that the ESD concept suited their school programme, mission statement or profile (Ministry of School and Further Education of North Rhine-Westphalia, Ministry for Climate Protection, Environment, Agriculture, Nature Conservation and Consumer Protection of North Rhine-Westphalia, 2015, 22).

In the case study we reviewed, the type of school (primary school, secondary school, vocational school) played no significant role, at least in terms of the interest in the campaign or its level of acceptance at the school. In fact, the campaign was in demand by all types of schools, although at 37%, the grammar schools (Gymnasium) represented the largest group at the time (as of March 2017). Depending on the type of school, however, various options are available with respect to the *implementation* of the campaign. To illustrate: while students at vocational schools or vocational training schools are only at

school for up to three years and are present less frequently and with considerably less regularity due to spending training periods with companies, students at grammar schools spend up to nine years at a school participating in daily lessons. As is to be expected, therefore, it seems to be quite a challenge to achieve a longer-term commitment on the part of the students at vocational schools. A teacher emphasises this situation in the following conversation excerpt:

Aw: The students are not there for a long time; some are there for just a year, some for two years, some for three, and then there are always some who join us from elsewhere in the corresponding years; what this means is that identification with the school is not as high as at a grammar school, for example. The vocational students are only present once a week.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 1, case study 4; own translation)

At the same time, the school campaign examined by us showed that in turn, vocational schools and vocational training schools are able to access new possibilities of integration in extracurricular structures by means of contact to companies and the city administration. In this way, the campaign concern can be presented to the outside world and new supporters can be gained. In this context, the project leaders of the school campaign particularly emphasised the potential of vocational schools in the fields of retail, gastronomy, the hotel business, textiles and nursery. For example, in a campaign vocational school, a sustainability project for vocational students was set up in which the campaign organisation, several companies and the vocational school itself cooperated in corresponding training sessions. A further vocational training campaign school offers sustainable catering for community events. In addition, what also became evident for the campaign work investigated here was that those stakeholders who have a positive attitude towards the campaign concern are of importance when it comes to the integration in external structures. In the course of our study, for example, the steering groups of the so-called “Fairtrade Towns” proved to be important points of contact when it came to high-publicity actions by campaign schools.

– *The context of the target group*

Here, the context of the target group applies in the same form as it does within the framework of the short-term events, project and seminar days and weeks. In the campaign work examined by us, furthermore, campaign teams consisting of students and teachers are common; these enable interdisciplinary, intergenerational learning beyond the usual school hierarchies. Great potential is attributed to these teams when it comes to fostering a feeling of community at a school. This is how the headmaster at a campaign school from our sample puts it:

Am: It [the campaign team] is good for the feeling of community at the school, for the teachers amongst one another, for the students amongst one another as well as between students and teachers: they get to know each other in a different way, have a different approach to one another. This breaks up the typical student-teacher dynamic; as a teacher, you find out that you can also receive knowledge from the students.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 2, case study 4; own translation)

For the question of how and with what results learning takes place, the composition of the group plays a role that, in a dual perspective, cannot be overstated: firstly, with respect to learning in the context of a school community (for more on this see, among others, Klein, 2011) and secondly, with regard to the potential of intergenerational learning (for more on this see, for example, Franz, 2010).

c) Instructors as intermediaries

Following the imparting of initial information and the motivation of a teacher or group of teachers, the campaign package can be directed towards the target group in a twofold manner. For one thing, individuals or groups of interested people can access the material provided in the campaign package directly, without an intermediary, and can thus get the ball rolling on self-organised professionalisation and development processes. The impact model depicted in 3.2.4 establishes this connection via a direct link between the campaign package and the individual or collective learning activities.

For another thing, however, the individual or collective learning activities can also be conveyed via an external instructor of the NGO. The process of imparting knowledge is then carried out in the form of a consultation or training session, in which materials may also be employed. In the context of our study it also became clear that the more specialist and contextual knowl-

edge the external instructor brings with them, the greater the effect of this mediation process (for more on this, see also chapter 3.3). This observation may sound trivial, but it is of particular significance for school-related campaign work inasmuch as that here, for one thing, the personal authenticity of the instructor, as has already been described in chapter 3.1 and remains to be further expounded upon in chapter 3.3, has a stronger effect than in other areas of education; for another, instructors of development education and awareness raising in schools are operating at the intersection between formal and non-formal education and thus at the intersection of two very differently characterised areas of education. This requires not only a certain sensibility, but also good subject knowledge.

d) Characteristics of the mediation process

The nature and modality of the instruction provided in the mediation process can have a significant influence on the development of the willingness to take action and get involved. In keeping with this, the didactic framing of global topics, to provide an example, according to the insights gained in the study by Asbrand (2008; 2009a), has an elementary significance when it comes to how a global society orientation is initiated and the potential that the learners attribute to their own actions against this backdrop. By contrast, an exclusively theoretical imparting of possibilities for action or a moral appeal, as demonstrated by the study of Asbrand (2008, 8), is clearly not sufficient here.

In the campaign analysed here, for example, incentives for trial and experimentation are offered in training courses for students in a very consistent manner. As an example: in the framework of a training course with various participating schools, following appropriate input, the students develop ideas for actions within and outside of the school environment, or learn to analyse arguments for and against the campaign issue and accordingly establish their own argumentation. At individual campaign schools, the learning settings were created in such a way that students are able to explicitly learn to become active. In this way, students at one school, for example, came up with their own lesson units on the basis of fair trade. By doing so, they are able to put their role as multipliers to the test within the protected boundaries of their own school. According to the teachers surveyed at the school, these lesson units are one of the most persuasive instruments of the campaign at the school. A similar example for an appropriate learning setting can be observed in the so-called student reports in the school development programme “Fair school”. For this, students slip into the role of “school experts” as part of an externally moderated workshop, and come up with recommendations for

improvements at the school. The report is presented in a subject-specific or general teachers' conference and discussed as regards its feasibility.

3.2.2 The usage level of school-related campaign work

For the campaign under review, the participation of 444 campaign schools was achieved by the end of 2017. A further 233 schools had signed up to be reviewed to become campaign schools. According to calculations by the campaign organisation, a school team comprises at least 15 students on average⁵⁹. This means that well over 10,000 students are actively working towards the campaign goals. The number of teachers in the individual school teams is not specified, and was not able to be determined in the document analysis either. Assuming a cautious estimate of three teachers per school team, this means that up until now, a total of almost 1,780 teachers in the schools awarded the title of campaign school as well as close to 950 teachers in the schools still to be reviewed are committed to participation in the campaign.

The input provided during the mediation and instruction process is, filtered by perception and interpretation, absorbed by individual learners or groups of learners in joint learning activities. In this sense, a distinction can be made between individual and collective learning activities. As to the extent to which the learning potential of the learners (i.e. the cognitive, motivational and volitional (will-related) determinants) can impact these learning activities and is, in turn, partially determined by the respective environment of the learners, this has already been described in detail in several studies that are also relevant for the field of development education and awareness raising (see, among others, Shell Youth Study, 2010; Bergmüller et al., 2014; Bergmüller et al.; 2017; Meixner, 2014; Uphues, 2010). Nonetheless, it is again worth noting at this point that *already available* subject knowledge and *existing convictions* are decisive for teachers in terms of the question of whether Global Learning concepts are actually taken in at all (see, for example, von Hooft, 2003; Beneker & van der Vaart, 2008; as well as De Nobile et al., 2014, and chapter 3.4). This was also shown to be true for the campaign under review. In line with this finding, the following excerpt from an interview with a teacher shows that with regard to her own actions, the status as campaign school is less significant than her own attitude when it comes to addressing topics of Global Learning.

59 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 4

Yw: Does this status as a campaign school have an impact on you in terms of subjects and lesson planning?

Dw: I don't think so. I think I would have done it anyway, so I would have done it even if we weren't a campaign school [...], simply because this speaks to me personally.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

Here, incidentally, as becomes evident in school and classroom research, there is a suggestion of teachers' primary orientation to their own subjects, whereas in comparison, the focus on the school as an organisation is considerably subordinate to this (for more on this see, among others, Bastian, 2010).

Furthermore – and according to our data, this applies to both the learning process of the students as well as that of the teachers – the particular *significance of the peers* should also be highlighted when it comes to the development education and awareness raising. The significance of peers as determined in chapters 3.4 as well as by Bergmüller et al. (2014) in terms of the question of whether a personal contribution can be made towards improving global injustice can also be retraced in the examined campaign: in group interviews, teams of teachers at two campaign schools made reference to the importance of activities that are carried out by the students together in groups (e.g. jointly designed lesson units for younger classes, a working group on fair trade, or joint days of action) since, the teachers claimed, they strengthen the feeling of solidarity and shared identification with the school. In the case of a further examined school, it became clear that the students largely organised campaign-related activities independently amongst themselves. The following transcript excerpt from an interview with a teacher at school 1 makes this comprehensible:

Yw: [...] and how is the X school organised? For example, do you have a work group or the like?

Aw: The AG International (International Work Group) is constantly reinventing itself, sometimes they do social projects, then a sale, for example sometimes we have a mensa café [...] that's held by each class once or twice a year, everyone takes a turn, and the requirement is that if it's exotic products they must be fair trade, otherwise regional and ideally home-made; the action days are also decentralised, meaning that different classes and people take part.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 2, case study 4; own translation)

3.2.3 Impacts of school-related campaign work

Within the framework of school-related campaign work, 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts can also be identified – in accordance with the various (cognitive, affective, operative and/or structural) depth of penetration, the various levels of reinforcement of the impacts as well as the respectively varying frequency with which these impacts were observed. For the development of a model, which shall also be carried out in this chapter, it was necessary to differentiate between individual impacts on the one hand and collective or organisational impacts on the other. This is why the depiction of the findings with regard to impact is presented first with an individual perspective of the students' and teachers' learning, and then with a view to the collective learning amongst the teaching staff i.e. the learning of the school as an organisation.

a) Impacts at an individual level

– *1st-order impacts: cognitive knowledge acquisition, altering of the level of sensitivity, reflection and self-efficacy*

- **Target group students**

In the examined campaign work we ascertained that the students experience considerable gains in knowledge thanks to the impulses offered by the campaign organisation – and this applies not only with regard to their personal learning of content, but also in terms of being able to now pass this knowledge on to others. The campaign organisation being analysed carried out surveys on the two training courses mentioned, wherein 75% of the 150 surveyed students reported that they had acquired new knowledge, and 85% stated that they had also learned how to convey this knowledge to others. In the course of the second training session, 91% of the 110 surveyed participants reported that they had gained new knowledge, with 76% reporting that they are also now able to pass this knowledge on to those around them.⁶⁰

Furthermore, for the 65 assignments of external multipliers who, in the period of investigation, addressed student groups and teachers within the school or the campaign team at the school itself, 80% of the students involved reported that they were able to gain new knowledge.⁶¹

60 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 8 as well as information from the project leaders

61 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018, 8 as well as information from the project leaders

Unfortunately, within the framework of our research project it was not possible to implement knowledge tests in order to survey what subject knowledge the students had actually obtained.

However, a British study (Bourn, 2018) on learning effects in the context of the “Fair Trade Schools” campaign is able to draw from a comprehensive database (almost 84,000 surveyed students and kindergarten children) in Great Britain to demonstrate that in the follow-up to corresponding events the students and children surveyed were well equipped to provide information about campaign-relevant topics such as – in this case – those who get the most benefit out of fair trade or the origins of fairly traded products.

Similar results are also shown by knowledge tests that were carried out as part of the evaluation of a school development project on Global Learning at four schools in North Rhine-Westphalia (see Bergmüller & Höck, 2014) and that can, at this point, be applied to the context of the school-related campaign work examined here in the before and after comparison.

In this context, from the internal project reporting from the examined campaign organisation in various years⁶², it becomes clear that both for the interregional training courses, to which teams of students from many different campaign schools are invited, as well as for the school events with instructors on site, the students are able to try out specific approaches for action, e.g. how to cooperate with other local players or how to present a convincing argument for the campaign concern. In the training sessions, thanks to the inclusion of relevant local cooperation partners, initial steps were able to be taken towards cooperation at a local level even during the training sessions themselves. This enabled the students to have important experiences when it came to their self-efficacy, and their assessment of the effects of these learning settings, which included incentives to practise trial and error, were correspondingly positive. According to the reports from the examined campaign organisation⁶³, 70% of a total of 250 students surveyed stated that this provided them with new ideas for taking action.

Beyond the knowledge acquisition described above and the experienced self-efficacy that has similarly been made clear, our study makes it possible to trace how, by means of participation in the campaign and by addressing campaign-relevant topics, the level of sensitivity also shifted in a direction desired by the campaign, and the majority of the surveyed students felt that they were in a position to reflect on global interrelations. In the following passage from a group interview with students, this connection is highlighted:

62 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2014, 2015 and especially 2018, 8 as well as information from the project leaders

63 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018

Bw: I think that if we weren't a campaign school⁶⁴ or weren't in the X AG, then we probably wouldn't know how bad the conditions are in the production of products that aren't fair trade.

(Transcript segment group interview students; school 3, case study 4; own translation)

The British study mentioned (Bourn, 2018, 21) also exhibits a strong connection between the development of an awareness for fair trade at the campaign schools and an altered sensitivity towards global injustice.

A teacher from our study points out that due to the school's involvement in the campaign, the students are sensitised towards Germany's economic prosperity, and by association also therefore towards their own well-being, and that this can also lead to empathy for disadvantaged people:

Xw: In the case of many, you can also see that they are aware that they are well off in Germany. Their approach to migrants who have fled their countries is a given.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 1, case study 4; own translation)

The impacts described here refer to the students who took part in further education or training sessions held by instructors. But what about the broader impact of such further education sessions on other people? In the following excerpt of conversation it becomes clear that even at campaign schools, it can often be difficult to get the entire school community to envision the message associated with the campaign. The conversation segment below is taken from an inter-school group interview with nine students from five different schools, and it addresses the situation at a school at which, at the time of the study, knowledge of the campaign topic had not yet successfully been imparted to all students in such a way that they were able to correctly classify the actions of dedicated students. The topic is the selling of fairly traded goods from a vendor's tray run by students. This passage also underscores the already addressed importance of having a connection to peers, as well as the importance of collectively shared norms and values for learning in development education.

Ew: Well, at our school, you would have to explain to all the students what fair trade even is, because I think that hasn't actually been done yet at all, I know I haven't heard anything about it and when we walk around with our vendor's tray, many students don't even know exactly what that is and think, why is that more expensive, it's also available at the school tuck shop for a cheaper price and

64 changed; in the original interview the name of the campaign is stated

then we have to first explain what it is. This can definitely get a bit annoying, since they basically tease us about the fact that we are walking around, because they don't even know why we are actually doing it.

(Transcript segment group interview students; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

At another point in this group interview, students again address the fact that in their opinion, the student body lacks knowledge of the topic of the campaign. It is their desire, therefore, that the topic be taken up more frequently and with greater intensity in lessons:

Cw: So what I would find better in our case is if we could somehow address the topic of fair trade more in class, since at the moment I think that it's relatively little, really it's more of an extracurricular thing. Yes, I would find that better, if we could broach this issue in a wide range of subjects.

Gw: Yes, it's always just briefly touched upon and then directly on to a different topic, and so I think we could make a few improvements.

Hw: Especially in our fifth-grade classes, the topic could be brought into the lessons a bit more because they're not really even familiar with it...

(Transcript segment group interview students; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

Here it also becomes clear that at many schools, the contents of development education and awareness raising are currently predominantly taught in particular in the context of projects that do not necessarily have an appropriate point of reference to the curricular teaching process. At the schools at which this connection is already in place, on the other hand, it is precisely at this point that an associated potential to ultimately reach *all* students is perceived.

Xw: No student is able to avoid the thought [of the campaign]; and this is important. Sooner or later, due to the status of the school, everyone automatically comes into contact with the topic; this was simply a topic for everyone at some point.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 3, case study 4; own translation)

- Target group teachers

With regard to the 1st-order impacts among teachers, there are only a few findings for the case study examined here, especially since there are no specifically allocated teacher training courses, but rather the teachers have to vis-

it the training sessions oriented towards students together with their student groups, and avail themselves of opportunities to exchange ideas and network there. At the same time, keeping in mind the impact correlations described in chapters 3.1 and 3.3 as well as the previously mentioned implementation studies, it can be assumed that even for this style of more or less informal learning those teachers who were *directly involved* in the events offered were able to acquire both (additional) development-related as well as didactic knowledge, and were thus (further) sensitised to topics of development education.

In the context of such a setting, however, the question also arises as to how teachers who are not yet involved can be motivated to participate and be included into such learning processes. In our data analyses it became clear that this is definitely a challenge, and that this type of learning as more of a by-product is far from sufficient for meeting this challenge. In comparison with other approaches that have a stronger focus on school development, it is evident that targeted qualification opportunities are necessary in particular when there is a desire to confer a corresponding degree of individual responsibility to teachers for the implementation of development education offers (for more on this, see also Bergmüller et al., 2014; Bergmüller & Höck, 2018; Bergmüller, 2016; Bludau, 2016).

2nd-order impacts: attitudes and convictions, guiding orientations, understanding as a multiplier

- Target group students

From the campaign schools investigated, it is clear to see that in addition to the increased cognitive knowledge, the students also continue to develop in terms of their attitudes and the orientations that guide their actions.

In keeping with this, at one campaign school, the willingness to take on responsibility and the acceptance of responsibility by the students was viewed as the most important change in the course of the school's participation in the campaign. The team of teachers had used an influence matrix⁶⁵ to define and subsequently quantify the importance of what they considered to be the pivotal changes at the school that had come about as a result of participation in the campaign. In this process, the teachers awarded 21 points for the "willingness to take on responsibility/the acceptance of responsibility by the students"; all other observed changes received a considerably lower rating (15 points or less).

In this context, a teacher in an interview involving teachers from several schools also addressed the students' willingness to get involved, which was

65 See chapter 2.3.4 for a detailed description

generated by the participation in the campaign and which ultimately seems to actually lead to specific action (which is then described as a 3rd-order impact by us):

Cw: So you frequently observe that they are taking action, and [...] what I see, what many colleagues see, students come and sacrifice their free time because they want to, how that works, and this is sort of the key to happiness for us, because of course we want them to work independently, to become independent, [...]. At a grammar school it's really incredible what children can accomplish and how they develop when they are interested and are passionate about something, that's fantastic.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

This excerpt is part of a longer passage of conversation about the impacts that the campaign participation has on teaching at school. Cw attests to the students showing a great interest in the campaign topic and notices that, as a consequence, the students are willing to be active, to continue working and even to get involved in their free time. For her, this independent, desire-driven style of working represents – in the sense of a 'key to happiness' – an important impulse when it comes to promoting the personal development of the learners.

As becomes clear in the following transcript segment, the students also describe this impact for themselves:

Yw: What would be the main arguments for becoming a campaign school?

Aw: It entails a great deal of work, you do have to have a strong desire, the desire to communicate it to the teachers and the students of the school, and if you don't do it wholeheartedly, if you're not fully committed to passing this knowledge on to people, it's hard.

Bw: What speaks for this cause is the fact that you create awareness, including an awareness for becoming more active; not just basically disappearing in our own horizon, but actually looking beyond it; and seeing how we can actually change something on a large scale when we become active at school.

Cw: You also simply develop the ability to present your own opinion and talk to others convincingly about it.

(Transcript segment group interview students; school 3, case study 4; own translation)

In the perception of the students expressing themselves here, involvement in the campaign topic is associated with a high degree of work, which – as they understand it – is only successful if you are strong-willed and “wholeheartedly” committed to the task. The students view both of these elements as a prerequisite for being able to pass on their knowledge in such a way that others are also able to develop an awareness for the issue and get inspired to be active. In this way, the students construct a direct connection between their own awareness, i.e. their own convictions, and the convictions of others. The ability to present one’s own opinion and to persuade others of a topic is considered a learning effect of the campaign work.

