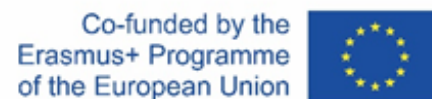


THE TEXTBOOK

Social Farming in Higher Education

Teaching and learning material for
university level courses





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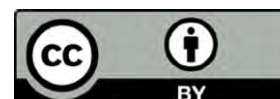
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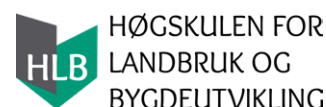
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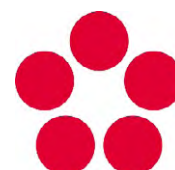
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INTRODUCTION

This publication was prepared in the frame of the ERASMUS+ project Social Farming in Higher Education (SoFarEDU) as an example of educational material in the field of social farming. It should serve as an educational material to the students of relevant study programmes and to their teachers as a tool and inspiration for the creation of their own materials.

Social farming is an innovative form of agriculture which is built on historical agricultural principles and functions. The concept of social farming has been significantly evolving and changing shape in Europe during the last decades. We can see differences between individual countries resulting from the specifics of their historical development, and subsequently from the present state of agriculture and social sphere. There are several definitions of social farming and approaches that are incorporated into or overlapping it. The group of authors of this publication within the ERASMUS+ Social Farming in Higher Education programme defines social farming on the basis of a modified definition created in the statement by the European Economic and Social Committee in 2012 (EESC Opinion: Social farming, 2012¹) as follows:

Social farming adopts a multifunctional view of agriculture that combines farming with social services/health care at the local level. It can help to improve social and environmental awareness, in accordance with social and solidarity principles. Even though social farming comprises a very wide range of activities, they always have two elements in common: a) the activities take place on a farm or market garden and b) they are designed for people who –either temporarily or permanently– have specific needs, including educational needs. [...] Social farming could thus be provisionally defined as a cluster of activities that use agricultural resources –both animal and plant– to generate social services in rural or semi-rural areas, such as rehabilitation, therapy, sheltered jobs, lifelong learning and other activities contributing to social integration.[...] In this sense, it is about –among other things– making farms places where people with particular needs can take part in daily farming routines as a way of maintaining their state/condition or furthering their development, making progress and improving their well-being.

However, people had been fulfilling the elements of social farming during agricultural activities long before the origin of the term and its definitions. Historically, agriculture often served as an industry that could employ people with different forms of disabilities and an agriculture farm served as a place that engaged all the people living there in different types of activities according to their possibilities and skills. With the intensification of agriculture, this approach started to fade away and it disappeared almost completely in several countries. This is why, as mentioned at the beginning of the text, we develop social farming on historical principles and functions of agriculture.

The issue of social farming itself is very broad and includes a mixture of a lot of different fields. Agriculture and social work are also very complex activities which include a variety of subdisciplines. Their combination which creates a unique unit of social farming considerably extends the range of topics that can potentially be solved.

This is the reason why there are so many different approaches to education in social farming. The publication chooses several topics with broader continuity and uses them to create an example of a complex textbook on social farming. The main reason for its origin is to practically demonstrate the topics of social farming preparation while using tools that were created within the SoFarEDU programme, and the demonstration of their adaptation to the higher education needs.

The choice of topics that are dealt with in this publication represents just a little part of the complex themes of social farming. The chapters were elaborated with the use of tools created within the ERASMUS+ project Social Farming in Higher Education and they serve as a demonstration of a possible way of creating educational material concerning the topic. An important tool for the development of the chapters was the Abstract Book with 70 relevant themes, presented on the webpages of the SoFarEDU project (<https://sofaredu.eu/>). Other abstracts and fully elaborated chapters, units, lectures or whole books, courses and programmes that deal with particular fields of social farming or social farming as a whole can be created using standards for education in social farming, and as a curriculum and a handbook for educators on the basis of these standards. The chapters represent one of many forms and they are quite alike in the concept and range due to the functionality of the publication as a whole. They serve as an inspiration for other users of the SoFarEDU publications and at the same time reveal the subject diversity of social farming. These newly emerging materials can differ in the level to which they elaborate upon concrete issues and also in the extent of the text or in their focus.

There is still a lack of educational materials for social farming in many countries and in existing cases some partial issues are not covered. We believe that the SoFarEDU programme outputs will contribute to the change of this status, and that given tools and examples will lead to the creation of a wide range of high-quality materials that can contribute to the evolution of social farming issues.

¹ <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/en/our-work/opinions-information-reports/opinions/eesc-opinion-social-farming>.

SECTION 1

BENEFITS OF NATURE FOR HUMAN WELL-BEING

Birgit Steininger



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Time requirement: 8 hours

Place: Classroom

Tools and materials: projector, flip chart, markers, cards

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

Students have the capacity to integrate knowledge and to analyse, evaluate and manage the different public health aspects of green environments at local and global levels.

Students have the capacity to describe, analyse and evaluate the environmental, social, health and economic aspects by the access to green environment.

Students have the capacity to obtain, analyse, and communicate information on the benefits of green environments for human wellbeing and are able to clearly present and discuss their conclusions knowledge and arguments.

Students have the capacity to analyse and evaluate research work in the field of public health and to demonstrate insight into the potential and limitations of science, its role in society and people's responsibility for its use.

ABSTRACT

Human beings are part of natural ecosystems and depend on them for their survival. In a rapidly changing environment and with increasing urbanization, this dependence is challenging. Natural environments affect human health and well-being both directly and indirectly. Urban green and blue areas provide opportunities for stress recovery and physical activity. They offer spaces for social interactions in the neighbourhood and places for children's play. Chronic stress, physical inactivity, and lack of social cohesion are three major risk factors for noncommunicable diseases, and therefore, access to nature is an important asset for health promotion. The evidence around the effects of natural environments on health and well-being is steadily increasing. Contact with nature is important for immune-system development and sensory exposure, which has direct neurobiological impact supporting cognitive development and stress resilience. Social Farms offer people who are socially, physically, mentally or intellectually disadvantaged the opportunity to spend time in nature in a healthy, supportive and inclusive environment.

KEYWORDS

Nature, human health, well-being, social, care, recreation, social farming

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In the imagination of humans, Paradise is a garden, and since the expulsion of humans from it, everyone is looking for his personal garden of Eden. Gardens touch us, they bring hope and memories and they fulfil our most basic needs. Every bit of green and nature - no matter how big or small - has the potential to be used therapeutically and socially, contributing to the well-being of the individual.

Nature and gardens as secure places, the enjoyment of the beauty of the plants, but above all as a production plant for herbs, fruit and vegetables, is closely linked to many disciplines such as religion, arts, philosophy and social sciences. The design and use of gardens reflect on the evolution of different cultures. Gardens were also important symbols within different religions. Records of healing plants can be found in scriptures from China of the 4th millennium BC. Gardens have been proven to exist in the Sumerians around 3000 BC, and later in the great ancient civilizations, such as the Greeks and Egyptians. Gardens of the Eastern civilizations are rich in their design elements. Even today, for example, you can experience the garden in the Moorish Alhambra in Granada / Spain with all its diverse sensory impressions - colours, scents, and ripples of the water.

Roman gardens were the first in the Central European cultural area, where plants were not only cultivated for food and medicine, but also flowering and fragrant plants were planted to delight visitors. The concept of the garden in Europe is

closely related to the "hortus conclusus", the medieval walled garden. Originally, gardens in monasteries served the purpose to feed the monks. Symbolic ornamental plants, such as the red rose as a sign of the blood of Christ or the Madonna lily for the Virgin Mary, gained importance. At that time, the words "vita contemplativa" and "vita activa" (contemplative and active life) were transferred to the time spent in the garden. Being active in nature and enjoying nature with all senses, provides well-being until today. Gardens and nature have become more and more popular within the media. Large daily newspapers and magazines report regularly on magnificent gardens and give instructions on gardening. Shared garden spaces in cities, as well as allotment gardens, have become a new trend connecting social activities and healthy food production. Social farms can be places to find a connection to nature as well as a source of local food production. Social Farms provide a *green work environment* with the following benefits: provision of being outside, spacious and quiet environment.

1.2 THEORY

Most of the work on health and well-being in green spaces is based on two common psycho-evolutionary theories. These are Ulrich's Stress Reduction Theory (Ulrich, 1983) and the Attention Restoration Theory (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1998, Kaplan, 1995). Another theory is the concept of biophilia (Wilson, 1984, Kellert & Wilson, 1995). It describes a human tendency to seek contact with nature and natural elements and to feel at ease in nature. People, who reject nature, are called biophobic. Through a fascinating activity in the garden in which one reaches the so-called flow, experience is triggered. Flow performs various pleasurable activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1985).

The Stress Reduction Theory focuses on the positive affective response of humans to nature. Special features of nature favour a positive reaction of body and mind. Relaxing elements of the landscape are e.g. visible horizons, vegetation, water, an attractive surface design and the absence of dangers.

Attention Theory focuses on the process of recovering limited available mental resources. Relaxing landscapes favour their restoration. Central is the distance away from everyday life (being away), the triggered fascination (fascination), a feeling of freedom and connectedness (sense of extent and connectedness) as well as the fit with one's own needs (compatibility). The attachment to nature as a human trait favours the acceptance of the valuable benefits provided by nature.

To prove a causal effect of the green spaces, researchers have tested the "vitamin G" in numerous experiments. In 2008, the team of the psychologist Stephen Kaplan from the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor sent 40 participants for a one-hour walk - either in the busy city centre or in the botanical garden. The researchers used a navigation device to prove that the participants walked the predetermined route. Before and after the walk the participants completed various psychological tests. In fact, the park visitors were not only in a better mood after the walk, they were also much better focused. Noted in a memory test, they reached an average of one and a half points more, while the city walkers improved just around 0.5 points. The weather conditions played no role, as the researchers repeated the tests at different seasons. Kaplan sees this as proof of his Attention Restoration Theory: Gentle stimuli from green environments promote recovery. According to this model, there are two forms of Attention: Arbitrary attention is essential if tasks are more difficult, for example, when one gets distracted at work or makes a tricky decision. That requires effort and causes fatigue. Involuntary attention, on the other hand, comes easy. It is needed while playing a game, one is fascinated by something and can hardly stop doing something. According to Kaplan (1995) to charge batteries for the arbitrary attention one should either sleep or roam through green environments. There are numerous "gentle stimuli" like the rustling of foliage or a bird's song that allow brains to recover. Overstimulation by traffic noise and flashing neon lights tires people; the prefrontal Cortex - control centre of attention - is then overwhelmed, and self-control declines.

Nature-loving people seek nature, feel well in nature and behave healthier and more environmentally aware than people not connected to nature (Mayer & Frantz, 2004). In general, the considerations on health and well-being-promoting aspects of nature are characterized by a saluto-genetic approach. This is a bio-psycho-social model; the promotion of health is central. A pathogenetic approach, on the contrary, is predominant in discussing harmful effects and illness.

The concept of therapeutic landscapes was developed to describe the healing effects of landscapes on the body and mind (Gesler, 2003). The guidelines for the design of healthy gardens are based on garden architecture (Marcus & Barnes, 1999, Grahn & Stigsdotter, 2003). The nature-based and landscaping theories and concepts are supported by action-oriented theories. These describe basic assumptions regarding the implementation and effectiveness of educational, social and (psycho) therapeutic interventions. In order to pinpoint measures in gardens, detailed knowledge of the different mechanisms of action is necessary. Here, a distinction must be made between the mechanisms of action of the garden and the mechanisms of action of the garden activities and a range of overlap (Hawkins, Mercer, Thirlaway & Clayton 2013). The research on effects of care farms shows that care farms give people with incapacities a more active role in their daily lives and they make a living and working circumstance which empowers people and gives them the ability to participate in society (Eilings, 2012).

Economic research on recreational environments often requires economic cost-benefit analyses, but can only be found sporadically (Cervinka *et al.*, 2014). A review was found on economic issues of urban environments (Wolf & Robbins, 2015).

A review of research over a 40-year period found that it would be useful to economically evaluate and pay in numbers the benefits of a nature stay for the health and well-being of the population. Such an approach could increase general appreciation and attract the attention of decision-makers. However, the corresponding theories and methods for such analyses still need to be developed (Wolf & Robbins, 2015).



Learning sessions in green space. Author: Hochschule für Agrar- und Umweltpädagogik

1.3 RESEARCH

A walk in a green surrounding influences the mood positively and improves concentration. Those who live closer to a park suffers less from civilization diseases such as high blood pressure and live longer. The results from scientific research prove that: The gentle stimulation of our senses by nature is beneficial for our wellbeing.

Experiencing nature improves, in every way our health – this is proven by the studies from Jolanda Maas from the EMGO Institute for Health and Care in Amsterdam. The sociologist and her colleagues analysed medical data of a representative sample of around 350 000 Dutch. The researchers linked the findings from the archives of 195 general practitioners into a geographic grid. Grid squares of 25 by 25 meters were drawn; the grids were classified by their level of green space in the reach of 3 kilometres of each house or apartment. Maas classified "green" areas that were covered by plants more than 50%. The greener the healthier is the result of the study published in 2009: The greener the environment, the less frequent cardiovascular and pulmonary diseases, diabetes, depression and anxiety disorders are appearing in the residents. One percent less green had the same effect on health as aging another year. In children and low-income people, the result came out even stronger - presumably, because they on average spend more time in the close environment of their homes.

Studies from England and Japan confirm that access to green areas even increases life expectancy. Public Health researcher Takehito Takano from the University of Tokyo categorized the green areas in 2002 in Tokyo's neighbourhoods based on data from 1992 and interviewed more than 3000 persons of birth cohorts 1903, 1908, 1913 and 1918 to their residential area. Five years later the researchers recorded the deaths among his interview partners: About 900 of them were now deceased. Amongst them were many people with little opportunity for a walk in the park or in other green areas in their environment. This was also true when persons from same age, sex, marital status and socioeconomic status were compared. This study proves that the positive effect of nature on human health does not only happen within poverty-related living conditions.

Such social imbalances can be even partially offset by a green environment, as Richard Mitchell from the University of Glasgow and Frank Popham of the University of St. Andrews calculated. The geo and health scientists listed British citizens who are not yet of retirement age, according to income and amount of green areas in the living environment. The numbers of deaths of the years 2001 to 2005 were collected. The result showed that living close to nature can lessen the effect of poverty-related earlier death.

Green is not the same green

A waterfall has an activating effect, a forest a relaxing effect - this is the conclusion of a study by Austrian researchers from the year 2010. The interdisciplinary team around a landscape architect and a physician recorded in repeated ten-minute stays in a forest, a rocky landscape and at a waterfall. Physiological reactions of 14 participants were evaluated in controlled physical conditions such as temperature and air pressure. The pulse rate at the waterfall was on average six beats per minute higher than at the forest. The researchers also found the strongest vegetative relaxation in the forest, measured by the respiratory sinus arrhythmia, a characteristic of respiration. The physiological reactions in the rocky landscape lay in between. So, for recreation, walk in the forest - but in which specific forest? A walk in well-groomed wood promotes the mental well-being more than a similar path through wild nature, like the Swiss Research Institute for Forest, Snow and Landscape in Birmensdorf in 2010 reported. In the well-kept green, fewer stimuli are received, supposed the study authors Dörte Martens and Nicole Bauer.

Brain doping with orchids

Houseplants make tired people happy: reported by the psychologist Ruth K. Raanaas and her colleagues from the Norwegian University of Environmental and Life Sciences in Ås. They tested the attention of students three times: right after arrival in a test laboratory, after a strenuous task (proofreading of a text) and after a subsequent five-minute break. The participants of one group sat in a small room with four common houseplants: a Schefflera arboricola, an Aglaonema commutatum and two pink flowering Orchids (Phalaenopsis); the subjects of the control group were in the same room, but without plants, tested. Each participant should read four to six consecutive sentences and write the last word of each sentence after one round. The presence of the plants promoted the memory ability of the participants. Participants, in general, remembered 65% of the words. After a 5 minute break in the green room the participants could remember 70% or more, while participants in the room without plants did not increase their ability to remember. In general, the participants in the green room were able to remember 7% more words.

Research shows that:

Nature experiences help to concentrate and provides wellbeing

The more green space is within the living areas, the fewer people are suffering from civilisation diseases and psychological disorders such as anxieties and depressions

1.4 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISE

1.4.1 CONCEPT MAPPING

Short description

In "concept mapping", knowledge domains are systematically represented in the form of conceptual networks by describing and symbolizing the meaning of the individual terms and their connections. The nature of conceptual connections becomes visible through the positioning of terms in the network (for example superiority, subordination, parataxis, hierarchy, and pyramid); the visualization facilitates and supports the conceptual understanding of the represented areas of knowledge. The generated concept map represents a conceptually organized structure, in which individual knowledge elements (rules, concepts, principle, isolated facts, events, objects, and specifically empirical facts) are meaningfully related to each other.

Proceed (basic form: create a concept map using index cards)

Find out, through which terms a knowledge area can be represented.

Write the found terms on index cards and arrange them according to the degree of their generality: first list general concepts and principles, then more specific, less comprehensive concepts and principles, and finally isolated facts, events and concrete-empirical facts.

Construct, according to the found order of concepts, a "concept map", by arranging the index cards on a correspondingly large poster or a pinboard: start with a general term above and then work your way down to the most specific terms, facts, events,...

Connect the terms with each other by lines (for example, using paper strips), where the kind of the connections is explained by means of verbs, phrases or symbols (for example conceptual, causal, temporal connections).

Connecting lines with arrows represent directional connections (one-sided or two-sided), connecting lines without arrows represent undirected connections.

When closely related terms are arranged close to each other, an initially preliminary concept map is created.

It is advisable to revise the first raw version of a concept map several times, for example, to eliminate superfluous terms, to re-insert forgotten terms, to rearrange the terms if necessary, to search for more suitable verbs or sentences for the connecting lines.

Didactic functions:

- Explore how students structure and understand their knowledge conceptually
- Recognize missing or misunderstood terms
- Convey structured knowledge
- Make sure when conceptual networks are incomplete or faulty
- Excite to conceptual structuring, meaningful learning and further learning
- Support building an organized, clearly structured and stable cognitive structure
- To bring newly learned meaningful connections with previously learned ones

Learning goals:

- Be able to open up a conceptual area of knowledge
- Recognize and visualize conceptual connections
- Be able to describe characteristics of terms and conceptual connections
- Be able to understand and classify the meaning of rules, facts and principles
- Survey knowledge can be shown coherent
- Be able to reduce complex texts on their conceptual core
- Be able to use terms as instruments

Possible applications:

- To prepare for exams
- To test knowledge, lack of knowledge or conceptual understanding of learners
- As an introduction to a new area of knowledge, to test the foreknowledge of the learners
- To summarize issues presented by lecture, presentation or text
- As a guide in the presentation and to support the listeners
- To support individual learning (as a summary, handout in the form of a concept map prepared by teachers, which is handed out to the learners at the beginning or at the end of the presentation)

| DURATION: | | MATERIAL: |
|-----------------------------|---|---|
| Event type: seminar | according to prior knowledge, scope of the knowledge to be presented and the experience with concept maps | Board, Whiteboard, overhead projector, foil, paper, poster,... board-chalk, pencils |
| Number of participants: any | | |
| Premises: any | | |

Prerequisite for action.

Hints for teachers

Teachers should create concept maps during the planning phase in order to ascertain their own understanding of the central concepts and to clarify their didactic reduction of a knowledge area.

Concept Maps can fulfil knowledge-sharing, diagnostic, evaluative and incentive functions.

The path to be negotiated in constructing concept maps depends on the objectives, the didactic functions of the area of knowledge and the phase of learning (motivation/start, buildup, work, etc., close)

Internet Link: <http://cmap.coginst.uwf.edu>

Variants

After a keynote speech or after a common text work, the teacher presents an expert map created by her/him, based on which the teachers should shed light on the subject under different aspects.

In individual, partner or group work, learners present their knowledge in the form of concept maps at the beginning or end of a lesson.

Methodical alternatives

Active structuring, brainstorming, metaplan technique, mind mapping

Method combinations with

Discussion, expert survey, group work, partner interview, partner relay, poster session

1.4.2 PQ4R-METHOD**Short description**

In lectures, especially in seminars, texts are often the basis for the development of expert knowledge, questions, correlations etc. Regardless of how the text work is done during a seminar session, it is indispensable that the participants thoroughly read the previously given / stated text. The "PQ4R-Method" provides strategies to prepare reading, to read systematically, and to follow up on reading, allowing individual modifications.

Procedure (basic)

Text work in individual work

The "PQ4R method" divides the textual work into six steps:**Preview (gain an overview)**

First, the reader gets a rough overview of the content of the text. In addition, he/she studies the index of contents and keywords as well as graphics, illustrations, blurbs and summaries that convey the first important clues and information. In addition, he/she can skim the text (cross reading).

Question (formulating the text-opening questions, be curious)

The reader formulates questions that the topic evokes from him/her and that the text should answer.

Read (work through the text)

Now the entire text is read carefully with the aim of being able to answer the questions previously posed to the text. If necessary, formulate new questions that arise because of the more intensive study of the text (accompanying questions). Important text passages should be marked and key words of the text recorded which helps to achieve a faster orientation in the text.

Reflect (go beyond the text)

The reader reaches the deepening of the developed textual relationship with this step by linking the understanding explicitly with his previous knowledge, forming associations to key concepts or core statements, examining examples theoretically, largely reflecting, evaluating, critically questioning, etc.

Recite (to summarise the text in question)

At this step answer, questions are asked about the text without recourse to records. In this way, the main thoughts are reproduced in their own words.

Review (rate the text work and its earnings)

The entire text is summarised again, reviewed critically and the result of the work integrated into one's own knowledge.

Didactic functions:

- Independent text study, promote active text work
- Presenting texts in such a way that what has been worked out can serve as a basis for the following work phases
- Prepare critical discussions with other participants based on the new insights gained
- Integrate readings into existing knowledge

Learning goals:

- Develop expertise in dealing with a text independently
- Be able to work independently, intensively and actively with texts
- Ask questions about the text
- Can reproduce texts in their own words
- Can critically review texts
- Improve reading skills
- Develop an individual reading style

Possible applications:

- As a guide for an active independent text study
- At the beginning of a course that builds on intensive independent study of text

| | DURATION: | MATERIAL: |
|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Event type: any | explain the methods: 15 minutes systematic reading: time required depending on text degree/extent of the text | Visualize PQ4R-operations, distribute copies, with explanations of the "PQ4R-Method" |
| Number of participants: any | | |
| Premises: any | | |

Prerequisite for action.**Hints for teachers**

Introduce the PQ4R method and explain it with an example. So that the participants make sensible use of the method, have experiences exchanged and discuss them after the first text work.

The goal is not fast reading, but the adaptation of the reading speed to previous knowledge, text type and reading goal.

Support the participants in their work on the text with hints, help, questions, etc.

Make text copies so that there is enough space left for marginal comments

Variants

Reading by default and text symbols. Provide the seminar participants with simple (and few) symbols, e.g. to emphasize the immediate responses, to highlight ambiguities with a question mark, objections to the text with a "No", etc.

Combine important text passages with own words and understand them with subheadings. Represent correlations in a diagram.

Seeking reading. Keywords are given. These must be found in the text and filled with content by intensive reading of the neighbouring places (the variant leads to more uniform results, because the control of the teachers is limited).

Method combinations with

Flash, discussion, expert survey, group work, ball bearings, mind mapping, partner interview, partner relay, poster session

1.4.3 POSTER SESSION

(wall newspaper, poster, gallery, information market)

Short description

In a poster session, posters are used to present content that is to be worked on or presented to the plenary results, which were developed during a previous work phase. On the posters, which are presented and discussed in plenary in turn, the contents or results should be recorded in large format and possibly using graphic design means.

Procedure (basic: successive presentation of prepared posters in plenary)

- Arrange times for poster design, presentation and final discussion
- Determine the order of the presentations
- Suspend the poster one after the other
- Presentation of the posters by the whole small group or a chosen speaker

- Discussion of the results of the respective small group
- Final discussion of the entire poster session
- Summarise the earnings of the poster session

Didactic functions:

- Ensure results of a work phase (e.g. group work, partner work)
- Make work results accessible to other groups
- Discussion basis for further work together
- A theme, pre-structuring an event
- To relax work phases
- Activate participant

Learning goals:

- Present work results
- Be able to structure complex relationships
- Work results developed presentation can explain
- Understanding and discussing work results of other groups
- Teamwork

Possible applications:

- Completion of a course
- Presenting semester papers
- Following a work phase (e.g. group work, partner work)
- Passing on the events of small group work in plenary
- As an "information market" to present results, projects and problems
- To support a lecture or presentation
- To pre-structure a topic or event

| | DURATION: | MATERIAL: |
|---|--|---|
| Event type: seminar, course | to design the poster: 20-90 min | big paper sheet (DIN A1), adhesive tape, markers, rulers, scissors, coloured paper |
| Number of participants: 2 or more groups (2-6 persons each) and hanging space for the posters | presentation from each group: 10-20 min | |
| Premises: Room with large tables | conclusion discussion: 15 min | |

Prerequisite for action.

Hints for teachers

- Visualize the job (for example worksheet, flipchart, ...)
- Arrange times for the individual phases (creating the poster, presentation, discussion)
- Introduce and explain a sample poster
- Define a suitable variant of the poster session
- Consider mounting options for posters and take appropriate precautions (e.g., tape, bulletin board, pins)
- Create posters in class or outside
- Moderate the work phases, especially the discussion
- Summarize and evaluate the yield of the poster session
- Provide participants with copies of the posters, if possible

Variants

Exhibition/Gallery: The posters will not be presented one after the other in plenary, but presented as a simultaneous exhibition that can be visited by all participants. A group member should always stay with the poster and be available to visitors for questions, clarifications and discussions.

The structure of the posters is given (for example by headings). This standardizes the results and facilitates the comparability of the results.

Posters can also be used to convey the results of an event to the outside world. In this case, it is important from the beginning to pay attention to what prior knowledge may be assumed by the observers. The presentation is then usually as in the first variant.

Poster session (plenary session) as a workshop. The posters are not primarily intended to represent previously developed results, but form the basis for a subsequent working phase.

Methodical alternatives

Metaplan technique, Mind mapping

Method combinations with

Brainstorming, discussion, expert survey, fishbowl, group work, keynote speech, partner interview, partner tour, sandwich



Poster session. Author: Hochschule für Agrar- und Umweltpädagogik

1.5 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

1.5.1 LEARNING DIARY

Learning diaries are a tool for self-organized learning. Keeping learning diaries is a tested method of documenting, exploring, reviewing and possibly changing your own learning practice. Learning diaries are university courses in order to document and reflect on the personal engagement of students with teaching contents and objectives. This method is particularly suitable for courses that involve updating one's own experiences and attitudes and critically examining them. The cognitive goals of the course can be made much more "person-related" (see Stangl, 1998). As empirical studies have shown, the learning diary, in contrast to traditional "exam learning", promotes long-term retention of content, meaning more meaningful and application-oriented learning (according to Mayr 1997).

In these diary records, students can try to reconsider the most important content of the course after a face-to-face event - as it is well known that active repetition is particularly important for the memorization - and document their engagement with it in their own formulations (e.g. through well-founded approval or rejection, by establishing relationships to personal experiences, describing your own ideas and developing solution proposals).

The following questions are helpful:

- What did I learn new, what did I notice?
 - with regard to the content of a technical and overarching nature (my content competence)
 - in relation to me as a person (my personal and social competence)
- What will I continue to work on in terms of content: When? Where? How?
- What do I want to use in the near future?
- What else do I want to make up for, what still needs to be clarified?

The feedback includes the following criteria:

Own thoughts and reflection (critical reflection of the heard and read content; personal thoughts flow into it; open and honest discussion of different interpretations or options for action; uncertainties are permitted; forming one's own opinion).

Reasoning (presentation of your own opinion based on a conclusive reasoning; the claims are supported by an example or a document; the readers understand without problems what the author wants to communicate).

1.6 EVALUATION

Book review

Bibliographic information

At the beginning, all bibliographical information must be specified exactly:

First name (and) last name of the authors or editors (ed.).

Title of the book / anthology, possibly subtitles.

Publisher, place of publication and year of publication, number of pages.

(Usually all this information can be found on one of the first pages in the book.)

Explain the book selection

The discussion should initially show the importance of the topic for own professional practice. Why is one dealing with this topic? Why is this topic important? What questions should the book answer?

The core messages of the book

The reviewer should filter out the most important key messages (3-5) in the book and list them.

Critical reflection / personal statement

Critical reflection can show what is particularly worth reading about the book. What is the nature of the news? What is left to be desired? What is promised (e.g. in the introduction) but not kept? Is the book understandable?

Critical evaluation of content is also desirable. This must be explained in a well-founded and understandable manner.

Relevance for activities in one's own professional development

The reviewer shows the practical relevance of the book discussed for professional development. Has the book changed / influenced his/her understanding of nature in any way? Did he/she become clearer? Is he/she doing something different now after the book was read?

General information

The reviewer should formulate thoughts briefly, comprehensibly and objectively justified. The book review should be readable without any specialist knowledge of the topic of the book. Technical terms or abbreviations are avoided or explained.

Formal requirements for book reviews

It has to be clear who wrote the book review.

Each book review must be between 1,800 and a maximum of 3,000 characters (including spaces). The book review must be written in a gender-appropriate manner.

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SECTION 2

NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

Jan Moudrý jr., Jan Moudrý sr., Tomáš Chovanec



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Time requirement: The material covers lectures and exercises in the range of two blocks (1 block = 90 minutes of lecture + 90 minutes of exercise)

Place: Classroom and social farm

Tools and materials: Data projector, presentation, worksheets, flipchart, colour markers and self-adhesive colour papers

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

The chapter provides basic knowledge about farming functions that are related to non-productive functions and non-productive activities of farming. The information provided makes it possible to distinguish between non-productive functions and activities, it provides knowledge of the different types of non-productive functions and activities, and the ability to plan appropriate non-productive activities aimed at fulfilling specific non-productive functions within a social farm/enterprise.

ABSTRACT

The main function of farming is the production of agricultural commodities. In addition to this function, however, farming has a number of other - non-productive functions (e.g. social and socio-economic, environmental, aesthetic, cultural...). Non-productive activities are an important element for many social farms/enterprises, where they can outweigh the production. While non-productive functions are performed inadvertently, non-productive activities are targeted activities. These include, for example, processing products, organizing events linked to the course of the agricultural year, maintaining the landscape or public greenery, agro-tourism, etc. Knowledge of non-productive activities and their impact on non-productive functions enables effective planning within a social farm/enterprise with respect to the needs of the target groups of clients, as well as optimal effect for the sustainability of the entity. Knowledge of support programmes and subsidies aimed at the development of non-productive activities in farming is also important. The chapter describes the functions of farming, lists the main non-productive functions, explains the difference between non-productive functions and activities, and gives examples of activities linked to each function, taking into account the specifics of social farming.

KEYWORDS

Non-productive functions, non-productive activities, social farming, multifunctional agriculture, environmental function, recreational and health, cultural and protective functions, aesthetic, historical and educational function

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Understanding the functions of farming and understanding the importance of non-productive functions and activities is essential in terms of social farming. If a farming entity wants to connect with its surroundings and be perceived positively, it is precisely the right fulfilment of non-productive functions and the selection of suitable non-productive activities that are the key factor. The functions of farming are described in the chapter, together with the overview of the most important non-productive functions and description of the non-productive activities. A separate part is devoted to the specifics of social farming in terms of non-productive functions and activities and specific examples of their fulfilment and implementation.

