REFLECTING GROUP PROCESSES

A resource document on participatory techniques
for water supply and sanitation projects

IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre

Reflecting Group Processes

A resource document on participatory techniques
for water supply and sanitation projects

Norah Espejo
and
Maria Sörensson

IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre
The Hague, The Netherlands
1993

Preface

This resource document is a tool for professionals intending to facilitate group activities in water supply and sanitation (WSS) projects. The document contains various participatory techniques which might be useful in WSS projects, such as for (1) stimulating the interaction between group members and the sharing of resources, (2) creating a good atmosphere for working in a group and (3) facilitating the accomplishment of the task(s) successfully.
Our ambition has been to make the document, as practical and user-friendly as possible. The resource document is an outcome of the PROCESS project being developed at IRC. The document has materialized a lot of thoughts and has developed more, which will be worked out in a following document called "The Facilitator's Role".

The "finishing touch" of the material taken from different books, has been achieved with great collaboration of our desktop expert Mrs. Lauren Wolvers and the copy expertise of Mr. Michel van der Leest, who transferred a rough original into a nice copy.

TABLE OF CONTENT

SECTION 1

Introduction

This resource book presents a set of selected tools and concepts for professionals interested in supporting the group processes within WSS projects.

The last years qualitative factors of group processes in WSS projects have been recognised as being essential for the development and sustainability of the projects. It has been indicated that when agency staff take the role as facilitators instead of providers, the implementation of the project is better stimulated for agency as well as community. Although the group processes and the facilitating role are very important, most water projects do not include activities concerned with group processes. Consequently supportive material on these aspects needs to be developed and made accessible to agency staff.

Supporting qualitative factors of group processes in projects implies the acknowledgment of the group dynamic process, where group members with social, cultural, educational and individual differences work together on the project activities. In this context the quality of interrelations and communication, level of commitment, knowledge and acceptance of individuals' interests, group leadership capacity, creativity and group problem-solving capacity are of utmost importance and determines to a great extent the kinds of results, outputs and benefits to be achieved.

Therefore, supporting the quality of the group process as a part of the facilitating role of the agency, needs more attention in the water and sanitation sector. A practical understanding of a people-oriented approach is required as well as development of appropriate tools and strategies.

This document is a resource document based on existing literature on participatory techniques and group process approaches, as well as on practical current experience of IRC staff.

The first section describes some concepts concerning the aspect of "process" and the facilitator's role. The second section presents selected techniques, ideas and concepts to stimulate the group process in a number of activities in WSS projects. The user will find the activities chosen as being typical in a project cycle. Within each activity we have included a set of selected participatory techniques and concepts. These tools will help facilitate the group processes and fulfill achievements in the particular activities.

Section 1

THE GROUP PROCESS AND ITS FACILITATOR

1. The What and the How Dimension: defining 'group process'

To accomplish tasks in projects a group process is required. This statement confirms once again, that project tasks are carried out by individuals who are gathered and organized into groups. Although individuals may officially control, supervise and ultimately hold responsibilities, the tasks are accomplished through groups and through people working together.

The 'task' refers to WHAT the group is doing and the 'group process' refers to HOW the task is being implemented. WHAT and HOW, or task and group processes, are important and useful distinctions for a facilitator or any consultant who wants to support group processes. The distinction comes from the group dynamics theories and lays the groundwork for use of participatory techniques as tools to improve group processes.

Let us think of a consultant who has been appointed to evaluate performance and functioning of a water committee in a certain region. Certainly the accomplished tasks may be one of the first aspects to evaluate, and it might be very interesting to get profiles of the tasks accomplished by the water committee. Although tasks profiles will be an important source of information, they tell nothing about how well these tasks have been performed, how much experience they have generated among the group, how much the group has learned by performing, and ultimately how sustainable the accomplished tasks are. At this point the consultant has to ask HOW the water committees have accomplished their tasks, or what the group processes are have developed alongside the project.

The group processes refers to relational processes between the group members and are concerned with:

involvement	To what degree have members of the group felt involved?
resourcefulness	To what extent have group resources been used?
communication	How was the communication process in the group?
supportive climate	How was the interrelation among group members?
leadership	How was the aspect of leadership handled by their group?
solving conflicts	How did the group members solve conflicts?
creativity	How creative were the group members?
learning capacity	Has the group been able to monitor and evaluate their own work and learn from their mistakes?