For the development of this self-perception as a multiplier that becomes ever more apparent here, the shared framework for action in the school plays a major role: the school serves as a proving ground for the students, one in which they are able to try out and reflect on their own actions. Here the students perceive themselves as effective. They find out that through the act of taking action themselves, they are able to make a “large-scale” change. This experience is pivotal for building up their own individual attitude and stabilising it accordingly.

Incidentally, the following conversation also clarifies the previously mentioned importance of the embedding of peers. On this topic, one teacher explicitly addresses the value of positive group experiences that she claims counteract the feeling of powerlessness and resignation experienced by individuals:

Bw: And following on from this, that the children simply see or that they break away from this thought that I as an individual can't change anything anyway, and whatever I do makes no difference, and instead simply showing as a group that when several people, when a community works on making a change, then things do get done.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

Here, the previously cited British study once again supports the findings from our study on the basis of an extensive database. As the figure below demonstrates, amongst children and young people from the campaign schools (and also nursery schools) there is a clear willingness to get involved themselves and to also acquire the appropriate knowledge to do so. 46% agreed (with 30% thereof showing complete agreement) with statement 6 that “nothing will change without my support”. This is contrasted by 34% who reject this statement (22% thereof completely disagreed). 77% want to gain knowledge that enables them to advocate for change (statement 1).

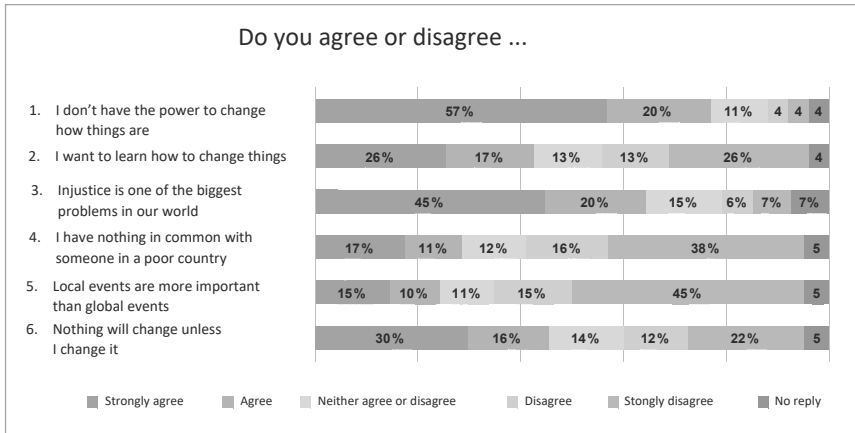


Figure 31: Survey amongst British students at fair trade schools; n= 83,941; source: Bourn 2018, 23

- Target group teachers

Considering the data, it became clear that the already committed teachers were handling the campaign concern with two things in mind: on the one hand, with a view to their students, and on the other, with a view to their colleagues.

With a view to the students, they opened up their lessons for corresponding educational opportunities and provided their students with support when implementing their own initiatives.

With a view to their colleagues, they saw themselves – similarly to the students – as multipliers for the campaign initiative and made use of various strategies in an attempt to gain further fellow campaigners. The contents are what create the connecting line: in an interview, one teacher notes that participation in the campaign offers “topic structures” about which she is able to “exchange ideas and work together with colleagues, i.e. towards a team process – then you are no longer a lone warrior.” (Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 1, case study 4; own translation)

At the same time, here – as is the case with the students – the significance of the peer concept also becomes evident: not thinking of oneself as a “lone warrior” becomes relevant not only with respect to the desired transformation of societal processes, but also with regard to existing demands made of teaching and classwork.

The fact that this form of immediate address seems to help win over new colleagues becomes clear in the comparison of the interview data from the three campaign schools that were investigated in more detail. For example, it is reported that staff members attempt to integrate other teachers by initially simply asking them for support, e.g. logistical help that is at first not necessarily connected to the topic of the campaign, but which from there then leads to the campaign. For instance, one surveyed teacher states that “there are many who provide support simply because they find the type of work good” (Transcript segment group interview teachers; school 1, case study 4; own translation). A low-level introduction such as this makes it possible to experience an initial familiarisation with and orientation in the subject without already requiring definitive knowledge or demanding further obligations too quickly – from the viewpoint of innovation theory, this is a central component for ensuring that those teachers in particular who are initially sceptical towards new developments are able to adjust well to such processes (for more on this topic, see Giddens, 1993).

In a further interview, it is reported that a point was reached where, through actions and a direct approach, other colleagues developed a positive attitude towards the campaign, partly also participated in the action via their own subject, and then later also addressed the campaign concerns of their own accord in their lessons.

In the third school examined here, an attempt was made to link the campaign topic to as many other issues as possible, such that points of reference were created for the teachers who had not yet had much to do with the topic. In this way, too, it was observed that some of the teachers who were not yet involved developed a positive attitude towards the campaign, and over time went on to take part in the events to a greater extent.

What was perceived as less helpful in comparison to the bottom-up strategies described here was a top-down approach that was also observed at a school and was forced onto teachers by the head of school:

Dw: I think the main problem at our school was, now you have to do this. You have to do this now, that doesn't work with teachers. That should have been done entirely differently with a presentation, with somehow, that they decide for themselves, okay, [the campaign] is a good thing and that's not because it was imposed upon them. This is then kind of, where the teacher thinks to themselves, no. [...] this is sort of a wrong way to approach it, I believe.

(Transcript segment group interview teachers; various schools, case study 4; own translation)

In this transcript segment from a group interview including teachers from several schools, an important component of the learning process of teachers becomes clear, one that can be observed particularly when it comes to the implementation of ESD or Global Learning: it requires a personal acceptance of the topic. In the bottom-up strategies described above, attempts were made to encourage this acceptance by means of low-threshold participation opportunities. Even though the school development research shows how important the support of an initiative by the school leadership is: especially in the case of topics such as those represented by the campaign, the self-motivated decision to participate in the implementation of an initiative constitutes a pivotal influence factor in the sustainable learning of teachers.

3rd-order impacts: alteration in personal and/or professional actions

- Target group students

As already outlined above, at present well over 10,000 students are actively working towards the campaign goals. As the previous explanations on the development of a conception of oneself as a multiplier have shown, a portion of the students have in fact begun to take action insofar as they have committed themselves to spreading the message of the campaign concern. What was not verified as part of this research project was whether this also resulted in correspondingly altered private habits or actions amongst these students. In the group interviews, the students refer, in isolated yet explicit cases, to conversations with their family and friends in which they talked about actions in line with the campaign goals that had actually been taken. Similar impacts were confirmed in chapter 3.1. In this sense, we have also included impacts at the level of personal action in our impact model.

- Target group teachers

Overall, as already established earlier, a total of almost 1780 teachers at the certified schools as well as nearly 950 teachers at the schools yet to be reviewed are involved in the campaign. The above considerations have shown that a change in the professional action was also observed for this target group, despite the fact that unfortunately, we were not able to systematically analyse the learning processes behind these changes in the course of the study. This desideratum, however, is countered by the results presented in chapter 3.3 on the training of multipliers, for one thing. For another, the collective organisational impacts of school-related campaigns as described in the following allow for conclusions to be drawn with regard to the points at which appropriate inclusion in the campaign can have effects on professional action. Last

but not least, the already mentioned studies on implementation processes of Global Learning or education for sustainable development show that teachers are more inclined to implement pertinent topics – including in a sustainable manner – in their lessons if they already have a corresponding personal conviction or acquire it in the course of relevant further training.

We did not take into consideration the change of the personal, everyday actions of the teachers involved in the campaign as part of our study. However, drawing upon the findings from chapter 3.1 and 3.3, we have nevertheless included this aspect as a 3rd-order impact in our impact model.

b) Impacts at the collective organisational level

In what follows, the impacts shall now be presented with a view to the *school as an organisation*, with a distinction again being made here between the 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts.

1st-order impacts: acquisition of materials, inviting external instructors, establishment of a responsible group, individual internal school actions, addressing relevant topics in individual subjects

If a school takes part in the campaign examined by us it must fulfil certain appropriate criteria:

- the establishment of a responsible group of students, teachers and parents, with a speaker of legal age,
- the creation of a schedule for the implementation of the campaign, which must be signed by the school head as well as the speaker of the responsible group (school team),
- the sale of fair trade products at the school,
- the inclusion of the campaign topic in lessons (multiple lesson units in two different subjects, in as many classes as desired in two different grades i.e. forms) as well as
- carrying out an internal school event related to the campaign topic.

The certification of the school is linked to proof that these criteria are binding and are observed. At present, 450 schools are certified as campaign schools and thus fulfil these criteria. Thus we summarise these impacts as 1st-order impacts. This classification is also confirmed by the previously mentioned investigations on the implementation of Global Learning/ESD as part of school development approaches: Aside from the establishment of a group of responsible people and the creation of a school-related schedule (both of these are heavily dependent on the extent to which an actual *school* development pro-

cess is planned), many schools initially begin by implementing one-off educational events relating to development policy topics or carrying out internal school actions for corresponding contents.

Incidentally, the low-level approach to the campaign examined does not require more than the fulfilment of the entry criteria, even in the event of renewed certification as a campaign school after two, four or more years. This allows for the possibility that even if schools are affiliated with the campaign for a longer time, they remain at the level of the impacts just described. This is definitely viewed in a critical light by teachers, stakeholders and even the project leaders. On the other hand, as the survey among 198 teachers showed, there are individual teachers who view even the preservation of the status quo as well as the proof of compliance with the criteria for the renewal of the title as a campaign school that takes place every two years as highly challenging. Against this backdrop, therefore, looking at the overall picture of the impacts of school-related campaign work, it can be concluded that 1st-order impacts can be seen at a collective organisational level in the creation of general structures and initial trial approaches in particular.

2nd-order impacts: integration of relevant topics in subject curricula, recurring internal school events, expansion and diversification of the responsible group, permanent interest of the school leadership

In three schools that were examined more closely, the campaign topic was included in individual subject curricula, meaning that in these subjects, every teacher was obliged to cover relevant topics in their lessons – even practical ones. In 70 analysed school documents that were submitted for renewal of the certification, it was possible to identify a further six schools that also made statements on the integration of the campaign topic in subject curricula.

These documents make it clear that the campaign topic was broached in particular in the social science subjects, in religion and in language classes. Inclusion in scientific subjects, if at all, took place only in isolated cases and in an unsystematic manner. As a whole, at the time of our study, the anchoring of the campaign topic in the subject curricula was still in its beginning stages.

Furthermore, in the three more closely examined studies mentioned above, it was revealed that structural efforts were also made to embed the campaign topic to a greater extent. For example, in one school, regular lesson time was made available to the student work group, enabling students to receive information on the campaign topic. The members of this work group met up each week during a school lesson in order to organise their work. In another school, extra support hours were implemented in the geography lessons in service of the campaign topic, making this hour available for specific

development-related themes. A further school integrated the campaign topic in various subject exams, e.g. as a reading text in English in addition to including it in the catalogue of topics for degree theses. Through these activities, it becomes clear that the integration of appropriate topics of ESD/Global Learning within subject structures is not a trivial matter for schools. In this respect, it is not surprising that in the group interviews, it quickly came to light that the majority of schools primarily integrate the campaign topic into existing extracurricular activities at the school and, for example, carry out corresponding excursions, address the topic during open days or base entire project days on the topics.

One challenge that is associated with this is extending i.e. diversifying the group responsible for the campaign with teachers who have been newly recruited to the cause. Here, both the time resources as well as the type of support provided by the school leadership and the faculty staff play a role. If these conditions are not met, it is hard for the dedicated teachers – to give an example – to obtain leaves of absence to visit relevant training courses or promote campaign participation amongst the faculty staff. Adding to this difficulty is the fact that at present, there is a lack of participation of MINT teachers in the school campaign teams. These findings, which were obtained from the group interviews at two schools, a cross-school interview as well as the stakeholder interviews, are consistent with findings from other studies, such as the already cited evaluation by Schools of the Future – Education for Sustainability (Ministry of Education and Training of North Rhine-Westphalia, 2015).

3rd-order impacts: management of new processes, changes in purchasing, changes to didactic guidelines, identification with the school, actions outside of the school, continuous collaboration with extracurricular participants, public perception, additional financing

In all three schools that were investigated more closely as part of our case study, 3rd-order impacts were also identified:

At one school, the campaign topic had had a considerable influence on the internal school management processes. The school head reported efforts to organise the purchasing of as many products as possible (especially for practical lessons at the school) according to fair criteria. In addition, it was reported that the participation in the campaign functioned as a vehicle for the formation of flatter hierarchies amongst the teaching staff by means of closer and more interdisciplinary cooperation throughout the implementation period of four years thus far. What is more, thanks to its orientation towards the campaign, the school is now in a position to procure external funds that can be put towards further training in line with the campaign.

In a second school, during the group interview the teachers make it clear that the process of campaign participation led the members of the school to feel a stronger sense of identification with the school. The list below stating the changes that have been achieved by participation in the campaign and that the teachers consider to be most important shows the interconnection between the impacts amongst students and the impacts in the school as well as beyond the context of the school, which contribute to this sense of identification.

Table 18: Changes observed at a campaign school*

Changes observed
Openness to relevant topics amongst students
In politics lessons: awareness of problems and alternative courses of action
Students have an appreciation of problems related to interdependencies with the so-called 1st world
Independent learning and personal initiative by the students; sustainable commitment
Fair-trade products available in the school including events
Consumer behaviour within the school
Multiplication effects outside of the school / buying behaviour
Increased offer of fair-trade products in shops in the surroundings
External impact / PR / public image / public outreach of the school
Identification with the school

* For reasons of anonymisation, only part of the impact matrix that was drawn up with the teachers has been portrayed (school 3, data from the research project).

In another school, the teachers also emphasise the identification effect. Unlike the school mentioned above, the effect observed here was that the campaign participation was integrated into an already existing, highly dynamic and participatory school process. To this extent, the campaign participation is not the only factor influencing the diagnosed impacts. However, due to the integration of the campaign in the ongoing school development and the already existing process of developing a model, it was possible to bring the campaign concerns to an organisational level very rapidly, thus strengthening the overall value of the campaign in the school.

Table 19: Changes observed at a campaign school*

Changes observed
Sensitisation of the teachers, students and parents
Individual student activities, initiated by the student council
Regional products, use of glass bottles
Special canteen days and other action days
Multiplication effects, [participation in] competitions
Cooperation and networks
Student responsibility
Mission statement "We X school"**: quality development
School as a living space / identification with school

*For reasons of anonymisation, only part of the impact matrix that was drawn up with the teachers has been portrayed (school 2, data from the research project).

**Name of school deleted for reasons of anonymisation

The impacts described here are significantly more complex and further-reaching than the 1st and 2nd-order impacts, which is why we have described them as 3rd-order impacts. As to whether campaign opportunities allow these impacts to unfurl, this depends on many factors, starting with the already mentioned acceptance of the contents and support from the school leadership, moving on to a shared vision developed jointly by the teaching staff, all the way to a willingness to change on the part of many participants, which is not to be underestimated. An NGO has little to no access to these aspects. In this respect, it is hardly possible to plan impacts at this level. The picture is a little different when looking at school actions that generate publicity:

As a result of the campaign organisation's strong focus particularly on extracurricular actions and events in schools, which can (and should) also be linked to the organisation's own public actions, in the course of our study there was a relatively large number of schools that carried out school actions and events with a publicity effect. To underline this, in its interim reporting for 2017, the campaign organisation depicts how in 2017, at three times during the year, at least 80 to 90 campaign schools respectively implemented school actions and events, to which the campaign organisation drew attention and contributed ideas. According to details from the school campaign examined, this is around 18% to 20% of all certified schools.⁶⁶ The school actions have a twofold impact: on the one hand, they unite the students, teachers and other members of the school such as caretakers or school social workers, thus

66 Interim statement to Engagement Global, 2018

having an identification-promoting, integrating effect. On the other hand, the school actions and events also lead to a publicity effect, in particular if the school is able to link its activities with other protagonists in the local surroundings (e.g. community events, cultural or sports events, or at trade fairs).

To conclude, the feedback from the total of 198 teachers surveyed by the campaign organisation regarding the campaign's benefit thus far shall be classified into the three levels of organisational impacts. This shows on an empirical basis that a) at the time of the survey at the end of 2016, organisational impacts had already developed at the respective schools in all three levels, and b) these do not necessarily have to take place in a specific chronological order.

Table 20: 1st-order impacts (Source: survey of teachers at campaign schools, n=198)

1 st -order impacts	Valid answers	Valid percentages		
		Improved substantially	Improved slightly	Did not improve
Shared enjoyment in the activities related to the campaign topic	185	58.9%	35.1%	5.9%
Reputation and recognition for dedication to campaign topic (within school)	188	46.8%	50.0%	3.2%
Access to materials and ideas for involvement	176	46.0%	48.3%	5.7%
Connection to the campaign organisation	160	29.4%	49.4%	21.3%

The table shows that as a result of participation in the campaign, alongside the impacts named in the impact model relating to the access to ideas and (free and specific) materials, the implementation of activities (that are associated with fun) and the internal school recognition of this commitment are also perceived as important impacts. Despite the fact that a huge range of material can be downloaded from the internet or, often similarly free of charge, ordered from NGOs, the access to materials is something that, in the opinion of at least half of the teachers surveyed, still improves drastically with participation in the campaign. This hints at a need on the part of the teachers for custom-tailored material, as has also been documented in other studies, and which has obviously been attended to here.

For the organisational 2nd-order impacts, the following table highlights the challenges described above as faced by many schools when it comes to drumming up new supporters for participation in the campaign. Over 60% see only

a slight improvement in this regard, and over 20% see no improvement at all since they began participating in the campaign. At the same time, however, a good deal of progress is observed when it comes to the existing teams becoming more cohesive and the joint implementation of activities.

Table 21: 2nd-order impacts (Source: survey of teachers at campaign schools, n=198)

		Valid percentages		
2 nd -order impacts	Valid answers	Improved substantially	Improved slightly	Did not improve
Cohesion as a team and joint implementation of activities	189	45.5%	45.0%	9.5%
Gaining new supporters for our commitment	179	17.9%	60.3%	21.8%

Finally, the table below shows 3rd-order organisational impacts. With regard to the recognition of their commitment outside of the school in particular, those surveyed noted progress, albeit the fact that here as well as in terms of media presence and closer contact with the community, only initial signs of progress have arisen so far.

Table 22: 3rd-order impacts (Source: survey of teachers at campaign schools, n=198)

		Valid percentages		
3 rd -order impacts	Valid answers	Improved substantially	Improved slightly	Did not improve
Reputation / recognition for dedication to campaign topic (outside of school)	156	35.9%	51.3%	12.8%
Presence in the media	172	22.7%	52.9%	24.4%
Closer contact with the community	175	19.4%	44.6%	36.0%

3.2.4 Impact model for school-related campaigns

For model, see figure on the following page.