2.2 FUNCTIONS OF FARMING

For thousands of years, farming has been a key economic sector which employed most people and used the potential of the landscape, shaping the landscape and its inhabitants. Progress in technical and natural sciences influenced agricultural production practices, labour productivity and production volumes, and caused a significant drop in the number of agricultural workers in developed countries. This process has accelerated since the middle of the last century. In addition to the production of food and raw materials, farmers used to carry out a number of services in the past related to landscape management, as well as quality and diversity of life in rural areas. These activities were gradually replaced by the activities of other business entities (maintenance of roads, landscape elements, forests, animal care...), which had a further impact on rural employment. The production cycle was becoming more and more open, the link between the place of production

of food and its consumption was broken. Gradually, farming has been reduced to the (large-scale) production of food raw materials. The World Bank advises, that currently in developed countries, around 1-4 % of the population is employed in farming. However, this process has a negative impact on the environmental and social situation of rural areas. The importance of farming in its original form is even further reduced in post-industrial society. The link between farming and the countryside is disappearing, the countryside is depopulated.

Since the early 1990s, political debates in both the European Union (EU) and the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have focused on changing the concepts of agricultural and rural development. Under the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), the EU has announced a program to support multifunctional farming. It is sometimes referred to as the defence of the CAP against the liberalization of farming. More narrowly conceived definitions understand multifunctional farming as a producer of commodity and non-commodity outputs, as it is mentioned in The European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development - Rural development priorities 2014-2020). Another concept seeks for wider changes in farming and rural areas. Multifunctionality is defined as the ability to produce not only food and raw materials for industry, but also to maintain the rural landscape and renewable natural resources, protect biodiversity, create employment and thus overall contribute to the viability of the countryside. The transition to multifunctional farming lies in the diversification of activities in conditions where an enterprise focused on primary agricultural production is no longer competitive. In 2008, the European Commission defined diversification as the creation of gainful activities that do not include agricultural activity, but that these alternative activities are directly linked to the enterprise through the use of its production factors or products, and these activities have an economic impact on the enterprise. According to the European Commission, this definition represents the narrowest definition of diversification of farms. It emphasizes the link between the new activities and the farm as well as the creation of activities that do not have the character of traditional agricultural production.

2.3 NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES

The function of farming for society can be understood as the ability to exploit the landscape potential in a sustainable way for the benefit of society. The primary function of farming is the production function, i.e. the targeted use of natural resources (soil, water, air, solar energy and living organisms) to produce food and renewable raw materials for industrial and energy use. Implementation of agricultural activities causes side effects (externalities), which can both positively and negatively influence the landscape and rural areas. Thus, in addition to the production function, the farmer also fulfils a number of other non-productive functions important for the society. With increasing farming intensification and production orientation, a number of positive externalities ensured by agricultural activity are disappearing. Supporting and developing non-productive activities is therefore very important even nowadays.

Environmental function plays an important role among non-productive functions of farming. Farming has a major impact on the landscape in terms of the cultivated area. The maintenance and active development of the landscape and its shaping by agricultural activity also has an important aesthetic, historical, cultural and therefore also educational function. Classical rural communities are characterized by proximity to nature and also to people, providing the newcomers safety and rest. Thus, the farm also fulfils protective, recreational and health functions. By providing jobs for farmers themselves and the rural population, farming performs an important social and socio-economic function which contributes to the stability of the countryside and society as a whole.

While functions are performed inadvertently, non-productive activities are actions that the farmer performs intentionally and which would not have taken place by themselves. Individual non-productive activities may be linked to one or more non-productive functions that they help to fulfil. Especially in small farms, which include most of the entities involved in social farming, the implementation of non-productive activities is often an important pillar for the sustainability of the enterprise. This is also true from the economic viability point of view. For smaller farms, it is usually more difficult to be competitive with primary agricultural production, and the focus on non-productive activities can bring new sources of income and new additional values to the products.

2.4 EXAMPLES OF NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

There are a number of non-productive functions and the range of related activities is also very varied. In a number of cases, the functions are intertwined and fulfilled simultaneously. The division and naming of functions may vary or may be further supplemented and extended. The most important non-productive functions include environmental function, recreational and health functions, social and socio-economic, aesthetic, historical and educational, protective and cultural functions.

2.4.1 ENVIRONMENTAL FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

This plays a central role among non-productive functions in terms of sustainable development. Farming (and forestry) have a major impact on the landscape in Europe. Farming unilaterally focused on production gives rise to a number of negative externalities, such as soil degradation, biodiversity reduction, water and soil pollution by agrochemicals, etc. The EU made the provision of support to all farmers conditional on compliance with environmental principles by the so-called Cross compliance regulation. This is an important step towards the introduction of multifunctional approaches into conventional production-oriented farming. A higher degree of support for the environmental function of the landscape is legislative and practical support for organic farming. Organic farms usually have a higher degree of multifunctionality by using other landscape functions. Typical activities include cultivation and processing of less common crops, care for landscape greenery (planting of alleys, modification of watercourses, restoration of ponds, wetlands, forest stands), cooperation with conservationists and environmental institutions to protect or save rare animal and plant species, to care for protected sites, etc. Farming is also becoming an important player in the collection, recycling and recovery of mainly biological waste in composting plants, biogas plants, etc.

2.4.2 RECREATIONAL AND HEALTH FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

This function is related to recreational, leisure and health use of the landscape. The farmer has land, forest and water areas, buildings, animals or other farm resources at her/his disposal that develop the recreational function of farming. The recreational function of farming takes many forms of rural tourism, from simple accommodation, through agro-tourism, eco-agro-tourism, tourist resorts, health trails, and adventure stays, to the use of healing media (green care, therapy). Sustainable rural tourism provides job opportunities even for an unskilled workforce (e.g. manual works connected with agricultural activities within agro-tourism). It increases the sales of local specialties and crafts, but can also have a positive impact on the restoration and maintenance of rural natural and cultural heritage. The recreational functions have greater potential than other non-productive functions of the landscape (cultural, health, aesthetic, educational and other).

Non-productive activities include the establishment and rental of sports and camping areas (e.g. horse riding paths), the establishment of holiday apartments for short and long stays, the farmer may become a teacher of skiing or horse riding in the season, a tour guide during farm excursion for tourists or other customer groups, trainer and manager during sports and recreational activities, etc., can provide refreshments on the farm, organize open days, run a farm zoo, craft centre, nature trails, rest and relaxation areas, rural parks and many other activities taking advantage of the comparative advantages of the site.

2.4.3 SOCIAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

A specific non-productive function of farming is the social and socio-economic function. It intersects with other functions and, more or less depending on possibilities and needs, builds on them or uses them for the benefit of local communities. The social and socio-economic function of farming can also serve people with limited application possibilities by providing them with rehabilitation, treatment and various forms of participation in society. An important aspect of social and socio-economic functions is the creation of jobs in rural areas, but also its overall improvement by creating services and products. One of the first steps in diversifying agricultural activities in this direction is often the combination of primary agricultural production and food production directly on the farm. It can be followed by direct consumption by accommodated guests, sale of production from the yard, farm shop or sale by delivery to the customer. Farm processing brings the advantages of creating added value directly in rural areas and a higher rate of job creation than primary agricultural production. The economic effect can bring processing of local raw materials by renewing traditional or introducing new processing techniques and crafts (basketry, pottery, joinery, bakery, wool processing...). In the field of energy production, a farmer can become a processor and supplier of renewable energy raw materials (cultivation of energy plants, logging and wood processing, production of wood chips, pellets or briquettes from phytomass), can operate biogas plants or small hydropower plants. Non-productive activities are also services for other agricultural entrepreneurs or for non-agricultural organizations or individuals. Another example is contract work using farm equipment carried out within or outside the agricultural sector, e.g. snow removal, transport, landscape maintenance, gardening, agricultural and environmental services, etc., can also be considered valuable non-productive activities which contribute to the farm-economy.

2.4.4 AESTHETIC, HISTORICAL AND EDUCATIONAL FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

Farmers participate individually or within the rural community in the protection of the historical landscape, landscape character and cultural monuments. These functions contribute to improving the quality of life by raising awareness and rehabilitation of the natural and cultural values of the environment. They are associated with maintenance, restoration and appreciation of the rural heritage and with care for the environment of villages and rural landscapes, that enforce the aesthetic function of agriculture. Other activities include the restoration of unused farm buildings and areas (brownfields),

maintenance of public greenery and landscape in general. In addition to specialized companies and craftsmen, a number of activities may also involve persons with reduced working capacity as an auxiliary force during cleaning work, construction work, as well as in the finishing of exterior and interior modifications (decoration, lawns, municipal greenery). Then these persons can take care of the object, if possible. The activities themselves and consequently their impact on humans have a significant educational effect and contribute to the belonging to the rural community and to strengthening the position of a farmer in it.



Care about the rural heritage provided by farmers is part of aesthetic and historical function of agriculture. Author: Jan Moudrý.

2.4.5 PROTECTIVE FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

Classical rural communities are characterized by proximity to nature and also to people. Neighbourly relations can be, and sometimes are, the cause of conflicts and problems. On the other hand, neighbourhood assistance can be counted on, if necessary. With the growing size of a village, anonymity increases, empathy decreases and selfishness and egocentrism increase. As can be seen from data from national statistic offices, in cities, there are more frequent cases of violations of standards and more crime than in rural areas. Value charts change with alienation from nature and neighbours. Communities are disintegrating, although new, but often only purpose-oriented and consumer-oriented ones are formed. Local rural communities, in which the anonymous environment is almost disappearing, can eliminate these negative phenomena to some extent and can have positive impact by different activities (running an open garden, organizing open days, having local selling point, organizing festivals, etc.).

2.4.6 CULTURAL FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

This function of farming is closely related to the previous ones. It consists of the protection and development of the rural heritage and the citizens' belonging to their environment. The first place this can be observed is within the local cultural landscape as farm lands and structures are often the building blocks of such cultural landscapes. The cultural function of the countryside also contributes to maintaining and developing traditions and customs. These cultural functions are also supported by social activities of folk artistic creativity (support of local traditional crafts, restoration of traditional elements of clothing, housing), hobby activities contributing to the preservation of traditions (amateur theatre, music and singing playgroups, ensembles, dialects, folk songs, legends) religious associations and holidays (Christmas carols, nativity scenes, pilgrimages), traditional folk festivals (balls, carnival, weddings, harvest festival, Hubertus rides, feasts, May festivities, wine harvest) and club activities (firemen, fishermen, gardeners, hunters etc.), sports, environmental, cultural activities, publishing, competitions, exhibitions, etc. These activities are often associated with eating culture, traditional gastronomy and gastronomic festivities (days of wine, beer, strawberries, cherries and various products or meals typical of the place or region).

2.5 SOCIAL FARMING FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

Social farming is largely specific in terms of fulfilling non-productive functions and implementation of non-productive activities. As the term implies, the social pillar plays an important role in the fulfilment of non-productive functions. However, the social and socio-economic function is usually not the only one that is more significantly performed in terms of social farming. Based on a more complex approach of the entities involved in social farming, the cultural, recreational, health and environmental functions are often more significantly fulfilled.

2.5.1 ENVIRONMENTAL FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL FARMING

The environmental functions of farming are usually more positively fulfilled by agricultural systems which strive for a more environmentally friendly approach. Organic farming is a typical example. In some countries, many entities implementing social farming are also certified in an organic farming system. It is precisely the pursuit of a holistic approach to farming and its activities and, at the same time, a frequent focus on less intensive (from the point of view of agro-chemistry, big mechanisation and other usual large scale practices) agricultural production together with a focus mainly on local markets, that makes the fulfilment of the environmental non-productive function also a positive aspect to social farming.

SOCIAL FARMING AND ENVIRONMENTAL NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTION:

- Frequent connection with organic farming
- More extensive procedures
- Regional development
- Holistic approach to agricultural activities

2.5.2 RECREATIONAL AND HEALTH FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL FARMING

These functions, or in particular the second (health) part, are fulfilled by social farming by its very nature in the form of care for most target groups of clients. Health prevention and salutogenesis also play an important role in it. These are the most important arguments for the financing of social farming by the health sector, as it is cheaper for society than paying for therapeutic measures. However, a wide range of therapeutic and recovery activities may not only be available to clients of a particular entity. For example, hippotherapy or other activities can also often be open to the public and may serve as another activity contributing to the economic sustainability of a social farm.

In addition, some social farms offer other activities included in the recreational and health non-productive functions, such as agro-tourism, organizing teambuilding, or adventure stays. It is usually more diversified agricultural activities and facilities for clients, together with a more personal approach to social farms, that enable the development of a number of activities with a recreational character. While bringing people interested in these activities directly to the farm, this is another step that can be used in terms of marketing.

2.5.3 SOCIAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL FARMING

The social and socio-economic function itself is fulfilled on several levels within the framework of social farming. The most obvious level is the work with persons with different degrees and types of special needs in the labour market, which is the very essence of social farming. Whether we are talking about therapy, education or employing clients, the social function is always positively fulfilled by their involvement in agricultural activities.

Another level of fulfilment of the social, or socio-economic function is:

- Creating jobs
- Keeping people in the countryside

Social farming inherently creates other jobs that are not needed in conventional farming, especially in its intensive forms (typically employees caring for clients). At the same time, it is more often inclined to procedures and activities that are labour-intensive, which brings further employment opportunities. One reason for this is, that people with disabilities are often not easily integrated into large scale work with big machines and are therefore dependent on the creation of different workplaces that are less dangerous from their perspective – this coincides with activities that are more work intensive because they are still carried out manually. This also provides the opportunity for keeping alive traditional techniques that are dying out due to increasing industrialization of work processes. These more traditional techniques, which are also the ones considered more culturally significant (like weaving) are often lost in subsequent generations, due to the above mentioned

urbanization (younger people leaving rural communities to live in cities). Social farms very often develop, in addition to primary agricultural production, processing and a diverse range of services, thus providing additional space for job opportunities and a positive fulfilment of the social function.

An important contribution to the positive fulfilment of the social function of farming, in the case of social farming, is also the frequent effort to connect with local communities and the tendency to improve their living environments. In addition to offering products and services, it includes activities that can be classified as cultural or aesthetic non-productive activities, which in turn create a more favourable environment for rural life, contribute to strengthening rural communities and thus contribute to slowing down or even stopping the outflow of people from rural areas. Important also is the cooperation with other local actors, like NGOs. E.g. social service providers or educational institutions that can ensure some contracted programmes on farms.

2.5.4 CULTURAL FUNCTIONS IN SOCIAL FARMING

Many entities active in social farming also consider communication with their surrounding communities as an important aspect. In parallel, the activities by which the cultural function is fulfilled are also welcome activities for social farming clients. Organizing or participating in various cultural events related to e.g. the milestones of the agricultural year or local traditions, strengthens the status of the entity and generally improves relations with the local community. In addition to the direct economic benefits that these activities can help ensure (e.g. by selling own products during the event), they are also very important from the perspective of enlightenment and concurrent promotion, so they can also be used in marketing.

2.6 CONTRIBUTION OF NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES TO SOCIAL FARM SUSTAINABILITY

Social farming can only, in exceptional cases, compete with intensive forms of conventional farming directly in terms of primary agricultural production. As a rule, the sustainability of social farms also relies on other pillars - non-productive activities being one of them.

Many non-productive activities can be economically profitable and, from the point of view of the economic balance of a social farm, even more significant than primary production itself. If we focus on the direct economic effect, it is mainly the processing of agricultural products and the services that the social farm/enterprise can offer. In addition, in terms of processing, suitable activities can be found for almost every target group of social farming.

Other non-productive activities do not bring direct economic profit but can help in building the brand and creating the name of a social farm/enterprise. The limiting element in the development of non-productive activities is the cost of some of them, therefore, in their planning and implementation it is usually necessary to prefer those with the lowest expected investments as there is a high probability of a quick return on these investments.

2.7 NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING AS A TOOL OF MARKETING AND COMMUNICATION

In some regions, there is still some mistrust towards some target groups of social farming and social farms/enterprises who may be perceived as an undesirable element coming from abroad. Given that most of the entities involved in the concept of social farming operate mainly within the local market and local communities, it is important that they are perceived and received positively at their place of operation. Non-productive activities can be used to achieve this. The importance is even greater if the social farm/enterprise also focuses on economic self-sufficiency in the form of selling products or services.

Especially in the context of activities linked to the recreational, health and cultural function, such as organizing various events related to the course of the agricultural year (harvest festival, thematic events linked to the seasonality of individual crops...), it is possible to attract potential future customers and establish contact with them. From the marketing point of view, attracting potential customers to the place of origin of the product is a very important element, which motivates customers to purchase products, services or generally to support many more people, rather than simply informing the public by means of videos, leaflets, etc. In communicating with the local community, the fear of the unknown then disappears by "opening the gates".

However, other non-productive activities may be used by entities involved in social farming to build positive relationships with their surrounding communities. An example of something that is highly visible and perceived positively is, the up-

grading of the surroundings in terms of the fulfilment of environmental, aesthetic or historical non-productive functions. It includes, for example, maintenance of the landscape or public greenery, repair of buildings (chapels, wayside shrines), building places for relaxation and recreation, etc.

It is also important to inform about the added value that social farming brings, especially in cases where these added values are not directly visible and tangible on the product itself. Although, for example, cheese produced on a social farm may have the same nutritional and sensory characteristics as cheese from a conventional farm, emphasizing added values (social farming product, regionality, use of handwork, environmental friendliness, etc.) which are not directly visible can motivate some target customer groups to purchase them, even at higher prices. Creating this type of added value and focusing on creating products which contain these added values can be one of the roads to the economic sustainability of a social farm.

2.8 SUPPORT POSSIBILITIES FOR NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS

Support for multifunctional farming is dependent on external factors such as environmental and agricultural policy or market forces, and is therefore spatially differentiated. In mountain and other less-favoured, so-called Areas with Natural Constraints (ANC), the competitiveness of enterprises in primary agricultural production is declining. Support of ANC regions is used to balance this. In order to maintain the settlement of the landscape and its management, it is necessary to look for other sources of income with comparative use of local resources.

Other possibilities are linked with different national programmes (e.g. in case of the Czech republic Integrated Regional Operational programme, Operational programme employment, Operational programme, environment, etc.) very common tool are Rural development programmes, which provide basic support for multifunctional farming. Currently, the existing Common European Rural Development Policy focuses on three main objectives:

1. Improving the competitiveness of farming and forestry
2. Improving the environment and the landscape
3. Improving the quality of life in rural areas and promoting the diversification of the rural economy

A methodological tool by which farmers can cooperate with rural communities is the Strategy, community led by local development (CLLD, LEADER) through the Local Action Groups (*LAG*). Support is then granted especially to projects which are in line with the local development strategy and which use the partnership between the public and private sectors and contribute to increasing the attractiveness of the environment.

The possibilities of transition to multifunctional farming depend on natural and socio-economic conditions, the entrepreneurial and managerial ability of the farmer or other actors, the form of farmed land ownership, access to capital, the possibility of support and many other factors. Table 4 shows a list of factors, which can influence the decision-making and consequently the role of the enterprise in terms of the application of non-productive functions.

| PERSONAL | BUSINESS (AGRICULTURAL) | BUSINESS (NON-AGRICULTURAL) |
|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • qualification <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - degree of school education - education - professional qualification • age • sex • mobility • flexibility • subjective factors (individual preferences or social commitment) • health • consultation • information on non-agricultural employment opportunities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enterprise location <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - strong/weak industry - industry near/far away • distance of working place • free working capacity • enterprise organization • home connection (size, structure and phase of a life cycle) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • labour market situation • working time adjustment • wage level • rise of chances • job stability • conjunctural predisposition • seasonal susceptibility • qualification and retraining |

Factors influencing the choice of non-agricultural earning opportunities.

The ideal state of a multifunctional entity (enterprise, region) includes well-balanced and well-developed economic, social and environmental capital. Such a multifunctional formation achieves a high degree of resilience - that is, the ability to absorb external negative impacts and be fully functional. Given this, it is clear that social farming can contribute towards achieving these outcomes.

2.9 EXAMPLES OF SUITABLE NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES FOR DIFFERENT TARGET GROUPS

The list of non-productive functions of farming and activities contributing to their fulfilment is extensive. A number of external and internal factors may prevent some activities from being carried out. In social farming enterprises, in addition to the criteria affecting normal agricultural activity, some additional criteria must be evaluated when selecting suitable activities. The farmer will be limited in the selection of activities and fulfilment of non-productive functions by the possibilities and needs of the target group that participates with them and at the same time by the potential of the enterprise and their own. For some target groups, the farmer will be an activity manager without the need for outside assistance, at other times, especially in case of disabled clients, the farmer will need therapeutic and other assistance to the extent that they will be only a provider of the environment and resources for the activity. The choice of appropriate non-productive activities for specific situations is a key factor for the sustainability of the entity. The following examples introduce selected non-productive functions and related activities, each example is followed by suitable target groups of clients, farm type and relation to other non-productive functions.



The establishment and maintenance of landscape elements provides lot of opportunities for activities within social farming. Author: Jan Moudrý

EXAMPLE 1. ENVIRONMENTAL FUNCTIONS AND RELATED ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

An example of an activity fulfilling an environmental non-productive function is the establishment and maintenance of landscape elements. In terms of this activity, new landscape elements are created and the existing ones are maintained in the agricultural landscape. A specific example of a landscape element are hedgerows. The actual activity during their establishment consists of the preparation of the terrain, sowing herbs, planting shrubs and possibly trees, creating fences, etc. Maintenance usually consists of pruning, mowing herb layer and removing phytomass. The environmental impact of hedgerows lies in the reduction of wind and water erosion (in case of proper distribution and orientation), water retention, increase in biodiversity (insects, birds and animals and other organisms), the aesthetic function can also be fulfilled, where the hedgerows diversify and beautify the landscape.

Clients: It is an activity allowing wide-spectrum application, individual constraints arise from the accessibility of the particular terrain, the availability of elements, etc. A wide range of target groups can be involved in the creation and maintenance of landscape elements; these activities may be less suitable, for example, for persons with a significant movement restriction or restriction for staying in the open outdoors.

Farm: Landscape elements can be created on agricultural land almost irrespective of the type of farm. The creation is feasible both on the land of large intensive farming entities and on small family farms. The activity can be carried out directly on a social farm or as a service for other farming entities.

Related functions: aesthetic

EXAMPLE 2. RECREATIONAL AND HEALTH FUNCTIONS AND RELATED ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

One example of fulfilling the recreational and health function of farming may be interaction with animals, for example in the form of hippotherapy. Horseback riding is especially recently a popular form of leisure, recreation and rehabilitation. Hippotherapy is a physiotherapeutic method using the three-dimensional movement of the horse's back. It takes place on a horse with special training under the guidance of a physiotherapist or ergotherapist. Hippotherapy may be performed only with the written consent of a doctor.

Clients: It works for ergotherapy (in terms of animal care) and at the same time the animal is a therapeutic tool. This type of treatment is used for example for people who have scoliosis, people after spinal injuries, loss of limbs. The largest client group are children diagnosed with cerebral palsy. Clients are usually connected by a basic problem: impaired movement, either as a result of external intervention or because of a congenital brain disorder.

Farm: The demands on the equipment of the stable, riding school, horse training and education of the trainer or therapist are high both financially and in terms of time. This is usually a long-term process. Initially, only horse riding is used to enjoy your own free time and for customer service. Later, various forms of rider and horse training can be added. Hippotherapy itself is a licensed professional activity. However, it raises an originally simple activity to a much higher level and significantly increases the efficiency and prestige of farming.

Related functions: Cultural, social and socio-economic, educational

EXAMPLE 3. SOCIAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FUNCTIONS AND RELATED ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

Typical activities fulfilling social and socio-economic function are processing activities. An example could be the production of cider and dried apples following the harvest of apples. Target groups can participate in harvesting, sorting and storing production. In the production of cider, the main activities of the initial stages are washing, crushing, pressing and filtration. During the production of dried apples, the main activities are again washing, slicing, drying, and where appropriate also packaging and labelling. The economic effect of selling products will cover part of the costs of own production and the work of clients. Its amount varies considerably, always lower than that of regular employees, depending mainly on the target group.

Clients: The difficulty of each of the above-mentioned activities is different. Manual work (picking and storing fruits, carrying, washing) requires coping with tasks requiring coarse and fine motor skills, self-management and work competencies. Working with technology (cutter, press, dryer, etc.) requires the ability to operate the equipment in terms of work safety and processing procedure. In addition, a certain level of reliability and responsibility is required. It is necessary to select suitable employees from among the clients and direct them to the basic operation of machines, equipment, etc.

Farm: Fruit processing can take place in almost all types of enterprises. Depending on the complexity and technological level of processing, the necessary equipment and its costs vary considerably, but there are a number of easy processing methods suitable even for the smallest farms with limited equipment investment options. Processing activities can be carried out within the farm as well as contracted for another enterprise.

Related functions: educational

EXAMPLE 4. AESTHETIC FUNCTIONS AND RELATED ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

Aesthetic functions can be very well fulfilled by various activities ensuring order and tidiness of the environment. Common activities of this type include cleaning, garbage disposal, care of public areas (sweeping, cleaning, painting and other forms

of beautification) as well as care for public greenery. This includes mowing grass, cleaning fallen leaves and branches, planting and caring for flower beds. The activities may also include the preparation of planting by pre-planting seedlings in the early spring period, adjustment of planting areas (digging, incorporating compost, measuring beds...).

Clients: In relation to the demands on operation and safety at work during maintenance of municipal greenery, clients with a higher degree of work competence and with the ability to work in a place requiring interaction with the surroundings can be employed. Higher demands on the quality of work must also be taken into account.

Farm: Care for greenery can be a single, occasional or recurring activity, although its content changes during the year. The works are similar to gardening activities and require similar tools (spades, shovels, wheels, shears, lawnmowers, brush cutters...)

Related functions: Cultural, social and socio-economic, educational

EXAMPLE 5. CULTURAL FUNCTION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES IN SOCIAL FARMING

Interesting activities that fulfil the cultural function of farming are social events organized on the occasion of important events for farmers, such as the end of the grain harvest. In connection with the preparation and realization of these events, there is a wide range of activities suitable for different target groups. These include tying wreaths and bouquets of corn and meadow flowers, decorating an allegorical car, preparing festive clothing, costumes or traditional suits, as well as creating and realizing an accompanying program such as rehearsing a cultural scene (folk songs, dances, thanksgiving speech to nature and farmer), demonstration of traditional harvesting methods (knitting wisps, tying sheaves, flail threshing), grinding flour on a hand grinder, baking bread and cakes and many other activities depending on the experience of the organizers, availability of necessary tools, etc.

Clients: Organizing single events is a suitable activity for a wide range of target groups, and an important aspect is the possibility of involving family members. It is also possible to involve persons with reduced ability to integrate into the work or therapeutic process over the long term.

Farm: Cultural events may have a “family” character of a private event (small to medium-sized enterprise and a small number of members of the target group), but may take a form of a very extensive, media-published, financially and organizationally supported (by the municipality, LAG, sponsors...) event. The creativity of the farmer and their co-workers is important as well as the motivation and ability of the members of the target group to cooperate.

Related functions: aesthetic, historical, educational, social and socio-economic

The right choice of non-productive activities brings other benefits, besides the positive fulfilment of non-productive functions of farming, which may be crucial for a social farm. Non-productive activities can become a strong economic pillar to ensure the sustainability of a social farm/enterprise, but it is necessary to choose the most appropriate for the situation and take into account not only the factors common to conventional agricultural production but also the specificities of social farming resulting from working with specific target groups.

2.10 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISES

2.10.1 DESCRIPTION OF FULFILLING NON-PRODUCTIVE FUNCTIONS ON A MODEL FARM

(Working in pairs, peer group presentation, discussions in groups)

Describe fulfillment of non-productive functions using a model farm (farm visited during the excursion or presented by a teacher)

- Indicate the degree of fulfillment of each non-productive function on a scale of 1 (at least) to 10 (at most) and justify your assessment
- Estimate the impact of the current status of performance of non-productive functions
- Identify factors affecting performance of non-productive functions

2.10.2 DESCRIPTION OF PERFORMING NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES ON A MODEL FARM

(Working in pairs, peer group presentation, discussions in groups)

Describe the delivery of non-productive activities using a model farm (farm visited during the excursion or presented by a teacher)

- Describe briefly the non-productive activities carried out on the farm
- Identify the non-productive functions most affected by the activities realized, indicate the degree of this impact on a scale of 1 (at least) to 10 (at most) and justify your assessment
- Suggest additional non-productive functions to be realized on the farm, take into account also such aspects as individuality of the people on the farm, their cooperating partners, their motives, the history of the social activities, etc.
- Identify the strengths and weaknesses of the non-productive activities proposed by your colleagues

2.10.3 SUGGESTIONS OF SUITABLE NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES FOR MODEL FARMS / SITUATIONS / TARGET GROUPS

(Brainstorming, working in pairs, peer group presentation, discussions in groups)

Draw a target group of clients and suggest suitable non-productive activities for this target group. Then try to design new or modify existing activities of the model farm (farm visited during the excursion or presented by a teacher) according to the needs and possibilities of this target group

- Suggest possible activities in the form of brainstorming (group work)
- Briefly describe selected newly proposed non-productive activities
- Identify the strengths and weaknesses of the non-productive functions proposed by your colleagues

2.10.4 LINKING NON-PRODUCTIVE ACTIVITIES WITH FUNCTIONS

(Individual work, peer group presentation, discussion)

Draw a non-productive activity and identify its link to non-productive functions

- Identify the non-productive function that will be most affected by the activity
- Identify other non-productive functions that will be affected by the activity and express the degree of that impact on a scale of 1 (at least) to 10 (at most) and justify your assessment
- Express the relationship between the activity and non-productive activities graphically

2.11 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

Visit any farm in your area, document (description, photos) the performance of non-productive functions and propose appropriate non-productive activities involving the selected target group of social farming.

2.12 EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

- Test of theoretical knowledge (written standardised test)
- Evaluation of the ability to identify relationships between non-productive activities and functions
- Evaluation of the ability to design optimal non-productive activities for model farms and target groups of social farming
- Evaluation of the ability to formulate, present and defend proposed non-productive activities

TIPS AND NOTES

For the on-farm excursion remind students of the need for appropriate clothes and shoes

For the student activities, select suitable farm(s), where more forms of the non-productive activities will be present

When the student discussions will be too shallow and the students will be passive, have a few controversial and provocative topics ready. Don't show your own opinion and arguments before discussion and participate more like moderator.

In the subchapter "Links to other topics...", the sources relevant for the Czech Republic are used. Included are sources relevant to the topic of the chapter and sources used during writing of the chapter.

2.13 LINKS

<http://www.socialni-zemedelstvi.cz/> (social farming in the Czech Republic – information, documents, news, contacts...)

<http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#home> (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations – data, statistics, information...)

https://ec.europa.eu/info/food-farming-fisheries/key-policies/common-agricultural-policy/cap-glance_en (The Common Agricultural Policy – information, documents...)