Information obtained from these questions are useful in order to assess aspects such as empowerment, sustainability and potential development of the water committees.

2. Dealing with Group Processes

There may be many ways to support group processes or to contribute to group processes by making people aware of them, whenever agency staff acknowledge and understand the vital role the group process plays, for fulfilment of the project task. Within water projects group processes can supported through:

a) **Supporting group processes at agency level.** Strengthening group processes should begin at agency level. This support includes training events, advise and feedback. The former will deal with topics like adult learning, group dynamics, leadership, teambuilding, etc. The latter done by a group facilitator focuses on improving the participants's group process in such a way that it helps the group to discuss their own content (tasks) in the most satisfactory and productive way possible" (1984, Hope and Timmel).

b) **Supporting community group processes to achieve project tasks.** This support can be given by project staff who are aware of the importance of group processes and who have been trained in group dynamics. The support need to be related to other processes, like problem-solving.

c) **Evaluating group processes at agency and at community level.** This kind of evaluation, carried out in a facilitating way, provides information on group resources, potential and problems in performing their tasks. This information is also useful to assess aspects such as empowerment and sustainability.

3. The Group Process facilitator

Projects which focus on the process aspect as well as the content aspect, need agents who act as facilitators. Being a facilitator is a new and unfamiliar role for many people. The role is to stimulate the process, which helps the group discuss their own ideas and implement them in the most satisfactory, learning and productive manner possible.

The facilitator is responsible for ensuring good communication in the group, satisfaction with and commitment to the decisions made (1984, Hope & Timmel). The facilitator shall provide a process in which people think critically, identify problems and find new solutions. More comprehensively, the facilitator will have to cope with aspects such as involvement, resourcefulness, communication, supportive climate and leadership.

Becoming a facilitator is an ongoing learning process. Through working as a team member and learning from others, the facilitator can develop his/her supportive skills. Although certain skills are needed, it is also important that the facilitator is convinced that local people learn best when they are actively involved and committed to the project. This 'philosophy' is based on respect for the local people's knowledge and skills, flexibility and openness to their creativity. If this is lacking, the facilitator's support will not be as meaningful for the project (1984, Eilington).

Facilitator disucssing with community members (1988, WHO)

Facilitators need to learn how to perform a balancing act. On the one hand, they recognize the participants' practical wisdom and encourage their active participation. On the other hand, they need to look beneath the surface of the group's work and stimulate the group to gain true insight and better understanding of their problems (1991, Bergdall). The work of a facilitator as a supporter of the process rather than the content has often been misunderstood. In principle a facilitator does not necessarily need to give inputs to the discussion itself; instead s/he should concentrate on creating a proper atmosphere for participation, so that the participants can work efficiently. Nevertheless process and content are not totally separated, they are two aspects of a group activity. In reality project activities require that the group process facilitator is familiar with the topics and content dealt with.

4. Tools for the process facilitator

The so-called participatory techniques are tools to facilitate the group process to actively work out the tasks assigned in a participatory and learning manner. The techniques are tools that are structured and help structuring the group process.

"Structured" because they are planned and prepared in advance and because they constitute a process formed by a number of steps(which can be more or less flexible).

"Structuring" because the techniques mean to shape the group experience in a manner that allows group members to fulfil their task in a participatory and learning way.

The participatory techniques may shape the group experience by:
- promoting involvement of group members in the discussion
- getting information from the group members
- facilitating good communication in the group
- organizing the tasks(planning, identifying needs) of the group
- creating and supporting a learning atmosphere
- promoting feedback concerning group behaviour

The participatory techniques provide opportunities for the group members to learn about the content aspect(topics, themes, etc.) as well as the process aspect of the project.

Participatory techniques can be many. Nevertheless they fall in one of the following categories:

* discussion of a case study
* demonstration
* educational aids
* exercises
* games
* group discussion
* pocket charts
* puzzle
* role play

A **case study** is based on facts and presents events as they really happened. The purpose of discussing case studies is to learn how to solve problems. By reading or hearing about successes and mistakes of people in a case study involving another group or community, the participants can begin to think how they themselves would have solved the problem (1988, WHO).