Please note:

1 General characteristics: convictions / values, personality / authenticity, language, motivation

2 Professional competences: subject knowledge, contextual knowledge, pedagogic expertise, self-regulation, ability to cooperate, key competences (animation, planning consultation, implementation advice)

3 Instruction: activity and participant orientation, relation to interests, problems and the group, openness of methods, self-motivated activity, sensitivity for topics

Key

Levels of the model	
	Learner
	Instruction
	NGO / co-operation partner
	Systemic conditions

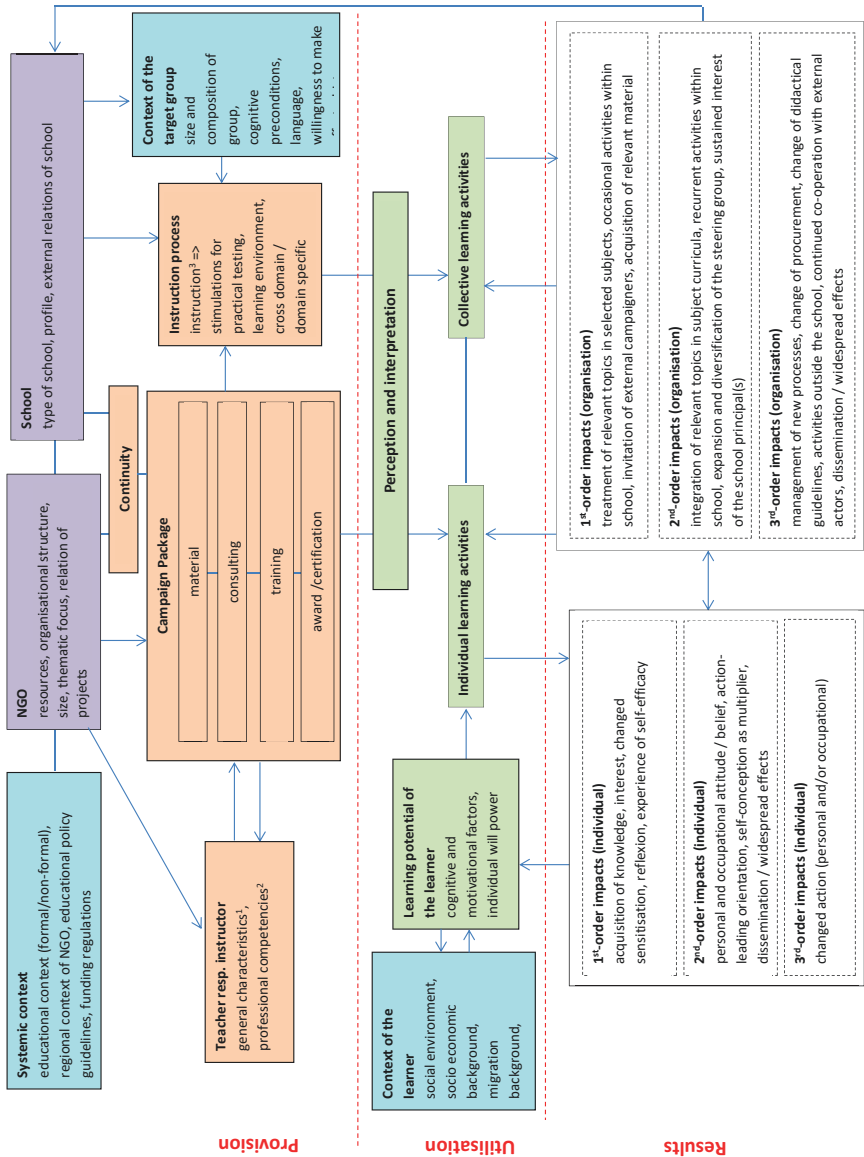


Figure 32: Impact model for the measure category “school-related campaigns”

3.2.5 Conclusions

In what follows, the pivotal results shall be summarised, and conclusions shall be drawn for the planning and implementation of school-related campaign work. This depiction shall be based on the two key questions of the research project (1) What impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising in schools? as well as (2) Which characteristics can be identified that may promote the effectiveness of development education and awareness raising in the school context? In doing so, individual and collective/organisational impacts will be observed separately. The chapter will be concluded with a brief resume on the significance of the measure category within development education and awareness raising.

a) On (1): the impacts

For the measure category “school-related campaign work”, 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts were identified both amongst students and teachers (individual dimension) as well as in the collective i.e. organisational dimensions of the school. According to conservative estimates, this affects up to 680 (including 444 already certified) schools, over 10,000 students and up to 2,700 teachers in varying orders of intensity.

– Impacts amongst students

In the context of school-related campaign work, for one thing, the establishment as well as the systematisation of knowledge on the campaign topic and a promotion of the thematic interest was observed (1st-order impacts). Trialling different approaches to action can be viewed as helpful for this kind of learning. The data makes it clear that this enabled the students to gain important experience with regard to their self-efficacy (also 1st-order impact). These experiences represent a crucial prerequisite for the ability to individually develop appropriate attitudes, convictions and orientations that can act as guidelines for action and that point in the direction of a transformational type of education (2nd-order impacts).

What is more, the results of our data analyses also indicate that especially when explicitly set out in the concept, appropriate methods of passing on the acquired/systematised knowledge to others are also learned, thus helping the students to develop a corresponding self-image of as multipliers (also a 2nd-order impact).

At the same time, however, the data also made it clear that simply from a structural perspective alone, it can be difficult to get the campaign concern across to the entire student body at a campaign school – a finding that is con-

nected to the fact that the contents of development education and awareness raising are (still) frequently imparted in the context of projects that do not have a consistent relation to the curriculum.

Several students got involved at their respective schools not just because they were guided in a didactic manner, but also stemming from their own personal motivation as multipliers for the campaign issue. In addition to this, in one-off cases, it was recorded how students also acted in their private sphere, either by a) changing, for example, their own purchasing behaviour to align with the campaign, or b) talking to family and friends about their commitment in order to convince them to act in accordance with the campaign. However, since these impacts were recorded to a much lesser extent than the previously described 1st and 2nd-order impacts, we have summed them up as 3rd-order impacts here.

– *Impacts amongst teachers*

In the course of our study, it was not possible to find out what individual knowledge the teachers had acquired during the activities directed toward them. What is certain, however, is that the majority of the teachers who were active as part of school-related campaigns already possessed corresponding knowledge as regards content (with a normative connotation). With respect to personal and professional attitudes, the investigations on the measure category of multiplier training (see chapter 3.3) made it clear that this content-related knowledge has a pivotal influence on the commitment of the teachers in the area of development education. In keeping with this discovery, in all the group interviews with teachers it became evident that those teachers who introduce the campaign to their school already have equivalent personal and professional attitudes. These people, who are already convinced of the campaign's objectives, work with different strategies to win over additional teachers and students at the school for the campaign concern, thus proving that they transform their convictions into concrete professional action.

– *Collective organisational impacts at the campaign schools*

When it comes to collective organisational impacts, those that can be viewed as 1st-order impacts are, in particular, the creation of general structures and initial trial approaches.

Moreover, in the case study, it was possible to observe a slew of evidence for further-reaching collective organisational impacts at campaign schools. To back this up, almost 20% of the approximately 450 certified schools carry out not only selective, but recurring school actions that help create and promote a sense of community and identification within the entire school community

and that also flourish into having a public impact if the action is carried out with other figures in the local surroundings. We have summarised these as 2nd-order impacts. The same applies for the integration of relevant topics in the subject curricula (in the qualitative examination of three schools as well as the analysis of documentation on a further six schools, we were able to retrace this integration in particular in the social sciences subjects and in religion) and the integration of campaign-relevant topics in subject exams.

Significantly further-reaching impacts that were no longer observed with the same frequency i.e. intensity as the 1st and 2nd-order impacts were the re-organisation of management processes, the introduction of a sustainable procurement system, and the altering of didactic guidelines that would have an effect on the teaching work in the sense of an inter-year or interdisciplinary principle. It was also seen as very challenging to implement actions outside of the school environment i.e. to develop an outward impact (e.g. collaboration with local communities, media presence), although these impacts were observed amongst individual schools.

One final thing to bear in mind: the low-level approach to the campaign examined by us, which does not make any greater demands of the school than the fulfilment of the entry criteria, even in the event of renewed certification as a campaign school after two, four or more years, permits schools to remain at the level of the impacts just described. On the one hand, this does provide schools with a stable opportunity to participate in the campaign for a longer period of time without these schools having to fulfil any particularly high demands. On the other hand, however, this entails a lack of incentives to expand efforts at the school in order to achieve 2nd or 3rd-order impacts – an effect that was most likely not intended during the conception of the examined campaign.

– *Sustainability*

As regards the sustainability of the impacts, it was determined that the school-related campaign achieves longevity in particular by a) addressing teachers and students not just as individuals, but also as a joint group so as to establish the campaign concern within the school, b) accompanying their activities with advice and support, with the goal of strengthening and expanding the effect that this group has, as well as c) creating a recurring incentive for the schools to remain on the ball by obliging them to renew their title of campaign school every two years. The fact that *all* the schools that have been certified as campaign schools since 2012 have renewed their titles demonstrates that this type of campaign has the potential to create a sustainable impact. However, due to the criteria for the initial and renewed achievement of the

title remaining the same, there is no impetus for further development from the outside. In most schools, the challenge of expanding the school team with additional teachers (including, in particular, from MINT subjects) represents a pivotal challenge for a broader anchoring of the campaign concern. This reveals the need for consultation and support as already addressed above. On the whole, the investigation of the schools showed that the development of the impacts and their permanence is closely connected to systemic framework conditions, which will be examined in more detail in what follows.

b) On (2): Characteristics of school-related campaign work that are conducive to creating impacts

– Characteristics of the campaign services that are relevant to effectiveness

We begin with a look at the forms of learning offered within the scope of the campaign. In this measure category, very different forms of learning intertwine: lesson units, work in intergenerational student-teacher groups, actions organised by the students themselves as well as internal school projects/events and those aimed at the public. All of these forms of learning achieve partly similar, but also partly very different impacts, whereby in our data analyses, we were able to show that these impacts also overlap and can mutually intensify each other. What proved to be particularly relevant here were didactic settings in which the learners were able to experience corresponding self-efficacy. This experience, in turn, represents an important prerequisite for persuasive action of their own. For example, students who are able to try out and receive feedback on various courses of action in a comprehensive, consistent manner in training sessions, or who in safe learning environments learn how to become active within and outside of the school (e.g. in their own class lessons) show greater self-efficacy, which is a goal in itself, but overall this also contributes to an increase in the attractiveness and anchoring of the campaign within the school. In this respect, the plea for this measure category is to give all of these various forms of learning sufficient space and to disseminate this as “good practice” in consultation and further education.

The availability of *good and free materials* turned out to be a further campaign opportunity characteristic that was relevant to effectiveness. Here it also became clear that, despite all their fundamental satisfaction, teachers are in search of materials that are even better adapted to the respective grade and type of school – a challenge that is also familiar from other studies on the cooperation between schools and NGOs.

In the campaign examined by us, the *element of further training* took a subordinate place when it came to the implementation of the campaign at the schools. And of even less importance for the teachers was the *consultation* as

part of the campaign package. However, this does not imply that both elements cannot promote the impact of the measure category. Rather, it is much more about offering needs-based, target group-specific further education and consultation that, in the case of this measure category, provides knowledge on the means with which the effects of the campaign can be increased (e.g. by expanding the school team and including more teachers from a diverse range of subjects, in order to thus also reach more students via lessons and more deeply embed advocacy campaigns in schools overall).

As has already been addressed, the *awarding* as campaign school plays a paramount role. This certification leads to a greater sense of obligation towards the requirements to be implemented, and promotes the effectiveness of the implementation of development education contents on the one hand by requiring that the fulfilment of the criteria must be proven in order to attain recertification, and on the other by making the school part of a larger community, which also serves to heighten the school's own profile.

– *Beneficial characteristics of the systemic context*

For the measure category of “school-related campaign work”, due to the direct collaboration of NGOs with the institution of schools, the systemic framework conditions of the formal educational context, such as education policy guidelines and the regional location of both the school and the NGO, have an immediate effect on the structuring of the campaign activities provided, the act of mediation associated with these and thus also the occurrence of impacts.

Education policy guidelines like national strategies or framework curricula at a state level are of particular significance for schools inasmuch as they represent an important basis for legitimacy for the implementation of new concepts in schools. (It is worth noting at this point, however, that as a reference document, the orientation framework for the learning area of Global Development seems to have been assigned only minor importance thus far.) These guidelines can therefore promote a demand for opportunities such as the campaign examined by us. For the NGOs, in turn, these guidelines represent an important lever for reinforcing their provision of activities, since they are able to explicitly make reference to these guidelines and also link themselves with appropriate figures at education institutes in order to communicate their approach as the option of a “good practice”.

One factor that is closely related to the significance of education policy guidelines is the importance of the respective regional situation of the school when it comes to the impacts of the school-related campaign. Where development policy work already exists and is comprehensively supported by the states, this has a beneficial effect on the collaboration between schools and ex-

tracurricular activities. In the three schools that were examined more closely, the positioning in a local environment that is interested in the campaign concern is a decisive factor for the developed impacts, since points of connection for extracurricular activities are present in these settings.

And finally, it is also worth taking a look at the significance of the available *resources*: of particular importance for the measure category in this context are the limitations that accompany a funding period that is limited in terms of time or even the preference for material rather than personnel resources. These limitations frequently contradict the typical desire – in the school context – for a reliable source of support at least in the medium term, so as to be able to establish sustainable developments at schools. Another closely linked element in this regard is the importance of the NGO's endowment of resources, the size of the organisation and its organisational structure. These aspects, too, have a considerable influence on the reliability of the offer.

– *Further contextual factors relevant to effectiveness*

One notable constituent component of the measure category “school-related campaign work” is the fact that it is aimed not only at the individual teachers and students, but also at the *school as an organisation*. This is why for this measure category, factors such as the type of school, the existing school profile and the degree of integration of the school in contexts outside of the school are of importance. The potential of a cooperation between various institutional partners, such as the existing cooperation in this case between a school and an NGO, is able to blossom particularly when there are interfaces to the school programme and the curriculum. The examined campaign was able to develop greater organisational impacts at schools with a high level of awareness for school development processes, since the campaign was able to dock onto existing processes or the participating schools actively sought these interfaces.

According to the data available here with regard to the interest in the campaign or its level of acceptance at the school, the *type of school* (primary school, secondary school, vocational school) plays no significant role. However, it is an important factor for the *implementation* of the campaign, because the type of school has an influence, for example, on the period of time for which the students remain at the school as well as the possibilities of cooperation with companies or the administration – both important factors for the effectiveness of campaign activities.

– *Significance of the measure category for development education and awareness raising*

As a whole, the measure category of the school-related campaign represents an exceptionally attractive opportunity for schools, since a) beyond individual measures that are limited in terms of time and are often rather randomly selected, a permanent dialogue with issues that are relevant to development policy is made possible, b) the target groups of students and teachers become multipliers of the campaign concern themselves and c) by taking into account the outlined framework conditions and factors, an organisational anchoring of the campaign concern can also be achieved. This holds great potential for paving the way for other concepts, such as dealing with the SDGs, and linking specific opportunities offered by NGOs with such concepts. The relative success of the school-related campaign in the fields of development and environmental education as well as education for sustainable development, the combination of various activities within this measure category as well as its impacts both at the individual and at the organisational level, moreover, make this type of measure also seem suitable for further analyses of success factors of development education and awareness raising.

3.3 The interdependencies of impacts in multiplier training courses in development education and awareness raising

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What do prospective multipliers of development education and awareness raising learn in pertinent training sessions? Upon what determinants is this learning dependent? And how can corresponding learning processes for these multipliers be efficiently conceived and encouraged? Finding an answer to these questions is certainly not trivial; after all, as for the two previous measure categories, the connection between a) the provision of a training course, b) the utilisation of this training course by the prospective multipliers and c) the learning results of this training course is highly complex and can by no means be described as a linear, unidirectional causal link. In this chapter, we will expand upon this in more detail against the backdrop of pivotal empirical findings both from the examined case studies 5 and 6 (for more on the categorisation of the case studies into the overall sample, see chapter 2.2) as well as from further research in the context of pedagogic professionalisation and transfer. To do so, we shall begin at the level of the provision and shall start by demonstrating which conceptual facets of multiplier training sessions exist in German development education and awareness raising, as well as which context characteristics have proven, in the course of the study, to be influencing factors upon the way in which the provision of the training is presented. After this, we will look at the utilisation level and answer the question of which factors (may) influence the utilisation of provided training courses, before taking a look at the impacts and clarifying which impacts can be observed in conjunction with factors at the provision and utilisation level. At the end of this chapter, we will outline several conclusions that we consider to be pivotal reflections for the effective designing of multiplier training courses, and illustrate the additional need for analysis and research.

3.3.1 Provision structures in multiplier training courses

a) Characteristics of the training courses

When statements are made hereinafter regarding multipliers, we would first like to briefly explain what exactly is meant by “multipliers” within the context of this study: here, we view “multipliers” as people who, in the course of a professional qualification or further qualification, receive preparation to pass on knowledge of development issues to third parties in the context of a specific didactic setting. The specific aim of multiplier training courses is thus

to enable the participants, beyond the extent of their personal content-related qualification, to explicitly impart development-related topics to certain target groups (children, adolescents, young adults or adults). Consequently, the training courses examined here are designed not only to increase content-related i.e. topic-specific knowledge and competence, but also to increase the relevant didactic capacity for action. Furthermore, many development education and awareness raising projects in which such training courses are included as a measure category have declared it their goal for the multipliers to directly apply their newly acquired competences.

The training concepts offered in the field of development education and awareness raising display a broad spectrum, ranging from one-off opportunities lasting several hours all the way to multi-day training opportunities that build on one another. Both can just as conceivably be organised as block training sessions or as training offers held at staggered intervals. Direct trial phases in practice can form part of the didactic equipment, but do not have to do so. What is more, these training sessions can take place in both the formal as well as the non-formal educational context, and they can be directed at people with or without a pedagogic background.

In the course of this study, the analysis included two case studies that exhibited the following characteristics:

In *case study 5*, multiplier training sessions took place within the setting of a vocational school. What this means is that the participating NGO holds training courses on Global Learning as a mandatory component of the vocational training contents for prospective nursery school teachers. The training is thus subject – with extensive freedom on the part of the NGO to create the contents – to a formal organisational framework, within which Global Learning is viewed as part of a learning process that aims at a certified completion of the course. The vocational training takes place in two different formats – either in the form of three-year, *full-time education*, or in the form of four-year, *part-time education*, whereby both forms see the trainees undergo individual internship phases in (sometimes alternating) pedagogic institutes. In terms of average age, the so-called full-time classes are younger in comparison to the part-time classes. As a rule, the vocational students of the part-time classes, who are studying alongside their work, have generally already completed a vocational qualification. According to schedule, the training courses on Global Learning take place in two⁶⁷ or three⁶⁸ modules that build on one another and are each set up to cover a period of four hours respectively, whereby depend-

67 Applies to the target group of nursery school teachers to be trained part-time

68 Applies to the target group of nursery school teachers to be trained full-time

ing on the arrangement as part-time or full-time education, different possibilities for experimentation arise with regards to what can be tried out during the training sessions. We will go into this in more detail in what follows. The NGO instructors, who implement the module without the presence of other teachers, bring some relevant professional experience from the nursery school sector.

The training of multipliers in *case study 6*, by contrast, takes place in a completely different setting and under different conditions. Here, workshops on the topic of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are offered by an association that operates nationwide in the non-formal education sector. In these workshops the subject is broached of how this topic can be integrated into training courses offered by the respective regional locations of the association. These training courses are open for voluntary registration both by employees of the individual locations of the association as well as by regional NGO representatives who, for example, are already cooperating with these locations or are planning to do so. What is important in this context is that the supra-regional headquarters, which has nationwide responsibility, does not have the authority to issue directives to the regional i.e. local locations, and that these locations are free to choose what they implement in the follow-up to these workshops⁶⁹. In contrast to case study 5, participation in the workshops does not lead to the acquisition of a formal qualification. The training course comprises a six-hour workshop, in the scope of which the content of the SDGs is explained in the first part. The second part entails a discussion of the possibilities for how the SDGs could be integrated into various training sessions provided by the individual locations. Optionally, this training course is followed by an individual consultation session on concept ideas carried out by staff at the headquarters, as well as – also optional – a six-hour reflection workshop approx. nine months later, which provides a chance to reflect together on the steps taken up until that point. The participants are generally people who have already been working in education full-time for years, and who share responsibility for the areas of Global Learning or education for sustainable development where they are based. The instructors who host the two workshops as well as the consultation are, on the one hand, employees from the headquarters, and on the other, experts who have been active in development education and awareness raising for years.