<https://www.eesc.europa.eu/en/our-work/opinions-information-reports/opinions/eesc-opinion-social-farming> (European Economic and Social Committee – EESC Opinion: Social farming)

<https://op.europa.eu/cs/publication-detail/-/publication/1d7f9705-b154-44df-a256-0fd5eba64aca/> (The European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development - Rural development priorities 2014-2020)

2.14 LITERATURE

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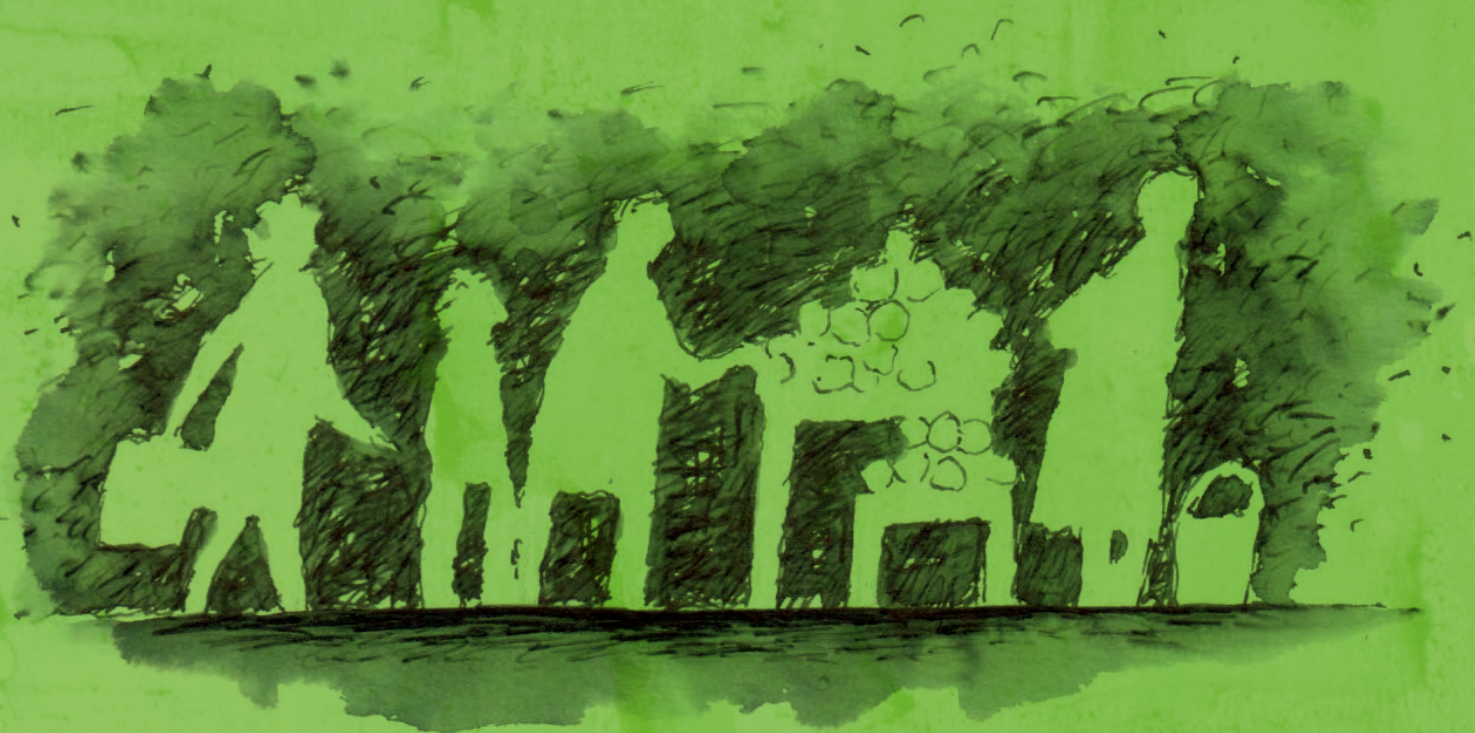
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SECTION 3

SOCIAL FARMING PRODUCTS IN THE SHORT SUPPLY CHAIN

Apolka Ujj, Paulina Jancsovszka, Csaba Bálint



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Time requirement: lecture (theory) 2x45 minutes; 1st exercise 90 minutes; 2nd exercise 60 -90 minutes (depending on number of groups)

Place: classroom, farm site

Tools and materials: computer, printed articles, flipchart paper, felt pens

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

This chapter aims to introduce and explain the concept of short supply chains, its socio-economic and sustainability interrelations, as well as the opportunities and risks of this type of market distribution in the context of products from social farming.

ABSTRACT

The role of local food and, in this context, short supply chains, is receiving increasing attention from both, consumer NGOs and decision-makers at different levels. It can solve many problems of the conventional food industry for both consumers and producers. Such supply chains typically include local producers who work together to promote the local food market. These partnerships help to boost the rural economy, create new ways of selling local products, and attract new types of customers. They also support cooperation between local economies, the tourism industry and the food industry.

Buying locally produced food also supports sustainable development by reducing shipping costs, CO2 emissions, rural roads, traffic congestion, and road accidents.

This chapter presents the concept of short supply chain, its socio-economic and sustainability interrelations, as well as the opportunities and risks of this type of market distribution in the context of social farming.

KEYWORDS

Short supply chains, social farming, marketing activities, local food system, Community Supported Agriculture (CSA)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the case of social farms, the fact that the production takes place with the contribution of socially disadvantaged people can represent a special value added to the food products, especially in the local markets. Taking part in the production process, and having positive feedback from local consumers may strengthen the sense of achievement in the clients and their connection to the wider local community. The social 'message' of the above can be completed by the other environmental and economic advantages of short supply chains.

3.2 FOOD SYSTEM, SUPPLY CHAIN, LOCAL FOOD SYSTEM

Food production, processing, transport and marketing have become a national and even international strategy. While the rise of industrial food production serves to meet the increasing demand, negative externalities affecting the local ecosystems and well-being of local communities are generated.

The food system includes all processes related to feeding a population: growing, harvesting, processing, packaging, transporting, marketing, consuming and disposing of food/food packages. It also comprises the inputs needed and outputs generated at each stage. The food system can be defined as a set (network) of complexly interdependent elements that work together for the purpose of satisfying food needs of a given population in a given space and time.

The food supply chain can be interpreted as a network of organizations jointly executing the actions necessary to meet the demand for certain products in the movement of goods throughout the chain – from sourcing raw materials to delivery to the final recipient. Two sets of domino casualties are essential to the supply chain's characteristics: the food moves from

farmers to consumer via the processes of production, processing, distribution, retailing and consumption (see picture below) and money paid by consumers, moves from them to producers in the reverse process. In addition, both movements of food and money are facilitated by 'pulls' and 'pushes'. Producers and processors push or supply food and consumers pool or demand food thereby helping the dominoes (food) to fall (move) to consumers. Likewise, producers and processors pull money and consumers push money to facilitate the money's movement from consumers to producers.

In a broader sense, the food supply chain also includes new product development, marketing, operations, finance and customer service.



Food supply chain. Source: <https://corporatefinanceinstitute.com/resources/knowledge/strategy/supply-chain/>

Conventional agri-food supply chain ('from farm to fork') includes the following main elements:

- agricultural suppliers (fertilizers, pesticides, seeds, herbicides etc.);
- agricultural production (crop production, animal husbandry, fishing, forestry);
- food processing (processing technology, storing, preservation, packing);
- distribution (wholesale, conventional marketing channels, alternative channels e.g. vending machine, producer market);
- hospitality and mass catering.

In the 20th century, besides the development of transport the application of advanced refrigeration technologies has enabled the sale of perishable goods over greater distances. As productivity has become a key issue due to increasing competition, usually only the most efficient farms could survive. Enhanced use of fertilizers and chemicals, as well as transport-related oil consumption and emissions, has in many cases led to serious environmental damages (albeit distant or seemingly distant from the consumer). At the same time, an environmentally sensitive consumers' category has emerged.

In parallel with these processes, the expansion of retail chains has become a trend which has led to increasing market power of the supply chain's parts close to the consumer. In the context of reorganization of marketing channels (particularly in transition countries), farmers face significant problems in joining modern food chains and the traditional agricultural policy instruments are unable to maintain producers' income position. In addition, the need to meet stricter human and animal health standards which requires major investments, causes a decline in profit. This rearrangement of power relations has also been questioned ethically, which was manifested in the emergence of ethical consumer movements (e.g. Fair Trade) and boycotts.

The globalization of the food industry has also a health and confidence dimension. When food production and consumption were close in space, consumers could be sure of food quality, partly through their own experience, partly through personal awareness and various social control mechanisms. The globalization of the food industry has necessarily resulted in the institutionalization of quality assurance and the emergence of guarantees from government and other organizations;

however, the consumer confidence was undermined by occasional food-related scandals (such as salmonella, Spongiform Encephalopathy, dyed meat, horsemeat, etc.). Consequently, the need for reliable and healthy food has been formulated.

The situation that has arisen is a typical sustainability issue, with all its dimensions (environmental, social and economic). In response to these processes, numerous 'bottom-up' and 'consumer-driven' initiatives have been launched, e.g. Fair Trade, freegan movement, community gardening, conscious nutrition and in this context the popularization of certain diets etc. New, 'alternative', 'post-productivist' food chains have emerged to meet new demands, as opposed to (or in addition to) traditional industrialized food supply.

A local food system is one in which foods are produced, processed and retailed within a defined geographical area. Farmers markets, farm-gate sales, vegetable box delivery schemes, community supported agriculture and public procurement schemes which source food from within a defined geographical radius are examples of local food systems. The foods exchanged within local food systems are usually traceable to a particular place of origin, and have distinctive qualities or characteristics. They are often unprocessed or lightly processed. There is no legally agreed definition of local food, nor of the geographical scale of the 'local' so far. The local is always experienced and understood in relation to larger geographical scales, such as regional, national or global. The question of where the local area ends and another scale begins is subjective, depending on context (density of populations, accessibility and rural or urban character for example) and purpose. For example, supermarkets operating at national and international scales often describe a whole region or even country as a 'local' source.

3.2.1 CONCEPT AND DEFINITION OF SHORT FOOD SUPPLY CHAINS

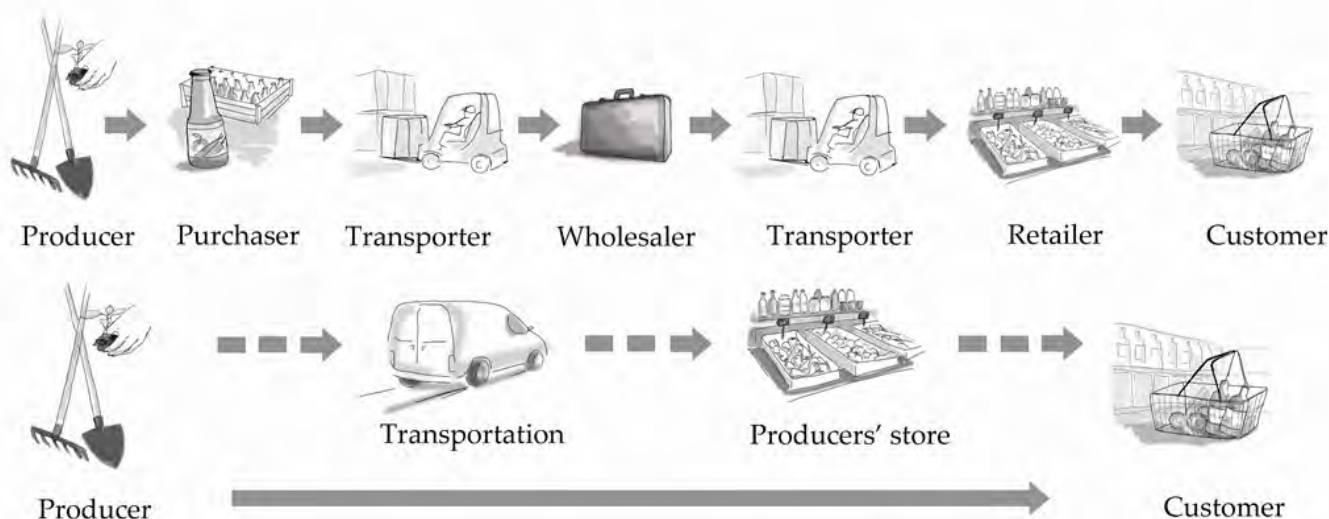
The concept of **Short Food Supply Chains (SFSCs)** emerged at the turn of the century in the context of the broader debate on 'Alternative food chains', 'Alternative food networks' or 'Sustainable food chains'. The starting point of this debate is that SFSCs are analysed and interpreted as a strategy to improve the resilience of the family farms with the support of concerned consumers, local communities and civil society organisations. SFSCs are increasingly taken into consideration by rural and food policies as a driver of change towards sustainability both in agro-food system and rural areas. SFSCs have established in parallel to conventional food chains, playing a key role in the emerging food networks that are continuously arising as an alternative to the globalized agro-food model.

The SFSC's concept is built on a simple principle – by decreasing the number of intermediaries in chain and consequently because of cost-cutting, the farmer can increase his/her income, while the price of the product does not rise considerably.

Based on several definitions, within the SFSC "the foods involved are identified by, and traceable to a farmer. The number of intermediaries between farmer and consumer should be 'minimal' or ideally nil."

SFSCs have capacity to 're-socialize' or 're-spatialize' food, thus allowing consumers to make value-judgements about foods. The foods involved are defined by the locality or even specific farm where they are produced. One characteristic of SFSCs is that the product reaches the consumer "embedded with **information**." This information (e.g. printed on packaging or communicated in person at the point of sale) "enables the consumer to confidently make connections and associations with the place/space of production, and potentially the values of the people involved and the production methods employed". This differentiation of products, in theory, allows products to command a premium price, if the information provided to consumers is considered valuable.

It should be emphasized, that "it is not the number of times a product is handled or the distance over which it is ultimately transported which is necessarily critical". Therefore, SFSC does not refer to the physical distance (e.g. a farmer can sell his/her product throughout the country) but the number of actors between the producer and the consumer. One of most important features of SFSCs is **the minimized number of intermediaries**, the ideal being a direct contact between producer and consumer. (Figure X) Transportation and catering companies (restaurants, schools, canteens) are not considered as middlemen. Nevertheless, a co-operative, which not only distributes products among their members, but sells them as retailer, is an intermediary.



Traditional and Short Food Supply Chains. Source: Ujj, A. (ed.) (2017): Introduction to Ecological Small-Scale Farming. Szent István University, Gödöllő. 48 p. Illustration: Júlia Csibi

Reducing the number of intermediaries is the main reason for shortening food chains in order to achieve the following outcomes:

- The citizen who eats the food knows exactly where the food comes from, how it has been produced, and ideally, the price paid to the producer. To achieve this, the producer or intermediary is committed to sharing information about the product and production techniques and can easily be contacted by the citizen directly for information. In other words, the food chain is **transparent**.
- The SFSC contributes to building habits and motivation of local consumers.
- The food chain's structure ensures that the producer retains a greater share of the **value** of the food that is sold.
- Intermediaries become **partners** in SFSCs, fully committed to sharing information on the origins of the food, the producer and the production techniques and recognised for their role in building SFSCs.

Three main types of short food chains can be distinguished on the basis of the number of intermediaries, physical distance and organizational arrangements:

- **Face-to-face SFSCs** – a consumer purchases a product directly from the producer/processor on a face-to-face basis (e.g. on-farm sales, farm shops, farmers' markets).
- **Proximate SFSCs** – extend reach beyond direct interaction and are essentially delivering products which are produced and retailed within the specific region (or place) of production. Consumers are made aware of the 'local' nature of the product at retail level (e.g. community supported agriculture, consumers' cooperatives).
- **Spatially extended SFSCs** – value- and meaning-laden information about the place of production and producers is transferred to consumers who are outside the region of production itself and who may have no personal experience of that region (e.g. fair-trade products, certification labels, public food procurement to catering services for institutions).

SFSCs can represent traditional and/or alternative ways of producing, distributing, retailing, and buying food and they have served as niches for those food, system actors, mostly producers and consumers, who look for options to the dominating agro-industrial model.

Traditional' SFSCs are farm-based, in rural locations, usually operated on-farm by families and using traditional and artisan production methods. 'Neo-traditional' SFSCs are often off-farm (especially delivery schemes), located in urban or peri-urban areas, comprise more complex collaborative networks and focus on strong social and ethical values (such as CSAs). As these SFSCs may be more subject to a non-profit approach, they could be an opportunity for social farming. Both models can be equally innovative and dynamic and also combined.

Fruit and vegetables (mostly fresh, particularly vegetables in 'veg boxes') are the products mainly traded, followed by animal products, principally meat (fresh and prepared), dairy products and beverages. Schemes to complete the range of products offered by other producers' ones (in some cases non local but produced and traded according to values shared by the scheme, e.g. organic, artisan or fairly traded) could be relevant in social farming. Some SFSCs (particularly in the case of off-farm sales), use private labels and logos, which practice social farms may follow.

The diversities and particularities of the experiences existing all over the world (box schemes, farmers' markets, on-farm selling, consumer cooperatives, Internet sales, business cooperatives, Grow Your Own, retailing etc.) have attracted a grow-

ing interest from academia and policy-makers due to the nature of these initiatives, as well as for the socio-economic, territorial and environmental scope.

3.2.2 SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF SFSCS'

The main objectives claimed by schemes relate to social values, principally ensuring quality products to consumers (fresh, tasty) and direct contact between the producer and the consumer (trust, social capital). Environmental values come second (sustainable development, environmentally sound practices, carbon footprint), and economic ones (value added to farmers, support to the local economy) third in the promotion messages of SFSC schemes.

Hungarian studies in particular reveal the importance of shared ethical and moral frameworks oriented towards principles of fairness, environmental sustainability and care for local cultural resources (as encapsulated in heritage farming practices and typical products).

In terms of **social** impacts, there is evidence that SFSCs favour the interaction and connection between farmers and consumers, thus promoting the development of trust and social capital. This can lead to the development of a sense of community and 'living-together' and may even result in behavioural changes (eating habits with public health effect e.g. on obesity, shopping habits with more social and environmental awareness, etc.). Overall, when farm-based in rural areas, SFSCs might play an important role in the vitality and quality of life of rural areas concerned, while in urban areas SFSCs focus more on promoting inclusive social change through education on sustainability and ethical issues. In both cases, the linking of social farming and SFSCs can contribute to the benefits mentioned above.

There is a large debate on the **environmental** effect of SFSCs, where intuitively re-localisation of production might be seen as a driver of drastic GHG emissions reduction. Studies tend to demonstrate that 'local' is not a sufficient feature to ensure such benefits. Appropriate logistical arrangements are needed and there is an important potential for improvement in SFSCs to this respect. More generally, the methods of production and processing are important for ensuring less environmental impact. Although 'local' and/or 'short' is not necessarily better (e.g. according to studies in Sweden and UK, since the tomatoes have to be grown in greenhouses which results in increased energy consumption, it is more environmentally friendly to import them from Spain, where they grow in fields) the importance of ethical values and the higher uptake of environmentally sound practices can definitely be seen as positive impact of SFSCs.

In **economic** terms, benefits can be seen in rural development and economic regeneration. There is evidence that local farming systems and short chains do have a higher multiplier effect on local economies than long chains, with impacts also on maintaining local employment, particularly in rural areas. In the context of growing interest in agri-tourism, access to green-space, 'authentic' holiday experiences and purchase of local foods when on holiday, synergies with the tourism sectors are also well acknowledged. This is particularly relevant to on-farm sales or farmer-owned retail outlets, but there is still much potential for further development for all types of SFSCs. Tourism activities represent another excellent opportunity for social farming. In Hungary there are some good examples in this field: e.g. Baráthehy Social Farm - ecotourism ("Castle of Diósgyőr" - a small Castle imitation for children, forest school, integration, creating common value) and catering (own dairy processing facility and a kitchen where 400 meals per day - 250 as social meals and 150 for business purposes - are prepared); Sentinel Farm Public Social Co-operative (Strázsa Tanya Közhasznú Szociális Szövetkezet) - hospitality of families, communities, friends, people with disabilities (guesthouse receiving families and informal training programs for preschool, primary school and high school groups).

At producer and farm level, SFSCs seem to allow a higher share of value added to be retained locally, although quantitative evidence of such impacts is insufficient. In addition, the requirement for higher labour input with different skills (production, processing, marketing, promoting) is a challenge at farm level, particularly for small scale producers. The small scale of the schemes at stake and possible higher costs of production as a consequence, can also be a threat to their longevity, which may help to explain why many schemes turn themselves towards 'profit sufficers' or 'welfare/utility maximizers' models rather than towards 'profit maximisers' ones. In order to build resilient routes to market and reduce risks from market volatility, many examples of farmers using a mix of SFSCs, or combining them with longer chains, can be found.

The '**scaling up**' of SFCs is not only achieved through individual enterprises increasing their size, but also through the proliferation, coordination and connecting-up of many small-scale complementary initiatives. Such initiatives can, or even must, take a wide variety of organisational forms, including small and micro-sized businesses, social enterprises, community interest companies, co-operatives in various forms, and community-led initiatives.

In terms of 'scaling up' SFSCs, there are many benefits to engaging in collaborative behaviour, including:

- **Improved product range:** the product range can be diversified and/or increased so that more producers can be involved and more jobs can be created through retaining the added value in each territory. More people can be

supplied with a greater diversity of products, in more convenient formats. Larger customers can also be supplied (such as public procurement).

- **Resource sharing:** equipment, tools, processing facilities, transport and logistics can be shared in order to improve efficiency and share costs. Knowledge and skills can also be shared (playing to the strengths of different actors, so that each member of the collaborative SFSC, does not necessarily have to be an expert in producing, processing, logistics and marketing).
- **Maintaining infrastructure:** retaining or reinstating local processing facilities such as abattoirs or farmers' shop. The loss of small abattoirs is frequently mentioned as a barrier to SFSCs because so many are now concentrated in huge units, that can be reached only after hours of travel.
- **Increased negotiating power:** more weight in contract negotiations, ensuring fair terms and conditions, gaining access to public and larger scale markets. More power to draw decision makers' attention to legal problems as hygiene rules.
- **Reduced competition:** between many small un-coordinated SFSCs in a region.
- **Mutual support:** collaboration can combat isolation felt by small-scale producers; it can assist the integration of newcomers into food and farming sectors.

Individuals who could be described as 'social innovators' have played a key role in terms of SFSCs in the field of social farming (since social farming can be considered as social innovation). In Hungary, these are individuals educated to higher levels with professional experience beyond their current places of work.

In the context of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), the European Union has already been supporting and will increasingly support SFSCs' initiatives. Therefore, it is advisable for social farms to take advantage of this financing opportunity.

3.2.3 COMMUNITY SUPPORTED AGRICULTURE –BASIC PRINCIPLES OF THE SYSTEM

It is up to us which sort of food supply chain we support, whether we are producers or consumers. Community Supported Agriculture (CSA) provides an environmentally sound sustainable alternative to the current food system with a very special social approach as association members cooperation based on solidarity and mutual benefit. Many definitions intend to describe the essence of this cooperation. Using the European CSA research group definition (2016), CSA is as follows: "CSA is a direct partnership between a group of consumers and producer(s) whereby the risks, responsibilities and rewards of farming activities are shared through long-term agreements. Generally operating on a small and local scale, CSA aims at providing quality food produced in an agroecological way".

Associations of producers and consumers exist in many countries, under different titles. The most frequent name is the English term is the above-mentioned CSA. Originally these cooperatives were born in Japan and are known as *teikei* meaning "food with face of the farmer", in France as AMAP (*Association for Peasant Agriculture Preservation*). Furthermore, these cooperatives are known in Spain as BAM (*Under the Asphalt is the Orchard*) and in Catalonia also as PACA (*Agreement for Agro-ecological Production and Consumption*). No matter the name all refers to a direct agreement between producers and consumers for a regular supply of seasonal products, integrating producers and consumers into one system. As the two groups complement each other, they create a solidarity contract that is based on the consumers' trust and the mutual responsibility. The classic operation of the system is as follows: Consumer group buys a certain amount of products in advance at the beginning of the season. Later products are delivered regularly at a fixed price, based on production costs (it is called frequently 'shares of harvest'). Members share the risks by this method, but also the benefit of harvest that are allocated to customers, as quantity of products depends on weather conditions and plants' health status, while the price does not change. This means in practice that economic income is not linked to production. Consumers prepay this money for the association. It is a kind of investment, but at the same time it makes it possible for farmers to manage only production and retail of their products. This often called 'box system' as an alternative approach to agriculture and offers many opportunities for social farmers.



Information leaflet promoting CSA (AMAP) in France.

How does a CSA work in practice and in what forms?

Consumers pledge to buy products from the producer, generally at a pre-agreed price for a whole year/season. Farmers can then concentrate their efforts on growing high-quality produce during the agreed upon period and also have time to carry out improvements of the farm. This system simplifies the farmers' life, as for most farmers marketing, distributing and selling the produce is a real challenge. In CSA farmers are able to sell their produce in a reasonable price whilst consumers can be sure of where their food is coming from, and can get more acquainted with the production circumstances.

Four basic elements always appear during the collaboration: continuous communication, active involvement, flexibility and transparency. Farmers tend to organize a series of meetings where they plan together with the consumers about the upcoming season's produce. This form of communication strengthens their relationship as they all get to participate in the decision-making process. Unlike retail CSA focuses on involving the consumers and maintaining the small scale farms.

Even direct sales economists consider CSA as a favourable solution for both farmers and consumers as farmer gets a decent price and since there is no middleman the consumer pays less. CSA farming is not about providing cheap food, but it is about providing good quality food at a fair price.

However, the term Community Supported Agriculture can be slightly misleading since the basic objective is for the community to support itself through farming rather than the farm or farmers to be supported by the community.

Nevertheless, it is also worth mentioning that kind of cooperation where consumers are involved not only in decision-making and produce distribution, but also in physical work (e.g. harvesting). It is a great help for the farmer. In return, he/she gives the produce cheaper or give some products for free for his/her consumer who provided farm work. This type of collaboration has an educational purpose and a strong community-building power.

There are different types of CSA:

- **Share farms:** This is the closest form of commitment between producer and consumer. The share represents a portion of the annual crop for which the consumer pays in advance. At the beginning of the year, the farmer estimates the production and its costs and calculates a fair income to support himself/herself (his/her family and the farm). The costs are apportioned between the customers, also known as members, who are closely related to the farm. In exchange for the amount paid, the consumer regularly receives his/her share of the produce. In the case of share farms scheme, it is often not possible to meet individual needs. Members always benefit from the 'current' produce. Contract and

prepayment involve a common risk (E.g. damage caused by extreme weather is not only borne by the producer but also by the consumer).

- **Box schemes (regular customer system):** In this type of CSA consumers and farmers get together and agree to enter into a regular purchasing/selling association. The agreement is made at the beginning of the season where the price for the produce is set. The farmer offers whatever produce they can grow such as meat, eggs, vegetables, etc. Usually the produce is purchased weekly. In this way consumers can rely on a regular weekly supply of the produce, and farmers can plan their harvest according to their market size and demand. Consumers are able to develop their own food purchasing habits knowing the quantity and the content of their box. The personal relationship between producer and consumer is also very important here, with products coming from one or at most a few close producers. Due to the growing popularity of box systems, it is important to note that products ordered through online stores or other intermediaries, even with boxes of vegetables, cannot be considered as part of community-supported agriculture due to lack of personal contact with the producer.
- **Delivery schemes:** Farmers organise a delivery service which can be door to door or even to a collection point. These systems are known as fairly flexible because consumers can choose what and where they want it. But sometimes it can be difficult for the farmers to be sure that their whole supply will be purchased. One of the main benefits of this scheme is that they work well for larger cities where producers and consumers are far away from each other.

What does CSA bring to the community?

- It provides livelihood and employment for the rural population,
- It helps to keep food production local,
- It helps to strengthen the local economy,
- It supports the conservation of artisanal production methods,
- It contributes to natural landscape preservation,
- It provides transparency on prices and farm techniques,
- It provides possibilities for meaningful agricultural activities for social farm target groups (which becomes evident to CSA consumers and local people during community days).

Essential characteristics of CSA are the mutual advantages for farmers and consumers. The biggest advantage is that it brings people together. They operate as safe places for the whole community, starting with the children up to the elderly. Children get to know about ecology, youngsters gain different agricultural and entrepreneurial skills and elderly socialize by working together. Some key advantages for consumers and farmers are shown in Table below.

| WHY IS IT GOOD FOR THE FARMER? | WHY IS IT GOOD FOR THE CONSUMER? |
|--|--|
| Reasonable price for produce | Fair price for produce |
| Direct and long-term relationship with consumers | Knowledge about the origin of the food and its production circumstances |
| More time for production | Consumers can let the farmers directly know about their needs |
| Higher level of financial security - more balanced farm development planning | Regular access to fresh, healthy, environmentally friendly and local food |
| Less energy for marketing and selling | Possibility of visiting the farm where the produce come from |
| Sharing the risk (natural disaster) | Possibility of meeting with other members |
| Better planning of the production volume | If the farmer of the CSA is an organic producer then consumers can get to know the environmental benefits of this farming method |
| Lower carbon footprint | Sharing the benefits (more produce) |
| | Lower carbon footprint |

Some benefits of CSA.

In a CSA an agreement is made at the beginning of the season between the two parties. It requires a lot of planning from the farmer's side in order to satisfy and honour the promises they make towards their consumers. To run a CSA group a lot of energy, commitment and enthusiasm from the producers is required, as well as extra input, especially at the beginning. Loyalty and faith are expected from the consumer side as well. Unexpected changes in weather and other complications can affect farmer's reputation as well as their relationship with the members.

What are the common (for farmers and for consumers) challenges?

- Finding CSA consumers can be challenging if people nearby are only interested in cheap food.
- CSA requires an extra input from the farmer, especially at the beginning (organization, administration).
- Regular communication and information sharing with consumers are often not easy and time consuming. Not all farmers are suitable for this.
- The farmer has to offer a wide range of products to keep the box diversity regardless if she/he is a social farmer or not.
- Farming is inherently a risky business, as it is vulnerable and exposed to uncertainties in nature, especially the weather.
- Consumer may struggle with finding a CSA farmer nearby.
- Consumer may not be able to get all the products in his/her weekly box (e.g. processed products, bakery products, dairy products), she/he might need to search for other sources of supply (market, shops, etc.)
- CSA is progressing slowly since the concept is still new both for farmers and consumers (just as social farming is popular only in a few countries).

What opportunities does the CSA offer in combination with social farming?