A participatory **demonstration** is a planned event, which allows participants to see in a practical way how a piece of equipment or a certain tool works, or how a particular procedure or technique is carried out. During the demonstration, participants should see both how something works and have a chance to try it for themselves and judge its effectiveness and usefulness. Participatory demonstrations are useful at any stage of project implementation at both agency and community level(Espejo, 1993).

Educational aids are additional tools to the participatory techniques and not actual techniques. The aids(forms, posters, questionnaires) clarify a facilitator's messages and are part of the techniques. Given their importance in educational and learning activities, as well as their close relation to participatory techniques, the elaboration of aids has been included as a selected task(see Elaborating Aids, Section 2).
An **exercise** is a structured experiential activity. The learning comes from the participant's input, and his/her interaction and analysis of the attitudes/behaviours generated during the activity. Competition is not an element in an exercise (1984, Eilington).

A **game** is a learning activity governed by rules, entailing a competitive situation and having winners and losers. Although games do not reflect the reality, there is learning. The learning comes through experiencing the game, including the interaction of the participants. The subject of the game is therefore less important (1984, Eilington).

Group discussions are, in this document, activities in their own right and not an integral part of exercises, etc. The discussions are usually structured to some extent, ranging from informal discussions to formal debates. They are not mere chat(1988, Jones).(see Facilitating group discussion, section 2)

A **pocket chart** is an investigative tool that enables people to carry out data collection, tabulation and analysis of their own. The chart helps people analyze their needs and priorities. The chart can also be used to compare and evaluate different activities and to assess the achievements of specific objectives (1990, Srinivasan).

A **puzzle** can provide novelty, interest and fun. The puzzle encourages a mind-set oriented toward problem solving and creativity, as well as involving all participants to a high degree (1984, Eilington).

Role-play/drama is a kind of simulation, but is usually brief and episodic. A drama does not necessarily need to be related to a real-life situation, instead it often includes symbols and myths as tools to get messages across to people. A drama can be played by actors, puppets or by some group members. Drama encourages insight into various matters through the acting out of roles. For example to create awareness about unappropriate leadership in a water project, the problem can be symbolized through letting puppets play this situation. Afterwards the participants discuss the leadership problem portrayed by the puppets. The discussion is facilitated, since the participants can talk about the puppets and not about themselves (1988, Jones & 1993, comments from an interview with the Globetheater, Stockholm, Sweden).

Role play made by community members (1988, WHO)

A **simulation** is a problem solving learning activity that attempts to imitate, or 'stimulate', a real-life situation; a form of drama, which may involve the acting out of a story or the playing of roles comparable to the real life experiences. The simulation has learning as its objective and it has unpredictable outcomes. The activity is centred around a problem of concern to those involved, which becomes clear to them in the course of their participation (1983, Cash).

SECTION 2

Section 2

TECHNIQUES FOR SUPPORTING THE GROUP PROCESS IN WSS PROJECTS

1. Phases, tasks and techniques related to group processes

This document does not use the classic project cycle phases, where construction is a focal point. Instead phases have been included according to the group processes which take place between the agency and the community. The three following phases have been selected:

Initiating	the relationship between agency and community, which concerns the activities from the very beginning of the project. This phase goes until agency and community agree upon working together in a project.
Working together	involves all tasks related to the implementation of the project activities.
Rounding up	concerns all activities related to the agency turning its responsibilities for the project over to the community.

In each phase those tasks which are most common in the project have been selected, and identified as typo-activity for each task.
For each task the reader will find techniques and concepts which will help supporting group processes taking place in these tasks. These tools have been selected from literature and project reports within the water sector, as well as the agricultural and health sector.

The phases and tasks indicated, as well as the techniques and concepts selected are described in Table 1 (see following page).