69 Owing to the fact that this is a special case in the case study analysed by us, the structural hierarchy described here between the supra-regional headquarters with a national reach and the regional/local locations is not represented in the impact model.

With these profiles, the two case studies cover a significant portion of the characteristics of multiplier training courses that occur in development education and awareness raising: embedded in a formal or non-formal context, in a school or extracurricular setting, aimed at participants with pedagogic and/or subject experience or complete novices, as well as with or (largely) without didactically designed, direct experimentation phases during the training course.

b) Contextual characteristics of the systemic, organisational or peer-related environment

The question of what multipliers of development education in Germany learn in relevant training courses is – as our analyses show – heavily dependent on the method and quality (for now, this is meant as a description, not a judgement) with which a multiplier training course is designed and offered. This quality is, first of all, contingent upon the context in which the training measure is placed. From the analyses of our data and against the backdrop of relevant evaluation and research projects from the area of pedagogic professionalisation in the field of development education and awareness raising (see, among others, Scheunpflug & Seitz, 1995b; Asbrand, Bergold, Dierkes & Lang-Wojtasik, 2006; Bergmüller et al. 2014; Bergmüller, 2016), it became clear that here, above all, the systemic context of the training (and here, in turn, particularly the further education system, the regional location of the further education institute and the NGO, in addition to relevant education policy guidelines and funding guidelines), the organisational conditions of the participating institutions and the (peer-related) context of the target group take on a pivotal role. We would like to briefly expand upon these aspects below:

– *The systemic context of multiplier training courses in development education and awareness raising*

In case study 5, the fact that Global Learning is explicitly acknowledged in the framework curriculum for the nursery school teachers training plan of the federal state examined (hence the reference to the regional location of the NGO in the impact model⁷⁰) proved to be a central “door opener” in the education system: thanks to this framework curriculum, there is a formal scope of legitimation for including the NGO’s provision of the existing training, and systematically embedding Global Learning as a mandatory subject in the

70 Naturally, this does not exclude the possibility of the NGO being based in a different federal state. In case study 5, however, we were looking at an NGO that had directed almost all of its work thus far at the federal state in which it was itself situated.

prospective nursery school teachers' path of learning. In keeping with this, in our case study, the vocational school provided a fixed time budget, which was then filled by the NGO with obligatory modules on Global Learning.

By comparison, in case study 6, there are only *recommendations* specified by *education policy* as well as recommendations made by the responsible association's headquarters, and, to some extent, *guidelines* from association structures at the federal state level. As long as the various locations fulfil their educational mission as set out in the respective statutes, they are therefore largely free to determine their content. This creative freedom is an important characteristic of the non-formal education system. However, in our case, this feature had the consequence that development education was only implemented as part of the training content in places where those responsible for education personally attributed corresponding relevance to this content. This observation is not surprising. We come across it in numerous comparable studies (among others Asbrand, Bergold, Dierkes, Lang-Wojtasik, 2006; Bergmüller et al., 2014; Bergmüller, 2016; Franz, 2010; Heinrich, 2009): topics relating to development education are put into practice above all in places where those involved in the pedagogic field are also engaged in these subjects in their private lives.

– *Organisational conditions of the participating institutions*

Similarly to the explanations in chapter 3.1, when it came to the question of the extent and the way in which training opportunities are presented respectively, alongside the characteristics of the systemic context, the organisational conditions in the participating institutions also proved to be decisive. Here, especially in case study 6, the structure of the organisation (headquarters of the responsible body and loosely connected locations that are not subject to instructions issued by the headquarters) as well as the local setting (locations in both urban as well as rural areas) played a crucial role: the location or the structure in which the provision of trainings was ensconced had an effect on the possibilities the trained multipliers saw as to how they could pass on the contents of the training.

In the case of the cooperating further training facilities, for one, *curricular aspects* were decisive, and for another, the *temporal and organisational compatibility with other teaching obligations*. Both aspects were discussed in detail in the previous commentaries. Beyond that, research carried out in both the formal as well as the non-formal educational context shows that the implicit or explicit *profile* of pedagogic organisations and the values and norms associated with this profile have an effect that is in part direct, in part indirect, on the learners in this organisation and that these factors can play a pivotal part

in influencing the structure of orientations that act as (implicit) guidelines for action (for more on this, see, among others, Franz, 2015). What is also often paramount for the manifestation of such a profile is the question of the extent to which certain elements of this profile are supported by the *management level* of an organisation, and/or whether corresponding *collegial backing* exists here. Incidentally, this also applies if – as we see in case study 5 – certain topics are already formally prescribed. The fact that the school administration of the cooperating vocational school also personally regarded Global Learning as an important thematic component of the nursery school teachers’ training and that this component also offered a direct connection to the substance of the work of a teacher who was active in the same field of learning, and thus fitted “perfectly into the learning environment” (quote from an interview with the teacher), created a considerably more positive scope of facilitation than that which might have been the case without such acceptance.

Last but not least, our data also made it clear that the option of incorporating the respective *working environment* into the training can be decisive in terms of how the provided training is set up, and even how it is made use of as things develop (for more on the use, see chapter 3.3.2). Not infrequently, the work environment is a source of initial possibilities for trialling new methods that – particularly when included in the training in an explicitly didactic manner – can positively promote the development of a relevant pool of (implicit) knowledge determining subsequent action.

– (*Peer-related*) context of the target group

The fact that the peer group in which learning takes place can have a considerable influence on the question of what is learned and how has already been demonstrated in numerous research studies. This connection also became evident in our analyses on the interdependencies of impacts in multiplier training courses in development education and awareness raising – albeit in a very specific form in this case. The comparative analysis of the participatory observations, the group discussions and the standardised survey of instructors and prospective multipliers highlighted the following: When considering the overall picture in case study 5, the majority of participants involved a) had little to no pedagogic know-how yet and b) (aside from individual exceptions) also brought with them little to no solid expertise in the area of development policy. The reason that topics of development policy were being addressed was owed to the fact that at the training facility, Global Learning represents a compulsory component of the vocational training. Case study 6, on the other hand, included prospective multipliers who not only brought along prior pedagogic knowledge and themselves had a firm footing in pedagogic work, but

also shared a similar background of experience in development policy. This background of experience played a crucial role in the desire to take action in their own work in relation to the SDGs. Based on this goal, the participants in case study 6 had signed up for the training course voluntarily. This shared, voluntary perspective united the group and could be discerned as a positive influencing factor on the willingness with which the participants worked throughout the duration of the training course towards a later implementation.

In case study 5, these group conditions were much less pronounced due to the lack of a shared background of experience in development policy.

In the two case studies examined by us, based on the characteristics of the training provision, neither the group size nor the language and origin of the peers played a role as influencing factors. However, the other case analyses in this study make it clear that these aspects certainly *can* have an impact on development policy-related learning processes, and are thus included in our impact model.

3.3.2 The utilisation of multiplier training courses

Whatever a training course might ultimately look like: the question of what impacts are observed depends not only on the nature of the provided training itself, but also on the internal and external learning activities with which the participants tap into the provided learning opportunities in the context of the specific training course, that is to say, how they make use of this opportunity for their own learning process.

The data analysis of the case studies described in the previous chapters 3.1 and 3.2 made it obvious that the question of how the corresponding provision is made use of i.e. which individual learning activities can be observed initially depends on the respective individual perception and interpretation of the mediation processes. This connection also becomes evident in the measure category “multiplier training”. What proved to be significant in our data was, above all, satisfaction with the training and the perceived relevance of the training for (later) everyday professional life: if both were present, considerably more sustainable learning processes were observed.

Of similar significance for the learning activities of the participants was, in addition, the learning potential that the prospective multipliers already had when they began the training course. Specifically, in our case studies, alongside the already described prior knowledge related to development policy (cognitive determinant) and a set of values associated with this prior knowledge, what proved to be particularly significant were the specific interest in

utilising the new knowledge (motivational determinant) and the implementation competence (volitional determinant) with which the multipliers stepped up to the training course. We would like to expand upon these connections below:

– *Prior knowledge of development policy issues and set of values*

Since the participants in both case studies are (young) adults, it is not surprising that a certain level of basic development policy knowledge was determined amongst all of them. However, our data show that depending on the context of the training, this prior knowledge exhibited a noticeably different quality (again, here, this is meant in a descriptive and not a judgemental manner), which revealed itself to be an important impact correlation for the interaction between the training concept, the utilisation of the training and the learning result. The training participants from the formal educational context had prior knowledge that was rather less systematic and only elaborated in individual cases, while the participants in the non-formal training context possessed noticeably more comprehensive prior knowledge of development policy. Numerous participants in case study 6 had undergone relevant professional stages, for example in the areas of human rights or environmental education. In the overall picture, therefore, they displayed a significantly more consolidated attitude of affinity towards justice and/or sustainability and had relevant experiences of self-efficacy both in the pedagogic as well as the development policy context, which had a positive effect on the intensity and sustainability of the learning activities in the scope of the training course. Incidentally, this positive relationship between experience in development policy and relevant value systems for one, and the intensity and sustainability of the learning in the training course for another, can be observed not only consistently throughout both of our case studies, but also in further, comparable studies on the training of multipliers in the context of development education and awareness raising (for more on this, see, among others, Bergmüller et al., 2014; Bergmüller, 2016; Bergmüller & Höck, 2017; Bergmüller & Quiring 2018).

In addition, the group discussions show that all of the interviewees agree that so far, school education seems to be assigned a considerably subordinate role when it comes to the acquisition of relevant prior knowledge of development policy:

Xm: I was appalled at what I had missed out on in all the years of schooling I've had [...]

Yw: And if at all, it only occurs in very brief sequences (.) as I said, if at all, we just had one day as a project day (.) and that was all

Xm: | Yes that's true; yes

Yw: that you learnt about Global Learning and sustainability at secondary school in any form.

Xw: | yes

(Transcript segment from group discussion with vocational students, GD 1; own translation)

When corresponding input did occur in schools, this was, above all, in the scope of projects and not so much in regular lessons, as the vocational students put it. This matches the results of investigations from other studies, whereby in light of the current educational trends, changes are certainly possible in the future here. With the vocational students, i.e. the participants of the training courses in the formal educational context, their prior knowledge on global connections came from the media, first and foremost, and entailed a connotation of justice.

– *Interest in utilising new knowledge*

For multiplier training courses especially, the interest in utilising what has been learned plays an important role, given that the training course is directly aimed at passing the learned knowledge on to third parties in mediation processes to be structured by the multipliers. The data analyses of our case studies (and against the background of the statements provided so far, this may not be surprising) documented a considerably greater interest in utilising this knowledge amongst the training participants in the non-formal context than those training participants in the formal context. In this instance, it can surely be assumed that the (in)voluntary nature of the participation in the multiplier training courses in the respective training context is the main influencing factor: for people who signed up to a multiplier training course voluntarily, it can be assumed that they actually want to pass a certain topic on to others or disseminate it on a broader scale. For the use and in particular for the later application of a provided training course, this represents a completely different starting point than the stipulation of Global Learning as a formal educational subject. There, so our data shows, both the *interest in the contents* as well as the *interest in mediating these contents* must, in part, initially be awakened before anything else: “To begin with, they are astounded. That this topic also plays a role.”, a teacher interviewed in case study 5 concludes in this context (transcript segment from interview with teacher 3; own translation). From her point of view, she observed that in the full-time classes, this theme was met with rejection by some of the trainees, while she was able to discern more interest amongst the part-time classes. She attributes this to a certain level of maturity and “more worldly formation”:

“They have already gone through more, heard more. Perhaps they also work with children of refugees. They have more experience.”

(Transcript segment from interview with teacher 3; own translation).

– *Volition*

One aspect that can be viewed as a central influencing factor at the utilization level of our model, especially in the context of the training of multipliers, is the volition (also known as willpower) of the (prospective) multipliers. Volition describes the ability to transform ideas (intentions, motives or goals) into targeted actions that lead to results (successes) (for more on this, see Pelz, 2018). Pelz (ibid.), therefore, also describes volition as implementation competence. The inclusion of implementation competence in the learning potential and the resulting differentiation between *volition* and *motivation* aims to help explain why some multipliers barely achieve results despite a high level of motivation and qualification, while others are able to seemingly effortlessly overcome internal and external resistance (see ibid.). In this context, the multipliers’ individual attitudes towards further education proved to be an important aspect in the interaction between the provision and the uptake thereof: especially in the group discussions in case study 5 (which tie in to comparable results from research on further education; see, among others, Bergmüller, 2010; Lipowski, 2010; Gräsel, 2014), we can observe various types of multipliers: on the one hand, more “*recipe-oriented*” multipliers, who, within the training modules, basically look for instructions for action that they can later implement in their own practice; and on the other hand, more heavily *application-oriented* multipliers, who demonstrate a high willingness to adapt and generally understand the contents in training modules as an impulse that they must later bring to fruition in their own practice by taking action themselves. These two types of multiplier become clear in the following transcript excerpt:

Cw: I think that batik work is something really fun for kids.

Aw: Definitely, but I bet everyone has their own idea of that.

Bm: Yes exactly, it’s up to the individual what they take away from such courses, everyone is free to do what they want.

Aw: I would have really liked a part where we say okay, this is what we’ve done and now let’s take a look at how we can adapt this for where you want to go. I.e. what one can do in the different areas with children or young adults.

(Transcript segment from group discussion with vocational students, GD 1; own translation)

Case study 6 almost exclusively involved participants belonging to the second type, that of the more application-oriented multipliers with a greater willingness to adapt. This meant that in the discussion with the other participants, they explicitly sought individual approaches for their somewhat diverging framework conditions. In accordance with the motto “there is no need to constantly reinvent the wheel”, they did indeed also search for ways in which formats that had already proven successful could be appropriately adapted, but they did not do so in the sense of a “recipe-oriented” approach aimed at taking over concept proposals on a 1:1 basis in their own actions.

– *Work environment*

The last influencing factor on the perception of the provided training to be described here is the respective *work environment* of the learners. Our data showed that not only does the work environment represent an important learning setting and can, from this perspective, have a strong influence on the individual learning activities; it can also have a considerable influence on the impacts. Section 3.3.3 shall go into greater detail on the latter connection. With regard to the utilisation level, case study 5 showed that to some extent, in their respective training facilities the trainees were not granted a great deal of trust that would enable them to try out what they had learned in the training on a largely independent basis while there. This was true for the full-time participants in particular. In the scope of the extra-occupational i.e. part-time classes in case study 5 and case study 6 (here, see Figure 33), in the context of their training, the interviewed participants displayed more confidence with regard to their possibilities for trying out the developed ideas in their own practice. Furthermore, in the standardised survey in case study 6, the majority of the interviewees stated that in their opinion, the topic of “SDGs” was well-suited to being included in their field of competence. Only when it came to specific planning did they show a little more reticence.

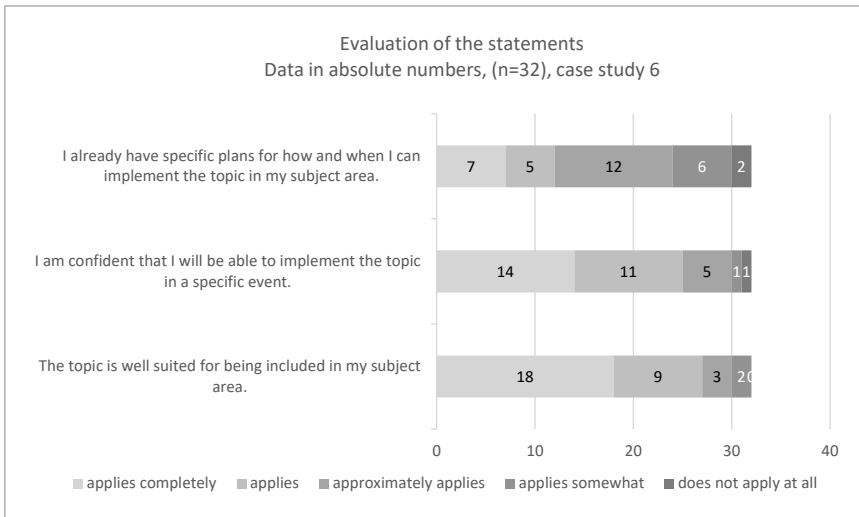


Figure 33: Excerpt from participant feedback after workshop I

In this respect, it again becomes clear that the existence of opportunities for trialling new methods is an important element in the promotion of individual learning activities.

3.3.3 Impacts of multiplier training courses

Following our analyses of training determinants at the provision and utilisation levels, the question now arises of which impacts were able to be identified at the results level in the scope of the multiplier training courses explored by us. We shall now examine this question and illustrate how these impacts are interwoven with the previously discussed determinants. In doing so, we shall describe the impacts within two different areas of interaction that we were able to reconstruct from our data: for one, the interplay between “person” and “function” and for another, within the interplay between “role model” and “didactic mediator”. Lastly, we shall go into greater depth on the influencing factors that are meaningful at the impact level.

a) *The interplay between person and function*

Reviewing the data retrieved from both case studies as well as from similar evaluation studies that we have carried out in the field of development education and awareness raising (see Bergmüller, 2016 as well as Bergmüller & Quiring, 2018), it became evident that multipliers in training courses must be viewed as both “private individuals” as well as professional protagonists who impart development education topics to third parties within the framework of a specific didactic setting. The differentiation between “person” and “function” with which we have structured the 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts in the following impact model represents one of the pivotal results of the impact analyses for this measure category.

Thus it became evident in the course of the two aforementioned case studies that here, learning had taken place both with regard to contents and methods of development education and awareness raising, in addition to learning relating to personal value systems and actions relevant to everyday life beyond the multiplier tasks. In this process, it also became clear that those prospective multipliers who at the start of the training course had had little to no background in development policy profited, first of all, from the training course in the “person” dimension in particular. Here, impacts were observed in the areas of knowledge acquisition, changes in the level of sensitivity, reflection and experience of self-efficacy (1st-order impacts), in addition to changes in the personal attitude and the individual orientations serving as a guideline for action. In individual cases, a change in some people’s behaviour was in fact also observed, as is attested by the following transcript segment:

Cw: Since then, I now also shop differently and try to avoid palm oil. [...]

Aw: Well I have to admit, I don’t shop differently at all. But I now have this awareness in that regard, if you can say that.

Bm: And that is the first step, knowing what is what (.) basically. And then perhaps at some point you can also change something about it, once you take that step.

Aw: Yes and for me it’s simply the case that I still live at home with my parents, I don’t want to mess up their routine. Now if I were to live alone and just shop for myself, that would be another case entirely.

Bm: Maybe it really is about, as we just said, simply being aware, let’s say if I have a pair of trousers, or for example a shoe that breaks, not just buying a new one straight away or immediately replacing everything, but instead first trying to repair what I have or use it in a sustainable way.

(Transcript segment group discussion with multipliers in the formal training context; GD 3; own translation)

This passage makes it very clear just how differently knowledge can impact action. What is more, here the significance of the learners' environment also becomes apparent. Incidentally, this applies to both the social environment described in the transcript excerpt, the importance of which is documented above all in the "person" dimension, as well as to the work environment and its level of equipment with resources, its local situation and teaching references, which take on particular relevance in the "function" dimension.