CSA is not a rigidly set system, the farmer can make changes according to the needs of consumers. But of course, farmers always need to keep in mind the economy of the farm and professional considerations. Social farming combined with CSA can help to find consumers:

- Organic farms are ideal for working with people with special needs since a healthy environment can be part of their rehabilitation and recovery. In addition, not using pesticides or herbicides means that there are fewer risks for the clients of social farming. Also, in organic farming, manual work (e.g. weeding) is performed more often (especially compared to big industrialized farms that use heavy machines many clients are not able to work with). In the case of social farms, it is often said that the added value of the produced product is that the consumers know the place and the growing conditions of the food produced just as in the field of organic farming. The CSA system provides the perfect opportunity for consumers to visit the farm on a regular basis, where they can become familiar with the production circumstances, and at the same time can meet the clients who work there. Regular meetings play an important role in social inclusion.
- Consumers of the products of a rehabilitation farm may originate from the family members' circle of residents and/or social farm workers. This may simplify the process of finding consumers. (Rehabilitation farm: People with special needs work at the agricultural unit of the social institute with the goal of rehabilitative employment.)
- If the venue of the agricultural activity carried out by people with special needs is a farm operated by a CSA farmer, then consumers - who may visit the farm regularly - appreciate the added value of their regularly or in advance purchased farm products. Hereby they support the farmers' and their own social role in society. The family members of the people with special needs, who work regularly in the CSA farm, and similarly, the social workers of the sending institution, can become CSA consumers. (This also helps to expand the consumer base of the CSA farmer.)

Example of a social farm supporting short supply chain:

- **Clients:** local employees, low skilled persons, unemployed job seekers, students of secondary schools, children.
- **Farm:** Farmyard Branovo, Slovakia (operated by the Association of entrepreneurs in agriculture, cooperative Dvory nad Žitavou).



Logo of the Farmyard Branovo (Gazdovský Dvor Branovo). Source: <https://www.facebook.com/473203336033385/photos/a.473204682699917/833374206682961/?type=1&theater>

Related functions:

- Food production in sufficient quantity and high nutritional value
- Maintenance and improvement of long-term soil fertility
- Creating conditions that correspond to the natural needs and ethical principles of livestock farming
- Establishing confidence between producer and consumer by encouraging domestic production (SFSC)
- Creating new jobs for local people

Agricultural activities:

- Animal keeping according to the traditional technologies (goats, sheep, ducks, geese, rabbits, pigeons, chickens)
- Processing of animal products – milk, meat
- Production of local products
- Marketing
- Cooperation with secondary schools – practice for students; activities for children on the farm – children's corner, environmental education of children

Direct sale:

- Opening hours: from Tuesday to Saturday, 07:00-12:00 and 12:30-16:00
- Monday is sanitary day, sale only by telephonic agreement

Other services:

- Guided tours on horseback
- Ability to use HYPOBUS (vehicle pulled by horses)
- Equestrian wedding photography
- Weekend stay right in the Gazdovskeho dvora
- Introducing pets (cows, goats, chickens, etc.) with the opportunity to participate in breeding, care for and feed the animals.
- Various events for elementary schools in environmental education
- Friesian stallion breeding

Online presence:

Webpage: <http://www.gazdovskydvorbranovo.sk/hlavna-stranka/>

The webpage contains an introductory page about the goals and mission of the enterprise. There is a page which describes all the bred animal species by characteristics and utility properties. The raw and processed goat, sheep and cow milk products, as well as the poultry, lamb, goat, rabbit, beef and pork meat, egg and other products are detailed. The always up-to-date catalogues and price lists are available on the webpage, together with the news and program offers. Rich photo gallery displays the diverse activities and wide range of products provided by the farm. Contact information with map, address, e-mail, phone numbers and opening times is included.

Facebook: <https://www.facebook.com/Gazdovsk%C3%BD-dvor-Branovo-473203336033385/>



The entrance of Farmyard Branovo. Source: <http://www.gazdovskydvorbranovo.sk/zo-zivota-gazdovskeho-dvora/>



Direct sale of farm products. Source: <http://www.gazdovskydvorbranovo.sk/predaj-domacich-vyrobkov-ulany-nad-zitavou/>

3.3 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISES

Cooperative Learning about CSA in small groups:

- **Step 1:** Teacher divides the students into groups. 1 group should consist of 3 students at least.
- **Step 2:** 5 minutes individual work for students: Reading article 1 (provided by the teacher). Getting to know the topic (or problem), forming students' own opinion about the topic.
- 10 minutes small group discussion about article 1.
- **Step 3:** Group work based on distributed articles (article 2 provided by teacher) 5 minutes individual reading.
- **Step 4:** 15 minutes to discuss with members of other group who received the same article (cross-analysis between students in order to increase comprehension).
- **Step 5:** Students return to their original group. Discussion about the articles, 10 minutes.
- **Step 6:** New article reading (article 3 provided by the teacher), the same for everyone, 5 minutes individual reading.
- **Step 7:** Based on all articles, suggesting solutions together (if needed), preparing for an oral summary presentation (or mind map presentation), 10 minutes.
- **Step 8:** Presentation, 5-10 minutes / group.

Designing Social Farm with Direct Sales:

- **Step 1:** Teacher divides the students into groups. 1 group should consist of 3 students at least.
- **Step 2:** Group work: members figure out an imaginary social farm, 15 minutes

The following information should be provided:

- What is the name of the farm?
- What are the main agricultural activities of the farm?
- What kind of added value is created on the farm? (processed products, services, etc.)
- What is the model, what are the channels of product sales?
- How the farm makes its products valuable and interesting for the local consumers?
- What kind of other revenues does the farm have?
- How many people work permanently on the farm, and what functions they perform?
- Who are the clients?
- How the clients are activated on the farm?
- What kind of advantages does each activity have on the different groups of clients?
- **Step 3:** Group work: members visualize the logical scheme of the farm's complex activity by the method of mind-map (tools needed: flipchart paper, felt pens in multiple colours), 10 minutes
- **Step 4:** Presentation, 5 minutes/group
- **Step 5:** Discussion of the social utility and economic viability of the ideas, 5 minutes/group

3.4 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

Design an interactive, yet informative online appearance for the farm which the group worked out in the framework of 'Designing Social Farm with Direct Sales'. One group member is responsible for the webpage and/or mobile application, one for the social media and another one for the online and offline advertising. Elaborate the functions, content and communication strategy of the above-mentioned platforms.

3.5 EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

- Test of theoretical knowledge (written standardised test)
- Evaluation of the ability to work in a team and developing ideas

TIPS AND NOTES

For 'Cooperative learning about CSA in small groups' teacher should collect attention - grabbing articles that also discuss basic theses encouraging students to have a lively conversation.

3.6 LINK

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SECTION 4

TARGET GROUPS IN SOCIAL FARMING

**Claudia Schneider, Verena Borghorst, Marlene Luft,
Christine Baumbach-Knopf, Christian Augsten**



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Time requirement: The educational material covers 270 minutes of theory and approximately 90 minutes' worth of exercises.

Place: Classroom

Tools and materials: Data projector, presentation, worksheets, flipchart, colour markers and self-adhesive colour papers

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

This chapter provides basic knowledge about the main target groups of social farming. Students will be able to define how these people are challenged and describe the mental, physical or social issues they face. The reader will be able to distinguish between the various target groups (e.g. people with mental illnesses and physical disabilities, seniors, and youth) and differentiate between the disabilities and special needs of each target groups. Students will learn how social farming can support the various target groups.

This chapter gives an overview of the various target groups in social farming. More work needs to be done for its use in the supervision and guidance of people with special needs. Knowledge about the target groups is essential to conduct social farming for people with special needs.

Students of social farming should be able to plan personalized daily activities and estimate the limits and abilities of the people with whom they work with.

This chapter provides basic knowledge. The learners should finally be able to conduct a social farming project beneficial to people with special needs or disabilities. Primarily, they should be able to select adequate target group(s) and know how to involve them in farming activities.

ABSTRACT

This chapter gives an overview about the main target groups of social farming. People with disabilities or special needs, intellectually disabled individuals, the elderly, long-term unemployed people, youth with behavioural disorders and refugees are some of the most important target groups of social farming. The chapter characterizes how these people are challenged and how social farming can support them.

KEYWORDS

Target groups, clients, social work

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The target groups of social farming are people with special needs or handicaps who visit a farm for educational or therapeutic reasons, or who live and work on a farm. Among them are: school children; children with autistic spectrum disorder; youth with special needs; adults with mental health issues; intellectually or physically disabled people; ex-prisoners; the elderly; long term unemployed; etnical minorities like Roma; refugees or other groups threatened by social exclusion.

Serving and supporting these people in the best possible way is highly demanding and requires knowledge about symptoms or disabilities as well as skills that enable those involved to adequately interact with the different kind of target groups.

4.1.1 PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES AND PEOPLE WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

The World Health Organization defines **disability** as “an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations, and participation restriction. Disability refers to the negative aspects of the interaction between individuals with a health condition (such as cerebral palsy, Down Syndrome, depression) and personal and environmental factors (such as negative attitudes, inaccessible transportation and public buildings and limited social supports).” (WHO 2011).

A disability can be:

- physical or sensory
- intellectual or through learning difficulties
- mental

People with disabilities are affected and challenged in many ways (WHO 2011):

- Poorer health outcomes (e.g. co-morbidities, age-related conditions, higher rates of risky behaviour like smoking, physical inactivity and poor diet)
- lower educational achievements
- less economic participation (e.g. higher rate of unemployment)
- higher rates of poverty
- increased dependency and restricted participation

Not every person involved in social farming is disabled by the World Health Organization's definition. The chapter includes as well youth that have experienced neglect, refugees that are struggling with language barriers and cultural clashes or the long-term unemployed, as important target groups of social farming. Therefore, social farming frequently also refers to the term **"people with special needs"**. These target groups are also often challenged by lower education, poverty, substance abuse or social exclusion.

Furthermore, often they are in danger of getting mentally or physically ill. For example youth or refugees that experienced violence can suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder or depression (mental disabilities). Little physical activity and little social interaction of the long-term unemployed can also result in declining mental health conditions.

On top of this, many people involved in social farming have a dual diagnosis. E.g. many drug addicted people are also suffering from mental health issues (Ellings, 2012) and there may be disabled people among refugees or long-term unemployed.

4.1.2 HOW CAN SOCIAL FARMING SUPPORT ITS TARGET GROUPS?

Social farming can support humans in many different ways. A British study interviewed the staff of care farms, who generally described them as a "homely, supportive environment where people can experience nature and sustainable food production". They perceived the care farm to be a place that provides an inclusive environment conducive to clients' personal growth; it enables them to connect with themselves, others and nature and to develop autonomy. People can be themselves at the care farm where they have the opportunity to learn about themselves and nature (Hemmingway/Norton, 2016).

A German study describes the benefits of social farming as follows (van Elsen/Kalisch 2007):

Physical effects:

- Development of skills
- Improved physical health
- Employment

Mental health effects:

- Awareness
- Enthusiasm
- Increased personal responsibility
- Increased self-esteem
- Increased self-value
- Increased well-being

Social effects:

- Social interaction within the project
- Social interaction outside the project
- Social skills
- Team working
- Work habit, discipline
- Work success
- Independence
- Academic success (education)

Community effects:

- Better understanding of disability /health issues in the society
- Improvement of social contacts in local community
- Participation of persons with disability in local community

Additionally, the projects named following effects (van Elsen/Kalisch 2007):

- Keep level of competence or ability
- Structured day
- Participation in economic life
- Learn to control one's will
- Define goals for life
- Development of motoric skills (school farm)
- Increased esteem for agricultural products
- Get to know agricultural coherences
- Learn how to contact animals
- Professional qualification or integration, competence, appreciation
- placement in the first labour market

4.1.3 KNOWING THE LIMITATIONS OF SOCIAL FARMING**a) Knowing the curing limits of social farming**

Very often social farming activities have a curing and therapeutic effect. Nevertheless, from a professional point of view, pedagogy and therapy are based on different competences. Therapy aims at curing a condition (Felters, 1998) while pedagogy wants to enable learning experience. Therefore, it is necessary to know the limits social farming has in curing and treating people with mental diseases or disabilities. Social farming is mainly not about curing. However it offers positive experience, a feeling of being needed, social, physical and mental health effects. Therefore social farming can support the mental and physical wellbeing of the people involved.

b) Knowing the limits of the people you work with

Next to knowing the limits of curing or treating clients, it is important to observe the limits of every person the farm likes to involve in a social farming activity. Thus it is necessary to know the symptoms of a disease or mental conditions (e.g. of trauma, relapse, depression), behaviour patterns or behavioural syndromes that a social farmer might face while working with a specific target group. Overwork needs to be avoided. A situation that may not be stressful in the eyes of the farmer can be mentally or physically very challenging for a person with special needs.

c) Knowing limits by job qualification

Therefore every social farmer also needs to know his/her limits by job qualification.

While a social farmer or social worker is not a trained doctor, he/she should be able to recognize when medical or therapeutic advice is necessary.

Mostly social farming means to work in a team and is based on an interdisciplinary approach. Medical competences might be added to the team by involving professionals from fields like care and health. A deep understanding of people with special needs and of methods of social work in general, is required to gain the competences for recognizing a person's needs and culture. If the farmer does not possess this knowledge him/herself, staff coming from other professional disciplines might fill this gap.

d) Knowing your personal limits

On top of this, farmers or social workers in social farming need to know their own personal limits. Having a new income revenue is not reason enough to start with social farming. Supervising people with special needs requires time, patience and empathy. These tasks need to be realized next to tasks within the family, other farming tasks and personal ambitions for leisure time. Soft skills are needed and the social farmer should be seriously interested in working and living with the people they invite to their farm.

Depending on the social farming model and the target group, every social farmer should reflect to him/herself: Am I personally able to involve people with special needs in my daily work and life? E.g. is my family happy to welcome a foster child or a person with disabilities at our home? Do I have the patience and empathy to train someone with special needs? Do I have enough time and energy to tackle a new challenge?

4.1.4 AVOID STEREOTYPING

The positive effects vary depending on the target group, their needs and impairments. Also the ways different target groups can be involved vary a lot. Farming activities and goals of a therapy need to harmonize. There is no general way of realizing social farming that works for all target groups.

For example, people suffering from a depression need tasks that boost self-esteem, are easy to grasp and will lead to a sense of achievement.

This therapeutic goal could maybe reached by involving them in filigree work (e.g. gardening activities that enable focusing the mind but are physically not too exhausting).

For a person suffering from addiction the opposite might be true (hard physical work e.g. forestry work, physical exhaustion and a “natural” rush of adrenaline). Different activities in farming, gardening or forestry are based on different therapeutic goals that vary from person to person.

This chapter provides an overview about some of the main target groups of social farming and their needs. However the reader needs to understand that this is merely a simple overview of some of the most common target groups. Understanding a person and his/her needs is more complex than reading this overview. Human nature is not as simple as reducing a person's needs to one disease or disability. A human with a mental health issue or disability has, like every other human, a biography, wishes, ideas, characteristic features, likes and dislikes that have nothing to do with the special need or disability itself.

Therefore, it is important not to stereotype people based on this short summary. For example, even if many mentally disabled people like repetitive and simple work, there is no general rule, telling you that all mentally disabled like to work at a potato sorting machine. Sometimes the opposite might be true, and a mentally disabled person needs to be challenged by work that is rich in variety.

The same is true for every target group of social farming. E.g. there are many studies showing the positive effect gardening or animal assisted therapy can have on children with autistic spectrum disorder. However, it is important not to draw the conclusion that all people suffering from autistic spectrum disorder do like animals.

Social farming should therefore only be seen as one of many options of including or supporting people with special needs. For some people, it is not the right choice. In every case it is important to assess individually:

What needs does this person have and how can social farming support this person?

Is the focus on employment, care or therapy?

What activities are suitable for this person and how can he/she be part of the team of the farm?

The target groups and their needs are described in detail in the following chapters.¹

4.1.5 INTELLECTUALLY DISABLED PEOPLE

„Disorders of intellectual development are a group of etiologically diverse conditions originating during the developmental period characterized by significantly below average intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior that are approximately two or more standard deviations below the mean (approximately less than the 2.3rd percentile), based on appropriately normed, individually administered standardized tests.“ (ICD—11- Code: 6A00)

Intellectual disability is expressed by learning difficulties, cognitive disorders or intelligence that is well below average.

Often humans with intellectual disabilities are characterised by (Herhaus 2019):

- a good temporal orientation under easy conditions
- limited situative and personal orientation, self-evaluation, often overestimation or low self-esteem
- limited perception, difficulties in understanding and learning
- impaired short-term and long-term memory
- partly a very good partial memory (e.g. for number)
- difficulties in concentration (e.g. easily disturbed by noise)

¹ However, little research has been done about the involvement of target groups in social farming activities, and so far, there is no teaching material about this topic at all. So much of the advice given in the following chapters are based on the experience of social farming consultants. A profound research about how to involve various target groups in social farming activities and what to pay attention to is very much needed.

- emotional impairments (e.g. apathy, nervousness, emotional lability)
- unbalanced intelligence (e.g. on the one hand intelligence deficits, on the other hand special skills in the area of music)
- impaired thinking: sticking close to sensory impressions, slow thinking
- difficulties in decontextualising, using information in new situations
- limited ability of abstraction
- exuberance (either loving devotion or total refusal)
- strong dependence on outer appearance e.g. hair cut, uniforms

How can social farming support intellectually disabled people?

There are three ways in which social farming positively affects people with intellectual disabilities.

Firstly, many social farms offer living and housing opportunities for intellectually disabled people. Self-supply by home grown food is an important component of the philosophy of many farms that offer housing. Among them are many Camphill communities that offer, next to housing, training opportunities and a healing space in a farming environment. Sheltered workshops can also provide work and housing at a farm at the same time. Also family farms can host intellectually disabled people, make them part of the family life and the daily farm work.



Helping hands at a farm. Author: CJD Erfurt

Occupation, including paid work, is a second pillar in realizing social farming with intellectual disabled people. Next to sheltered workshops or family farms that host people, also, day services for intellectually disabled people incorporate gardening activities in their programs. Here the large variety of various work processes in farming are advantageous. After considering each person's skills and disabilities, there are many options to find the right task for every person.

Finally, social farming provides therapy and rehabilitation. Animal assisted therapy and horticultural therapy are acknowledged ways of supporting this target group as well.

Whether housing, occupation or therapy is the focus: social farming can support intellectually disabled people in various ways. It is a way of social inclusion. People feel needed as they do valuable work at the farm: They are responsible for plants or animals. Meaningful activities can support self-confidence and self-development.

Social Farming Ireland analyzed various studies and summarized how key values in intellectual disabilities policy reflect in social farming. While the results describe the situation in Ireland, the study also shows the impact social farming can have in supporting intellectually disabled people in general:

| KEY VALUES/ PRINCIPLES IN INTELLECTUAL DISABILITY POLICY | THE SOCIAL FARMING MODEL: WHAT THE RESEARCH TELLS US |
|---|---|
| Person-centredness | <p>Social farming is inherently centred on discovering, evaluating and realising the talents, skills and contribution of individuals.</p> <p>The approach is highly individualised and person-centred. It is, facilitated by the small number of participants and the strong focus of the social farmer on supporting and working alongside the participants.</p> |
| Dignity | <p>Social Farming provides significant – in many cases, previously unrealized – opportunities for autonomy, for trying new things and for taking positive risks in a ‘live’ and natural environment.</p> |
| Empowerment | <p>People are empowered to choose Social Farming as an option and in some cases, to remain doing so for extended periods of time.</p> <p>Within the placement experience, people are also given opportunities to exercise choice, to contribute to decision making and to the everyday operation of the farm.</p> |
| Choice | <p>Social Farming support is always the choice of the people themselves.</p> <p>There is a clear understanding that people can withdraw at any time if social farming is not right for them.</p> <p>The Individual Support Plan stimulates meaningful discovery and dialogue on the participants own goals, desired outcomes, interests, needs, etc.</p> <p>The Social Farming model also provides a high level of variety and choice within each placement as to the activities undertaken and the pace of activity.</p> |
| Social inclusion | <p>[...]</p> <p>Participants build real and meaningful friendships and relationships with the farmers and the farm family, as well as new connections within the wider circle of people in their own communities [...]</p> <p>The new connections formed also play a role in breaking down barriers and challenging attitudes to and perceptions of disability in wider society.</p> |
| Independence | <p>Social Farming participants are empowered to engage with the farmer and the activities as independently and freely as possible [...]</p> <p>-[...]</p> <p>The natural farm-based model of support contributes to building the confidence, independent living skills and capacity of participants.</p> |
| Equality | <p>Social Farming provides the environment and the model of support whereby people are able to work side-by-side on tasks with the farmer and others to contribute to the whole project. The farm is a very ‘levelling’ place.</p> |
| Respect | <p>Participants in Social farming are treated as adults, with their views being sought and respected. Further, their contribution and sense of responsibility are nurtured and valued.</p> |
| Personal development and fulfilment | <p>Social Farming contributes to the personal development of participants across dimensions such as practical and farming skills, improved levels of independence, and the continuing involvement of social skills and confidence.</p> |
| Valuable social roles | <p>Social Farming provides significant opportunities for participants to engage in meaningful, purposeful and above all, ordinary activity (including some work activities) [...]</p> <p>Social Farming enhances participants own sense of self-worth and identity as valuable and engaged members of society [...]</p> |
| Health and well-being | <p>Social Farming enables participants to take part in some level of physical activity, but in a very purposeful and natural way, eg. out in the fresh air, in nature and often in scenic surroundings. It has led to improvements in physical fitness, strength and agility.</p> <p>The opportunity to really connect with animals and plants is a very positive and life-enhancing experience. The rich sensory environment of the farm may be particularly valuable for those with profound disabilities, including physical disabilities.</p> |

The impact of social agriculture in supporting people with intellectual disabled people.

What does the social farmer need to pay attention to?

By encouraging, respecting and activating an intellectually disabled person, a disabled person can be very well supported. On the contrary, if nobody adjusts to that person, his needs and his autonomy this can result in self-alienation and manipulability (Speck, 2016). Self-confidence and motivation can be pushed by enabling participation (Meidlinger/van Elsen, 2009). For the farmer it is necessary to recognize if a person is attracted to animals or plants. He/she should be able to react to affinities and offer activities based on this.

In many cases intellectually disabled people prefer routine and repeating or recurring work to jobs that are rich in variety. Having the same tasks again and again might give them a feeling of security and familiarity (Meidlinger/van Elsen, 2009). Some people might tend to deviate from the topic. Whilst it is important to note that struggling is possible, on the other hand, it is important to bring the person back to the work, so that the work flow is not disturbed. As in farming, free time and work are not strictly separated. It is also important that the people that work at the farm associate something positive with their field of work (Meidlinger/van Elsen, 2009). Periods of rest, a suitable location for resting or an option to work slowly are important. Some disabled might be not able to complete jobs themselves but like to accompany the farmer while he/she is doing his/her job.

4.1.6 MENTAL DISABILITIES

Abnormalities due to mental disability manifest themselves in feelings, thoughts and actions. Very often the affected person is suffering because of their inner problems.

Mental health problems that are common among social farming clients are:

- fear/panic (anxiety disorder): excessive, exaggerating panic reaction with or without a minimum external threat (Freyberger/Schneider).
- borderline –syndrome (BPS): a personality disorder that affects acting, feeling and thinking level → This might result in difficult or paradox behaviour: it can be shown in impulsiveness stable but intensive relationships between people, rapid mood swings, changing self-perception and self-image. Very often these characteristics are accompanied by self-damaging behaviour, feeling of inner emptiness, dissociation, or fear of being left (Emmelkamp, 2002).
- depressive illnesses: depressed mood, cogitation, little motivation and energy → Very often happiness, pleasurable sensation, self-confidence, performance, empathy and interest in life are gone. Enjoyment and quality of life are affected (Bromet et al., 2011).

Additional mental ill-health issues include psychoses, neurosis, personality disorders like schizophrenia or multiple personality disorder. Impairments other than depression are addictions or burnout.

How can mentally ill people be supported by social farming?

People with mental health issues can be supported by supervision, company and talks. Farming activities can help them to regain their stability and independence (Loue et al., 2014).

Farming activities can also facilitate the social interaction of mentally disabled people. Many mentally ill people live in a rather secluded manner. Joint work or rest periods, allow the possibility to talk and laugh together. Community spirit can arise. Connection with other people is not the focus but a by-product as people work together on farming tasks. For some mentally ill this can relieve the pressure of social interaction (Elsey et al., 2016).

Also, physical activity is important for mental health. Here social farming is a wonderful opportunity to motivate people to be physically active. In farming, physical activities are not realized just for the sake of it. Physical activity is rather part of the activities needed for taking care of plants and animals. Being physically tired by the end of the day can help mentally ill people to fall asleep and provides them with a sense of achievement (Elsey et al., 2016).

In this case, being responsible for a plant or an animal is a great incentive. Physical activity ensures that the mentally ill individuals have a commitment to to and are responsible for other living beings (I have to water the plant. I have to feed the animal. They rely on me).

Simultaneously stress and anxiety can be reduced by interacting with animals and with nature (Elsey et al., 2016). Activities like planting vegetables or tending to livestock require concentration and attention but not intense thought. These kind of activities allow the mind to relax, which is especially important as many mentally ill have problems with worries and concerns.

Also like in the case of many other target groups' social farming is a way of learning new skills or even obtaining a job qualification.

What should the social farmer pay attention to?

In many cases, the pressure to perform should be avoided. Stressful situations may trigger people with mental health issues. Therefore, social farmers need to be aware that often people with mental health issues are unfit for work. Results like getting up and coming to the farm are considered as success. Maybe a clear separation of duties between the farmer and a therapist or social worker would be advantageous. This way, the farmer could focus more on the farming activities and his possible high work load in the field, thereby reducing the stress situations for the client.

Giving a person a clear responsibility (e.g. being responsible for a distinct plant or animal) can increase motivation and gives structure and clarity to that individual.

4.1.7 PHYSICALLY DISABLED PEOPLE

Physical disabilities include motor impairments, visual, auditory or communication dysfunction, as well as chronic diseases. The type of impairment varies depending on the disability or disease.

Disability can be accidental or inherited.

Physical disability is more than constrained movement or constraint sensory perception. The whole personality can be affected: motor activity, cognition, intelligence, learning, action ability, emotional behaviour, communication, identity development and social interaction (Bechstein, 2010).

People with hearing impairments for example, are also challenged by communication barriers (impaired speech development, limited ability to understand others) a lack of orientation skills, (a person cannot listen and complete the visual orientation), psychological stress (life in silence, limitation of social relations and social isolation (mainly because of problems in communication) (Hudcová *et al.*, 2018).

People with visual impairments are not only affected by limited orientation. Very often visually impaired people are also afraid of new situations and of interacting with a large group of people (Hudcová *et al.*, 2018).

How can social farming support physical disabled people?

As in the case of other target groups, social farming empowers social and working environment participation. People work together, support each other and achieve something together. A self-determined life can be supported by creating a barrier free environment and barrier free jobs.

Professional training is possible as social farming is solution-focused when it comes to finding a way of enabling someone to do a job (e.g. building a barrier free stable, utilizing special tools, adjusting working hours to exercise capacity).

Very often social farming with physically disabled people is focused on nature experiences such as sensual gardens (Van Elsen/Kalisch 2007: 6). All senses are used (smelling, hearing, seeing, feeling). Even if one or more senses are limited, there are still many ways of experiencing nature using the other senses. In case of profound and multiple disabilities, there is always a way of experiencing nature (e.g. lying in hay, feeling and smelling it, listening to birds, touching a sheep).

Social farming is also a great opportunity for rehabilitation.

Depending on the work area, social farming enables physically disabled people to feel their body and to exercise. Trekking and training with animals or tasks like cleaning the dung away train perception, reaction capacity, coordination and other motor skills (Göhring/Schneider-Rapp, 2017).

Working with a dung fork, for example, requires holding the balance. Movements like bending forward or sitting up are necessary. Muscle tension is needed. This way people suffering from spastic paralysis or people that are paralyzed on one side can train neglected muscles. Driving a fully loaded wheelbarrow trains posture and muscles through arms and legs being used at the same time (Göhring/Schneider-Rapp, 2017). Fine motor skills can be trained through activities like processing wool (washing, brushing, spinning) or while combing a horse (Göhring/Schneider-Rapp, 2017). There are many farm animals that like companionship and attention, e.g. getting stroked.

What does the social farmer need to pay attention to?

Not every farming job can be done with a physical disability. However many barriers can be broken down by using special tools for disabled people and by designing a barrier farm (e.g. shed doors that easily open, wheelchair accessible barns). In order to transform a farm into a wheelchair friendly environment, you have to consider ramps, curbs, sills and the roughness of surface material. The physical level of some activities must also be considered.

Safety is of high importance as perception of space might be limited. If visually impaired people work or live at the farm sufficient light and noise reduction is necessary for undisturbed hearing perception (Hudcová *et al.*, 2018).

Assistive technologies and modification can enable participation. Even wheelchair accessible tractors exist nowadays. Furthermore, farming activities should not only focus on the disability, but also on what the person is able to do. Movements that are not done in everyday life, might be managed whilst engaging in farm work. A child suffering from spasticity might stretch a lot to stroke a sheep and a person in a wheelchair might lift things up or lean forward if he can feed a cow with a pitchfork (Göhring/Schneider-Rapp, 2017). Also, there are other farming activities than hard physical work. Food processing and/or processing of other farming products (e.g. wool, wood) are great opportunities to involve physically disabled people.



Social Farm in Germany. Author: Findewege e.V.

4.1.8 YOUTH WITH BEHAVIOURAL DISORDERS OR SPECIAL NEEDS

Youth with behavioural disorders or special problems is a diversified target group. Below this you can find foster children, youth with a disability or that experienced trauma, youth displaying behavioural disorders, and offenders or unaccompanied minor refugees.

Behavioural disorders describe patterns of disruptive behaviours that last for at least 6 months. Behavioural disorder may involve: (menalhealth.gov, 2017)

- Inattention
- Hyperactivity
- Impulsivity
- Defiant behaviour
- Drug use
- Criminal activity

In the last few years, adolescents have been socially challenged even more due to social differentiation and social exclusion from parts of the society (Schubart *et al.*, 2007). This development is indicated by increasing youth unemployment, high child poverty, challenges with transition into employment, youth violence, xenophobia among youth, migration from structurally weak areas or addiction (e.g. drugs, alcohol, consumption, gambling) (ib.).

Adolescents that are faced with these problems very often have difficulties with social adaption. The behaviour of youth contradicts generalities, social norms and values (Lipkowski, 1971).

Youth with behavioural problems are “often stuck in the home situation (arguments and aggression, runaway behaviour), school or work (they avoid going to school or work) or have the wrong friends and no positive way to use their leisure time (drugs, criminality)” (Ellings, 2012).

How can social farming support youth?

Social farming with adolescents can focus on education or care. A young person can live for an extended period of time at the farm (e.g. as a foster child, trainee or within special pedagogic programs), or individuals or groups of youngsters can come to the farm to realize special project days or weeks.

In many cases social farming offers a safe place for youth in difficult situations. Many conflicts can be avoided because the youth are not in contact with other troubled individuals whom they would normally have met at a facility or at school. As young people are far away from the environment where they got into trouble, it is less likely that they “take the wrong turn again (Ellings, 2012).

In the farming community or at the family farm, youth can stabilize and structure themselves. The farmer is always present and can also serve as a positive role model, whereas in many facilities staff are changing continuously (Ellings, 2012).

Meaningful and pleasurable tasks (Kogstad *et al.*, 2011) are a huge benefit in the eyes of many youngsters. Physical work in farming leads to learning of new skills that were not needed in their former life or at school. Youth benefit from new experiences like chopping wood or riding a tractor. They obtain more trust and confidence in themselves. Simultaneously, physical work can support youth who have feelings like anger and aggression. Farming work can transform this energy into something positive (Kalisch *et al.*, 2009).

Practical work attracts many youth that dislike theoretical education. It offers practical experience and awakes interests they would otherwise not discover.

These points are also true in the case of juvenile offenders. The acceptance of responsibilities (e.g. guarding a herd of sheep), being stretched to their limits or overcoming fear (e.g. camping in the woods without a tent) can increase their personal limits and set them on the right path.

What should social farmers pay attention to?

Working with youngsters with behavioural problems and adolescents who might have experienced violence and abuse can be very challenging. Social farmers that work with this client group might experience feelings like anger, aggression or depression from the adolescent.

It is important for the social farmer to know how to handle the feelings and actions of their client. Empathy and self-assertion are required.

Social farmers should be informed about attachment theory, traumatization and pedagogies, as well as emotional distancing and closeness, while working with vulnerable youth.

In order to work with adolescents, the farm requires a special structure. Various farming activities are necessary to engage the interest of the adolescents and to give them the possibility to learn new skills. Additionally, socio-pedagogical professionals might be required to guarantee assistance and care. In the case of working with infants this may be obligatory by national law.

4.1.9 ADDICTS

Many social farms focus on people suffering from an addiction. Therefore this mental disease is described more in detail.

Accordingly, addiction can focus on drugs like alcohol, cannabis, tobacco, amphetamines, MDMA etc. Or addiction can be expressed as behaviour like gambling, gaming or eating disorders.

According to the World Health Organization, a definite diagnosis of dependence should normally only be made if three or more of the following have been present together at some time during the previous year: (WHO 2019)

- A strong desire or sense of compulsion to take the substance;
- Difficulties in controlling substance-taking behaviour in terms of its onset, termination, or levels of use;

- A physiological withdrawal state when substance use has ceased or has been reduced, as evidenced by: the characteristic withdrawal syndrome for the substance; or use of the same (or closely related) substance with the intention of relieving or avoiding withdrawal symptoms;
- Evidence of tolerance, such that increased doses of the psychoactive substance are required in order to achieve effects originally produced by lower doses (clear examples of this are found in alcohol- and opiate-dependent individuals who may take daily doses sufficient to incapacitate or kill nontolerant users);
- Progressive neglect of alternative pleasures or interests because of psychoactive substance use, increased amount of time necessary to obtain or take the substance or to recover from its effects;
- Persisting with substance use despite clear evidence of overtly harmful consequences, such as harm to the liver through excessive drinking, depressive mood states consequent to periods of heavy substance use, or drug-related impairment of cognitive functioning. Efforts should be made to determine that the user was actually, or could be expected to be, aware of the nature and extent of the harm.

How can social farming support these people?

Generally social farming is a way of aftercare. This means clean addicts can be supported by finding their way back to daily life without alcohol, drugs or other addictive behaviour. Occupations that give this structure are important. These lead to a balanced day and night rhythm and physical exhaustion (maybe even the possibility to make liminal experience (rush of adrenaline without consumption). Hard work results in a sense of achievement (van Elsen, 2017). Furthermore, the farm community can provide and satisfy a feeling of belonging. This is especially important as many addicts live at the fringe of society. The farmer is a positive role model and a supervisor.

What needs the social farmer to pay attention to?

Being clean or sober is a prerequisite for all clients.

Clear rules and definite borders are important for people challenged by an addiction. The farmer should be a good supervisor and a role model who is clean and hard working. He or she needs to pay attention to rule violations. This means that the farmer should immediately react, in the case of rule violations, by taking appropriate steps or by engaging in the relevant conversation. As a relapse is possible, a common strategy on ways to deal with this is necessary, e.g. what is going to happen if somebody takes drugs again? is a zero tolerance policy in place? will sobriety be checked?

Depending on the social farming model collaboration with a clinic, therapists or an advice centre for addicts is a prerequisite. It might be necessary that the addict attend a support group or a clinic as well.

Time is needed as well as an empathic and resolute personality. Other people that live or work at the farm need to be aware of the challenges of addicted people. Depending on the addiction media, tobacco or alcohol should not be accessible.

Next to enabling social interaction, it is also advisable to create refuge. The social farmer should show appreciation and support, thus creating trust in working independently.



Farm teamwork. Author: Heilpädagogisch-Künstlerisches Therapeutikum Chemnitz e.V.

4.1.10 LONGTERM UNEMPLOYED

The reasons for long-term unemployment vary. People with disabilities and mental health issues (e.g. depression), physical health issues, socially deprived people or single parents are at the highest risk. Additionally, the elderly, migrants and people without vocational training are at a high risk.

Long-term unemployment can lead to social decline, depletion and resignation (Bundesagentur für Arbeit, 2019).

Many people in, or at risk of long-term unemployment do not have much hope of finding a new job (resignation). This is also because very often they are already suffering from mental or physical health issues. Health issues might even increase during long-term unemployment as a missing daily structure can lead to a lack of motion and motivation.

Very often long-term unemployed people are afraid of working again. This can be a result of their experiencing only short term employment or that they have lost social competences during the unemployment period.

On top of this low income also means less social participation. This can lead to loneliness and social exclusion.

How can social farming support these people?

Unemployment can lead to isolation, loneliness and a feeling of being useless and not being needed. Social farming can break this cycle by offering useful activities and social interaction.

Farming activities structure the day, which is crucial for many long-term unemployed.

Further, also long-term unemployed parents that start working again by participating in social farming activities, act as a positive role model for their children.

On top of this social farming can be a first step back to a regular job, as it offers training, teaches new skills and helps discovering new interests. Maybe the long-term unemployed will even start working in farming.

What does the farmer need to pay attention to?

A structured day as well as a moderate workload that slowly increases is important. It is also advisable to find activities that fit the interest of the person or which might link to jobs the unemployed person had in the past (e.g. book keeping, housekeeping).

4.1.11 THE ELDERLY

The elderly are a very diverse target group.

Some older people might carry their age well. However diseases increase with age.

Typical age-related mental health issues are:

Geriatric depression:

Contrary to a normal depression age related depression is also expressed by physical complaints, strange behaviour and symptoms of dementia. (see Schneider/Nessler 2011)

Dementia:

„Dementia is an acquired brain syndrome characterized by a decline from a previous level of cognitive functioning with impairment in two or more cognitive domains (such as memory, executive functions, attention, language, social cognition and judgment, psychomotor speed, visuoperceptual or visuospatial abilities). The cognitive impairment is not entirely attributable to normal aging and significantly interferes with independence in the person's performance of activities of daily living.“ (ICD 11 Code 6D80 – 6D8Z)

The guiding symptom in dementia is disturbance of memory. Impaired short term memory and memory retention are early symptoms. This is followed by an impaired orientation ability. In the course of the disease, gained knowledge and skills grounded in the long term memory get lost (Platzek, 2014).

Also many physical diseases increase with age, especially:

- Heart attack
- Stroke
- Arthritis
- Diabetes
- Incontinence

How can social farming support this target group?

Social farming with the elderly can be realized in various ways. It might be geared towards fighting isolation and loneliness. Also, being on a farm can be connected with positive childhood memory. Social farming projects with the elderly can provide senior focused housing at a farm or senior focused leisure activities. Some seniors want to spend their retirement in a rural area. They like to be connected to nature and like to do activities like cooking and baking, taking care of garden and animals.

Some social farms also provide care and therapy. Garden therapy and animal assisted therapy can be part of the program.

Generally, activities on social farms like cleaning the dung away, feeding animals and weeding require physical activities exertion and enable the elderly to keep fit. They are motivated to be physically active.

A Dutch research especially emphasizes the benefits social farming can have for people suffering from dementia.

This group normally has difficulties maintaining social relationships and participating in society (de Bruin et al. 2015: 8). A Dutch study leads to the conclusion that people with dementia that are looked after in Green Care Facilities participate more often in society compared to people visiting regular day care facilities. Meaningful activities gave them a sense of belonging. This made them feel able to contribute to something (ib. 7). Regular day care facilities and social farming allow social interaction and recreational activities. However, on top of this, farms for people with dementia also offer paid employment and volunteer work. In that respect, social farming provides many ways of participating in society (Ellings, 2012). Additionally staying on a farm stimulates people with dementia to take care of food and water (Ellings, 2012).

What does the social farmer need to pay attention to?

Activities need to be age appropriate. Both the farm and the activities need to be tailored to the needs and typical age related challenges (e.g. hearing and seeing impairments, difficulties in ambulating, dementia). Depending on the social farming model cooperation with a care facility or emergency service is necessary. The farm can provide supplementary facilities offering for supporting the elderly who live at the farm (laundry service, facility management).

4.1.12 SCHOOLCHILDREN

There are various ways of involving kids in social farming. Contrary to focusing on children with special needs this chapter will focus on pedagogical work with school classes and educational farms. School lessons mainly take place in the classroom. Knowledge is imparted theoretically. Students mainly learn by hearing or reading about something, not by experiencing. Therefore educational farming is an innovative approach to teaching in the fields of climate change, competition with industrial farms. Issues like sustainability, animal welfare, climate change or the value of food can be discussed with the farmer.

But even more important farm based education is based on real life experience, of getting the hands dirty and of using all the senses (Wellensiek/Schiller, 2013). It involves participation of the pupils in farming activities like harvesting, product processing or taking care of animals. Most children are curious by nature and love to discover new things and there is a strong connection to every living thing (Hartkemeyer et al., 2014).

There are various ways farms can shape their offers for school classes – depending on the intensity of the course, age and number of children, season, and focus of the farm. Social farming might focus on learning about a special crop or animal, might involve one brief or recurring visits of the farm.

How can social farming support children's education?

Social farming with school classes is not just a guided tour but a proper concept of farm based education. Here theoretical learning in the classroom is replaced by practical learning at the farm. Compared to other social farming programs the main target is education not inclusion or therapy. Children experience where the food comes from. They learn about cultivation and the work that is needed to grow food. They learn about what the farmer needs to consider (e.g. soil composition, climate, and economic factors) and maybe even about his worries (e.g.). Additionally in farming there are many ways to work in a team and to motivate children to try new things. Social skills, thoughtfulness and empathy are trained by working with animals or by learning how to take care of a plant. Inhibition levels, fears and resistance can be reduced (Wellensiek/Schiller, 2013). Sometimes kids can be stretched to their physical limits.

What does the farmer need to pay attention to?

Social farming can have a crucial role in environmental education. Social farmers need to know how to develop concepts that fit to their farm and harmonize with the daily farming activities. Pedagogical skills are crucial to fit the needs of children

and youth. The farmer needs to consider the age of the children and should know how to link farm based education with the interests of the students or their curriculum.

Also special health and safety requirements for working with children need to be considered. Next to knowing which tools and task are suitable for children, it is especially important to know how farming animals handle a group of kids. This is important for the safety of the children and the animal as well. Children, especially if they come in a crowd, can be loud and hectic.



Farm pedagogics. Author: Heilpädagogisch-Künstlerisches Therapeutikum Chemnitz e.V.

4.1.14 REFUGEES

The term refugee is defined by international law by the 1951 Refugee Convention: A refugee is a person that is “persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion [A refugee is a person, that] is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country, or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it (Refugee Convention, Article 1.2).

The term refugee is politically agreed on by international law and leads to special rights for the persons that fall in the category refugee. However the reasons for escaping from the native country are much broader than described by the 1951 Refugee Convention. Therefore, the term forced migration or forced displacement also includes factors other than race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. People that are leaving their country due to ecological disasters, climate change or because of hopelessness due to of the economic situation of their country are not refugees acknowledged by international law. However, they have left their native countries because of lack of perspective that might even be life threatening.

Mostly political upheavals go hand in hand with violent conflict, economic distress and human rights abuses. Therefore, there are growing difficulties in distinguishing between people who have escaped their countries for political reasons (official refugees), and people that have left their countries due to economic distress. This is why the term “asylum seekers” became more important as it describes a person, whose status has not been determined yet (Turton, 2003).

How are refugees challenged?

People that managed to escape to Europe have to deal with many challenges: they are grieving because they lost their home and they are separated from their loved ones. They are challenged by linguistic, legal and cultural issues. Earning money might be of prime importance as fleeing to Europe can be very expensive. Simultaneously many refugees send money home to their loved ones. Finding a job might also be crucial for receiving a residence permit. A life of peace, to get

asylum and a job, to learn the language and to be socially included might be of highest relevance for refugees. Very often social farming with refugees will focus on supporting these needs.

Especially young refugees coming from a conflict area or war zone might have grown up without moral orientation. They have experienced violence and a lack of social order (TÖH, 2017). Female refugees might have experienced sexual violence (Steffens, 2016). Very often they were not allowed to go to school or work (Verein menschen leben, 2017).

Very often refugees experienced violence, loss of their loved ones and other traumatic events during war, disaster or flight. This doesn't mean that every refugee is suffering from post-traumatic-stress-disorder, but it means that many of them are emotionally challenged by their past experience.

Post-traumatic-stress-disorder:

"Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a disorder that may develop following exposure to an extremely threatening or horrific event or series of events. It is characterized by all of the following:

- re-experiencing the traumatic event or events in the present in the form of vivid intrusive memories, flashbacks, or nightmares. These are typically accompanied by strong or overwhelming emotions, particularly fear or horror, and strong physical sensations;
- avoidance of thoughts and memories of the event or events, or avoidance of activities, situations, or people reminiscent of the event or events; and
- persistent perceptions of heightened current threat, for example as indicated by hypervigilance or an enhanced startle reaction to stimuli such as unexpected noises. The symptoms persist for at least several weeks and cause significant impairment in personal, family, social, educational, occupational or other important areas of functioning.

How can social farming support refugees and other forced displaced persons?

People can link to familiar activities as many refugees come from rural areas or have a small scale farming background.

At the same time farming offers a great opportunity for learning a new language in an informal way. This is especially important if someone is not used to teacher-centred teaching or might even be analphabetic. Besides living and working in a community or family can facilitate a mutual getting to know of cultures and supports integration. On top of that, most refugees are desperate to find a job and earn money. Here social farming can focus on training, qualification and job opportunities for people with special needs.

The life in the countryside and the work in nature can also be healthy for people that escaped from war and violence, who may even be traumatised. Social farming might even prevent disorders associated with stress. Mental disorders associated with a trauma are less likely if the people who experience trauma are mentally supported whereas bad experience in the host country fosters, mental disorders associated with trauma (Zito/Martin, 2016). Social farming can be a way of supporting traumatized people as language only plays a minor role. Regular conversational therapy can only work if therapist and client do speak the same language, whereas interacting with plant and animals works without a common language. Recovery in nature, bonding to nature, the feeling of being needed and a useful task can support resilience.

What do social farmers need to pay attention to?

Working with refugees in social farming means working with various cultures, languages and traditions.

Social workers or farmers that want to be involved in social farming with refugees do need intercultural competences and need to be sensitive about the story of people that experienced forced displacement. They should know how to deal with traumatised people. Basic knowledge about asylum and aliens law is important. On top of that, knowledge about language teaching can be very helpful. Also, social farming with refugees needs to focus on how to develop income opportunities for refugees and migrants, especially for all those that have a rural background.

Many refugees like to be connected to their culture of origin. This means being able to speak their mother language, to eat familiar food, to practice religion or to stay in contact with friends and family (TÖH, 2017).

Therefore, culture and religion specific knowledge is needed. For example if social farming projects involve Muslims, knowledge about Islamic culture is advantageous (e.g. What does the fasting month Ramadan mean for doing heavy work in the fields?). Some cultures also involve antipathies against some animals. However, not every refugee is also a religious person. It is crucial to see the individual person and not one stereotype defining all refugees.

It is also true that, behaving different from people of one's native country might have nothing to do with cultural difference but with the feelings displaced persons have to deal with. People that like to work with refugees need to be aware

of the impact of flight and loss in the life of this target group. Many refugees have to deal with grief and the guilt of the survivor. They have lost their home, friends, job and their normality. They might be in fear for friends and family or in fear of deportation.

4.2 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISES

4.2.1 "LUCKY DIP"

„Lucky dip“ is a group exercise which supports the learning and memorizing of terms (see Macke et al., 2008)

- a) define the topic (e.g. target groups in social farming, intellectually disabled people, senior citizen)
- b) divide a group into small groups
- c) every group looks for a defined number of key terms about the specialized field, terms will be written in a big font on cards (e.g. Physical disability, hearing impairments, behavioural disorders, youth with special needs, traumatization, borderline syndrome)
- d) The covert pile of cards will be given to the next group.
- e) Every group member takes a card and explains the term on the card.
- f) Other group members listen, ask, comment and correct.
- g) Things that are unclear can be discussed jointly with all participants.

4.2.2 GROUP WORK

Group work is an excellent exercise if knowledge should be specified (see Macke *et al.*, 2008). It can be useful if students like to specify knowledge about the needs and the ways social farming can support a specific target group.

This method can be used to elaborate a case example (e.g. an existing farm that likes to convert into a social farm, a specific case of a client that is looking for his way in social farming and might choose between a few social farms and their concepts).

Group work can also be combined with expert interviews (e.g. representatives of target groups, social farmers, "lucky dip", experimental games or role playing).

1. Plenary session to prepare the group work

a) Definition of task (at a work sheet or flipchart)

Example: description of farm x, task: How can social farming look like at this farm? What are the possibilities for involving clients at the farm?

Describe target groups that could be involved at this farm and the reasons why they could benefit from participating at this farm (or the reasons why they should not be involved at this farm).

b) Form groups

Version 1: same task for all groups

Version 2: different tasks for different groups (e.g. every group is developing social farming activities for different target groups or different farms)

c) Clarify expectations and further questions, set time and place

2. Work in small groups

Participants jointly elaborate the task. The teacher facilitates.

3. Plenary session

All results will be presented to the group. Results will be compared and discussed.

4.3 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

Write a scenery: Imagin you lose your glasses or you break your leg. How can you still work in the garden?

4.4 EVALUATION

Written or oral exam:

Written or oral exams about target groups can deal with case examples. A case of a specific person is described in detail (e.g. the case of a youngster with behavioural problems e.g. aggression, criminal behaviour, his biography etc., the case of an older women, living alone, having mobility problems and hearing impairments).

Students have to

- Distill the needs and demands this person has
- Describe concepts and activities within social farming that can support this person
- Describe what the farm needs to pay attention to

4.5 LINKS

<https://www.socialfarmingireland.ie/> (offers some target group specific information in social farming)

<https://icd.who.int/browse11/l-m/en> (ICD 11 for Mortality and Morbidity Statistics (international "standard diagnostic tool for epidemiology, health management and clinical purposes)

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SECTION 5

METHODS, TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF SOCIAL WORK IN SOCIAL FARMING

Eliška Hudcová



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

Time requirement: The educational material covers 270 minutes of theory and approximately 90 minutes' worth of exercises. The lesson plan includes a 45-minute lecture by a special guest (social farmer or social worker) followed by a discussion

Place: Classroom

Tools and materials: Data projector, presentation, worksheets, flipchart, colour markers and self-adhesive colour papers, special guest

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

Knowledge: This text provides an overview of the methods of social work. By studying this text, graduates can define the basic methods in social work. They are able to describe different techniques and tools of social work. The graduates are able to recall individual forms of social work. They can explain the role of a social worker in social work in relation to social farming. They know the limits of a social worker and the basics of communication with a person with special needs/participants.

Skills: The graduates are able to apply reached knowledge in different situations with individual participants and in a work-group in farming. They are able to use different techniques of communication with participants. They also reflect the limits of their role in the rehabilitation process.

Competences: Graduates are aware of the scope of the most important methods, tools and techniques of social work in relation to the farm environment and are prepared to further deepen their competences in this area. They are supportive and responsible individuals when working with people with special needs and other workers at a social farm and with other relevant stakeholders and institutions.

ABSTRACT

The chapter focusing on the methods, tools and techniques of social work in social farming highlights only the basics and general knowledge in the field of individual and group social work and social work within the family, as these are all very extensive topics. It also deals with basic forms of social work - social therapy, rehabilitation and prevention, mentioning the role of the social worker and basic ways of communication tools and techniques. The particular areas presented have been selected according to their applicability for educators, farmers and social workers at the introductory. In addition to general knowledge, the aim is not only to turn the graduate and subsequent farm employee into a social worker. On the contrary, it is the informal environment and socially relaxed, non-judgmental employee ethos which largely contribute to the notion of farms as accessible atmospheres to disadvantaged people and is why they have a positive impact on their psychosocial functioning and personality level. Nevertheless, the general knowledge of the field of social work methods is not only necessary on a theoretical level, but is also useful for practical purposes, as it can provide a guide to disadvantaged people working on the farm, including means for avoiding and/or de-escalating conflict situations that can arise when working in a couple or a team.

KEYWORDS

Social work, casework, work with a group, social rehabilitation, therapy, prevention, communication, social worker

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The text dedicated to the methods, tools and techniques of social work in social farming gradually introduces readers to the basic concepts that are used, and later introduces the framework of social work with the individual, and to a limited extent, social work within the family and social work within the group. This text does not describe social work with communities, as this is less important in social farming. Basic means of communication and other tools of social work are mentioned throughout the text. Where it is offered, the text draws attention to the relationship with social farming, respectively, refers to specific ways of using knowledge of a farm-based environment with disadvantaged people.

The aim of this chapter is to give a basic overview of the topic, which will be subsequently used during lecturers, model training, observation and, above all, in the social farming practice itself by workers in direct contact with disadvantaged persons and farmers and other employees of social farms.

It is recommended reading this chapter together mainly with the chapter on Target groups in social farming as it serves as a logical addition.

5.1.1 ABOUT SOCIAL WORK

Social work is a professional scientific discipline and a field of practical activity, which, through specialized working methods, ensures the implementation of human care on a professional basis. It is based on the principles of solidarity, non-discrimination, as well as personal rights, freedom, dignity and participation, which are enshrined in international treaties (UN Charter, 1945; Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948; European Convention on Human Rights, 1950; 2000).

The International Federation of Social Workers defines social work as follows: "Social work promotes social change, solving interpersonal relationships, and empowering and liberating people to fulfil their personal well-being. Using theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work intervenes where people encounter their environment. The principles of human rights and social justice are key to social work." (Definition of Social Work, 2005)

The basic aims of social work include detecting, explaining, mitigating and solving social problems (Matoušek, 2008), and its aim is to:

- Support the participant's ability to solve problems, adapt to and evolve (the participant can be an individual, family, group, community);
- Provide participants with agencies that can provide resources, services and opportunities;
- Help participant support systems operate in a humane and efficient way;
- Develop and improve social policy.

5.1.2 BASIC TERMS USED IN SOCIAL WORK AND IN THE CHAPTER

The aim of this paragraph is to clarify the terms used in this text and in the work of a social worker. They enable the common speech of a professional in helping profession and in the farming sector. Finally, some terms are generally used in all scientific disciplines.

Methodology is a part of science that deals with elaborating methods available in the given field of science (Levická, 2002). The methodology of social work deals with the theoretical, logical and psychological questions of social work methods, methodological procedures and methodologies as well as principles and laws of scientific research in this area. Part of the methodology is the creation, evaluation of the effect of used methods, but also includes methods used in empirical research and subsequently in the creation of theoretical generalizations.²

Methodological procedure in social work means a set of rules and procedures, the most general and most used sequence from which a social worker selects and applies procedures to specific conditions of social work with a participant, family, group or community. These are concrete procedures, ways to achieve a predetermined goal through planned, conscious action in social work.

The method is a deliberately chosen path to attain the given goal. This is a specific procedure defined by the target or a target group that the social worker uses from the beginning to the end of the activity (therapeutic process). It is highly probable that the observance of these methods will lead to valid results (Gabrielová, 2017).

Social Work Technique is a guide to using the methods, or modifying them, adapting them to suit specific problems arising from the participant's situation. The technique is a means for allowing the participant, in cooperation with a social worker (social farmer); to gain something, achieve something (Levická, 2002). These are good practices and skills maintained by social workers (farmers) and are used in accordance with the methods in which they are applied to achieve predetermined goals.

The approach expresses the preferred setting of the worker or organization and generally determines the scope and goal of the work. The approach relates to the theory of social work, from which the social workers, and their respective organization is based on e.g. task-oriented, human-oriented, socio-ecological, feminist, Christian, harm reduction, daseinanalysis, psycho-dynamic, psychoanalytic, etc. (Mátl, Oláh, Schavel, 2012).

² At the first glance, the description of the methodology is not practically useful but gives the general framework of the discipline (scientific) thinking.

5.2 METHODS OF SOCIAL WORK

Methods of social work can be divided according to various criteria and aspects, e.g. according to time, demographic and status-oriented point of view, according to the place of performance and according to the activity performed. This chapter uses the historical perspective of the classification of methods that arises from the number of participants that are being used. It is about individual social work, work with family (to a limited extent) and group.

Use of appropriate methods of social work depends on the type of participant (individual, family, group), their needs, the type of disadvantage, the type and duration of support (long/short intervention, temporary/permanent care), type of facility (outpatient, residential, formal/informal), etc.

In the case of this chapter, the use of methods, tools and techniques of social work on the farm is taken into consideration. The farm creates a specific and informal environment, and it has to take into account different people and their roles meeting together in the same environment, the specific type of activity that takes place on the farm (seasonal work, animal and plant work, outdoor work, tool work). This is mostly related to outpatient types of care/activation/employment - people with special needs occur according to a set schedule negotiated with the farmer (see e.g. Hassink *et al.*, 2010).



Calming activities at farm. Author: Eliška Hudcová

5.2.1 SOCIAL WORK WITH INDIVIDUALS

Social work with an individual, or individual social work, case social work or casework, refers to the activities of a social worker focused on working with one specific individual. However, the case is not a person, but a specific social situation or social problem (Mátel, 2013).

Casework deals with solving such problems that limit the participant in the optimal use of their internal and external possibilities. Some problems are internal in nature (psychical, emotional, health-related, financial etc.); others are interpersonal, especially when concerning family (Havráňková, 2008).

The aim of the case study is to achieve solutions to specific problems, e.g. official action, provision of material assistance, provision of advice, development of a process plan, provision of comprehensive assistance, research, policy formulation (Matoušek, 2008). Visits of stay of the individual with special needs on a social farm can present a solution for his/her social problem (e.g. accessible employment, activation, social rehabilitation).

Case study procedures are usually classified into four phases of individual planning (according to Havráňková, 2008: 69):

a) providing psychological support to the participant, expressing interest (getting to know the case)

Study – reviewing the situation and making important decisions, such as whether to enter the therapy process. The participant presents a problem in that his/her active motivation to change is crucial. The main role of this phase is to engage the participant and to participate in solving the problem. The social worker must clarify how valuable the change is, in which the person with special need will participate.

In this phase and in the case of social farming it concerns the first contact and the offer of different procedures in solving the problem. The stay on a social farm can be one of them.

b) exploration of the problem, ventilation of participants feelings (social evaluation)

Investigation - is a dynamic and changeable process in which a problem is identified and work hypotheses are set to guide intervention (e.g., the person with a mental disability living in his/her household needs some available physical activity). They should not be a means of categorization or labelling. The working hypothesis changes with the changing life situation of the participant. Objectives that meet participant needs but also respond to the availability of services are specified (e.g., There is a farm nearby the home of a participant. Would it be possible to negotiate regular visits and some small work for a participant? What further steps for the participants, their family, the farmer are necessary to manage this? The tasks such as transportation, the food, the safety, the clothing, the day regime etc. are discussed). This is a formal procedure for assessing the participant's situation and planning before the intervention begins (Havráňková, 2008)

c) direct influence of the participant (social intervention)

Intervention - begins with the first contact. It is carried out through conversations, with the aim of calming the level of emotions in a relationship that is an essential means of healing. The participant and the worker determine the objectives of the intervention jointly. It is a professional intervention, sometimes called "therapy" that includes all kinds of activities that a worker performs for the benefit of the participant. It is an activity and fulfilment of the identified plan and aims (a physical activity through regular animal care).

d) reflection on the context, especially the relationships between the participant's experiences and what is happening in his environment (case termination)

Termination - is the final stage of the casework. It should be agreed in advance, under what circumstances the process of providing professional assistance will end. The termination should occur when the participant can look back with satisfaction at what has been done and when the social worker sees their ability to cope in various situations. In the case of social farming, it is the situation when the cooperation between the farmer and a participant is successfully stabilized without the intermediary of a social worker. Alternatively, when the person with special needs was satisfied and he/she stops come to a farm.

In practice, the case social worker works by:

- encouraging individuals to have courage and confidence,
- helping an individual explore the available resources,
- mobilizing the power of the individual and evaluates the possibilities that open to him,
- supporting and emphasizing the healthy and firm things of an individual and communicates with this healthy aspect of his/her personality,
- empowering his/her strength and ability, not helplessness,
- if the social worker focuses on the participant's helplessness, by strengthening his/her addiction and expectations of help,
- if he/she is focused on pathology, he/she may inadvertently strengthen the disease,
- providing the participant with the understanding that he/she has the capacity to solve his/her own problem, and in that awareness, he/she helps him/her to discover new points of view and thus new ways of solution,
- the participant's self-confirmation can then lead to the development of personal, family and social success, (Havráňková, 2008)
- giving the participant sufficient space,
- appreciating what he noticed while working with the participant,
- giving alternatives to problem-solving,
- summarizing the results and recapitulating (Krutilová, 2014).

5.2.2 SOCIAL WORK WITH FAMILIES

The family is the primary factor in socialization, since the beginning of the professionalization of social work; the family has become the interest of social workers as a social environment, which plays an important role in the emergence of and solution to individual problems.

The family is the primary social group to guarantee the care of its members and to satisfy their material and spiritual needs, starting from childhood. It is also the first binding model of society that the individual encounters and is an important socializing element. It serves as a predetermining factor in an individual's personal development and their relationships to other groups of people.

A family can be defined as the coexistence of people of one or more generations in which the emotional and economic support of individuals is essential. The core is the partnership of two adult people. Its essential function is to meet all the needs of children.

A social group that provides its members with can characterize a family:

- unreserved acceptance of their human existence,
- protective environment (material and social),
- supporting the autonomy of a family member,
- provision of life needs,
- mutual support,
- basis and mediating article in penetration into the macro-social environment (society) (Hudecová *et al.*, 2009)

The basic functions of the family include:

- Biological-reproductive
- Socio-economic
- Protective
- Socio-educational
- Recreational, relaxing
- Emotional (Kraus, 2008).

However, the family can become an environment for increased stress and conflict, due to increased demands, needs and expectations, and a number of other reasons, such as disintegrated families, serious illnesses in the family, family dependency, family member imprisonment, etc., as the family can get into a situation where they become a participant of social work.

- The family or its member seeks the help of a social worker.
- The family or its member comes to the social worker at the initiative of another subject
- The family is sought in the screening process.
- The family or its member is summoned upon notice from another institution or person.
- A family member or the whole family is placed in a facility where the social worker makes contact with them (Hudecová *et al.*, 2009).

In social farming, we meet the family in the form of family members of a disadvantaged person. They can be a source of information about a person who has their own communication barriers (e.g., communication about what the participant likes / what is risky for him/her).

The family can become a participant, and if it is insufficiently functional, children are sent to the farm as a protective/educational environment in emergency care or in alternative family care situations.