At the same time, from the data it also became clear that primarily those training participants who had a relevant *personal set of values* took action as multipliers in a faster, more sustainable manner than those who did not display this kind of attitude. The observation that in the development education context, the people who are most active as multipliers are those who – beyond all professional qualifications – also have a personal connection to development policy topics and issues, is not new (see, among others, Asbrand, 2009; Bergmüller & Höck, 2016). Our data, however, demonstrated that, in the majority of cases, the prospective multipliers also opened up to the topics within the scope of their own learning process, *initially from the perspective of their own personal, everyday value systems*, before becoming active in terms of their role as multipliers. This means: with regard to the multipliers within the formal training context, the 2nd and 3rd-order impacts at first became clear predominantly in the "person" dimension, whilst with the multipliers ensconced in the non-formal training context, the 2nd and 3rd-order impacts showed up in the "function" dimension first and foremost, due to the previously described favourable starting point for learning.

At this point, a significant structural difference amongst multiplier training courses in the context of development education and awareness raising can be detected, which seems to manifest itself along the dividing line of the formal versus the non-formal (further) training system (for more on the characterisation of the formal and non-formal aspect of training in the context of development education, see, among others, Bergmüller, 2015; Overwien, 2012): As already described in the previous section, overall, the multipliers in the non-formal training context entered the training with a considerably more pronounced justice and/or sustainability-oriented stance than the prospective multipliers in the formal training context. In our case study, this personal stance now represented the basis for the desire to also take action in a didactic sense. In the scope of the multiplier training courses, the learning path of this group of people thus seemed to begin predominantly in the "function" dimension. This does not mean that learning did not also occur at the "person" level within the training sessions. In line with this, even amongst the multipliers who already possessed considerable knowledge, it was possible to verify the result of cognitive knowledge acquisition (1st-order impact) with regard to

both dimensions (person and function). As the diagram below shows, at the end of the first workshop, the majority of the multipliers within the non-formal training context stated that they had received new information (27 of 32 people surveyed ticked “applies (completely)”) and that from their point of view, the topic had been considered from various, controversial perspectives (21 of 32 interviewees ticked “applies (completely)”):

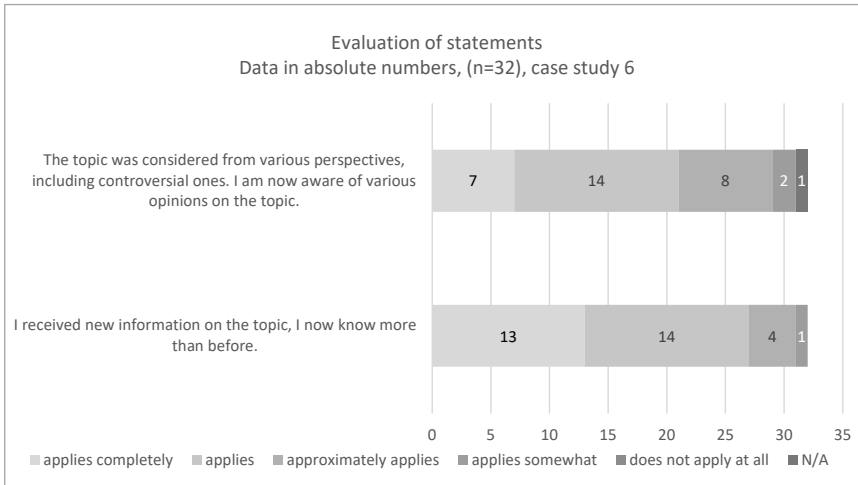


Figure 34: Excerpt from participant feedback on a workshop in the non-formal training context

However, in the overall picture of the non-formal training context, the starting conditions and the subsequent learning path taken were considerably different to that of the formal training context, for: the multipliers within the formal training context often did not have the preconditions just described, and appeared to have to initially tread the learning path via the “person” dimension. In this respect, many of the multipliers surveyed in the formal training context viewed precisely this personal building up of knowledge as the initial spark for then wanting to also pass this acquired knowledge on to others. This is clearly illustrated by the following transcript excerpt:

Xw: I [have] [...] already examined the topic of food quite extensively myself [...] so I was also familiar with all of these fruits and (.) but now thanks to the fact that you have this specific background, for me this has completed a circle where I can say ok I’ll keep going, which means I’ll make sure that I don’t throw too much away, I’ll take sustainability into account and so on, and this is what I de-

finitely want to pass on to the children; that we shouldn't have this permanent throw-away society or shove food into our mouths where we perhaps don't have any idea

Xm: where we know

Xw: what's in it; where we are really conscious of that.

Xm: that it's unhealthy.

[...]

Xm: Yes and simply living a conscious life as you already said [...]

Aw: Well I have to say; yes, I do lead by example for the children and parents here, and then definitely the issue of fruit, with food I think generally, in a nursery school or whatever kind of institute, it can always be used up somehow. Whether it's what I did in my childhood (.) binding the eyes and using the sense of smell or cooking together with the children [...] with bananas now I can also explain where they come from; this batik work is also a great idea for children. I was definitely able to take away a good number of ideas for practical use.

Xw: I definitely agree with [Yw] there; [...statement on the fruit and vegetable topic...]

Dw: It's also good when this is made as suitable for everyday life as possible, not giving the children the feeling of now you have to do this for so-and-so reasons, but instead simply making sure that this becomes a natural need for the children, and also, for example

Xm: L Yes

Yw: L right

Dw: separating the rubbish. I honestly have experienced this in so many institutes I've worked in; that everything is thrown into one container [...] where I had also inquired about that and the suggestion was shut down [...communicative validation by Xw...] and the children observe this and here, [...] something like that can be taught to them by really incorporating it into daily life and not just saying this is how you do it in theory.

(Transcript segment group discussion with multipliers in the formal training context; GD 1; own translation)

Based on her prior knowledge, Xw first describes a cognitive increase in learning, which she frames as a 'circle that closes'. We also come across a similar description in other passages of the group discussion held in this analysis – no longer in relation to the image of a circle, but still within the argumentation pattern of a systematisation of the already existing prior knowledge, in whatever form this may be. To begin with, as the further course of the conversation also shows, this prior knowledge did not have any sustainability-related connotation. This only manifested in the scope of the training. (Incidental-

ly, here an important prerequisite for sustainable learning becomes evident, which in this case was fulfilled: further to the concept of cognitive learning according to Weinert, in her dissertation on the effectiveness of multiplier training courses, Klein (2011) highlights that for learning success, it is of great importance “not only to file away acquired knowledge, but to develop an understanding for connections between various components of a knowledge system” (ibid., 20-21). The correlations that had now been internalised provoked a sustainability-oriented basic attitude that Xw now wishes to pass on to others. Here, a second interactive area is hinted at, which we shall examine in the following section: the area of tension between the self-image as a “role model”, in addition to the self-image as a mediator acting in an explicitly *didactic* manner.

Before this, however, it is worth pointing out that in some cases – especially for corresponding further *teacher* training – an introduction by means of relaying *methods* of Global Learning can also be successful (albeit considerably less sustainable in the overall picture; for more on this, see especially Bergmüller et al. 2014 and Bergmüller & Höck, 2017). Nevertheless, the question of just how sustainable the effect of this introduction is on the further activity as a multiplier is heavily dependent on a personal affinity to the topic.

b) Interplay between role model and didactic mediator

The second interactive area arises from a learning outcome that – ultimately not all that surprisingly – was observed in the formal training context, even if the result itself did hold some surprises in store: the data collected in case study 5 show that among some of the interviewees, the desire to pass on certain values and norms at first led to a self-image as a role model who *sets an example* in the pedagogic context with appropriate behaviour, and less of a self-image as a teacher who is supposed to explicitly introduce a development-related education and learning process (here, again, the close relationship to the “person” dimension is made clear).

This self-image as a role model is connected to two aspects that are not insignificant when it comes to both the conception of multiplier training courses in the formal context, as well as the use of multipliers envisioned with this type of training course:

- on the one hand, here – in close relation to learning as a “person” – the significance of an authentic background of the mediating person, as has also been outlined in other cases in our study as a whole, becomes clear; great importance can be attributed to this background when it comes to development education (for more, see especially chapters 3.1 and 3.2).

- On the other hand, a learning concept that is particularly oriented towards learning together is also documented here, which is closely connected to the desire of not wanting to overwhelm the target group. The prospective multipliers note that Global Learning is linked to a normative requirement. However, they neither wish to convey this in a purely theoretical way, nor by insisting, but instead to impart it by leading by example.

Although this “leading by example” also seemed to be equally important to the multipliers from the non-formal further training system, their main focus was much more heavily directed towards the question of how development policy topics, coupled with their personal value systems and norms (for which they felt a certain level of backing either from their own organisation or by dint of belonging to an alliance or, for example, which they experienced thanks to (inter)national conventions) can be “imparted” in a didactic manner.

The observations depicted here can, within the framework of our investigation, firstly be described as a case-based observation. At this point, it would surely be interesting to support these observations with an even broader base of empirical evidence.

c) Influencing factors of the application context

In the course of our data analysis, it became clear that alongside the systemic framework conditions at the provision and utilisation level, there are also systemic framework conditions at the results level, which must similarly be taken into account. In line with this, it turned out that in their attempt to become active in their “function”, the previously trained multipliers had to overcome various obstacles, which we understand as influencing factors of the application context.

In case study 5, for example, in isolated incidents, the limited amount of resources in the training centres was listed as a reason that prevented multipliers from taking action. Due to a lack of resources, so the perception went, it was sometimes not possible to implement didactic approaches that had previously been imparted in the training (e.g. rainforest fruits for depicting diversity and an introduction to a region in the Global South) on a one-to-one basis. It appeared to the multipliers that the approach learned in the training, if at all, was only possible in a highly “slimmed-down” form. Furthermore, with regard to their creative freedom as multipliers, particularly the younger participants from the formal context had major concerns. They expressed that they were unsure when it came to their scope for independent action in

otherwise fixed contexts defined by a chronological and strongly hierarchical order.

What is more, in both case studies, a further influencing factor proved to be challenging for the trained multipliers: the demand for their training content. In case study 6, the multipliers quickly became aware of which niche topic (SDGs) they had signed up for (from the perspective of their specific environment). In this respect, it was necessary to consider even during the training course how a corresponding potential audience could be won over for this topic, thus generating a certain demand for their offer. And in case study 5, the factor of demand again played a role: Here, the aim was for the multipliers to include Global Learning in their future workplace as a nursery school teacher even if, for example, there was no demand to do so from the institutional management and the topic does not even have to be covered, since in Germany no such framework curricula or comparable guidelines exist, neither for the nursery school sector nor for the field of independent youth work, in children's homes and the like.

3.3.4 Impact model for the measure category “multiplier training”

The previously described impact correlations shall now be depicted here in a corresponding impact model.

Please note:

- 1 Key competences: Animation, planning consultation, implementation advice
- 2 Instruction: Activity and participant orientation, relation to interests, problems and the group, openness of methods, self-motivated activity, sensitivity for topics

Key: *Levels of the model*

Learner
Instruction
NGO / cooperation partner
Systemic conditions

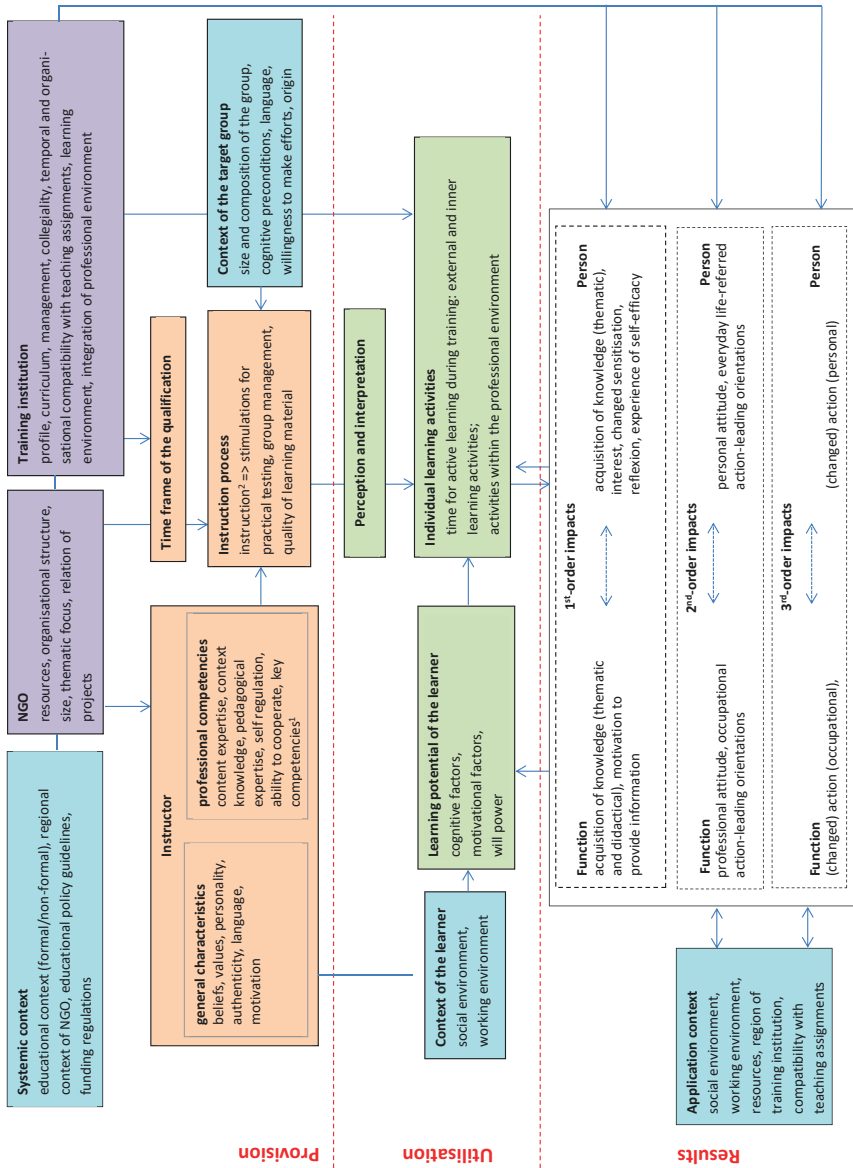


Figure 35: Impact model for the measure category “multiplier training”

3.3.5 Conclusions

Against the backdrop of the impact correlations just presented, in what follows we shall first summarise the main findings once more, and then draw conclusions for the conceptualisation of multiplier training courses in the context of development education and awareness raising. As for the previous chapters, the summary of the results shall be based on the two key questions of the research project (1) What impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising? as well as (2) Which characteristics can be identified that may promote the effectiveness of development education and awareness raising?

a) On (1) Impacts of multiplier training courses

– 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts

As shown by the results presented, in the case studies 5 and 6 analysed here, as well as with reference to further research projects mentioned in this chapter, it is possible to identify 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts. Within this, it is possible to differentiate between impacts relating to the person of a multiplier, and impacts regarding the function of a multiplier. Our impact analyses showed that 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts could be observed in both dimensions, albeit in very different ways:

training participants who already demonstrated a certain background in development policy found it easier to achieve impacts in the “function” dimension, whereas participants who were largely novices in the field of development policy initially attained impacts in the “person” dimension, before impacts could also be observed in the “function” dimension.

In this respect, it seems that we are able to establish a close interconnectiveness between subject matter expertise at the person level and didactic motivation coupled with volition at the function level as a characteristic element for multiplier training courses in the context of development education and awareness raising.

– Sustainability

The question of the sustainability of the multiplier training courses can be examined from two perspectives: firstly, from the perspective of the individual learning of the multipliers and the question of the extent to which they are capable of applying what they have learned; secondly, from the perspective of the multiplier training course itself and the question of the extent to which the trained multipliers (are able to) “remain true” to the area for which they were trained.

Seen from the first perspective, the sustainability of multiplier training courses is heavily dependent on the environment in which the (prospective) multipliers are able to be active during the training itself as well as afterwards. The more this environment presents itself as open towards development and/or sustainability-oriented topics, the more positive is the light in which the sustainability of the training course can be viewed (for more on this, see the following section on (2)).

In the second perspective, it is a well-known fact both from this as well as other studies that the landscape of protagonists in development education and awareness raising is characterised by, to some extent, substantial staff fluctuation rates. This does not affect the formal education context quite as heavily as the non-formal context. In this sense, for multipliers who have obtained qualification for the formal context and who have become active of their own accord (with all the already depicted challenges of the environment), greater sustainability of the training impact can be expected than for multipliers in the non-formal context.

Case study 6, however, makes it clear that this risk is not necessarily a given in the non-formal context: here, the impacts of the training can be described as extremely sustainable, since the know-how of the organisation generated by the training courses is maintained relatively permanently. Nevertheless, in comparison to numerous NGOs that have to deal with the staff fluctuations already touched upon both in their project teams as well as in their instructor pools, this situation represents more of an exception than the rule.

b) On (2): Characteristics that promote impacts in multiplier training courses in development education and awareness raising

The data indicates numerous features that are of importance for achieving impacts when it comes to this measure category. Alongside the characteristics that also apply for other measure categories – such as the designing of the mediation process in a way that is suited to the target group, a time frame of the training course that is adapted to the contents to be imparted, as well as instructors that possess the general characteristics such as authenticity and motivation in addition to the professional competences in terms of specialist and contextual knowledge, pedagogic expertise and the relevant key competences (animation, planning consultation and implementation advice) – at this point it is worth directing the focus to three features that are particularly crucial in the context of multiplier training courses: 1) participants' previous experiences in development policy, 2) a corresponding acceptance of the normativity as regards the content of this educational work in the working environment of the multipliers as well as 3) opportunities for experimentation as

a direct component of training courses. These three aspects shall be explained in greater detail in the conclusion below.

– *Development policy and/or sustainability-oriented affinity*

The question of which impacts can be achieved within the scope of multiplier training courses is directly dependent – according to our data – on the extent to which the participants already possess a corresponding affinity towards development policy and/or sustainability, or must first establish such an affinity. Here it must be kept in mind that multiplier training courses on topics of development policy are offered by NGOs both in the formal as well as the non-formal further education system. In the case of the non-formal system, the demand arising in this regard is based on the voluntary decision of the participants. Training courses enconced in the *formal* system, in contrast, are often in demand from schools or vocational (further) education institutions (i.e. on behalf of an organisation). In this case the participants themselves largely have no decision-making powers with regard to their participation in the training. This circumstance leads to a different group composition in each case (as part of the target group context), which – as demonstrated by our data – can be viewed as an important influencing factor on the overall teaching and learning process. In line with this finding, the data made it clear that the majority of the participants in the non-formal system possess relevant initial prerequisites, such as more solidified prior knowledge of development policy, a more pronounced level of sensitivity in this regard, initial experiences of self-efficacy as well as a more consolidated personal attitude towards these topics, than participants in the formal system. The former “search” for a training course for themselves in a targeted manner, since against the background of these experiences, they now feel called to receive training as multipliers for these development policy topics. The majority of the latter take part in the training courses in the capacity of a previously made organisational decision, without experiencing their own sense of “calling”. This is why from our point of view, for multiplier training courses in the context of development education and awareness raising, we consider it crucial to first ensure before the *methodical* training and thus the focus on the “function” dimension that, with regard to the “person” dimension, the participants display at least a corresponding sensitivity towards development policy and/or sustainability, upon which the mediation of the didactic input can build. This may potentially look slightly different for multiplier training courses aimed at teachers, since teachers often participate in advanced didactic training from the perspective of how this can be applied to their students’ learning. Having said that, it is also evident that at schools, in particular the teachers who already possess a cor-

responding basic orientation relating to development policy or sustainability *beforehand* are more active in the implementation of Global Learning/ESD. In this respect, this observation supports our viewpoint.