The subsequent therapeutic process should meet the needs of different types of services. These include ensuring the need for a "meaningful world", security, and the need for personal identity and an "open future" (for more details see Matoušek, 2008b) to avoid future long-term deprivation. In all these processes, the farm can also be an alternative space to provide a safe environment that can help initiate individual and group therapeutic processes (see, e.g. Elsey, H., Bragg, R., Elings, M. *et al.*, 2018).

Regular farm visits can be effective in preventive programs, suitable for early care situations (family with a child with disabilities), as an educational medium, or as a therapeutic service (activation services for families with children). In the Netherlands and Switzerland, for example, there are farms focusing on foster care (see e.g. Bombach, C., Stohler, R., Wydler, 2015).

- In a social work terminology, a farm becomes a provider of crisis services in the situations of endangerment of a child or adult and it is necessary to ensure an immediate and effective help for a family member. In this case, the farm functions as an asylum.

- A farm can easily ensure the educational services on a long-term basis and their goal is formulated in general terms, such as supporting parents-children relationship, developing creatively solving conflicts, maintaining good relationships.
- A farm can become base for therapeutic services that are self-help or professionally managed services. They can be provided to individuals who have problems with family cohabitation or to whole families. When provided to individuals, they are the target groups both as 'cause of problems' and as 'victims'.
- A farm can be space for preventive programs that are long-term and regular programs, whose target group is emerging families with a high probability of serious difficulties, or families with a handicapped child whose upbringing will be a considerable burden (Matoušek, 2008a). A farm can occur as a therapeutic environment or as a space for self-help support for parents in such a difficult situation.

5.2.3 SOCIAL WORK WITH GROUPS

A group is considered as a social unit if at least three people perceive each other as members of the group. They are in a relationship structure. They interact with each other, have similar or complementary motivations and meeting certain needs, they have common goals; their relationships are structured into hierarchically organized roles and positions. The group is characterized by features: interaction, communication and organization (Mašát, 2012). The group work with different target groups is very common in social farming (e.g. group of youth, group of addicts, group of children with behavioural disorders, group of migrants). Sometimes a target group can be mixed, for example in case of seniors and kids when working on a social farm, but most commonly, the groups work separately (especially drug addicts in therapeutic communities of prisoners).

On a social farm, groups can work, be it a group of employees, a group of caregivers, a group of management, a group of incoming volunteers or customers. These groups do not always have the same interests or the same needs. However, if a group stays on the farm for a long time, it is necessary to be general in-group dynamics, social behaviour in the group (leadership, separation of powers and functions, nature of goals and their achievement, achieving conformity and managing controversies etc.) (Mašát, 2012) or shaping roles, communication and other topics in the field of social work with the group.

The group can be a participant's:

- source of supportive force (man is not alone into his problem),
- space of exchange of information, opinions and ideas and solutions,
- motivates, encourages hope, etc.,
- gives an opportunity to learn and test interpersonal and other social skills,
- provides a sense of belonging, a factor that is particularly pronounced on the farm and relates to the so-called group cohesion - the group accepts its member regardless of its past and social failure if it adheres to group standards (Mašát, 2012),
- within a group, it can be seen that someone has helped me and that I can help (Havránková, 2008).

Groups are divided into categories according to group structure and group dynamics. It influences the functioning of a group and group roles.

According to the basis of **structure**, the group can be distinguished between small (2-15 persons), medium (15-40 persons) and large (over 40 persons), formal and informal according to the structure of relationships. Groups can be divided into whether their needs are satisfied along primary (physiological needs, safety) / secondary lines (belonging, esteem), according to membership (sport group, religious group, membership is required) / reference (membership is not required but an individual shares its values and norms, e.g. political party), according to their presence as permanent/temporary, and according to grouping into we/they (e.g. we, the participants on a social farm and they, other inhabitants in a village) (Mašát, 2012).

According to group dynamics, which affects the climate and processes that significantly affect the results of the work of the group, no matter of the environment, so is valuable for farm as well. The advantage of the farm is that it is not a closed space, but on the contrary, it is possible to change the place and time spent together if necessary. Group dynamics comprises of the sum of all processes and changes (internal and external), norms and interactions that take place during the existence and work of the group (Mátl, 2013). The dynamics at play here involve forming relationships between group members and witnessing how they are used to support and sustain the group. It is ultimately about expressing care and interest in others, accepting new members or overcoming tensions with a healthy sense of humour.

Group dynamics include:

- Group goals
- rules (standards) of the group,
- Group leadership and leadership
- role in the group,

- creation of subgroups,
- relationships between individuals and groups,
- cohesion and tension,
- group atmosphere,
- group development,
- projection of past experiences and relationships into current interaction (Havránková, 2008).

The aims of group work are formulated by the group itself according to its focus and composition and can be focused on mutual support, personal growth, provision of information, understanding of behavioural patterns. The members of the group should provide insight, catharsis and training (Havránková, 2008). It can be a task-oriented group, for example with the aim to build up a stable with a group of volunteers. In this case, it is a non-formal, temporary, reference group.

Group rules (norms) are usually unwritten rules that express what is acceptable and desirable conduct from the group's point of view. These rules influence the attitudes and behaviour of members and create a secure framework for the functioning of the group. They should, of course, be established together. Anyone who repeatedly violates the rules may be suspended from the group or even expelled in extreme cases. On the other hand, members who support the cohesion of the group and foster unity against divisiveness should be met with praise and respect. (Havránková, 2008). These norms are usually used in therapeutic communities (farm work presents a form of social rehabilitation for addicted people). The most common membership rules include:

- Confidentiality and trust (information does not leave the group)
- Openness and sincerity (truth here and now)
- Right to say no/refuse
- Responsibility to yourself and others
- Compliance with organizational rules (attendance, punctuality, the performance of tasks, etc.). In case of non-compliance with group norms, a set of potential sanction should be established both functional and social (mockery, admonishment, silent exclusion) in nature.

Group cohesion represents group unity, togetherness and reciprocity, creating an atmosphere of friendship and security. It promotes the stability of the group and provides for its ongoing existence. Tension on the dynamizing factor forces the members of the group to cooperate despite unpleasant and difficult tasks or substantive disagreements. Too cohesive a group can lead to stagnation, as uninterrupted complicity can breed undue group quiescence. Alternatively, the prevalence of tension can spoil trust and thoughtfulness, and grow into vigilance and aggressiveness, closing the channels of communication for important topics if unchecked. The balance of both factors leads to an ideal division of labour.

A role in the group indicates a set of expectations of position-related behaviour. The roles in the group are ostensibly a mirror of the role a member of a group plays in his/her life - e.g. people with a tendency towards neurotic disorders tend to repeat stereotypically their roles regardless of their proportionality. The group should reflect this. One of the tasks of group social work is to expand the repertoires of the roles of individual participants (Havránková, 2008).

The description of the roles in the group is given by Morenoian sociometry, which distinguishes roles as follows:

- Leadership role - capable, leading, hardworking, active, reliable, selfless, confident.
- Star - the most popular, cheerful, social, entertaining, non-conflicting.
- Black Sheep - unappealing, unsympathetic, rejected by others.

Another classification R. Schindler (in Kratochvíl, 2017):

- Alpha - an impressive leader, stimulates activity, inspires motivation and courage.
- Beta - an expert with special knowledge and skills, considers different aspects and perspectives, with a neutral critical approach, is sometimes seen as detached.
- Gamma - predominantly passive and adaptable members, content to serve in protective anonymity, often in conjunction with Alpha.
- Omega - a member on the edge of the group, lagging due to perceived inadequacy divergence, fear, sometimes identifies with the adversary.
- Opponent - symbolic representation of an enemy group.

Types of problematic group members:

- Monopolist - this member always needs attention, often speaks out of turn, is overwhelmingly expressive, asks many questions of debatable relevance, and draws attention to emotions or stories. Be aware of the presence of monopolists when setting standards, how and what the group allows, what it avoids, whether it gives feedback.
- A silent or passive member of the group - they may not be emotionally secure enough, perceived at the edge of events. Sometimes he/she needs extra encouragement.

- Sufferer - complains, refuses help or solutions, does not clearly state their demands, provokes confusion, irritability, despair, and seeks isolation. By expressing interest in this pessimist, one can remain in an impartial attitude. It is important to support group feedback in this case.
- Moralist - is always right and pure of heart. In this case, it is good to accept his position, listen patiently, and give other insights.
- Expert - knows absolutely everything. Care must be taken for others. It is recommended not to engage in personal discussions with them.
- Interpreter - speaks for others. It must be demonstrated sensitively that it is not needed.
- The questioner - forever dissecting every idea to the degree, disturbs the concentration of others. Distinguish their behaviour for the desirable role of a mild sceptic.
- Darling - fosters gentle relationships and protective attitudes. It is recommended to try to get into another role.
- Scapegoat - senses suppressed aggression against them at all times. Be aware of this position and try to reflect and change it.
- Jester - entertains the group in a distracting manner. It is recommended to try to get into another role.
- Aggressor - do not take attacks personally. He/she requires positive and beneficial formulation.
- Late arrival, early departure - find a reason to give them the responsibility that will make them stay.

It is problematic if the group roles are permanently occupied by the same people and any of these people identify or are identified with the roles. They do not have the opportunity to learn from expected behaviour and transform it into authentic human behaviour and experience.

Significant problems may be the result of mismatching between formal and informal leaders, the rejection or inappropriate application of the leadership role, the problematic experiences of members with authorities, or the struggles for leadership and rival relations.

It is important to monitor the signs of pathology in time - poor or late attendance, unapproved departures of members, the formation of subgroups, radical clashes, tensions, excess focus on marginal topics, the passivity of some members, etc.

Group development is a process that tends to be gradual, but may, at various points, stop or return to previous stages, or some stages may be skipped entirely. It depends on whether the group is open or closed, voluntary or involuntary, task-oriented, and ultimately dependent on the members and management of the group. The usual stages of a closed group include the following: pre-affiliation stages, initial phase, formation, rebellion, normalization, realization and termination. Another terminology is used by Yalom (in Havránková, 2008), which describes stage 1. Orientation and dependence, 2. Conflict, dominance and revolt, 3. Development of cohesion, 4. Mature group work. On social farms, the closed group is less frequently encountered, with the exception of therapeutic communities (see for example Hassink, J., Elings, M., 2008).

Group leadership and leadership styles have an impact on the atmosphere and work within the group. A leader can be a farmer or leading social worker (social pedagogue, caregiver), it can be officially or unofficially elected person in a group of participants. All this depends on the institutional form of a farm.

Group leadership is dependent on competent leadership authority, which should be:

- rational, i.e. legally established (in institutions),
- traditional, based on continuity and tradition (hereditary),
- charismatic, resulting from the character traits and personality of the leader.

Properties of a successful manager

- Challenging - sets demanding, rigorous and realistic goals, and fulfilling them reinforces self-confidence.
- Sensitivity to group relationships, thereby promoting high cohesion and enhancing group performance.
- Ability to clarify and explain group values and strengthen their bond.
- Ability to adapt to changing circumstances.

Forms of leadership depend largely on the personality of the leader and whether the focus is on building relationships (a long-term process) or on performance. However, it is important to alter the form of leadership according to the objective of working with the group, the methodology, the context in which the group is located, and the development phase. A more direct, structured style corresponds to the early stages of group dynamics. With the following stages, the style should become less rigid and structured, as is deemed appropriate for the participants.

The basic management styles differ mainly according to the needs of the group (at the farm), purposes of the farm work (work integration – employment, social therapy, social rehabilitation, education needs), the personage of the farmer or the group leader.

Then the focus can vary whether it is on:

- performance, rules, standards, objectives, direction, procedures, structures, group leadership;
- cognition, understanding, naming, interpretation, explanation of meaning;
- care, protection, friendship, support, encouragement, acceptance, warmth, leaders establishing personal relationships with members;
- feelings, personal values, attitudes, opinions, their manifestation, confrontation, with the leader's own involvement.

Depending on the degree of active engagement, there are different ways of wiring:

- authoritative manager (ordering, control, evaluation),
- non-directive leader (cooperates, enters into a relationship),
- moderator (organizing the meeting), coach,
- guide - facilitator, informed member of the group.



Farmers at work. Source: Thüringer Ökoherz e. V.

5.3 FORMS OF SOCIAL WORK

Social work distinguishes basic forms, which include social therapy, social rehabilitation and social prevention. On social farms, if the farm does not work under a social services regime, they are usually treated indistinguishably and partly unintentionally. They typically work in the mode of rehabilitation, therapy, or prevention. These terms will be briefly introduced here in the concept of social work.

5.3.1 SOCIAL THERAPY

By social therapy in social work, we are generally referring to psycho-socially oriented intervention by social workers using various therapeutic methods and techniques.

Social therapy is based on a dynamic interaction between the participant and the social worker. In this process, there is a conscious effort to form the opinions, beliefs, attitudes, feelings and actions of the participant. The role of the social worker is to mobilize individual resources from the participant, themselves, as well as potential resources in the partici-

participant's immediate surroundings, to create opportunities for gaining new, exceptionally positive experiences on the participant's behalf (Levická, 2002).

For the therapeutic dimension of the intervention, specialized accredited training, socio-psychological training, psychotherapeutic training, behavioural responsive cognitive-behavioural training, etc. are offered so that social workers can use a variety of therapeutic methods and techniques in their professional practice. The role of a farmer is to ensure a safe environment for social therapy, to ensure good communication and management of activities.

5.3.2 SOCIAL REHABILITATION

Social rehabilitation is a professional activity intended to support the participant's independence and self-sufficiency by developing and training their skills or activating said skills and strengthening said habits in self-care, home care and basic social activities. Social rehabilitation includes measures that adapt individuals to living in a social environment and interacting with others. The aim of social rehabilitation is to relieve people, especially those with disabilities, from excessive dependence on the help of others.

Social rehabilitation focuses mainly on the following areas:

- independence, independence from the assistance of others (control of self-service work, housework, ability to use means of transport, keeping track of personal affairs, shopping, etc.),
- communication - in addition to common speech, it is also necessary to manage various types of alternative communication (sign language, Makaton system,³ computers ...),
- good social behaviour, oriented towards building a positive participant image,
- individual interests,
- family life - farming, keeping a flat, raising children, cohabitation of family members, including questions of sexual coexistence of spouses (Levická, 2002).

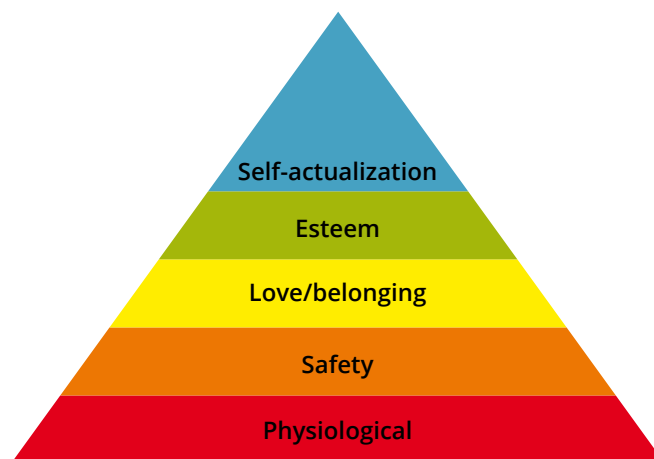
In the case of social farming, it covers the support of independent transportation to the farm (to work) and back, the ability to dress appropriately, the ability to handle work tools, the ability of orientation, remembering of important people and activities, the ability to obtain the necessary documents for independent living. A social worker usually handles all this or commissioned person (farmer). The social worker (or social farmer) should respect several principles when working with the participant. These principles are crucial in all phases of the case study.

1. Orientation on participant needs

Unmet needs lead to deprivation. Needs are usually identified during an interview (questionnaire, observation, interviewing of family members, colleagues, etc.). The best-known model of this is the 1943 Abraham Harold Maslow's Pyramid of Needs, which identified five basic needs in terms of higher or lower value, with lower value being a prerequisite for higher. Needs belong to groups:

- Physiological (primary, congenital) - the need for breathing, sleep, food
- Safety, security (home, work, physical safety health need, absence of permanent threat and fear, job security as a source of livelihood)
- Social (acquired), which is divided into cultural (education) and mental (joy, happiness, love), the need to be loved, socially asserted
- Recognition, need for respect (praise, respect), creativity, socially accented needs when we want to be accepted and appreciated by other people.
- Spiritual (self-realization) - human endeavour to fulfil abilities and intentions, to attain the state of ideal selfhood

³ <https://www.makaton.org/>.



Pyramid of human needs according to H. Maslow. Source: Maslow's Pyramid of Human Needs [online]. www.en.wikipedia.org [cit. 2019-11-19]. Available from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maslow%27s_hierarchy_of_needs.

The Prague School of Developmental Psychology and Psychic Deprivation defines five basic, hierarchically arranged psychic needs with a particular focus on pediatric participants. Any unmet need leads to a form of deprivation, and therapy generally is suggested as a means of inducing a desirable condition and creating the conditions for successful development (Matoušek *et al.*, 2008).

- The need for stimulation - the need for optimal stimulus delivery in terms of variability, modality, quantity and quality with respect to each individual child (in social farming is empowered by animals care).
- The need for a 'meaningful world' of order in the chaos of stimuli, or the need for conditions for effective learning (stable, mechanics and repeating farming activities with evident results).
- The need for security; security as the interpersonal relationship of mother and child, what Anglo-Saxon literature calls 'attachment' (attachment to an animal, to a referential person of a farmer or to a caregiver).
- The need for personal identity - the need for social inclusion in a wider audience (farm community).
- The need for a life perspective or a "meaning in life" (own value and the benefits for the surroundings).

| NEED | DEPRIVATION | THERAPY |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Stimulation | Lack of incentives | Re-activating, an optimal level of stimuli |
| A meaningful world | Lack of cognitive structure | Re-education, conditions for effective learning |
| Emotional bond - attachment, safety | Lack of security, lack of emotional bond | Re-attachment |
| Personal identity | Lack of identity, lack of social inclusion | Resocialization |
| Open future, life perspective | Lack of meaning in life | Rediscovering and reperceiving the meaning of life |

*The Five Essential Mental Needs (Matoušek *et al.*, 2008).*

2. Participant orientation as individuality

Each participant is unique. He/she comes from another environment; he/she has a different background, experiences and expectations. Each type of disadvantage brings different problem areas and situations. See the chapter on Target groups in social farming.

3. Focus on maintaining the participant's sovereignty and supporting his / her core competences

The individual with special needs is a fragile individual. He/she must not have the feeling of being forced into something. He/she should be led to independence and self-responsibility.

5.3.3 SOCIAL PREVENTION

The concept of prevention includes activities aimed at preventing the occurrence of a problem with follow-up activities that start with the aim of preventing the problem from recurring and activities aimed at reducing the impact of unwanted behaviour (Levická, 2002). Prevention also means creating favourable social conditions in the areas of economic, social, cultural, educational, employment, and leisure-based growth, living standards, spiritual development, humanization and general improvement of life of society as a whole, for social groups as well as for the socialization and social integration of each individual.

Matoušek *et al.* (2008) distinguish between primary, secondary and tertiary prevention.

- Primary prevention (universal) targets the whole population (non-specific) or a specific target group (specific) at a time when the expected problem of this group has not yet manifested itself (general services of the welfare state, education system, legislation etc.).
- Secondary prevention (sometimes also referred to as selective) has as a target group, persons with an increased risk of social failure or persons who already have a failure, whose level are not yet indicated (concerns groups at risk, e.g. families in excluded localities, single parents, children with dependent parents, seniors, persons with chronic health problems, etc.).
- Tertiary prevention (indicated) should be implemented in connection with persons who have already experienced social failure.

The social prevention fits very well with diverse and continuous programs on farms for variable target groups (see the chapter on Benefits of nature for human well-being and the chapter on Target groups in social farming).



Professional therapist knows the animals and needs of people coming to the farm. Author: Eliška Hudcová

5.4 PERSONALITY AND EXPERTISE OF A SOCIAL WORKER

5.4.1 PERSONALITY OF A SOCIAL WORKER

The success of social work depends largely on the social worker's personality, most specifically their authenticity, empathy and sincerity (Havránková, 2008) and the relationship between the helping person and the participant. The social worker must take into account not only the possible effects of idiosyncrasies in the participant's personality but also the whole context of his / her surroundings - family, community, culture, etc. The main task of the social worker is to be a credible guide toward solution (Havránková, 2008).

The social worker relies on the individual's sense of dignity and individuality, which are the basis of that person's strength. The casework thus builds on the belief that the individual is able to manage his / her actions, he/she is able to make decisions, set goals and achieve them (Havránková, 2008).

The social worker discusses and considers various options, analyzes the pros and cons, offers various recommendations and still maintains internal neutrality. The participant's right to self-determination is the basic principle of worker-participant interaction and assumes fully respected boundaries between them (Havránková, 2008).

The social worker should be authentic and approachable to the participant and his / her words should be consistent with verbal expressions. This may deviate slightly in opinion from an accepting and non-judgmental approach. Advisory guidance received from participants is better if it is non-directive and leaves the responsibility to the participant (Krutilová, 2014). The worker should be clear and concise in expressing intent (i.e. avoiding complex language, foreign words). The advantage lies in the ability to connect through universal humour, though never irony at the expense of the participant, of course.

The social worker should be capable of self-reflection, be able to assume a different perspective, and have self-confidence both as a professional and as a person. Among the prized abilities of a social worker are "respect for the rights of others, willingness to change oneself, positive perception of life, truthfulness, willingness to cooperate, admit one's mistake, not to take a different view of the participant as hostility towards oneself" (Krutilová, 2014).

5.4.2 SOCIAL WORKER EXPERTISE

The social worker's expertise depends on the target group with which they work. Naturally, they must have a theoretical education that is tied to their profession, and they should be able to apply the knowledge (Havránková, 2008). The worker should be able to identify the problem with the participant and be able to provide qualified advice and lead the participant to solve the problem through a series of steps. The worker should be able to explain thoroughly what the problem is and what the possible solutions are, and should be creative in choosing suitable interviewing techniques.

The social worker should be able to analyze and synthesize the problem, to educate themselves for life and work on personal growth. They should be able to bring into practice any new knowledge and reflections from completed supervision and other sources of feedback. They should receive appropriate self-experience training to best move on professionally (Krutilová, 2014).

5.5 METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF A SOCIAL WORKER'S POST

Social workers generally use these methods. They can be used equally well by a social farmer in the need to obtain the maximum possible information and knowledge from the participant so that he/she can subsequently help the participant adequately.

Observation is the first and most common technique used by each social worker or social farmer at first contact with the participant, noting both verbal and non-verbal manifestations when creating an idea of the participant. While working with the participant, observation on their beliefs about the participant goes on to consolidate or correct.

Listening is great art, which all must learn. Interruption while listening can cause displeasure for the participant. If listening is not in accordance with non-verbal communication, the social worker does not demonstrate a credible and authentic appearance and it is, therefore, difficult to establish a relationship with the participant. The social worker must be able to respond adequately, providing the participant with the feeling that they are listening, so as not to cause an additional traumatic experience. The social worker must include all information in the overall concept of the participant's life (Krutilová, 2014).

An unstructured (free) interview is a technique where the social worker lets a participant talk freely about what they need to tell them. Dialogue is without direction, without question or comment. The participant can associate and communicate feelings, thoughts. The only limit is the time limit.

A structured interview is used to get clear and comprehensive data for a purpose, that is, to develop a topic. The advantage is that the worker knows what to ask, thus saving time for themselves and the participant, not confusing the participant and moving towards a clear goal.

The combination of a free and controlled interview is most often applied. Gradually, the worker and the participant come to the heart of the problem.

Working with the participant's medical history (data) is used when the participant does not have a sufficient view of their personal situation and circumstances. The social worker asks about the participant's relationships and life context, history, health situation, maps the beginning and course of the participant's problem. This can help to capture and articulate the risk situation for returning to the normal functioning of the participant.

Asking questions is one of the most important skills in a counselling interview. "The counsellor can completely ruin the interview (making it ineffective and unnecessary for the participant) by asking closed questions or insensitively asking them. Conversely, well-chosen questions that offer the participant a different perspective on their situation can be very useful and sometimes literally miraculous" (Krutilová, 2014). We typically distinguish the following types of questions:

- closed questions: YES / NO, refine information but do not convey experiences, attitudes and opinions
- open questions: the participant can talk freely about feelings, needs, think about another point of view ("Why?", "How?", "What is your opinion?", "How do you view it?" etc.)
- underestimating partner questions: these questions can stop and block communication, ineffective communication strategy ("Are you serious?", "Have you finally understood?" etc.)
- suggestive questions: the questions lead/push the participant into a choice that is not their own, it is a kind of manipulation, without the participant's free choice ("Do you agree with me that there is no other solution?")
- ironic questions: irony and sarcasm are presented as a kind of aggression; communication implies that the counsellor thinks the opposite, the participant closes up and stops communicating. It is better to favour kind humour.
- rhetorical questions: in a counselling interview that is not working, these questions can be dissuasive for the participant--the counsellor wants to hear the consent, and it can be a kind of manipulation, thus making it impossible to establish a relationship of trust and openness.
- information questions: these help to obtain new information so as to clarify the participant's situation, letting the counsellor shift and direct the counselling process to the desired goal ("What solution did you choose?")
- motivational questions: encourage the participant to become more involved in resolving their situation. They should be targeted to the issue that the participant addresses. The participant has a feeling of support from the advisor, so do be wary of their self-purpose ("I appreciate your progress, how did you find it?").
- control questions: the counsellors can ask them when they are unsure of something or do not sufficiently understand the communication ("Is it understandable to you?", "Will you repeat what recommendation you have chosen?")

The social worker collects suggestions on both a verbal and non-verbal level of participant performance, and he/she also monitors what the participant says in the subtext (with gestures, context, attitude during the interview, timely consultations). These are statements about the participant's personality.

Giving feedback allows the social worker to describe the participant's situation, as they understood it in the interview. "The feedback from the counsellor is simultaneously informing the participant about how their problem is perceived by an impartial and objective person, and how they can advance towards the solution to their problem further (Krutilová, 2014).

The environment in which social work takes place, whether it corresponds to the target group, i.e., if there is a toilet in the place, a changing table if it is a family with an infant, influences the work of the social worker. Sometimes it is advisable to let the participant choose the space where they will feel comfortable and safe.

It is necessary to observe the time frame of the intervention, to observe the agreed-upon time limits. The social worker must be able to negotiate the agreed time interval without any conflict and insist on it. A worker should not be afraid to refer to another expert, without concern for losing his or her expertise and competencies.

5.6 BOUNDARIES IN RELATION TO A SOCIAL WORKER AND A PERSON WITH SPECIAL NEED

The psychic boundaries as well as the physical boundary in interpersonal relationships plays an important role in the relationship between the helping person and a person with special need. In the relationship with other people, it is necessary to set boundaries that determine what is inherent in the matter and what is superimposed upon it. Adherence to certain principles in relation to participants is one of the preconditions for professional social work and part of the prevention of burnout. Each functioning unit must have clear boundaries, and the competences of the two participants in the assistance process must be clearly distinguished. However, everyone can view the division of competences differently. It is not possible for a social worker to take all other people's vital interests as seriously as his/her own. Violation of boundaries can pose a significant threat to both the worker and the participant in social work.

Such situations occur less frequently in outpatient care, more often in the long-term therapeutic process or in residential services. Such a situation may occur on a social farm where a person with special needs stays for a long time looking for attachments and stability. This situation of attachment is sensitive and difficult for both the social worker (farmer) and the person with special needs. In order to prevent this type of situation, the help of an external supervisor who can analyze and give some practical advice, will advance further relationship and communication.

The main problems in delimiting the boundaries in the particular helping professions are: the tendency to blend borders (the tendency of the worker to take on participant's affairs), the impermeability of the borders and the protection of borders against manipulation (Kopřiva, 2015).

Blending borders

This relates to the idea of creating dependence when the social worker takes over the needs of the person with disabilities, which they were otherwise able to provide for themselves. A social worker can lose track of boundaries in compassion and can begin to help too much, as he/she cannot rationally separate from the participant. Alternatively, the professional relationship can grow into a personal level, as the worker also offers personal time and the professional relationship grows into a friendly one. It is a sign of professionalism when a worker is aware of varying degrees of sympathy, and can consciously work with it and offer the same level of support to different participants (Krutilová, 2014).

When a border merges, a worker falls out of the professional role and there is a risk of becoming heavily exhausted from everyday contact with extremely difficult tasks. The assistance of a social worker should not be limited to comforting and encouraging, as the participant may become addicted to this emotional satiety and require others, while unable to take the next step in their own situation (Kopřiva, 2015).

Impermeability of borders

This is about creating an impermeable and closed boundary that a social worker creates in order to avoid jeopardizing their internal regime, but it can actually prevent a genuine dialogue from occurring. Help can then be limited to the practical side of the field, often manifested in cynical conversations, which shows that he/she is not interested in the problems of the person with special needs.

The impermeable boundary is created as a defense against manipulation. The solution is to learn sufficient assertiveness, i.e. the social worker must express and act in accordance with their rights while being able to respect the rights of persons with special needs. Assertiveness is a defense not only against manipulation but also against aggression (self-enforcement, not respecting the rights of the other person) or passivity (meeting the requirements of the other against their beliefs) (Pergerová, Kočí, n.d.). In assertive behaviour, an individual must not be afraid to show their demands, express disagreement, express a compliment, be able to criticize without condemnation and be responsible for their thoughts and emotions.

In situations where it is evident that the reasoning does not make sense, the worker repeats their demand all the time - the technique of a "broken record". Responding to criticism can be with absolute consent - the "open door" technique (Kopřiva, 2015).

Semi-permeability of borders

Natural borders should be semi-permeable and, above all, well established. The social worker maintains self-sufficiency, enters into a relationship with the environment, and accepts what appears to them good and useful in the dialogue (for example, he/she is able to estimate non-constitutive comments, irrelevant life experiences, the effort to emotionally influence

the social worker, that do not address the social situation of a person with special needs). The key task of a social worker is to be responsive and open to the participant when communicating with the participant - they are aware of themselves and how the participant acts towards them. The social worker should minimize the intensity of the evaluation areas so that their evaluation does not distort perception. The employee should temporarily postpone the effort to assert their personal opinion, and become actively interested in the inner world of the participant while being sufficiently empathetic. For a social worker, this means that emotions - not only resistance, fear, contempt, but also not sympathy, regret, hope, etc. - should not become the essence of the relationship with the participant (Kappl, 2010).

5.7 COMMUNICATION WITH A PARTICIPANT

Communication with the participant takes place both verbally and nonverbally. In both external and internal manifestations, one must perceive the whole of the individual to be authentic and credible. Communication is also about understanding the needs of the person but also about giving work instructions that the participant can understand.

A social worker plays the role of intermediary between the participant, the farmer, and other farmworkers, or between the farm and outside institutions. Good communication creates a friendly environment and an overall picture of the farm. Communication depends on the target group. It might be necessary to pay attention to language barriers (e.g. refugees), needs to be simple (e.g. people with intellectual disability, children), the age related challenges (e.g. dementia, hearing impairment) or it is needed to build trust and clarity about rules at the same time (e.g. youth, addicts), see also the chapter on Target groups in social farming.

The basic principles of professional communication with participants include:

- the social worker communicates in a way that is understandable,
- the social worker verifies the information communicated,
- the social worker communicates true content,
- the social worker is authentic in communication,
- the social worker follows the principles of positive communication,
- the social worker's communication style does not exhaust their emotional portfolio,
- the social worker does not communicate in monologue style,
- the social worker summarizes the content of the discourse
- the social worker speaks the same amount in the first person when presenting their own opinion,
- the social worker expresses clear yes, clear no answers
- the social worker never criticizes people in communication, but acts,
- the social worker always keeps confidential, which and he/she informs the participant.

One of the most important skills of a social worker should be active listening, which in practice means providing feedback. Active listening and verbal expressions of communication include the following techniques:

- clarification,
- paraphrasing - in other words, telling the information contained in the participant's call,
- reflection - reflecting on the feelings expressed by the participant, conveying a message of understanding to these feelings,
- summary/summarization - extends paraphrases and reflections on more topics that appeared in the participant's testimony,
- recap - the social workers show that they are listening and verify that they understand well
- anchoring - attitudes or opinions that are healthy and that can motivate the participant to achieve goals, providing an anchor by vividly responding, praising, returning to them, passing misleading and unnecessary words as unnoticed, letting them fall into place,
- valuation - valuation information shows the participant that their message is important and that they, too, are important (Havránková, 2008).

Nonverbal communication usually manifests unwittingly, yet sends news about the individual. The perception of an unintended and uncensored message can illustrate, understand, and obscure details in the human story. Non-verbal manifestations of communication include:

- eye contact (views): expresses a willingness to engage in communication, an indicator of perception and attention, participation, interest and sincerity. The worker should maintain adequate eye contact with the participant.
- shade of voice (paralinguistics): a strong voice is a sign of aggression; a monotonous silent voice is a sign of disinterest, a resignation. The voice should soothe and promote confidence.

- facial expression: smile, frown, blush, lip shake, nodding, etc. can mean uncertainty, fear, embarrassment, rage, mistrust. The facial expression can be seen as displeasure, participant disagreement, fatigue, hostility towards social worker. A facial expression can reveal to the worker that a person is saying something different from what they think (e.g., a smile while portraying a tragic event), which may indicate serious internal contradictions and uncertainties.
- hands (gestures): illustrate the emotional content of words, or are a manifestation of energy. Crossing the arms or legs indicates the participant's stiffness and defensive stance. Hands along the body or relative to a partner in communication mean openness and helpfulness. Clenched fists indicate anxiety, as do nervous drumming, tramping, leg oscillation impatience, restlessness, and unpleasant expectations.
- proxemics: the mutual position of the interviewees, physical proximity promotes trust and cooperation, but the boundary is very fragile. Interference with the personal space of the other means endangering him/her. E.g. if the participant withdraws into a chair, ignores it, or is not likely to be safe, the social worker should respond to it (prompting him/her to place the chair at his / her discretion), then the situation during the interview may change in terms of approach.
- clothing and appearance: a style of clothing, hairstyle and grooming tell a lot about a person. We notice colour matching, ornaments, embellishments, and casualness. The appearance of the exterior should be chosen so that it does not have a provocative, disturbing, or offensive effect. Much depends on the target group with which the worker deals.
- posture: an attitude that expresses the participant's certainty or uncertainty, commitment to action, aggression or timidity.
- kinesics: involuntary movements that may refer to neurotic disorders, the discrepancy between speech manifestations (Havránková, 2008).

5.8 CONCLUSION

The basic chapters of methods, techniques and tools of social work that can be used on social farms in various types of activities were briefly presented in the pages above. This chapter is primarily based on the explanation from textbooks and other materials aimed at educating social workers and other related professions in the field of social work. Even the best lesson needs to be learned and adapted to the farms or social requirements offered, and the needs of the target audience. Each chapter should be further developed, tested in practice, and improved by observation and further education.

The general knowledge of the field of social work methods is not only necessary on a theoretical level, but is also useful for practical purposes, as it can provide a guide to disadvantaged people working on the farm, including means for avoiding and/or de-escalating conflict situations that can arise when working in a couple or a team.

Although a social farm is a specific environment of social integration, the environment does not have to play as an important role in the assistance process as the professional and human approach of a social worker or social farmer familiar with the methods and techniques of social work.

5.9 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISE

Exercise I (case social work)

During the course, it is possible to link to various other materials and videos. Below see the list of different types of target groups in social work. Find on YouTube a video concerning one of the selected target groups operating on a farm and discuss the video in groups. Each group will find the main points and assistant procedures, identify the needs of participants and offered activities, and present the outcomes to other students. The teacher should comment on the outcomes and give his/her own opinions and ideas about the participants and farmers work.

See for example these links:

<https://www.socialfarmingireland.ie/resources/social-farming-videos/>

<https://www.farmgarden.org.uk/resources>

- social work and foster care,
- social work with homeless people,

- social work with the dying and their loved ones,
- social work with seniors in their declining abilities,
- social work provided in a socially excluded area,
- social worker as a guide to a person with mental illness,
- social work during hospitalization,
- social work for a person with a health handicap,
- social worker providing acute emergency and follow-up assistance

Look at the individual videos and try to identify situations where the offer of a social farm could be involved in the therapeutic / rehabilitation or preventive process in case social work.

Discuss the videos in groups, each group will find the main points and assistance procedures, identify the needs of the selected participant, and present the outcomes to other students.

Exercise II (social work with the family)

Look at the websites of social farms that work with children in alternative family care, taking care of the participatory activities of families with children, and work with socially disadvantaged children. Try to identify the advantages and disadvantages of such work, and discuss with your teacher.

Write a short reflection on the topic (200 words).

Try to find other similar organizations on the Internet or Facebook.

Exercise III (social work with a group)

- Discuss the rules of an informally created group on a social farm.
- Try to answer these questions:
- Does it make sense to introduce rules on a social farm?
- What types of rules should be defined? (E.g. operational, meetings, working, for different groups, etc.)
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of these rules?
- What sanctions should be imposed for non-compliance?
- Is the system of sanctions needed?

Exercise IV (social worker skills training)

Create pairs and, in model situations (roleplay), try making an interview of a social worker and a person with special need (select your own type of disadvantage) and follow the suggestions in chapter 7.7.

Try to imagine the farm environment and look for a concrete solution to the problems (training of daily skills, orientation in space, training of communication, return to the labour market, entry into the labour market, treatment of addiction, etc.).

Observe mutual verbal and nonverbal expressions of communication.

Exercise V (visit to the course by an expert)

Invite a social farmer to present their farm, target group and the prevailing way of working with participants within an hour.

Then conduct the interview (practice formulating questions).

5.10 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

1. Visit the social farm. Create a farm spatial map, job map, user map. Try to identify and describe farm activities that are closely linked to social work methods, tools and techniques.
2. Write a short reflection (500 words), which will include a description of the farm, the target group, the farmer's work and cooperation with other actors in the locality, based on a visit by an expert in the course.
3. Read a relevant article in a foreign language and write a short summary. Identify participant support areas.

5.11 EVALUATION

Summative assessment at the end of the course: a written standardized test of acquired knowledge

Continuous assessment: during the lectures, the teacher monitors reactions, the desire to conduct an interview, involvement in an interview with an invited guest, involvement in model situations.

Formative assessment: the teacher keeps track of student growth and adequate responses to questions, videos, articles.

TIPS AND NOTES

- This is a theoretical preparation, take breaks as needed
- Prepare graphically interesting presentations
- Interpret the video
- Engage the activity in blocks of instruction
- Encourage students to think about specific situations
- Encourage students to reflect on the subject matter
- Choose a suitable guest based on student interest- Recommend students farms (or other demonstration facilities) they should visit.

5.12 LINKS

<http://www.socialni-zemedelstvi.cz/> (Social farming in the Czech Republic - information, documents, news, contacts...)

<https://www.socialfarmingireland.ie/> (Social farming in Ireland, well-structured and informative website with many resources)

<https://www.farmgarden.org.uk/> (Social Farms and Gardens in the UK) "

<http://www.profarmproject.eu/> (ProFarm project, educational videos and related to working-based learning with special needs in social farming)

<http://www.inclufar.eu/dokumente/> (IncluFar project on inclusive farming, anthroposophy approach)

<https://www.age-platform.eu/good-practice/care-farms-provide-nursing-home-care-netherlands> (Article about Dutch care farms for people with dementia)

<https://vimeo.com/109903443> (Dutch green care farm "De Port" for hosting residents with psycho-geriatric or somatic problems)

5.13 LITERATURE

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SECTION 6

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE NEW RURAL ECONOMY

Rhys Evans



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

This course covers 12 hours of classroom time divided, ideally, over two days. It can be broken into differently scheduled components over other time periods according to local practice. The two days can be separated by a week so that students have time to familiarize themselves with the readings and presentations before the lectures in the Virtual Learning Environment (VLE).

Over the two days, each sub-topic has a printed reference, with lectures created from the reference. Each sub-topic is the object of a lecture, supported by Power-point presentations which are made available to the students on the VLE in the week prior to the sitting of the course. In this way, they can familiarize themselves with the material in advance.

The two classes run from 0900 – 1500, divided into 45-minute lectures/activities with a 15-minute break between. A 45-minute lunch is scheduled.

Thus, the course requires the following materials and space:

- A small classroom with facilities for digital presentations, good internet access and analogue writing tools such as a SmartBoard or flipcharts and pens.
- An online learning platform such as Moodle.
- Access to copying (and copywrite) facilities to create the course compendium.

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

Aim

The aim of the chapter is to introduce some basic concepts in entrepreneurialism which are often not considered when thinking about social farming. These concepts were identified in consultation with active social farmers in Norway who identified entrepreneurship as being a key component in running a successful social farm and who admitted to needing support in developing their entrepreneurship skills.

Objective

Students will come away from this course having learned how to think about entrepreneurship and apply it to their own social farming businesses. In particular, the focus is directly upon the entrepreneur and how to work inside an innovative enterprise to increase its chances of success and sustainability.

Learning Outcomes (LOs)

Knowledge

- LO-K1: Students will gain a broader knowledge over the central ideas, principles and phenomena surrounding the field of entrepreneurship, including about the entrepreneur themselves, the drivers of growing new markets, and some important details for the running of a successful and sustainable rural enterprise.
- LO-K2: Students will know about the latest research and development of ideas in the field of rural innovation.
- LO-K3: The students will gain knowledge and an understanding of the history of the field of innovation and entrepreneurship, and its role in society.
- LO-K4: Students will master practical knowledge of the management of a successful and sustainable rural business.

Skills

- LO-S1: Students will be able to use what they learn about entrepreneurs and innovation to examine their own and others' opportunities and enterprises.
- LO-S2: Students will gain experience reflecting on their own practice in the field and learn to take guidance for improving it.
- LO-S3: Students will practice applying tools to find, evaluate and present information and ideas from the field to support their own project ideas.

- LO-S4: Students will master relevant thematic tools, techniques and ways of expression.

General competence

- LO- GC1: Students will have gained insight into relevant thematic and occupational challenges and problems
- LO-GC2: Students learn to plan and carry through varied tasks and projects that stretch over time on their own or as a group, and in accordance with ethical demands and guidance.
- LO-GC3: Students will learn to present central thematic materials like theories, problems or solutions through written, oral or other ways of expression.
- LO-GC4: Students will gain practice in exchanging viewpoints and experiences with others with a background in the field and through this contribute to the development of good practices.
- LO-GC5: Students will complete this course knowing about a range of innovative thinking and innovation processes within the field.
- This two-day course is designed for the equivalent of a vocational or early higher-educational students. It assumes the ability to learn and handle academic ideas but expresses them in practical ways which can be taken on board by social farming practitioners. Prior learning can be assessed and if sufficient, allow entry in this course. If the topic is expanded into a larger 20 or 30 ECTS bachelor course, then the standard pre-requirements for participation would apply.

ABSTRACT

As well as delivering important health and social care services to clients, social farms are also businesses. Research with existing practitioners has shown that they identify training in running their social farm as an important business, and something not normally included in the training that they have been able to access. Therefore, this curriculum includes entrepreneurship as a learning unit. This short course is one of a number offered in this learning unit.

It has two specific focuses: Being an entrepreneur and understanding the New Rural Economy with the opportunities and challenges it brings.

With the first unit, we focus upon understanding the inner journey of an entrepreneur. This will touch upon personal matters, such as self-efficacy and courage and creativity, as well as understanding the responsibilities and pressures faced by those who would like to innovate. The second unit focuses upon the way that wider changes in the world have brought upon the rural economy, identifying new sectors and activities, which can provide new and lucrative opportunities for the rural entrepreneur.

KEYWORDS

Entrepreneurship, Business Management, Innovation, the Consumer Economy, Rural Development.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Modern agricultural regimes in Europe emphasize mechanization and capital investment over human labour. As a result, many former agricultural jobs are disappearing in rural areas. This is a challenge faced by both highly developed rural economies, and those still developing. The net result of this phenomenon can be either rural depopulation or the 'suburbanization' of rural areas, where people remain living in the area but have to work in adjacent cities. Either way, there is a strong need to support the *Vocational Transition* of people in rural areas – from agricultural employment, to participation in self-employment in a growing rural sector which delivers consumption and service activities to urban markets. These can take the form of the provision of nature-based services on farms which are too small or otherwise marginal to industrial agriculture. A growing example of such a nature-based service is social farming. Of course, there are other nature-based services including the delivery of 'Experience Economy' activities such as outdoor recreation, nature-based tourism, the production and consumption of local food and other traditional products, plus the experience of cultural heritage assets which represent the local history and culture of the rural area. For the purpose of the course, however, there is a key issue behind the success in all these fields of activity – the understanding of business and entrepreneurship skills and new busi-

ness opportunities, and how it applies to social farming. Indeed, research conducted in Norway in 2018 by the author and colleagues with social farming practitioners indicated that they currently found this their highest challenge and as a result, a course resembling this one was created and delivered in 2018. It is from the foundation of that course given to Inn på tunet Møre og Romsdal that this course is built.

This course is designed to address the needs of rural entrepreneurs delivering nature-based services, including social farming. It opens up the topic of entrepreneurship by looking at some processes internal to the entrepreneur; at the market; and offers key insights that can be used to increase the success and sustainability of a rural enterprise.

It is structured as two learning units, each containing a number of sub-topics. These generally conform to one or two 45-minute lectures. The classroom days are structured around these sub-topics.

It is structured the following way:

Unit 1: Being an Entrepreneur

- What is Innovation?
- *Courage and Creativity, Being a minority of one*
- Self-efficacy

Unit 2: The New Rural Economy

- Social and economic changes and their implications for rural resources
- Urban demand and consumption of rural resources
- The rise of the 'Experience Economy'

These two learning units will be divided over two days. Each sub-topic has a printed reference, with lectures created from the reference. Each sub-topic is the object of a lecture, supported by Power-point presentations which are made available to the students on the VLE in the week prior to the sitting of the course. This way they can familiarize themselves with the material in advance.

The two classes run from 0900 – 1500, divided into 45-minute lectures/activities with a 15-minute break between. A 45-minute lunch is scheduled.

6.2 INTRODUCTION TO THE ENTREPRENEUR/ENTREPRENEURSHIP

6.2.1 CREATIVITY AND COURAGE

The following section relies on E. Paul Torrance's book *Why Fly? (1995)* and Rollo May's *The Courage to Create (1994)*.

"You need courage to be creative. Just as soon as you have a new idea you are in a minority of one. And being in a minority of one is uncomfortable – it takes courage!" (Torrance, 1995). This notion lies directly behind many of the things that innovators/entrepreneurs face in both the ideational and the practical sides of starting and running a new enterprise. This idea of being a minority of one implies that because you want to do something which has never been done before, others will be, at best, sceptical and at worse, will think you are crazy. Scepticism towards the *new* has always been present in human society but at the same time, society relies on innovators for 'progress'. This means that we rely on those special individuals who go out on a limb to introduce new things to world – some of them are very successful indeed and go on to change the way the world we live in works – think of Steve Jobs and Steve Wosniak who created the first Apple computer, or Nicolai Tesla who invented alternating current electricity. Both faced significant scepticism and resistance, but both brought into being something which lies at the foundation of modern life. Of this, Torrance says "...societies have always been dependent upon a creatively gifted minority for their images of the future" (Torrance, 1995,123). Not only this, but we also rely on that gifted minority to make the future happen.

To hold fast to an innovative idea requires not only faith in its potential, but also a level of courage. Not only must an entrepreneur deal with external scepticism and even outright resistance, but they must also deal with their own doubts, which can get in the way of successfully making their idea become a reality. "Outstanding creative achievement always involves a step in to the unknown... the bigger the breakthrough the achievement represents, the bigger becomes the step into the unknown." It takes a great deal of resolve to hold to the course which has been chosen, especially because it brings a challenging process with it. "Such achievement involves being different, testing known limits, attempting difficult jobs, making honest mistakes and responding to challenge. All of these behaviour patterns require courage" (Torrance, 1995). Recognizing this can help the entrepreneur understand, that her/his own doubts are natural, and rather than becoming obstacles to success, they are signposts along the way to it.

Torrance says, “Instead of just adapting or adjusting to their environments, creative people deliberately go about changing those environments. They commit themselves to goals that require sustained expenditures of intellectual emotion, and physical energy, plus continued changes in behaviour” (Torrance, 1995). Besides their innovative ideas or projects, one of the key factors in the success of an innovator is this sense of dissatisfaction with the status quo. They do not want to do what is already being done by everybody else – instead they have a vision which they not only know is better for whomever it is directed to, but also is something which they personally will gain a lot of satisfaction from doing.

This is the source of *passion* which drives innovation. Given the challenges, an innovator can counter the difficulties with the strength of their passion for something. Also, as Torrance says, “having a passionate love for something is probably the key to being courageous” (Torrance 1995, 131). Thus, we see the need for courage and creativity, and that one source of it is the passion of the creator, or, “Love of one’s work – of what one is doing – is another rather obvious necessity for a high level of creativity” (Torrance 1995, 132).

6.2.2 CREATING A ‘FUTURE’, CREATIVITY AND COURAGE

May (1994) discusses how innovation works out when expressed in the real world. He says, “No problem so persistently defies our skill at drawing boundaries as the problem of the future....In the act of searching out the future, Homo sapiens crosses the frontiers of the unknown....He leaves behind the familiar universe... continually bringing small fragments of the unknown back with him out of the darkness and adding them to the known” (Torrance 1995, 12). This ‘return journey’ out to the future and back to the here-and-now is shared across all registers of innovation. Creativity, whether artistic or entrepreneurial, involves the innovator ‘seeing’ a future outcome which reflects their passion and then retracing their steps back to the here-and-now. Once that path has been forged, it can be re-traced to make a plan to make that future come about, step by step. Torrance claims, “The future must not only be perceived, it also must be shaped.... This image always operates as a projection backward, from the future into the present” (Torrance 1995, 138). What is being described here is the process of creativity and this is also the process of innovation. Further, he says that, “this spiritual overstepping of the boundaries of the unknown is the source of all human creativity” (Torrance 1995, 138). Here once again, the ‘overstepping of boundaries’ creates a need for courage in creativity, a courage that is vitally necessary for an entrepreneur.

Social farming sits at the interdisciplinary junction of two very different disciplinary communities – social care, and agriculture. Just as the practice requires competence from both, it also can be seen as sitting in neither. This can lead to scepticism from both directions. Like many different activities in multifunctional farming, social farming goes against the model of industrial production of food commodities which strongly dominates agriculture. Thus, the social farming entrepreneur can face scepticism or even outright opposition from mainstream farming communities. Likewise, by providing a new alternative to social care (in a natural environment), social farming can also be seen as somewhat ‘beyond the pale’ to mainstream social care practices as they are institutionalised in local governments.

Thus, it will take equal amounts of courage and creativity to create something new – something which participates in both different disciplines, but which can arguably be seen as integrally part of neither.

6.2.3 SELF-EFFICACY

The following section relies on the work of Alfred Bandura, *Self-Efficacy in Changing Societies* (1995).

A basic requirement for personal courage of any kind is self-confidence, or what Bandura calls *self-efficacy belief*. Bandura is a Canadian psychologist who is the generally acknowledged expert on the subject. He says that societies depend upon innovators who buck the trends, and who apply themselves to create something new against a host of difficulties. “Creative people forever test the limits of their abilities, the situation itself, and their reserve resources” (Bandura 1995, 2) he says. “The childhoods of Thomas Edison, Henry Ford, Albert Einstein, Benjamin Franklin and Richard Byrd...are filled with accounts of attempts to accomplish tasks that were considered by others to be too difficult for them... all inevitably made mistakes, or experienced dangers that placed them in the category of ‘difficult children’ or ‘crazy young people’ (Bandura 1995, 4)” This lies at the heart of Bandura’s notions of the impact of innovators on the wider society – he claims that they are outliers, not the same as the norm, and that society depends upon them to move forward.

His formal definition of self-efficacy is *The ability to exercise control over events that affect our lives*. In other words, it is about our ability to affect outcomes, particularly those that matter to us. As a psychological theory, it applies to more than innovators and entrepreneurs in a strict sense, although that is what we will focus upon here.

The theory of self-efficacy

As a theory, it explains the origins of beliefs about self-efficacy, their structure and function, the processes through which they operate, and their diverse effects.

It is a *theory* in that it provides a comprehensive scheme which addresses all the above. *Perceived self-efficacy* equals a set of beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. They influence how we think, feel, motivate ourselves, and act.

Further, Bandura asserts that such capabilities (to affect outcomes) are something that we are not born with – rather those of us with high self-efficacy *learn* them over the process of our lives. So, if self-efficacy is learned, we too can learn it and apply it in our lives.

In describing how self-efficacy beliefs are learned, Bandura starts with what he calls the sources of efficacy beliefs -- (how we 'know' – how we learn that we can be effective steerers of our own journeys. He says as we learn we can do it ourselves through four types of experiences -- Mastery experiences; Vicarious experiences; Social persuasion; and the Self-monitoring of our physiological and emotional status. Thus, when we have our own small experiences of success, it inspires us to both think we can take on more and provides a guide on how to get through these experiences. We learn from vicarious experiences when we watch others succeed and think that if they can do it, we can too. When our parents tell us that 'we can do it', we are learning from social persuasion. And finally, we learn to enjoy the feelings of challenge and success and look forward to experiencing more of them.

Bandura says that efficacy beliefs regulate human functions through Cognitive processes; Motivational processes; Affective processes; and Selection processes. In detail, efficacy beliefs regulate human functions through these four processes. With *Cognitive processes*: what we think about what we can do, and the more we believe we can do it, the better able we are to do it. With *motivational processes*, we motivate ourselves based on what we expect – causes, outcomes, recognized goals. This is driven by expectations of outcomes, personal ability. This is how we are motivated to achieve goals, take on challenges. We also choose what we can and cannot do through Affective processes, that is, what emotions we experience – stress, arousal, etc., and our ability to exercise control over our responses to these. The memory of the pleasures of achieving something significant can drive us to try other significant challenges. Finally, we exercise what Bandura calls Selection processes, where we choose what competencies to build and what competencies we decide are beyond us.

In describing how such a psychological phenomenon works, Bandura focuses on people with a low, or high 'sense of self-efficacy'. He says that "People who have a *low sense of efficacy* in given domains shy away from difficult tasks, which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they chose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, the obstacles they will encounter and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. [As a result] they slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks. Because they view insufficient performance as deficient aptitude, it does not require much failure for them to lose faith in their capabilities." (Bandura 1995, 11) If we examine our own experiences with challenge, we can see how this can work. We all have things we do not think we are good at – for example the common dialectic between words and numbers. If we 'know' that we are not good at numbers, for example, we will not try as hard to become better at mathematics, in the end, stopping ourselves from progressing in that field.

Alternatively, Bandura claims that "People with *high assurance in their capabilities* in given domains approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. These people set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of difficulties. [Not only that, but] they quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failure or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or to deficient knowledge and skills that are acquirable, [and] they approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them." (Bandura 1995, 12) Thus, rather than seeing a set-back as failure, those of us with high self-efficacy beliefs see a challenge which can be overcome – often seen as the need to learn a new skill.

Bandura states that "Individuals have to decide for themselves which creative abilities to cultivate, whether to invest their efforts and resources in ventures that are difficult to fulfil, and how much hardship they are willing to endure in pursuits strewn with obstacles and uncertainties (Bandura 1995, 4)." When we are unconscious about even making choices, the chances of choosing the more positive position are somewhat random. Only when we become aware of how it works, and how we can change, can we make conscious choices in our lives, ultimately choosing success instead of failure. Bandura says, "it takes a resilient sense of efficacy to surmount the impediments and setbacks that characterize difficult undertakings" (Bandura 1995, 11), which is why this matters so much to innovators and entrepreneurs.

Innovative achievements require a resilient sense of self-efficacy. Innovations demand a heavy investment of effort over a long period with uncertain results. Moreover, innovations that clash with existing preferences and practices meet with negative social reactions. As Bandura says, "therefore, it comes as no surprise that one rarely finds realists in the ranks of innovators and great achievers. (Bandura 1995, 13) "Here, he sees 'realism' as equivalent to accepting things as they are and not feeling enabled to change them. And this he opposes to those who have brought so many significant innovations in human life – brought by those creators who have learned the habits of self-efficacy.

"Realists may adapt well to existing realities. But those with a tenacious self-efficacy are likely to change those realities," because, "to succeed, one cannot afford to be a realist."

(Alfred Bandura. In an address before the American Psychological Association, 1998)

More about self-efficacy: <http://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Pajares/self-efficacy.html>



These open forest parklands in Scotland have increasingly been valued for the opportunities they provide for new small-scale and community-provided nature-based services which deliver a wide range of education, health, wellbeing and adventure services to a growing demand.
Author: Rhys Evans

6.3 THE NEW RURAL ECONOMY

6.3.1 THE EXPERIENCE ECONOMY

The following section was taken from Joseph Pine & James Gilmore's *The Experience Economy* (2007)

Social organisation reflects (and shapes) the primary ways of generating wealth in a society. And the generation of wealth equally reflects and shapes the social organisation of a society. Over the span of human civilization, the ways of generating wealth have coalesced into a set of coherent descriptions characterized chronologically as, Hunter-gatherer society; Agricultural Society; Industrial Society; and Post-Industrial Society. Within the latter are included the Knowledge economy, the Service economy, and the Experience economy. These categorizations were developed by different scholars at different times, and as time has passed, there has been some argument about categorical definitions and this schema has begun to suffer under the complexity of recent developments.

What structures the choice of these categories, however, is a simple approach to understanding different sectors of economic activity in society. These generally boil down to four key sectors: the Primary (1st) Sector – dominated by the *production of* commodities; the Secondary (2nd) Sector – dominated by the *manufacture of* goods; the Tertiary (3rd) Sector – dominated by the *delivery of* services; and a Quaternary (4th) Sector – dominated by 'higher order services' such as banking, marketing, etc.

ECONOMIC SECTORS

- Primary (1st) Sector –production of commodities
- Secondary (2nd) Sector –manufacture of goods
- Tertiary (3rd) Sector -delivery of services
- Quaternary (4th) Sector –Higher order services

Each sector is dominated by a single category of economic activity, be it the production of commodities or the delivery of services. In order to better understand this, we can look at each of these things in more detail.

Commodities

Commodities are materials extracted from the natural world. They can be animal, mineral or vegetable. Some are extractable only once, such as minerals. Others can be regenerated annually, such as crops. Others, such as fish stocks, regenerate themselves (if not disturbed). Commodity production involves large scales of production, requiring extensive use of land surface or sea. As commodities are *fungible, meaning*, any example of a commodity may be exchanged for another example, for example with wheat, coffee beans, wood. Here, once a commodity has been labelled with a descriptor (i.e. Number 1 rice, Type 00 wheat), any quantity of that same descriptor can be substituted for it. That is, effectively, they are all the same and fully exchangeable one for another. This leads to competition in production based around the one thing that will distinguish a product – price. When two quantities of a commodity are designated the same, the only difference between them will be the cost of production and transport. This leads to price pressure, resulting in a sector often characterized by high volumes and low unit price.

Historically, this sector was also the Agrarian Economy, a historic means of production which lay behind the rise of the first ‘civilizations’ in Mesopotamia and elsewhere due to the ability of farmers to produce more food than they could eat. This created a surplus. This surplus had to be managed, and that management could be paid for by the surplus. This led to the rise of managers, chiefs, and eventually, Kings. Only through the production of surplus could a society afford an aristocracy and the agrarian economy supported the rise of the first examples of these.

Even during the 18th century, agriculture remained extremely significant. During that time, 80% of the workforce in the USA was employed by agriculture. It is now less than 3%. Clearly, innovations in the production process have increased efficiency and output. Bigger and bigger machines allow larger amounts of land to be cultivated by fewer and fewer people. Thus, the production of raw material in the production sector continues yet employs fewer and fewer people.

Goods

Using commodities as raw materials, companies make, and then inventory *goods*. Goods are tangible items, sold off the shelf, out of a catalogue, etc., to customers who are anonymous. That is, the producer of the goods does not directly sell to the customer. Instead, they create products they expect the consumer will want. Because goods can be put to *immediate use*, they are worth more than the commodities they are made from. The convenience is higher, and often, due to the economies of scale, the producer can sell a product for less than a consumer could make their own – if they indeed could make their own.

Services

Services are intangible activities customized to the individual request of known clients. That is, a service provider does not produce a service until it is delivered and the delivery of that service is always the result of a negotiation between the provider and the consumer of the service.

Clients generally value the benefits of services more highly than the goods required to provide them. Services accomplish specific tasks they want done but don't want to do themselves: goods merely supply the means to do them. Whether consumers or businesses, customers will scrimp on goods (buy cheaply) and spend on services.

The lines between goods and services can be blurry. For example, *food*. Restaurants provide tangible goods in meals but each one is custom made and delivered in response to client demand.

Higher Order Services

Higher Order Services are those services which support the other economic activities, from production to consumption. These include banks and other financial services, marketing, business services, etc.

Of the four sectors, the Service Sector is, at this time, the dominant sector in creating new wealth and new opportunities. This is not to say that the other sectors no longer function or are no longer important. But the revolutionary changes in

the service sector such as the rise of the Knowledge Economy, mean that it is the services which dominate growth and wealth-generation at the current time.

6.3.2 THE EXPERIENCE ECONOMY

Pine and Gilmore (2007) have identified a section of the service sector as the Experience Economy. In a world that is increasingly digitized, they point to the rise in the value of unique experiences. In a globalized world of mass production and mass consumption, in which things are increasingly ubiquitous, the prime differentiator becomes price. This allows those things and experiences which are unique and distinctive to command higher prices. Whereas goods are produced in large quantities before their buyers see them, and services are produced from a direct negotiation with the client, experiences are unique to the person experiencing them. Even shared experiences.

Buyers of *experiences* value being engaged by what the company reveals over a duration of *time*. Thus, the *work* of the experience-stager perishes upon its performance. This keeps it even more unique. However, the *experience* remains in the *memory* of the individual engaged by the event. An *experience stager* no longer offers goods or services alone, but the resulting experience, rich with sensations, created within the customer. And these experiences actually occur within any individual who has been engaged on an emotional, physical, intellectual or spiritual level. In other words:

- commodities are fungible,
- goods are tangible,
- services are intangible,
- experiences are memorable

There can, however, be a blending between goods, services and experiences. For instance, a manufacturer can focus on the experiences customers have while *using* their goods. For example, with automobiles – how the good (the car) *performs*. Or in Couture – how clothes make you *feel* when you wear them. This is called the *experientializing* of goods. Automakers concentrate on the *driving experience*; Furniture makers concentrate on the *sitting experience*; Publishers concentrate on the *reading experience*. As the demand for experiences grows, so too will the demand for those goods which enable experiences.