- *Acceptance of the normativity as regards the content of this educational work in the working environment of the multipliers*

Following their training, both the multipliers trained in the formal as well as in the non-formal context are faced with the challenge of implementing their training in practice, whatever this may look like. In most cases, this practice is embedded in a specific organisational context (in case study 5, for example, pedagogic institutes such as nursery schools) that does not necessarily already advocate for topics of development policy or sustainability as its own normative orientation. Becoming active in this type of context is difficult. In this respect, we believe it would be important to actively prepare the (prospective) multipliers for this situation and in the scope of the training courses, beyond the immediate thematic contents, to also provide them with framework knowledge of the overall educational and developmental context in which their activity as a multiplier is embedded. This applies especially for the multipliers who are trained in the formal context. This type of background knowledge can help them to become aware of their role as a protagonist in a society reliant upon transformation and to thus improve their own standing in such an organisational context.

- *Opportunities for experimentation as a direct component of the training*

The possibility of swiftly trying out the newly acquired or enhanced competences in practice forms an important element of the mediation process. However, particularly with regard to the multiplier training courses within the formal context, the framework conditions in the work environment of the multipliers frequently do not seem to be set up in such a way that appropriate opportunities for experimentation would present themselves here. When it comes to the objective that the multipliers take up the contents imparted during the training courses in their (implicit) guidelines for subsequent action, this represents a significant problem. With this in mind, for the conceptualisation of multiplier training courses, it should be considered at which points targeted possibilities for experimentation can be created that go beyond any already occurring conceptual elaboration of modules of mediation, with the aim of ensuring that the (prospective) multipliers effectively have to implement appropriate modules themselves. Corresponding approaches have already been successfully trialled in the area of teacher training (see, among others, Helmke, 2012; Rieckmann, 2014).

3.4 A biographical inquiry – influencing factors on development-related engagement throughout life

Bernward Causemann, Eva Quiring

Alongside identifying impacts in the case studies as well as referencing mechanisms of action that have already been empirically validated by other research activities, a longer retrospective perspective was also adopted in the research project in a survey spanning multiple cases. We wanted to know how engagement in the field of development comes about. To this end, people who are professionally active (full-time or part-time) in development education and awareness raising (n=10) or in the context of education for sustainable development (n=33) were asked to take a look back at how they came to be professionally involved.

As depicted in greater detail in chapter 2.3.4, project collaborators from the case studies were asked to paint a biographical picture of what influences led them to now be working in development education and awareness raising. A standardised list was presented to them and to the online interviewees from the field of education for sustainable development, with influencing factors whose significance they weighed up.

3.4.1 Results of the retrospective biographical observations

In the course of our survey, it became clear that, in the overall picture, all 13 factors (see Figure 36) that were available for selection in the survey were of importance for at least some of the interviewees.

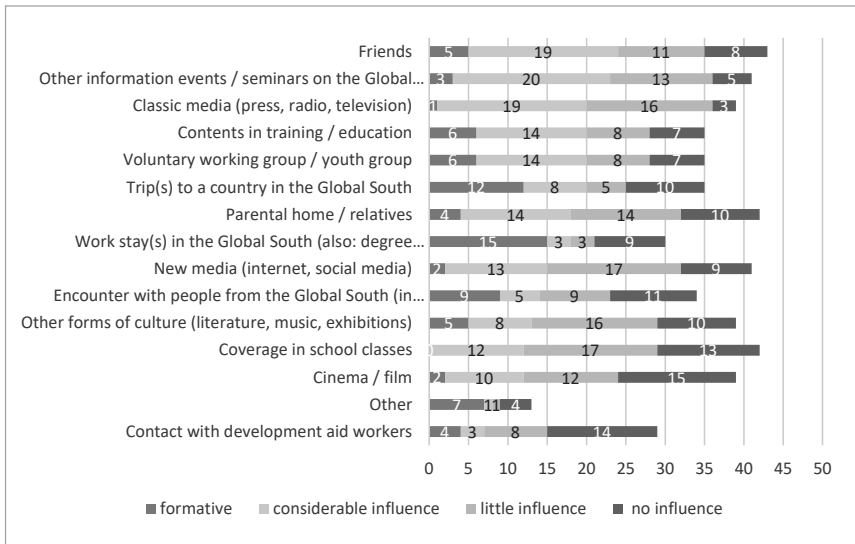


Figure 36: Influencing factors on professional engagement in development education and awareness raising⁷¹

The influence of friends is most frequently mentioned as formative or considerably influential. This refers in part to friendships during adolescence and youth, which then express themselves, for example, through joint efforts in a youth group (e.g. including in an environmental working group -BI34, or with the “Pfadfinder” (scouts) -BI38, “*I was always active at school. We organised protests against the sinking of the Brent Spar.*” -BI38 (own translation).⁷² In part, reference is made to friendships from a later stage in life, such as from studies and career paths; several of these acquaintances had worked in countries in the Global South (“[I have] a very mobile circle of friends. They were and still are active as development aid workers. This

71 n=43: 10 from biographical interviews on development education and awareness raising, 33 from an online survey on education for sustainable development (Bergmüller & Quiring, 2018). Ordered according to frequency of “formative” and “considerable influence” combined. Most of the characteristics were answered by fewer than 43 (with the exception of “friends”). The missing answers, as well as part of the “no influence” answers should, if anything, be assigned to “does not apply”, which was not queried separately.

72 With regard to the citation format: BI34-43 refers to the transcripts of ten biographical interviews with employees from the case studies; ESD1-33 refers to notes on “other” in the online survey in Bergmüller & Quiring, 2018.

circle of friends encouraged the desire to follow such a path myself." -BI36⁷³ (own translation).

Coming in at second place are information events and seminars – an indication that such events have a substantial influence on educational processes, as already depicted in detail in chapter 3.1. For example, one interviewee attended an education conference in 2003, where he became familiarised with the Millennium Development Goals. The insights gained at this conference subsequently changed the educational work of the organisation drastically, since it was a matter of concern for him to supplement the work with global aspects from that point onwards -BI35.

Around half of all interviewees had worked abroad in the Global South and ascribed a strong motivational effect to this experience. One person describes a voluntary ecological year in Germany as “formative” – assignments in the Global North can also serve to foster motivation for commitment in the field of development education and awareness raising and education for sustainable development. The DEval evaluation (Polak, Guffler & Scheinert, 2017; DEval, 2017) shows that in the case of volunteers who had returned from the “*weltwärts*” programme, after their return, they directed their already existing voluntary engagement more heavily towards issues related to development policy, got involved in development education and awareness raising, and passed their knowledge, their skills and their altered mindsets on to people in their private surroundings.

What is more, the biographical survey from our study demonstrates a clear connection between working abroad and trips to the Global South: all twelve people who described trips to the Global South as formative also underwent work stays there. In addition, in many interviews, work stays and/or trips are named as the most important of the three central influencing factors. The interviews make it clear that although the trips did have an influence in and of themselves, they were not seen as formative. They serve as a provocation and to bring awareness to the situation, but it is only the work stay that creates a strong motivation. Only for a few people did the trips have a considerable influence without a work stay, whereby here, trips to Eastern Europe and Israel were also mentioned.⁷⁴

73 In the standardised survey, this interviewee cites the influence of friends as formative, while categorising the influence of development aid workers, on the other hand, as minor.

74 Four people indicated a considerable influence from trips and little or no influence with regard to their work stay. In these cases, it can be assumed that no work stays took place. However, this question was not explicitly asked.

Our data indicates a strong correlation between stays in the Global South and encounters with people in the Global South. Originally, the intention was to inquire about the influence originating from encounters with people *from* the Global South with whom people came into contact *in the Global North*. However, it is evident that the question was understood differently by some of the interviewees.⁷⁵ This influencing factor, therefore, must be assessed as considerably smaller than what the figures actually indicate, but it does still play a role (in the originally intended sense): *"Due to my parents' involvement with refugees, right from the 1st year at school, I was friends with a boy whose parents were from Cameroon."* -BI38 (own translation). In addition, the mother of the interviewee had Filipina nurses as colleagues, who established a contact for the interviewee. One person reported that at Greenpeace, they had *"also addressed the issue of textile production and had invited representatives from India to do so. Meeting these people was certainly significant"* -BI39 (own translation). Another person told of encounters with foreign students -BI42.

Furthermore, in a project involving schools organised to mark the occasion of the 2006 football World Cup in Germany, encounters with people from the Global South partner country were established as an important influencing factor, which in this case was perceived as highly enriching (see Seitz, R., 2008, 52 ff.; Jäger, 2008, 79-83).

Not all those interviewed chose the "direct path" to development education and awareness raising on the basis of the formation and the various influences they described. Involvement in the area of environmental education work, the addressing of issues surrounding flight and asylum, human rights and environmental conservation issues and work involving intercultural encounters were also described as paths that led to development-related engagement. What is more, for many people, general political involvement was also meaningful. Others mentioned the media coverage of Greenpeace -BI42 or involvement with Greenpeace as a motivating factor -BI39.

Almost half of the interviewees described activities in voluntary work groups and youth groups as formative or considerably influential. This confirms the motivating influence of actions as depicted in chapter 3.2. *"I learned a lot from the leader of the independent youth*

75 If this questionnaire were to be used for further surveys, the question would have to specifically refer to encounters in the Global North with migrants from the Global South, as well as a separate question for encounters with guests from the Global South (e.g. in the context of partner visits).

work too." -BI34 (own translation). In several interviews, the role of inspiring personalities is emphasised, particularly during the participants' youth.

Vocational training and degree courses are more frequently stated as formative influences than school classes. However, the latter refers to lessons that took place 15 or more years ago. Today, there are an increasing number of curricula that include this topic. This examination cannot assess whether the influence of school classes has increased as a result. Nonetheless, the interviews made it clear that school lessons brought the topic to some people's attention. One interviewee expanded on the fact that for them, the teachers who took a political stance against, say, nuclear power, were of particular importance -BI38. The contents of degree courses, as well as study or work stays abroad within the scope of the degree, were also described in the interviews as being influential.

Traditional media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television) had a considerable influence for around half of the group; almost nobody found them formative. In part, the influence of media reporting is described as having a positive motivational factor, and is designated as an important source of information. *"There were a good deal of interesting documentaries on the MDGs, and we took a lot from this and embedded it in our project days"* -BI35 (own translation). On the whole, the mentions are more general: *"Things that you hear and see in the media motivate me to keep doing this work and dedicate myself to these topics"* -BI40 (own translation). *"Yes, media are of importance to me [especially for the current work]. I listen to a lot of podcasts by Deutschlandfunk [National Public Radio in Germany]. I actively make use of this information for my work"* -BI34 (own translation). To some extent, however, the traditional media are also viewed as a cause in the negative sense: the fact that the reporting, which is perceived as poor, has to be countered, in turn acts as a trigger for greater involvement. In the interviews, however, specific reference is only rarely made to the actual contents: *"The arson attacks in Mölln. The one-sided reporting of the Global South: we know more about the people who die in Africa than about the people who live in Africa"* -BI39 (own translation).⁷⁶

76 No questions were asked about the influence of advertising for donations, which often takes place in the media. Klaus Seitz writes on this topic: "However, the results of the case studies show that the 'simple images' of hunger, poverty and the possibilities for providing help that remain in the consciousness of the man and woman on the street do not necessarily represent a blockage in perception, but in many cases can also prepare the ground for further learning processes."

New media (World Wide Web, social media) were viewed as having little significance for the individuals' own formation, which is likely primarily due to the age group of the interviewees, who were mostly socialised before the existence of these new media. However, for many they serve as an important source of information, for example as a way of carrying out research for their current activities. In terms of their own formation, films and other forms of culture played a certain role for about one third of the interviewees in each respective case. Here, no distinction is made between whether these films were shown on their own or as part of other events. The surveys made it clear that several teachers and instructors like to use films in the course of their lessons and events. It is not clear whether the role of films employed in this manner entered into the equation of the evaluation.

The parental home and relatives are mentioned as formative / important by almost half of the group. In the interviews, it becomes clear that the parents or relatives often provided a supportive influence. The parents had already addressed developmental or environmental issues (the "death of seals" -BI34, own translation, work with refugees -BI38, nuclear power -BI40). Or the parents led by example and were directly involved themselves: "My mother was actively involved in a Nicaragua initiative" -BI38 (own translation). Trips with parents to the Global South are also mentioned. On the other hand, however, dedication may also arise as a result of setting oneself apart from the family: "my own sense of justice - dealing with injustice in the family situation [difficult childhood]" -BI43 (own translation) or injustice that the parents had experienced -BI39.

Contact with development aid workers is rarely named as an influential factor, although some of the interviewees do/did have contact with them: "Yes, but they had no influence" -BI34 (own translation). One interviewee explained why they judge the influence to be minimal: "Two or three friends work in development cooperation. They all came back more or less shocked because they discovered that participatory approaches are not the main course of action there. Their expectations were not fulfilled" -BI39 (own translation). Only one out of ten people questioned had been a development aid worker themselves -BI42. In one case, reference

(2008a, 77, own translation) In church communities, he postulates, their role is "to permanently keep alive the ecumenical dimension of Christian existence" (2008b, 54, own translation). If a similar survey were to be carried out on a larger scale, it would be worth considering including the issue of advertising for donations, so as to assess its significance for awareness of development policies in comparison to other factors.

is made to the importance of other people who work in the Global South (“missionaries” -BI37; own translation).

The various factors mentioned under “other” are exceptionally diverse. Topics that come up several times include global disparities -ESD2, the relocation of production to low-wage countries -BI42, the Iraq war -BI38, climate change -BI42, -ESD2, the environment -ESD2 and the discrimination of small-scale farmers and indigenous peoples -BI42. During several interviews, nuclear testing in the Pacific (Samoa, Mururoa) comes up at various points -BI35, -BI38, -BI42.⁷⁷ Here and at other points, several interviewees state an “*intrinsic motivation*” -ESD32 such as a sense of justice -BI43 (own translation).

Participants were not asked about their stances as part of our study; however, these stances seem to have been strongly influenced within the framework of the impulses and learning processes just outlined.

Some of the influencing factors just specified when it comes to involvement in development policy are also confirmed by the study done in Germany by Brot für die Welt (Bread for the World). In the course of this study, a survey of pastors who use material from Brot für die Welt in their parishes revealed that personal experiences and encounters in contexts relating to development policy or global missionary work and “direct personal encounters with people from the Third World” are the most important influencing factors in terms of the motivation to tackle topics related to development policy. The supply of materials offered by Brot für die Welt is named in second place, while the training comes in at third place. This is followed by public media in fourth place. “Pastors who already received a motivational push in the direction of global ecumenism during their training [show] a strong tendency to remain on the ball in this regard, and to continue to further educate themselves” (Seitz, 2008b, 55, own translation; Führung, 2008).

77 In a pre-test for the survey with freelance consultants for development cooperation between the age of 50 and 65, conflicts such as the Vietnam War, the sanctions against Cuba and the struggles for liberation in Central America were named as driving motivators.

3.4.2 Conclusions

The participants surveyed as part of our study are two groups of particularly dedicated people who have chosen a (part-time) professional commitment in the area of development education and awareness raising or education for sustainable development. The results of these surveys, therefore, cannot be directly transferred to the target groups of the case studies. In particular, the distribution of the influences would, in all probability, be different amongst customers of Fair Trade shops and visitors at events or exhibitions on development-policy topics;⁷⁸ the same goes for people working on a voluntary basis. The two surveys clearly show, however, that measures of development education and awareness raising awaken and/or reinforce interest in corresponding topics, and can also have long-term effects on at least part of the target groups.

Each one of the examined influencing factors can be significant in the sense that these factors can exert a formative or considerable influence on the understanding of development policy and even on the individual's (professional) path of development. It became clear that the interviewees' approaches to their involvement in development education and awareness raising are very diverse, and are characterised by a wide range of different, in part very individual experiences. What is more, the number of influences also differs substantially. One third of the interviewees does not name any of the influencing factors available in the survey as "absolutely formative", but instead describes factors as having, at most, a considerable influence. A further third of participants states one to two influences, and a third mentions three to seven influences as "absolutely formative". If one combines "absolutely formative" and "considerable influence", the results show that 86% mention between four and ten influencing factors, whereby some individuals add up to three additional factors that were not stated in the list of options. Before somebody reaches the point of initiating a career in development education and awareness raising or education for sustainable development, therefore, it is quite common for highly diverse influences to come together.

The combination of factors is very different amongst individuals. However, patterns do exist, such as the frequent connection of a work stay in the Global South with trips and encounters there. In addition, the strong influence of individual people – teachers, guests, and leaders of youth work, to name a

78 It would not be plausible to assume that half of the customers in Fair Trade shops have taken part in work stays in the Global South. In all likelihood, the influence of trips would also be lower. A very specific group was examined, in which particular characteristics were to be expected.

few – is also a recurring pattern. The strong significance of family, school, extracurricular school programmes as well as youth groups, vocational training and university studies is another example of such a pattern. The data shows that to create stable interest in and commitment towards development policy, a conglomeration of many influences is often involved, and that some of these influences only develop after a long period of time.

There are crucial triggers for some of the interviewees; however, these do not take effect on their own. Instead, all ten intensively interviewed participants describe long-term educational processes. The study carried out in Germany by Brot für die Welt (Bread for the World) also confirms this finding: “The fact that certain ‘initial impulses’ can, in this sense, radiate a lifelong effect and alter biographies should, however, not lead to the misconception that it is generally possible to trigger sustainable learning processes with one-off interventions. Rather, it should be assumed that as a general rule, impacts can be made permanent when the learning opportunities are also maintained accordingly.” (Seitz, 2008b, 89, own translation)

The data suggests that the 33 people who answered our standardised surveys also underwent similarly long-term educational processes, because, for example, they also mentioned their parental home, school and education with a similar frequency. Measures for which it is particularly difficult to track long-term impacts, namely short-term learning events and seminars, are retrospectively designated as a significant part of this educational process, which is evidenced by the fact that they take second place in terms of the frequency of mentions.

The biographical survey provides an impression of what kind of 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts, i.e. what kind of knowledge, attitudes and action, can be created through development education and awareness raising in the long term. In this respect, these long-term results should be included in the various impact models.

The results also lead to the conclusion that a retrospective survey based on the personal biography of an individual or the history of an institution can bring forth very different, less specific, but comprehensive results in contrast to an impact survey that explores impacts following specific measures or programmes. Furthermore, with this methodical approach, the subject of examination is also ultimately observed from a completely fresh perspective, whereby in particular the interaction between different influencing factors (which can include one-off measures, but also results or social influences) can be traced in a condensed form.

The question as to why encounters with people from the Global South did not have a greater influence remains unexplained. Is the reality that relatively few encounters of this kind, in which the living situation in the southern

hemisphere is addressed, take place, or do these encounters only reach a small circle of people? Looking into this question more closely could be worthwhile.

This survey could not afford to investigate why some people got involved in development education and awareness raising as a result of the stated influences, and why others did not. Shedding more light on these correlations would be a task for future research projects. In doing so, it would also be prudent to verify the veracity of what Klaus Seitz establishes: “development-related learning is, above all, social learning, takes place in the context of social interactions, requires permanent places of encounter and debate” (2008b, 57, own translation). Whether this is necessary and why some people make use of these places and others do not, why some commit to the topic and others turn away from it: these are questions that would have to be examined in more detail in follow-up research projects and the practical side of educational work.

4. Conclusion

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As laid out in the introduction, the objective of this research project was to demonstrate which impacts can potentially be achieved in development education and awareness raising, and which factors can influence these impacts. The aim was to record these factors within an empirically validated impact model.

The answer to this question was elaborated in the preceding chapter 3 from the perspective of the specific measure categories. In this process, the empirical results on impacts and impact correlations with regard to short-term learning events (chapter 3.1), school campaign work (chapter 3.2) and the training of multipliers (3.3) were each described in their own sub-chapter, and conclusions specific to each measure category drawn.

In this chapter, we shall now summarise these results once more, this time under the overall umbrella of development education and awareness raising as such, and shall subsequently provide suggestions for the continued discourse on impacts as well as for further research in this field.

4.1 Impact correlations in development education and awareness raising – summary of central results

4.1.1 Impacts of development education and awareness raising

As already discussed in chapter 3.0, in the course of our data analyses it became clear that the currently prevailing distinction between direct and indirect impacts that dominates this discourse helps only to a certain extent in the context of development education and awareness raising. Thus we moved away from this distinction and, drawing upon our analysis results, undertook a differentiation of the impacts observed by us into three different “orders”. We use this notion of “orders” to encompass the following three aspects:

- the diversity of the (cognitive, affective, operative and/or structural) level of penetration of individual and – particularly in the measure category “school-related campaign work” – collective/organisational learning,
- the differently paced consolidation of the impacts identified by us, as well as
- the varying frequency with which these impacts were able to be observed.

With this in mind, the impacts that we designated as *1st-order impacts* were those that, although they did display a rather low level of penetration, were, then again, consolidated relatively quickly and showed up comparatively frequently in our data. In the context of development education and awareness raising, these impacts can thus potentially be most easily achieved in the follow-up to an event and are therefore also most likely to be attributed to this event as an “impact.”

We summarised *2nd-order impacts* as changes of a medium level of penetration that, in comparison to the *1st-order impacts*, did not establish themselves quite so quickly. This process of consolidation proved to be increasingly more dependent on person/organisation-related or context-dependent influencing factors than was the case with the *1st-order impacts*. In addition, these impacts were no longer observed with quite such frequency in the field. Nevertheless, under certain circumstances (for more, see chapter 4.1.2 and 4.2), *2nd-order impacts* can also be achieved with a relatively high degree of success in the context of development education and awareness raising, albeit no longer with the same level of predictability as was the case with the *1st-order impacts*, according to our data.

Lastly, we defined *3rd-order impacts* as the changes to which, on the one hand, a high level of penetration can be attributed, but that – to an even greater extent than *2nd-order impacts* – seem to rely on person/organisation-related or context-dependent influencing factors and were thus observed considerably less frequently and less systematically. In development education and awareness raising, therefore, it is our view that this type of impact can hardly be expected as a direct consequence of a particular measure.

What does this systematisation now mean when applied to a) individual development learning and b) collective/organisational learning?

a) Individual learning

With a view to individual learning in the field of development education, our data showed that cognitive increases in knowledge, newly initiated or continued processes of reflection on global issues, as well as a change in the level of sensitivity towards development-related topics and problems were observed across all measure categories, whereby these changes occurred not just on isolated occasions, but frequently throughout the entire affected group. We have therefore summarised these changes as *1st-order impacts*. The same goes for experiences of self-efficacy, that is to say experiences where, in the scope of the particular measure, learners find out how to step in and take action as active protagonists and create change themselves.

Beyond this, in all of our case studies, we also detected changes in personal convictions, attitudes and orientations that served as (implicit) guidelines for action. These changes turned out – especially in light of their sustainability – to be a good deal more dependent on the initial learning situation and the contextual conditions than was the case for the 1st-order impacts observed by us. (Chapters 3.1 through 3.3 see us going into detail on the corresponding correlations with a specific focus on each of the examined measure categories.) With this in mind, we have summarised these impacts as 2nd-order impacts. A further factor that we also included as a 2nd-order impact (and also as a 3rd-order impact for the measure category of short-term learning events; cf. chapter 3.1) was a widespread effect. Although we did not systematically record spread effects as an impact in and of itself, it was very clearly present as a (didactically) *unplanned* impact in the scope of the qualitative data, and here in particular after dealing with consumer-oriented topics (especially in the form of recounting experiences in a circle of friends, in one's professional environment or amongst fellow students).

Alongside this, the realisation of respective *planned* widespread effects was also observed in all of the case studies we analysed (see here, for example, the widespread effect as a consequence of students getting involved as ambassadors in the context of the case study on school-related campaign work). What is more, in the scope of the case studies it was also possible to observe (and this observation coincides with numerous experiences of the consortium from other evaluations; see here for example Quiring, 2015) how reports were often made in the local media (newspaper, radio, sometimes also television) or on relevant websites about activities carried out in the projects (see here, for example, the press coverage on the examined campaign schools). At the same time, there are also hints of further developments on the horizon, in the vein of social media posts or even efforts to win over popular “influencers” in order to attain a respective widespread effect for the project topic. However, against the backdrop of our study, it is difficult to gauge just how much of a widespread effect these further developments actually have and upon which factors the reception of such posts depends. Here a need for corresponding research becomes apparent, which shall be described in more detail in 4.3.2.

In addition to all of these 2nd-order impacts, we were also able to trace changes at the level of actions taken – even in the follow-up to the short-term learning events as a form of event for which thus far few empirical results exist that expand on its potentially attainable impact. Considering the overall picture, however, these impacts were, for one, only visible on a case-by-case basis, and for another, they turned out to be yet again significantly more dependent on the contextual conditions in which the learner was embedded. Therefore we summarise these impacts as 3rd-order impacts.

Our data analyses therefore made it clear that each and every one of the measure categories investigated by us ultimately has the potential to change both thoughts and actions. Yet it also became clear that such far-reaching impacts, that is to say impacts with a strong level of penetration, were only produced in individual cases and contingent on very specific starting and contextual conditions. This may at first be disappointing. At the same time, however, we were able to demonstrate that learning about development-related topics in many cases occurs in the form of cumulative learning that (as was established in the cases where we had the opportunity to observe or retrace the learning processes) as a general rule does indeed appear to occur in accordance with the classification of 1st, 2nd and 3rd-order impacts. This observation is highly useful when it comes to thinking about integrating these measures at the time of planning the measures as well as at the time of analysing the impacts. We shall return to this topic once more in chapter 4.2.

b) Collective / organisational learning

What we observed to be 1st-order impacts were, above all, a (selective) examination of relevant topics of Global Learning/education for sustainable development (ESD) in individual subjects, one-off initiatives within schools, the invitation of external instructors as well as the purchasing of appropriate materials. In addition to this, several schools also implemented the integration of relevant topics in subject curricula, recurring initiatives within or outside of the school as well as the expansion and diversification of the circle of people responsible for Global Learning topics. We summarised these changes as 2nd-order impacts. In our observation, what we determined to be 3rd-order impacts were the integration of Global Learning/ESD into the school's profile, the modification of didactic guidelines, changes to the purchasing system as well as ongoing collaboration with extracurricular protagonists. If an initiative was carried out with figures in the local environment, this initiative had a certain broader impact in that area.

This classification also entails a kind of gradation that does not necessarily have to play out exactly this way, but which was frequently seen in our observations as well as in parallel investigations carried out on school development processes in the context of Global Learning/ESD (see, amongst others, Bergmüller et al, 2014; Bergmüller & Höck, 2017; Bergmüller, 2016 and for more in-depth information also Heinrich, 2010).

4.1.2 Influencing factors on impacts in the context of development education and awareness raising

When addressing the question of which factors influence the occurrence of the aforementioned impacts, our data analyses made it obvious that the occurrence of impacts in the field of development education and awareness raising is influenced by a diverse range of factors of very differing natures: to illustrate the situation, development education and awareness raising takes place in formal as well as non-formal educational contexts, is offered by people working full-time and part-time as well as voluntarily, is directed at a large spectrum of target groups and, against this backdrop, builds upon very different knowledge bases, attitudes and levels of competence. On the one hand, these factors are specifically linked to one another in the individual measure categories examined by us.

Yet on the other hand, it became apparent that, in the overarching context, these connections are so comparable that it was possible to operationalise them beyond these isolated observations in an impact model set up in parallel for each individual measure category. We explained the basic structure of these models in chapter 3.0, and then expanded upon the specific distinctions for each measure category in chapters 3.1 through 3.3. In this respect, here we shall concentrate on referring to the factors that have proven to be especially relevant both for individual as well as for collective/organisational learning in the field of development education and awareness raising. For this purpose, we shall differentiate between characteristics of the context and characteristics of the didactic setting.

a) Context: (educational) political legitimacy of development education and awareness raising

The first factor to be described here that influences the question of if, and if so which, impacts can be achieved by development education and awareness raising, is enconced in the systemic context. Our data made it clear that the generation of impacts in development education and awareness raising is heavily dependent upon the extent to which the examination of development-related issues is actually legitimised at the respective place of practice. This applies to both non-formal as well as – even more, in fact – formal educational contexts. As a result of the Agenda 2030 and the SDGs contained therein, by now there is a far-reaching, internationally valid frame of reference that is currently being translated into overall education policy guidelines at a national as well as regional level (see here, for example, the sustainability strategy of the German federal government and the corresponding strategies

for each federal state). Against the backdrop of our data, this can be viewed as an important milestone for the legitimisation of the work of NGOs in the field of development education and awareness raising, and as conducive to the offer provided by NGOs reaching a broader audience or in part receiving greater demand.

In our investigations, we were repeatedly reminded of the importance of such guidelines. This includes the ESD strategies of individual ministries of education and cultural affairs or (where known) the Curriculum Framework “Education for Sustainable Development”⁷⁹, of the Standing Conference of the German Ministers of Education and Culture (KMK) and the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) which is relevant for both teachers and instructors as much as for those who make decisions at the system level, such as regarding the management of educational institutes. At the same time, it must also be acknowledged that at the level of the schools themselves, these guidelines currently have only a limited level of penetration amongst teachers. It remains to be seen, therefore, how the ongoing SDG discourse especially will play out in the medium term.

b) Context: formal or non-formal?

In 2010, the Global Learning yearbook (see VENRO, 2010) read: “Global Learning’ will either succeed in our schools – or it will fail and will be unable to achieve any noteworthy broader impact” (ibid., 5, own translation). The increased interest in the context of schools i.e. the hope of being able to implement Global Learning/ESD to an even greater extent in this realm, which came about not least in the course of the publication of the Curriculum Framework “Education for Sustainable Development”, remains relevant today. Based on the statements of several interviewees, the number of projects that pertain to schools continues to rise. The results of our study illustrate the possibilities, but also the limits of an implementation of Global Learning/ESD in schools (for more on this, see chapter 3.2). At the same time, our data also showed the importance of extracurricular offers of development education and awareness raising in particular. With this in mind, it must first be pointed out here that both in-school and extracurricular measures have, comparative-

79 Schreiber, J.R., Siege, H. (editors), 2016 (2nd ed.): Curriculum Framework “Education for Sustainable Development”; Result of the joint project of the Standing Conference of the German Ministers of Education and Culture (KMK) and the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). Download after registration: <https://www.cornelsen.de/produkte/orientierungsrahmen-der-kultusministerkonferenz-curriculum-framework-education-for-sustainable-development-englische-fassung-download-9783062300639>

ly, equally great significance for the implementation of the goals of development education and awareness raising.

However, another fact that emerged from our data is that the question of how a measure is devised for and implemented in the formal or non-formal educational context has a considerable influence on what degree of content-related and didactic freedom exists when it comes to the designing and implementation of the measure, and what learning potential can be expected among the participants. Generally speaking, the elaboration of measures in the formal educational context is subject to both thematic as well as didactic specifications that are derived from curricular, time-related and organisational parameters of this context. By contrast, the non-formal context affords the NGOs considerably more thematic and didactic freedoms, although this does often mean that NGOs themselves are responsible for identifying points of connection for the offer – keeping in mind, for example, the highly differentiated field of youth work, this is not always an easy task. Furthermore, in the non-formal educational context, the element of voluntariness is a highly constituent factor for the potential participants. This goes hand in hand with the fact that the participants can often be expected to already bring a certain level of prior knowledge and interest as well as certain shared viewpoints, which in turn can have a positive dynamic on the target group as a whole, including a greater willingness to make an effort, as we were able to demonstrate for seminar weeks and multiplier training courses. Here there is a close overlapping with the significance of peers as pertains to the individual learning potential and the influence of the motivational and volitional determining factors that can be detected in all the examined measure categories.

c) Context: support from funding guidelines

As the last contextual factor to be described here, according to our data, the structuring of funding guidelines and funding possibilities also has a decisive influence on the occurrence of impacts: for all measure categories, the importance of these two aspects, and especially the provisions regarding the project duration and the scope of the offer, became evident. These specifications have a significant influence on the field of development education and awareness raising in Germany and thus on the work of the NGOs, since a large portion of the NGO resources comes from funding grants that have to be applied for regularly. The possibilities for several years of support by the relevant sponsors, which have been gradually expanded over the last few years, theoretically already provide the NGOs with the necessary flexibility to adjust to other rhythms of time, such as those that exist within the context of the school year. At the same time, the expectations with regard to “innovative” projects as well

as the desire to address “new target groups” on the one hand, and the stabilisation of impacts on the other, are contradictory and make it difficult for projects that aim for a longer-term institutional impact, and would thus have to apply every two years for what is supposedly “the same project” in order to structure their work in an accordingly sustainable manner.

d) Didactic setting: relevance to everyday life and realms of experiences

When we observe the configuration of the didactic setting and the mediation processes intended with this setting, in the course of our study it was demonstrated for all measure categories that learning provisions that are successful in establishing connections to the everyday life of the respective target group are able to offer points of departure for a further, independent engagement with the topic and can motivate individuals to take action of their own accord (see here, amongst other things, measures related to topics such as the textile and leather industry, crude oil, nutrition or health). This reference to everyday life, which, incidentally, VENRO (2012d) adopted in its quality criteria for development education, facilitates a stronger, not just cognitive but also emotional identification with the topic on the part of the learners. This is of major significance for learning processes in the context of development education and awareness raising.

In addition to this relevance to everyday life, what also proved to be an important factor for effective educational activity was, furthermore, the *didactically guided* creation of realms of experience in which participants are able to try out available options for action and potentially experience self-efficacy and involvement in more comprehensive, potentially also global contexts. We were able to retrace this particularly clearly using the example of development-related involvement in schools. This commitment, which goes beyond the mere activities of learning in school lessons, can take on various forms: with a partly selective character or in the form of structural integration in the corresponding educational institute. In addition, action can also be *self-initiated*, and was again observed as such in varying forms (e.g. as activities in the context of Fair Trade, as political stances in discussions, letters or demonstrations, or as participation in externally organised events).

This kind of context for experimentation, however, requires corresponding consistency between the organisational conditions of the NGO on the one hand, and the cooperation partners i.e. cooperating (further) education institutes on the other.

e) *Didactic setting: authenticity of teachers*

The importance of sufficient qualification on the part of the instructors or teachers has already been documented elsewhere when it comes to development education and awareness raising (see, for example, De Nobile, Kleemann & Zarkos, 2014 with reference to Donnelly, Bradberry, Brown, Ferguson-Patrick, Macqueen & Reynolds, 2013). In the field, this qualification is frequently equated to the instructors originating from a country in the Global South and/or having personal/professional experiences in the area of development cooperation. Moreover, in more recent times, the importance of instructors with a migration background or refugee experiences has also been a topic of intensive discussion for this field, and was consequently reflected in a corresponding research question for this study. Without a doubt, these experiences represent an important component of authenticity and are for example, as the biographical investigations suggest, also highly relevant for the decision to be professionally active in development education and awareness raising. However, alongside authenticity, general character traits and professional competences also play an important role when it comes to qualifying for the position of instructor. In this context, the translation of these qualities to the mediation process has thus far largely been ignored in the debate surrounding authenticity. To this end, it is crucial that the instructors apply their background of experience in a reflective manner that is adapted to the respective target group, and that instructors who have not been trained receive corresponding didactic framing in the form of, for example, appropriately moderating co-instructors. This conclusion was drawn not just from relevant observations in several events in one of the measure categories, but also from three larger studies carried out by consortium members on the use of instructors in development education which, especially in events for younger students, confirm Kübler's assessment (in BER e.V., EWNW e.V., EPN Hessen e.V. & ENS e.V., 2009³): *"Time and again, a pleasant project day takes place, African fairy tales and games and drumming, always drumming"* (ibid., 44f., own translation). In recent years, the problematic nature of this kind of approach has been the subject of much discussion (see, among others, Asbrand, 2009; Scheunpflug, 2013; Krogull, 2013).

f) *Didactic setting: continuity of the availability of instructors*

Alongside the authenticity of instructors, we also want to shift the focus to a further challenge that, in the course of our study, proved to be an influencing factor on impacts in development education and awareness raising: we are talking about the often very temporary employment contracts and low wage levels in NGOs, which frequently represent a risk factor for the continuous

implementation of development education and awareness raising. In addition to the problem of self-exploitation and the corresponding consequences for those affected, here it is also worth pointing out the contradiction that on the one hand, continuity and reliability are needed in education processes, in particular where schools are concerned, but on the other hand, precisely these conditions are often lacking due to limited contracts and part-time employment. The result is a problematic fluctuation in the field (for example, in one case study the position for development education was re-staffed three times within the space of one year) that, among other things, also undermines the development of organisational knowledge, such that it is not uncommon for “the wheel to constantly be reinvented” within projects. Here, there is a need for surveys in order to obtain sound figures, and furthermore, the current funding practice also must be accordingly called into question.

4.2 Ideas for the continuing discourse in the field of development education and awareness raising

Against the backdrop of the preceding explanations, we would now like to address several central aspects that we deem worthy of consideration for the continuation of the discourse surrounding 1) the impact-oriented planning of measures and 2) the analysis of impacts, thus inviting the reader to more extensively examine the results of this research project.

4.2.1 Ideas with regard to the impact-oriented planning of measures

One considerable challenge faced by impact-oriented planning in development education and awareness raising is the establishing of a realistic and coherent relationship between the measure itself and the impacts to be achieved with this measure. For this planning work, the following aspects seem to us to be of importance:

a) Refinement of impact formulations

With a view to the realisation of impact-oriented planning, given the results of the study we suggest considering an increased refinement of impact formulations. The empirical results show that the impacts that we have primarily summarised as 1st-order impacts are usually crucial prerequisites for ensuring that impacts of subsequent varying intensity occur. Based on our experience, such connections often tend to be accounted for only superficially or in

a more implicit way in project planning processes. In this sense, we make the case for clearly emphasising which impacts are desired, where in the impact model these are anchored, how and with whom these are to be achieved and where the limits lie when designing projects (see here, for example, the significance of the systemic contextual conditions and the limitations of internal resources). This makes it clear what the school's or institute's own part in this learning process should be, and how the impacts targeted with their specific measure are related to the objectives generally pursued by development education and awareness raising. The starting point, therefore, should not be to actually achieve 3rd-order impacts, but rather to optimally pave the way for the probability that 3rd-order impacts are able to unfold. Incidentally, a perspective such as this could be directly carried over to impact analyses, whose results could then also be used for the further development of projects (for more on this, see chapter 4.2.2).

b) Unburdening of impact demands

In parallel to the refinement of impact formulations, an unburdening of overly ambitious demands made of impacts would also need to take place. The empirical results show that against all normative expectations for development and education policy, there is no direct rationale by which knowledge penetrates through to action, but rather quite the opposite: impacts especially at the level of action are heavily dependent on factors upon which the NGOs have little to no influence. What is more, it also became clear that changes in thoughts and actions are processes that, in the overall picture, tend to solidify over the longer term, and as a rule are also nourished by several impulses rather than just one education or information event (although we were able to demonstrate that in individual cases, such impacts can certainly occur as the immediate consequence of an event). In this respect, we are of the opinion that here it would make sense to explicitly and consistently unburden measures from the demand of aiming to achieve 3rd-order impacts as an *immediate* (!) objective of one's own pedagogic actions. Consequently, measures should also be justified and financed even if they only strive to accomplish 1st or 2nd-order impacts.