This includes goods which affect the senses: Flavour, Odour, Touch, Sound. These all add to the experience, after all.

Another part of the experience economy drives the sale of goods which *represent* the experiences, including: Memorabilia, Uniforms, Movie and music industry merchandise, Tourist merchandise. These offer extra opportunities to add value to an experience and can help with the bottom line of an experience provider.

The table below shows how, with each step up the ladder of economic services, the value of the service grows as it is increasingly turned into a whole experience. Standards change as more becomes possible and thus we see the cost of a birthday going from a cake made from scratch, (0.50 cents) to the provision of a whole birthday experience (150 dollars).

| FROM COMMODITY TO EVENT: BIRTHDAYS | |
|--|------------------|
| 1950s - mom would bake cake from raw ingredients | -cost = \$0.50 |
| 1960s - mom would make cake from cake mixes | -cost = \$3.00 |
| 1980s - mom bought cake from supermarket | -cost = \$15.00 |
| 1990s - parents take children to Chuck E Cheese for birthday event | -cost = \$150.00 |

“The best things in life are not things” (by Linda Godeau)

6.3.3 AUTHENTICITY

This section also comes from Pine and Gilmore's *The Experience Economy* (2007)

“Now that the Experience Economy has reached full flower – supplanting the Service Economy as it had in turn overtaken the Industrial Economy, which itself had replaced the Agrarian Economy – issues of *authenticity* now bear down on not only all experience offerings but across all the economy” (Pine & Gilmore, 2007,13).

Just as the rise of services helped to establish quality as a field worth of deliberate management attention, the rise of *experiences* calls for a new arena of management expertise. Organisations today must learn to understand, manage and excel at *rendering authenticity*.

Therefore, to the availability of commodities, cost of goods, and quality of service, businesses must now add *authenticity of experience* as something to be managed. When consumers want what is 'real', the *management of the customer perception of authenticity* becomes the primary new source of competitive advantage, the new business imperative. Along the chain from production to experience, we have moved from "scarcity to abundance and then from abundance to authenticity"

- **Availability:** Purchasing on the basis of accessing a reliable supply
- **Cost:** Purchasing on the basis of obtaining an affordable price
- **Quality:** Purchasing on the basis of excelling in product performance
- **Authenticity:** Purchasing on the basis of conforming to self-image and pre-established understandings.

Note that *authenticity* is not the same as *genuine-ness*. Authenticity is *staged*, it is *enacted*, it is *performed*. Thus, the *performance of authenticity* becomes a key asset in the creation of an experience. This means that the supplier cannot assume the customer perceives authenticity automatically – it must be demonstrated to them. Authenticity can be quite varied, but always results in a customer experience of trust and involvement with the experience.

6.3.4 APPRECIATIVE ENQUIRY

How urban social and economic changes offer new opportunities for rural enterprises

Historically, rural areas have been seen as the poor little brother of wealthy urban spaces. Traditional appellations include 'backward', 'hill-billy', 'parochial' etc. This is mirrored by the historic *and* contemporary phenomenon of rural depopulation. Depopulation occurs, at least partly, as a result of declining rural jobs (as commodity harvesting becomes more efficient with larger and larger machines), and partly due to the attractions of the 'bright lights, big city'. In recent decades however, a series of changes in popular culture, consumption patterns, travel options and general prosperity have contributed to a reframing of the value of rural resources. Thus, a paradigm of 'rural deprivation' is changing into one of 'rural advantage', and there has been a concomitant move from focus on what is missing to one of rural development of important key assets, particularly built around 'nature' and 'community'.

There are three key factors behind a change like this. They are global, social and economic.

First, as we have moved to a globalized economy, we see mass consumption spreading around the world. In such a market of mass consumption (with concurrent mass production) of goods and services, they are increasingly differentiated by price. This means that those goods and services which are distinctive, individual, and only able to be accessed in one place, begin to have greater value. Thus, distinctive rural landscapes, rural activities, rural experiences and rural goods offer new opportunities for development and innovation, accessing new urban markets with both the wealth, and the willingness to enjoy them.

Secondly, changing social trends in the dominant centres of population and economy affect the demand for rural resources. This is particularly so when we look at the experience and exploitation of 'green infrastructure' in fields such as outdoor adventure, cultural heritage and other experiences of the rural landscape. Increasing urbanization means that these experiences are becoming rarer in cities and yet there are social trends towards living a healthier, more vigorous life, and towards using nature-based solutions to counter the stress of urban living. The growth of private gyms and training centres is just one aspect of these changes, as is the rise of outdoor tourism. Likewise, the increasing interest in traditional foods, produced in sustainable ways raises the possibility of taking local foods into the wider mainstream, especially with the growth of awareness of the environmental costs of 'high-mile' food. All of these trends serve to re-value traditional rural resources, and thus create opportunities for new rural enterprises which can take advantage of them. Now, an increasing number of rural spaces are becoming the 'Dream Society' (Jensen, 1999).

Thirdly, conditions in many rural areas begin to resemble those of their urban neighbours. Access to digital broadband, mobile phone networks, new transport networks, and, indeed, new policies such as rural business incubators mean that entrepreneurs are now able to better access those consumers who might want what they have to offer. Thus, the way the greater economy is bringing infrastructure and resources to rural places also support a rise of entrepreneurship in the countryside.

Driven by social and cultural changes in cities and suburbs, rural spaces are becoming seen as places of desire – places, in particular, to raise families and to counter the stresses of urban life (Jensen 1999). Further, according to Jensen, in the Dream Society, a market develops for 'products' (very widely defined) that can communicate and appeal to emotions and can tell a story. It is the story, providing identity resources and satisfying an atavistic need for narrative, which lies at the heart of this swing of valuation. In the Dream Society we are entering, "farmers sit on enormous resources," says Maria-Therese Hoppe, "not because there is much money in agriculture, but because it produces stories that will be wanted and sought in the years to come..." (Jensen). These 'stories' also are a keen component of Pine and Gilmore's Experience economy.

Traditionally, we have seen cities and rural spaces as different and separate. Increasingly however, they are seen as two sides of the same coin (Cronon, 1991). When founded, each city had its 'hinterland' – rural spaces in which the commodity

needs of the city (whether for food, fibre, timber, stone, or energy) were raised, managed and harvested. By definition, these areas involved the extensive use of land (i.e. over a large area) and a relatively low population. With the advent of Globalisation, however, that link between a city and its periphery is becoming increasingly stretched to the breaking point. Now the whole world can be seen as a city's hinterland.

At the same time, the cultural and historical meanings of rural areas to urban residents remains a strong connection. Rural spaces still play important roles in collective imaginaries of history, heritage and culture despite over 50% of us now live in cities in Europe. And it is this emotion, these feelings, however, that are the foundation of a reversal of the decline of rural-urban relations. In the post-modern city, the yearning for a 'home landscape' becomes a general yearning for embodied experiences of non-urban landscapes. Thus, new links are built between city residents and rural landscapes – links of affect, links built of greater mobility, links of disposable income, links enabling working at home, and even links of distant governance and regulation. Indeed, we may say that rural landscapes increasingly have things that city dwellers want.

Thus, we see new opportunities for well-paying service businesses, especially those in the Experience Economy, to thrive in formerly rural areas. Using new technologies of communication and transport, rural services, especially those which deliver nature-based services (health, wellbeing, outdoor tourism, etc.), are positioned to expand and thrive. An understanding of these drivers of change and innovation is essential when building innovative new enterprises in rural areas.



Farm entrepreneur at work. Author: Thüringer Ökoherz e.V.

6.4 MAIN ACTIVITY AND EXERCISE

Classroom Exercise

The participative classroom activity is the identification and compilation of an inventory of rural assets that have gained value as a result of recent changes in the wider society and economy. This can be done as a classroom exercise. Students will form small groups to work practically with the inventories, to realize just how many assets they already have and what their value can be to the new enterprise.

Working in a small group, decide on a place – a small farm, a forest, a scenic resource, etc., where you want to transform your assets into a new enterprise. A good example would be an existing small farm to be repurposed as a social farm.

The object is to find new value in existing resources. First, identify old resources (i.e. landscape, environment, cultural and natural heritage, etc.) and secondly show what new activities for which these resources are the foundation.

Each group will complete their Inventory and then present their findings to the rest of the class.

6.5 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

There are two types of homeworking which must be done to maximize the student learning experience.

The first is reading ahead – the course plan and all reading materials must be available either online or in hardcopy at least a week before the individual class. In addition, the lecturer should put all appropriate presentations up in the Virtual Learning Environment a week before class. In this way, the students' main homework task is to read ahead in order to prepare for the classes.

The second homework task will be the assignment. The student should begin to think of topics as soon as the course starts and over the two days, should submit a proposal to the course leader for approval. It is important that the proposal topic be small enough to cover adequately in a 15-page written paper.

This is an individual assessment task and students will be required to put in a considerable number of hours working on this between the end of the classes and the 2-week submission deadline.

6.6 EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

This short course is assessed using a written assignment, required two weeks after the classes are taken.

The assignment will take the shape of a description of a project idea that the student has some experience and passion with already. It could be the start-up of a new enterprise or the addition of a new innovative service to an already existing one. Although the prime focus of this course is social farming, in the spirit of farm multifunctionality other innovative farm-based or nature-based activities can be considered, as it may be that adding additional products or services to existing social farms can support the success of a social farm. Where appropriate, students could be invited to work together in small teams. The assignment will consist of approximately 20 pages of text; refer to both the ideas imparted in the course and to empirical information regarding the actual project; and be well-structured and well-written. It is due two weeks after the last class and grading is due two weeks after that. The grading is simply Pass or Fail, but students will be given constructive written feedback on their assignment itself, as well as their project proposal in such a way as to strengthen that proposal.

The Assessment directly addresses Learning Outcomes K1, K2, S 1-4, GC2, GC3, GC5.

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SECTION 7

THE CONCEPT WORKSHOP

Martin Nobelmann



PRACTICAL INFO: TIME REQUIREMENT, PLACE, TOOLS AND MATERIALS

The Concept Workshop is very well suited for a final attendance phase within the framework of further training, in which the participants create their own real-life projects in connection with the development of new branches of farms in the field of social farming. However, it is also suitable for use in a study course. In this case, fictitious scenarios should be provided or developed by the students themselves.

Preconditions: The participants know the components of a business plan and are basically able to develop a business plan.

Time: The course is divided into a lecture on the theoretical background (approx. 90 minutes) and the practical application of the Concept Workshop (1 hour per participant).

LEARNING OUTCOMES/OBJECTIVES AND LEVEL

Knowledge: The graduates understand the basics of self-directed learning and are able to explain, compare and evaluate examples of this from the agricultural context.

The graduates are able to describe collegial counselling as a form of self-learning, can explain characteristics, goals and application, as well as evaluate its importance for agricultural entrepreneurs.

Skills: The graduates are able to apply and conduct the Concept Workshop independently and self-directed in self-created peer-group counsellings. They can also apply the principles of collegial counselling in other contexts.

Social/Personal Competences: Graduates are able to formulate their own issues and present them to a group. They can exchange arguments and suggestions emphatically and at eye level with other people, accept and provide assistance, and adhere to the rules of communication.

ABSTRACT

The Concept Workshop is based on the idea of peer or collegial consulting. It is a form of self-directed learning that is also becoming increasingly important among farmers. Before the workshop starts the students have to develop and work on their individual business concept or idea. During the workshop, they have to present it to their fellow students in connection with a specific issue on which they need advice. Collegial counselling is a form of consultation that draws on the knowledge and experience of colleagues. In this context the other students are "colleagues" who have worked on similar concepts and are able to provide their ideas and experience. Thus, many perspectives, opinions, and suggestions can be gathered which help to find a solution. The teacher takes over the role of a moderator or facilitator.

The different stages of the Concept Workshop are as follows: Presentation of the concept and one specific question – comprehension questions – feedback by peers, exchange of ideas – resume by the original presenter.

KEYWORDS

Concept Workshop, Peer Coaching, collegial counselling, self-regulated learning, business concepts, ideas, entrepreneur

7.1 INTRODUCTION

During the development of concepts and business plans for the establishment or further development of social farming, problems arise from time to time, which initially seem unsolvable. During this process, the entrepreneur is often left on his or her own (or on the circle of their family). Entrepreneurs often lack colleagues or peers with whom they feel comfortable sharing ideas, processing experiences, or even simply commiserating. Isolation stems from not having anyone with whom to discuss business problems, or in whom to appropriately confide (Ostrowski, 2018). Learning in peer networks can overcome feelings of isolation and foster self-confidence, but not because peers necessarily share the same answers to common challenges. Rather, these beneficial effects stem from the fact that entrepreneurs share the same types of problems (Zhang & Hamilton, 2009). The Concept Workshop is one way of finding solutions to individual problems independently and together with people facing similar challenges. Therefore, coming one step closer to implementing their own concepts. It

is important to be able to apply this method independently in similar situations outside the university/organised learning environment. As an entrepreneur or leading personality it is necessary to be able to react to challenges and to find solutions. The Concept Workshop is an opportunity not to have to do this on one's own, but to support one another in a group of peers.

In addition to reducing loneliness and isolation, peer interaction can produce a sense of universality, contribute new knowledge and ideas, stimulate critical reflection, and foster vicarious learning. Peer learning environments and other similar types of social interaction can proactively trigger reflection by exposing entrepreneurs to alternative perspectives, and by encouraging the questioning of ingrained behaviours and assumptions (Ostrowski, 2018).

In the following, the basics and the origin of the Concept Workshop are presented first: The idea of self-directed learning and collegial counselling. Examples of self-directed learning in an agricultural context are presented and features, objectives, fields of application, as well as the course of peer counselling, are explained. Then the setting and the exact procedure of the Concept Workshop method will be introduced.

7.2 INTRODUCTION TO SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

To distinguish self-learning from other forms of learning it can generally be said that the learner has to become active. Self-learning is active learning rather than passive reception of knowledge. It is contrary to the traditional "rote-and-reproduction" approach to learning. By self-learning the usual subject-object scheme of learning vanishes (The teacher teaches the learner).

The term self-learning only rarely stands on its own. Usually, another word is added that determines it more closely. Thus we speak of terms like self-directed learning and self-regulated learning. Both terms are often used synonymously and it is difficult to distinguish between them.

A very good comparison was done by Saks and Leijen (2014) and I like to rely on it in the following. According to them, the most foundational definition of self-directed learning comes from Knowles (1975) who described it as a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes. In relation to self-regulated learning, self-directed learning can be seen as a broader concept in the sense of learner's freedom to manage their learning activities and the degree of control the learner has. In self-directed learning, for example, it is the learner who defines the learning task, while in self-regulated learning it could also be a teacher. While self-directed learning is suggested to be situated at the macro level, self-regulated learning is stated to be the micro-level concept that concerns processes within task execution. The first step in learning to self-direct one's learning is the skill to self-regulate learning activities and task performances. Self-directed learning may include self-regulated learning but not the opposite (Jossberger *et al*, in: Saks & Leijen, 2014).

| | SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING | SELF-REGULATED LEARNING |
|---------------------|--|---|
| Similarities | both are seen in two dimensions external/process/ event; internal/personality/aptitude; both have four key-phases: defining tasks - setting goals and planning - enacting strategies - monitoring and reflecting; active participation; goal-directed behaviour; metacognition; intrinsic motivation. | |
| Differences | 1. originates from adult education; 2. practised mainly outside the traditional school environment; 3. involves designing a learning environment; 4. involves planning a learning trajectory; 5. broader macro-level construct. | 1. originates from cognitive psychology; 2. practised mainly in the school environment; 3. task usually set by the teacher; 4. narrower micro-level construct. |

Similarities and differences of self-directed learning and self-regulated learning, adapted from Saks & Leijen (2014).

7.3 SELF-LEARNING IN A FARMING ENVIRONMENT

Self-learning happens in various professional environments, of which farming is one. Changing environments that have uncertain and disturbing impacts challenge the abilities of farmers to adapt their farms and to create resilient businesses. In order to be able to adapt to the changing conditions, regionally adapted problem-solving approaches and specific innovations are required. But farmers are largely left alone with the challenge to develop individual cropping solutions in addition to their daily operative business.

For developing individual cropping solutions, farming places high demands on knowledge and skills. Any impact on the complex agro-ecosystem requires specific knowledge of this system and its laws. In addition to the explicit knowledge, knowledge from practical experience and implicit knowledge play an important role. These comprehensive demands on competencies can be met by integrating different ways of conveying knowledge. It seems that on-farm research (farmer-led) and learning on the parental farm, as well as the conversations with each other, are very important systems of knowledge transfer in farming.

On-farm research led by farmers with or without help from an advisor or scientist is one way to adopt new methods to build farm resilience. Through experimenting farmers are learning-by-doing (trial and error) which new methods work best.

Through networking or in dialogue with colleagues, farmers learn from each other - mutual learning. They create exchange relationships and thus allow innovative action.

One promising approach to address such a situation is participatory collaboration. In the following, two successful participatory approaches to self and mutual learning are presented, which can empower farmers to make their own management decision: Farmer Field Schools and Stable Schools.

7.3.1 FARMER FIELD SCHOOL

The Farmer Field School approach is a form of adult education where farmers learn optimally in groups from field observation and experimentation. It was developed in 1989 by specialists from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) to help small farmers in developing countries to improve their Integrated Pest Management practice. It rapidly expanded and today the approach is successfully conducted worldwide. At Farmer Field Schools groups of neighbouring farmers meet regularly (often weekly) to observe and discuss dynamics of their crop's ecosystem. The meetings are facilitated by an advisor or scientist. Through simple experimentation, farmers improve their understanding of functional relationships. In this cyclical learning process, farmers develop the expertise that enables them to make their own crop management decisions. Special group activities encourage learning from peers as well as strengthening communication skills, problem-solving skills and group building (like a collaboration between farmers, farmer – to – farmer extension or formation of networks) (van den Berg, 2004).

7.3.2 STABLE SCHOOL

Stable School is a consulting concept that focuses on self-directed learning among peers. The basic principle is simple: a group of up to six livestock farmers forms a Stable School that meets regularly and shares its knowledge. Problems and challenges on the farm are discussed and solved by the farmer in collaboration with other livestock farmers. The Stable School approach was developed in 2004-2005 in Denmark by a large group of organic dairy farmers from the same farming association which faced the situation of having the common goal to phase out antibiotics from their herds. The main approach was to design individual farm and herd strategies through a participatory process, using farmer groups for mutual advice and common learning. The farmers formed small learning groups which were attended by a process facilitator. The groups met monthly on a private farm of the group members. The role of the facilitator was:

- to make an agenda for the next meeting together with the host farmer and to send it to all members,
- direct the meeting and help the farmers through the discussions and
- write the minutes and send it to the group members after meeting - he or she did not actively participate as an advisor or professional at the meetings (Vaarst *et al.*, 2007).

The Stable School approach creates an open space with a casual atmosphere, where farmers share their knowledge - thus learning from each other. This dialogue on an equal footing motivates farmers to take action in concrete change.

7.4 COLLEGIAL COUNSELLING AS A FORM OF SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING AMONG PEERS

The basic methodological framework on which the Concept Workshop is based derives from the method of collegial counselling. It will, therefore, be presented in more detail here. There are different models of collegial counselling, which differ slightly in some places. In the following, I refer mainly to the concept of Kim-Oliver Tietze (2010).

7.4.1 WHAT IS COLLEGIAL COUNSELLING?

In everyday professional life, the individual employee is constantly confronted with new challenges and problems. The concept of collegial counselling is based on the assumption that people from similar fields of work can counsel each other on these professional challenges. It, therefore, offers an approach to reflect on concrete practical problems in collaboration with others and to search for solutions. The participants consult each other and are self-regulated. All participants of a collegial consultation are of equal rank and follow a defined structure in their consultation.

In contrast to other forms of counselling, there is no professionally experienced consultant or trained coach.

7.4.2 GOALS AND BENEFITS

The overriding goal of collegial counselling is to improve the professional practise of those involved (Tietze, 2009). With the active help of the other participants, one person receives concrete feedback and practical ideas for his or her everyday professional life, building on the experience and skills of the other members. This ultimately increases the participants' professional satisfaction and contributes to a more productive working atmosphere. At the same time, key competences such as communicative and methodological skills, which are important for productive cooperation and constructive conflict resolution, are promoted in all participants.

An important benefit is also the strengthening of the personal ability to reflect on one's professional actions. Reflection means looking at one's own behaviour and opinions from a different point of view and being able to critically question them. The change of perspectives during a collegial consultation is very instructive because with its help one's own professional actions can be viewed from a distance and from an observer's perspective.

A further benefit is that the individual participants receive support from the other group participants in overcoming their individual challenges, e.g. through feedback, through the experience that others also face similar challenges and through a professional exchange.

7.4.3 CHARACTERISTICS

According to Tietze (2009), the special quality of collegial counselling is based in particular on these characteristics: working in a group of peers, self-regulation without external support, a fixed process, transparency of methodology, distribution of work and roles among participants, active participation of participants and focus on professional and work-related topics.

Groups: Collegial counselling always takes place in groups of five to ten people. Only with this number, the potential of the applied methods opens up and the competence of the members can unfold productively. All group members are of equal rank, i.e. each person has the opportunity to contribute a question or an issue.

No professional coach: A professional coach is not necessary because the group members have acquired the necessary know-how themselves. Thus everyone bears the same responsibility for the successful design of the consulting process, as they have the same knowledge about this process and carry it out independently.

Fixed and transparent methodology: The process of a collegial counselling consists of several phases, which together form a transparent structure of the counselling process, and which remains the same for all counselling and is easy to implement. The tasks and roles of each participant are known to all, giving the counselling process a certain predictability and reliability. This allows everyone to assess for themselves what is expected of him or her in which phase. The fixed process gives the group the confidence to consider all steps necessary for a problem-solving process.

Distribution of work and roles: During a collegial consultation, the participants assume certain roles with which corresponding activities are linked. The strict observance and responsible fulfilment of these roles are fundamental for the success of a collegial counselling. There are several roles: The case presenter introduces a case or issue for which he or she seeks new perspectives and solutions. The counsellors bring in extended perspectives and ideas for solutions in the sense of

brainstorming. The facilitator leads the consultation and pays attention to the observance of the methodical procedure and a constructive cooperation.

Active participation: The collegial counselling lives from the utilisation of the existing potential, the manifold experiences and the liveliness of a group. All participants should, therefore, contribute their specialist knowledge, their background of experience and their acquired competences.

Focus on professional issues: The issues presented in a collegial counselling refer to concrete vocational and work-related key topics. These include questions of interaction and communication or decision dilemmas. These topics must be relevant to the participants and not too complex to be carried out by the participants themselves.

7.4.4 TOPICS AND CONTENTS

All topics that are related to a concrete professional situation of a participant are basically suitable for a collegial counselling. According to Tietze (2009), however, the following requirements should be met:

The case refers to a concrete social situation with one or more interaction partners for current, concrete reasons.

The interaction partners and the problem area lie outside the counselling group. Apart from the case presenter, nobody from the group is directly involved in the case.

The case presenter is currently still concerned with the question. He or she wishes to reflect on an unsolved question to which he or she has not yet found a satisfactory answer.

When dealing with the issues, the focus is always on the individual case presenter and his or her specific concerns. It is a matter of advising him or her on his or her personal solution or approach to a problem which he or she can influence. Collegial counselling is therefore not suitable as an instrument for changing institutional framework conditions and general organisational issues. Collegial counselling is also not suitable if all participants are equally affected by the problem, since the participants then cannot change roles and take on alternative perspectives. In many technical issues, collegial counselling with the wealth of experience of all participants is helpful, but it does not replace a possibly necessary technical counselling by an expert.

7.4.5 THE PROCESS OF COLLEGIAL COUNSELLING

It has already been pointed out above that a firm and transparent structure is an important feature of collegial counselling. This consultation is always divided into several clear phases. In addition to the design of the various roles, the structured process is the most important instrument for controlling the process of collegial counselling (Kühl, Schäfer, 2019). The following process is essentially based on the model by Tietze (2009):

1. Casting/role distribution (approx. duration five minutes):

The collegial counselling begins with the distribution of roles for the upcoming counselling. The roles of facilitator, case presenter and, if necessary, record keeper are determined by mutual agreement. All other participants take on the role of counsellors. From now on, the facilitator leads the discussion through the individual phases of the consultation.

2. Report of the case presenter (approx. duration five to ten minutes):

The case presenter briefly describes the issue he or she has brought with them. The initial situation is outlined together with the most important details from their perspective. He or she is actively supported by the facilitator through questions in order to achieve a better understanding of the case among all those present. At the end of this phase, the participants also have the opportunity to ask questions for comprehension.

3. Key question (approx. duration five minutes):

Every consultation needs as concrete an assignment as possible. What exactly should be clarified at the end of the consultation? This key question is determined by the case presenter in a joint dialogue with those present. The key question brings the key topic to the point and is the focus on which the following consultation is oriented. The precise clarification of this question is therefore particularly important.

4. Method selection(approx. duration five minutes):

The key question and topic guide the group in selecting a suitable consulting method to be used in the subsequent step. The participants choose from a set of simple, quickly implementable methods (e.g. brainstorming, sharing).

5. Counselling (approx. duration ten minutes):

Then the case presenter listens. According to the chosen method, the counsellors formulate analyses, open up new perspectives, develop solution scenarios or collect creative proposals for solutions. The focus is on the diversity of ideas and advice.

6. Conclusion (approx. duration five minutes):

The case presenter now has the floor again and gives the counsellors feedback on what he or she thinks is helpful. He or she substantiates possibilities and defines measures. The various roles are abandoned and the collegial counselling is over. After a short break, the next case presenter can continue and start a new round of collegial counselling.



The process of collegial counselling adopted from Tietze (2009).

7.5 THE IDEA OF THE CONCEPT WORKSHOP



A scene from a Concept Workshop at HNE Eberswalde. Presenting the four stages of the Concept Workshop. Author: Martin Nobelmann

The Concept Workshop is based on the idea of self-learning described above and is closely linked to the method of collegial counselling. The target group of the Concept Workshop are start-ups and entrepreneurs who are working on concepts for establishing new businesses or for operational changes. In the case of social farming, for example, these are farmers who want to open their farms to the provision of social care services, or social pedagogues who want to link their services with agriculture. In this situation, business ideas mature into concepts and viable business plans. Even though the Concept Workshop brings together people from very different professional backgrounds whose usual vocational training has only very few aspects in common, it is precisely this circumstance that is to be seen positively for the course and outcome of the Concept Workshop: These differences enable the participants to develop new perspectives and to view their concerns from a different perspective.

The Concept Workshop is usually a one-off event for entrepreneurs working on individual business concepts at the same time. The benefit of group interaction is twofold: the entrepreneur receives helpful feedback on their problems and also can help other participants by sharing knowledge and experience. Because entrepreneurs face similar problems they value each others' experiences and trust each others' advice and suggestions. (Kutzhanova, Lyons, & Lichtenstein, 2009). The uniqueness of the Concept Workshop does not rule out the development of a regular peer counselling session in order to support and learn from each other in further challenges as an entrepreneur.

Since the Concept Workshop method will in most cases be new for the participating entrepreneurs, it makes sense for the facilitator's role to be performed by an external person. This person is familiar with the structure, method and any tools to be used and can thus effectively moderate the course of the workshop and ensure that the time allowed is respected. However, the facilitator limits him- or herself exclusively to this structuring function and does not provide any technical input.

The Concept Workshop is a counselling by peers. It cannot replace consultation by technical experts, which is necessary for many questions relating to business start-ups and branch development. It can, however, be a valuable addition to this.

7.6 CONCLUSION

Forms of self-directed learning such as the Stable Schools show that this form of learning has already arrived in the agricultural sector. In particular, learning together in peer groups offers each individual agricultural entrepreneur network building and collegial support in decision-making.

The focus of the collegial counselling and the Concept Workshop lies in the diversity of new perspectives and action-oriented suggestions. They are not a substitute, but rather a supplement to forms of counselling by specially methodically or professionally trained coaches.

7.7 EXERCISE

7.7.1 TESTING THE CONCEPT WORKSHOP

Preparation

One hour should be scheduled for each concept presented and discussed in the Concept Workshop. In order to enable the change of roles and the direct comparison of several concepts, it is useful to present at least 3-4 concepts one after the other. The presented concepts are real-life concepts of the participants, which under certain circumstances describe personal challenges for which a trusting, undisturbed atmosphere is necessary.

The duration and required sheltered atmosphere of the Concept Workshop is such that it makes sense to hold it in a compact form, e.g. on a weekend.

Material

- Countdown timer (so that the time available for each phase is visible to everyone),
- presentation wall,
- illustration cards,
- Projector/PC,
- pins,
- markers.

Procedure

Beforehand: the participants create a presentation of their concept and think about their concern for the Concept Workshop.

Roles: facilitator, concept presenter, a minute-taker and counsellors

The first phase gives the concept presenter the opportunity to present their concept, including risks, problems and objectives. Afterwards, the counsellors have the time to ask short questions. Media (e.g. PPP with a beamer) can be chosen for the presentation. This first phase lasts 20 minutes.

The second phase is much shorter at 5 minutes. Here the concept presenter formulates their concern or the question he or she hopes to clarify in this Concept Workshop. The counsellors signal whether they have understood the concern.

At 30 minutes, the third phase is the longest. The counsellors now have the opportunity to express their appreciation to the concept presenter and collect knowledge, experiences and ideas to help the concept presenter with their issue. In this phase, the concept presenter listens exclusively, while the minute-taker writes down keywords on moderation cards and then pins them to the moderation wall. The facilitator leads through this phase by making sure that the counsellors remain focused on the concrete issue and work solution-oriented. He or she also has the opportunity to use various tools (e.g. brainstorming) to structure the consulting process.

In the concluding fourth phase, the concept presenter sums up their newly gained knowledge and the facilitator leads a final flash-light session. This phase lasts 5 minutes.

After a short break, the next person in the group takes on the role of concept presenter.

| STEP | ACTIVITIES OF THE CHARACTERS | | | TIME |
|---|--|--|--|------------|
| Concept Presentation | CP presents their own concept | C listen carefully | C ask comprehension questions | 20 minutes |
| Formulate the issue/key question | CP formulates their issue/key question | F assists | C indicate whether they have under-stood the issue and the key question. | 5 minutes |
| Consultation | C give recognition and share knowledge, ideas and experiences. | F guides by keeping C focused and solution-oriented. | The minute-taker takes notes | 30 minutes |
| Conclusion | CP gives feedback about valuable ideas. | F shortly resumes | CP thanks the participants. | 5 minutes |

Table 9 Process of the Concept Workshop (CP= concept presenter, F=facilitator, C=counsellors).

7.8 IDEAS FOR HOMEWORK

The majority of homework takes place before the start of the course and during preparation for one's own presentation. Students develop their own real-life concept (as part of or with the knowledge from another course). If this is not possible, they receive sample cases from which they develop their concepts. Another homework task is to prepare the presentation for the Concept Workshop.

7.9 LITERATURE

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