Incidentally, a further challenge is also involved here, one that has existed for some time now and that, in our opinion, has not yet been sufficiently dealt with. This challenge seems to have become even more significant due to the most recent development and education policy publications in the wake of the SDGs: the question of the attitude towards human beings and here in particular the aspect of the "autonomy" of the learners, which is implicitly or explicitly represented in the field. Due to the distinctive theory of education-

al tradition, this may potentially be a specifically German perspective. However, we also find corresponding references in the international discourse on Global Learning. Within the scope of the present operationalisation of the political discourse in pedagogic practice, the learners as autonomous subjects and their right to form their own judgement are being somewhat overlooked. This formation of judgement and *possible* associated changes in attitudes and potentially also actions require time. Development education offers do not necessarily have to lead to immediate implementation in the form of direct action. It is also possible that the learning process takes a long time, remains at the stage of awareness raising, is prematurely interrupted, or also that the assessment does not follow the desired normative direction. From our point of view, one important task of development education therefore consists in teaching tolerance for ambiguity: this is about learning to endure complexity, injustice and uncertainty. These learning processes can also lead to frustration and rejection. This is why both NGOs as well as funding institutions should play an equal part in facilitating teaching and learning processes with a more open-ended attitude without fixed expectations. We will not delve any deeper into the conception/idea of humans within approaches of development education in this paper. However, we do want to encourage a (further) reflection on this topic in light of the results from our study, for we see in this issue a very close connection to a further important question: the question of by *what* the quality of the development education and awareness raising carried out here should be determined on a very *fundamental* level.

c) *The search for suitable resonance spaces*

If we work with the assumption that the dissemination of Global Learning/ESD is desirable and worth working towards, but that it (still) occurs very little in school and extracurricular educational contexts and is often not systematically embedded, the question arises of why this is the case, and why it is not being spread (on a large scale) despite the fact that it has clear impacts and is met with positive resonance.

Official access, e.g. via schools, is difficult. This comes down not only to the large number of materials that reach schools and the “bottleneck” secretariat, but also to causes within schools: the school profile, competing subjects that also require attention, as well as the predisposition of the teachers: almost exclusively, only those teachers who already have a certain level of developmental sensitisation show closer interest in offers by NGOs active in the developmental field.

Thus we are presented with the question of how more teachers and people responsible for education can be convinced to commit to development education.

With this in mind, for NGOs and funding institutions alike, we suggest seeking strategies as to how they can continue to expand the resonance space, which is defined by institutions, groups of people and fields of work in which development-related topics are met with interest and cooperation. By doing so, beyond the verification of effectiveness, more general strategies for reinforcing Global Learning could be developed and its impact also monitored at the macro level. Thus far, the nature of resonance spaces as a vital impact factor has barely been examined. This means that the corresponding reflection is not carried out with the necessary intensity and is not sufficiently coordinated between protagonists.

The entire sector – funding institutions as well as all those implementing the work – could have a greater impact in their planning, realisation and impact assessment if they were more conscious of what the respective resonance space looks like. Based on this consideration, decisions can be made as to whether energy should be channelled into advantageous or less advantageous resonance spaces, with appropriately adapted strategies. Advantageous resonance spaces would be, above all, groups of people and institutions that are already sensitised towards development education and can continue to pass on the torch. It can be just as important to tap into new resonance spaces. Methods for better evaluating the nature of the resonance spaces are, at the level of the NGOs, for example, actor mapping, and at the level of the political decision-makers, further investigations, such as a representative survey on the orientation of teachers towards Global Learning/ESD. In chapter 4.3 we make several suggestions as to what research contribution could help further this matter.

d) Balance of the ratio between school and extracurricular learning contexts

The scene of development education and awareness raising in and of itself could be further developed such that the facets of school and extracurricular education are explicitly interwoven to a much greater extent than they have been so far. To this end, valuable suggestions could be offered by considerations from the German Research Foundation project “Education as a landscape”, in which a closer look is taken at these two areas, among others (for more see Scheunpflug & Welser, 2017). The research on the measure categories in this study shows similar findings: the results do not suggest that any one measure category has overriding importance. All play their specific part, as depicted in chapters 3.1 through 3.3, in realising the objectives of the de-

velopment education and awareness raising and supplementing each other in a meaningful way. Moreover, the many years of evaluation experience on the part of the consortium members as well as the results from the biographical interviews in chapter 3.4 suggest that measure categories that could not be investigated in the scope of the study due to a lack of suitable case studies represent similarly complementary components and could provide accordingly complementary contributions.

4.2.2 Ideas with regard to the analysis of impacts

In many discussions on impact analysis that have taken place in the field in past years, it was often the case that the question of suitable methods of data survey and evaluation was immediately brought to the forefront. By contrast, preceding aspects, the consideration of which – in our view – is also important, such as the clarification of the subject of investigation, the clarification of access to any sources of information and the options of data collection offered by projects based on their settings, as well as the estimation of the expenditure arising for NGOs when carrying out evaluations, was often assigned subordinate importance or not reflected upon at all. At this point, therefore, we want to take the opportunity to more fundamentally emphasise correlations that we consider to be of pivotal importance for impact analyses in development education.

a) The question of the research interest

Evaluations often aim to generate information that serves the further development of a specific measure. But exactly what information is required for this purpose? And what is thus the research interest of an evaluation as regards content? It may not come as much of a surprise that impact orientation, which has been proclaimed by development policy work in Germany for several years now, has also become a steady fixture in the evaluation practice of development education and awareness raising. Consequently, the question of the extent to which intended impacts were able to be achieved seems to have edged out the matters of the quality of planning as well as the implementation of the concept according to the plan (i.e. planning and implementation evaluations). This is why at this stage we would like to once again expressly provide a reminder that evaluations do not necessarily always have to be devoted to assessing the *impacts*. It can frequently be just as worthwhile for quality development goals to address the areas that in the impact models, for example, are represented at the provision or utilisation level. This would present just as

much of an opportunity for strategic, methodical and/or content-related advancements. If the focus on impacts were to be somewhat reduced and one were to concentrate, for example, less on the qualification of the protagonists when it comes to impact indicators, this may potentially create more scope for strategy and quality development processes. In line with this, in international cooperation, engagement with strategic concepts such as Capacity WORKS (GIZ [Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit], 2009; 2014) or the More People/Key People concept (Anderson & Olsen, 2003) illustrated perspectives that led to a further development of the offers, and thus provided an alternative to the exclusive engagement with impacts.

b) The potential of a constructivist understanding of learning for impact analyses

The current impact analyses focus above all on “positive” impacts, which are operationalised as verifiable indicators in the scope of project applications. According to this, the rejection of options for action (for example, a person may have found out a lot about Fair Trade, but decides not to purchase fairly traded products despite this knowledge), which can equally be the result of an intensive process of confrontation and learning, is interpreted as a ‘negative result’. Does this represent a failure on the part of the pedagogic work? We believe not and would like to encourage a rethinking of the standards by which success in development education and awareness raising is defined, as well as greater reflection on the respective understanding of learning: here, after all, in contrast to a behaviourist understanding of learning, a constructivist understanding of learning offers the chance to classify a correspondingly controversial decision – and thereby behaviour that is deliberately not shown – as a positive learning result nonetheless.

c) Focusing on 1st-order impacts

With a view to realising a valid analysis of impacts, we would like to suggest concentrating especially on surveying 1st-order impacts. The study made it clear that 1st-order impacts are comparatively easy to prove methodically, whilst finding evidence for 2nd and 3rd-order impacts is a considerably greater challenge in terms of methodology. This is true even if these impacts manifest themselves while the project is still ongoing. In our opinion, therefore, only a limited focus should be placed on finding evidence of such impacts, in particular for project evaluations carried out by those who are practically involved themselves. We advocate that as a general rule, for example when compiling a report for a funding institution, NGOs should be relieved of the obligation of having to prove the intended 2nd and 3rd-order impacts on the

basis of indicators. Instead, observation-based evidence should suffice. At the same time, we believe opportunities should be created that allow NGOs to externally commission the laborious identification of 2nd and 3rd-order impacts, depending on need and size of the project.

As it happens, this argument is not just methodically motivated. At present, the current development and education policy discourse surrounding impacts is heavily oriented towards the *actions* of individuals and organisations. This works on the basis of the assumption that learning impulses can more or less directly influence behaviour. At first, this technological concept of education appears functional and practical for planning, since it enables an according reduction of the complexity of the learning process. This implies, however, a predominantly behaviouristic understanding of learning, suppressing the fact that what a person learns under certain conditions is highly dependent on the participant i.e. learner themselves and his or her previous experiences, values, patterns of interpretation, convictions as well as interest in use for the knowledge. Against this backdrop – and our impact models support this – we advocate a constructivist concept of learning, which assumes that knowledge does not exist independently of the learner and therefore cannot ‘simply’ be transferred to him or her, but rather that knowledge is dynamically generated by the learner individually and can thus have very different results.

d) Realising a prompt analysis

When it comes to surveying intended impacts for which indicators are developed, it is recommended to push for a prompt *analysis* of the data collected in the course of the project, for only in this way is it possible to verify whether, first of all, the path taken by the NGO is the appropriate one, and also at which points adaptations seem advisable. Secondly, this would mean that indicators serve not just to create summative reports, but also to formatively steer the project.

e) Dealing with unpredictability and limitations

As a rule, the point in time at which (and if at all) impacts occur cannot be predetermined. There is a big difference between measurable impacts and occurred impacts. If an impact is not measured, it can still have occurred or can still occur later, as was particularly clearly demonstrated in this study by the fact that, for example, short-term learning events were assigned great importance in the biographical interviews, while in the case studies it proved exceptionally difficult to ascertain these kinds of medium and long-term impacts. Generally, the verification of impacts in the scope of reporting to funding institutions only extends to the relatively short term during which the project is

funded. For practice-based evaluations that concentrate on measuring the impacts, several factors (including the capacities of the evaluation and the evaluators, the access to the information carriers, the problem of attributability) are responsible for determining whether proof of impacts is successful. This is why it should be pointed out that a comprehensive context analysis in the run-up to an evaluation, which depicts the entire setting in which the project is embedded, bears great significance. Only after such clarification can meaningful decisions be made with regard to a practice-based evaluation.

4.3 The need for further research

In line with the guiding questions set out in chapter 1.3 of the research project, this study focuses on the analysis of potential impacts of development education and awareness raising and identifies potential features that can promote these impacts. When analysing and classifying our data, we came across the need for further research in the process, to which reference has already been made in chapter 3. As we draw to a conclusion, we would like to once more map out an overview of this need against the background of the scope of application of our study.

4.3.1 Scope of the study

The study focused on the development education and awareness raising in both the school as well as the extracurricular context in Germany. In the field of campaign work, it concentrated mainly on the education and information-related campaign work in the school context. To ensure that the study can be meaningful for different areas of development education and awareness raising, we determined characteristic “measure categories” for the field, whereby these categories were compared against 24 case studies that had been submitted following a nationwide call for such case studies. From these 24 case studies, eight case studies were selected in cooperation with the steering group; these served as the object of research, whereby for each of the following measure categories, two case studies were allocated: (1) learning events of limited duration (2) school-related campaign work and (3) multiplier training courses. With regard to target group, duration, the level of organisational integration, resources and didactic approaches, the case studies were highly heterogeneous, meaning that at many points, the methodical design had to be adapted to the respective circumstances in the case studies in a very individual manner. In addition, it was necessary to proceed with a certain degree of

contextual sensitivity, given that the temporal and organisational challenges associated with the study had to stay within a framework that was compatible with the respective project.

By customising the study, the consortium responsible for the research project does not claim to provide a comprehensive stocktaking of the effectiveness of development education and awareness raising. Rather, the focus of the study is on using the analysis of selected case studies on the one hand, and with recourse to a desk study on relevant research activities on the other, to demonstrate starting points aimed at facilitating the impact-oriented planning, evaluation and reflection of measures.

4.3.2 Potential points of reference for further research

a) Continued work on the models

We view the impact models developed in the scope of the study as dynamic models. The field of development education and awareness raising is so heterogeneous that we do not claim to have discovered every impact correlation within the eight case studies we observed; hence our invitation, at this point, for both practitioners as well as academics to continue working on these models against the backdrop of their own empirical research, and to continue to further develop the models.

b) Calculation of effect sizes

The focus of this study was to come up with an impact model for the field of development education and awareness raising, and to outline as comprehensive an image as possible of the impact correlations present in this context. Due to the strong heterogeneity of the starting situation and contextual conditions in the development education and awareness raising as well as the associated high complexity of the correlations to be described, in the context of this study it was not an option to survey effect sizes for the impact correlations described in the models. We concentrated on analysing whether certain correlations exist, but not on analysing how strong the effects present within these correlations are. At the same time, we do certainly see a need for further research in this area. For example, against the backdrop of our data, in terms of the training of multipliers it could be interesting to delve further into the strength of the connection that becomes apparent here between content-related and didactic interest for various target groups or various institutional connections. We shall expand upon this more below. Similarly, it could also be interesting to analyse what influence the knowledge of the Curriculum Frame-

work “Education for Sustainable Development” has on the implementation of Global Learning/ESD contents in lessons.

Furthermore, social differences could also be examined here: are the socially disadvantaged and groups with less access to education also reached, and do weaker students indeed use – as is hinted at in individual cases – precisely those forms of action that require greater engagement?

c) Consequences of political guidelines in practice

As a result of the adoption of the SDGs and the development of political guidelines and recommendations at both the national and federal state level that was subsequently sparked, the political framework of legitimation seems, in part, to have been considerably expanded both for NGOs as well as for (further) education institutes. For example, in very different initiatives, it is possible to observe profiling and strategy development processes, which are currently not yet undergoing systematic analysis, in both the formal and non-formal context. We view this as a further area of potential research. In our point of view, for one, it could be interesting to carry out an actor analysis that aims to systematically record the points at which pivotal stakeholder groups in the educational scene (such as early childhood education, schools, higher education, cultural youth education, training institutes, churches etc.) consciously insert themselves into the context of the SDGs and make ESD, Global Learning, Global Citizenship Education or similar programmes into a strategic focal topic. Potentially, it may also be possible to derive recommendations from this as to how development policy and education policy can work together to further prepare the path pursued by the SDGs.

d) Cooperation of NGOs and educational institutes

The measure category of “school-related campaign work” made it clear that in two federal states, the matter of campaigns receives considerable structural and financial support from the government, not least against the backdrop of the question of how engagement with the SDGs can be made attractive for schools. In the scope of the study, it was not possible to go into a more detailed investigation of the question of how the cooperation between NGOs, higher-ranking state institutions, educational institutes and further actors can be set up in such a way that it is as beneficial as possible, or what significance (continual) financial funding has in this area. Especially with a view to the intensification of cooperative efforts between several stakeholders as intended by the SDGs (multi-stakeholder partnerships/MSPs), it would need to be sounded out what the nature of such cooperative efforts in the development *education area* would have to look like. At this point, the research work carried out

by Bergmüller (2015) and Bludau (2016) on the cooperation between schools and NGOs could do with a significant expansion.

e) Further research on resonance spaces

In section 4.2, it was suggested that NGOs and funding institutes should examine how they can expand resonance spaces, that is to say institutions, groups of people and fields of work in which development-related topics are taken up and addressed. As already described previously, this type of resonance depends partly on people and partly on institutions. To be able to better judge the quality of the resonance spaces from an institutional point of view, both NGOs as well as funding institutions and political decision-makers can start by carrying out analyses: for NGOs, for example, it can make sense (in cooperation and, where necessary, by external commission) to implement stakeholder mappings and analyses in order to find out where and under what conditions which institutions are more open-minded, and where there is potential to broaden resonance spaces. And funding bodies can also provide support here, in the form of larger studies. We shall outline the potential need for research with regard to the personal resonance for individuals in the following section.

f) Generation of interest in developmental topics

With respect to the question of how interest in development-related topics is generated amongst children, young people and (young) adults as target groups of development education and awareness raising, i.e. how (personal) resonance is created, the study has already successfully demonstrated several connections. These could be further enriched in the scope of more in-depth analyses, especially given the fact that – particularly in the extracurricular field – we were predominantly dealing with stakeholders who were already situated within an offer of development education and awareness raising. In this respect, it would also be interesting to investigate the points at which certain (groups of) people actually allow themselves to be approached with offers of development education and awareness raising in the first place.

The same goes for the generation of interest amongst people with pedagogic responsibility in both the school as well as the extracurricular domain. This is another realm where there is still a need for more research. At this point, we refer to a dissertation by Taube⁸⁰ that is currently being elaborated, which deals with the analysis of the orientations that serve as guidelines for

80 For a description of the dissertation project, see <https://www.uni-bamberg.de/en/bagss/members/doctoral-and-postdoctoral-members/doctoral-members/dorothea-taube/> [10.09.2020]

actions of teachers who implement Global Learning in the classroom. Here, it may also be interesting to carry out a comparative study asking what the development-related orientations look like for teachers who are *not* interested in implementing Global Learning/ESD in their lessons. Furthermore, such contrasts often also illustrate valuable hints when it comes to the conceptual design of relevant offers.

g) The potential of incentives for experimentation

A further area to which we would like to draw attention and where we see a need for more research is the more detailed analysis of the didactic mediation process, in the course of which NGOs increasingly integrate incentives for experimentation as a didactic element. As we were able to demonstrate for all measure categories, these incentives for experimentation play a major role for the subsequent learning process. However, as to the exact effect of these incentives for experimentation and how they can be structured in detail in order to correspondingly increase the potential of every single measure category, there is to date an insufficient database to do so.

h) The voluntary nature of participation as an impact factor

Both for the measure category of “learning events of limited duration, project/seminar days and weeks” as well as for the category of “multiplier training”, we were able to illustrate the importance of voluntary participation in non-formal settings of developmental education. Picking up at this point, and in reference to the publications by Dux and Sass (2007), in our view it would provide a revealing insight if one were to further investigate this potential and examine the extent to which voluntary participation forms the foundation of 3rd-order impacts, i.e. changes at the level of action and engagement.

i) Continuation of biographical analyses

In the context of this study, the biographical survey (see chapter 3.4) provided us with indications as to how a very specific group of people came to be involved with development policy work as their full-time job. However, in order to make these results more generally applicable, a larger, more representative number of people would have to be surveyed. Nonetheless, these results could not simply be transferred to people who are engaged in a different way, i.e. people for whom other 3rd-order impacts have materialised. In this instance, the following additional questions arise (amongst others):

How, for example, do people get to the point of

- buying fairly traded products (e.g. from a supermarket shelf)?
- shopping in Fair Trade shops?
- getting involved in action groups?
- going to public (short-term) events, exhibitions, films?
- taking part in publicly organised project weeks or seminars?

The items from the biographical interview have proven to be effective for this type of survey, and require only minor changes for use in a study. Further studies could be made use of to inquire about additional factors in a similar manner, such as: how important was the encounter with people (teachers, youth leaders, returnees, etc.) who convinced you? What was particularly touching or memorable about these new insights: personal identification, knowledge of correlations, horror at suffering, or horror at injustice?

Here it would also be worth investigating whether, as the results of the small sample in chapter 3.4 suggest, encounters with people who come from the Global South and live in the north indeed have only a relatively small influence on the formation of awareness of and involvement in development policy.

k) One final suggestion

As our explanations have shown, there is still a considerable need for research in the context of documenting impacts, which could and should be taken up both in the scope of evaluation research projects as well as in the form of fundamental research, in order to continue advancing the field of development education and awareness raising. With this in mind, it may potentially also be worth considering expanding the funding for research in this field.

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