Table 1: Phases, tasks and participatory techniques

Phases	Tasks	Techniques and concepts
Initiation	Initiating the project	* Attitude, method, sharing * Defining background and strategy * Direction of a working group * How to approach a community? - role play * Role perceptions
	Getting to know the group	* Broken Squares * Fish Bowls * Games * Nine dot puzzle * Speaking up with photographs * Understanding others
	Identifying needs	* Assessing learners needs * Informal meetings to assess needs * Pocket chart * Questionnaire on imagined needs * Survey of needs * Task analysis sheet * Transect walks
	Working out Expectations/benefits	* A learning contract * Initial brainstorming * Participatory mapping * Pocket chart- helping expressing expectations * Workshop participant expectations
Working together	Facilitating group discussions	* Communicating ideas * Group discussions * Johari's window * Leading a discussion * Listening * Non-verbal communication * Poster sequence * What helps adults learn
	Posing questions	* Cup exercise * How to ask questions * Stimulating questions
	Interpreting messages	* Differences in visual perception * Old woman, young woman * Broken phone
	Giving feed-back	* Different kind of feed-back * Prepare people for feed-back * Unhelpful behaviour in a group
	Collecting information	* Adapted version of Johari's window * Bidding game * Collecting information * Documentation * Forms * Learners as experts * Village mapping
	Elaborating educational aids	* Guidelines for the development of and example of visual aids * Making visual aids

Table 1 continued

	Planning activities	* Health case study * Integrated project planning * Preparing training programs * Objective Oriented Project Planning(OOPP) * Water point building
	Making-decisions	* Broken squares * Decision-making exercise * Force field analysis * Negotiating * Problem-solving and decision-making * Simple decision-making
	Solving group conflicts	* Resistance to change * Role play * The speak out exercise
	Solving problems	* Balloon exercise * Brainstorming * Carts and rocks * Case study * Critical incident * Identify problems through paintings * Problem identification/analysis * Problem resource analysis
	Understanding group leadership	* Broken squares * Concept leadership * Role play - Group leader and Bossy leader * Shared leadership
<u>Rounding up</u>	Evaluating	* Alternative evaluation methods * Clarifying concept on evaluation * Evaluation exercise * Evaluation package * Minimum evaluation process * Three squares assessment
	Monitoring	* Checklist for monitoring water supply * Figures for monitoring * How monitoring works * Monitoring
	Agency disengages the project	* Action plan/performance contract * Checklist for disengaging * Project sustainability analysis * Water committee responsibilities

2. Cultural factors that may affect the use of participatory techniques

In principle participatory techniques can always be used with any group, but cultural aspects have to be taken into consideration. Cultural differences occur not only because of ethnic or national boundaries, but also because of occupation, gender, age, religion, etc. The following aspects are vulnerable to cultural aspects and gender constitution of the group, while implementing a participatory technique.

Concepts of	* leadership * power * rules * decision-making * money etc.
Procedure and protocol	
Value system	* respect * time * status * collaboration * knowledge etc.
Language and communication styles	* language skills, symbols etc.

The following case study shows how value systems can influence the outcome of a technique.

Matching techniques to groups or groups to techniques?

A facilitator was faced with the task of showing a group of people how they could improve their collaboration skills. The group consisted of ten Dutch men, one Indian man and the facilitator, who was a Dutch woman. Before the facilitator started lecturing she wanted the group members to get to know each other. The group members were asked to stand in a circle and throw a ball to each other. When someone caught the ball they were supposed to say the name of the person who threw the ball as well as their own name. The Indian man found the exercise to be childish and felt that the facilitator was "playing" with them. Why could they not just have a cup of coffee together and talk to each other? Was this exercise not too artificial? The Indian asked the others in the group if they agreed with him and if they felt like going for coffee, which they did. The facilitator did not discuss the incident, but continued working with the group after the coffee break. (From a training event in Holland)

What would you do, as a facilitator, in a situation where one of the group members find your exercise childish?

3. Are participatory techniques always needed?

No. We assume that there are many groups whose relation and working atmosphere is so good that there is no intervention of participatory techniques needed. In these cases the facilitator will let the group proceed with its work in its own way. But when groups have problems working together and accomplishing their task, participatory techniques can be useful to create a relaxed atmosphere and the relationships between group members. Before the facilitator selects a technique, however he/she needs to be of about why that technique should be used, if it is used at all.

The following questions can help the facilitator find out if s/he needs a technique to stimulate the group process, and when that is the case, if the technique selected is appropriate.

1. Why do I want to use this specific participatory technique for this group?
2. Does the technique fit the goal of the group and the facilitator?
3. Is the technique selected, appropriate for the group and the setting?
4. Which might be the advantages/disadvantages of using the technique in this group?
5. Are the necessary resources available?

4. The Participatory Tools

In the following part of this section the identified project tasks and the selected tools are presented.

DEFINING BACKGROUND AND STRATEGY

3 hours

Objectives:

To increase understanding of the project

To visualize the goals of the project

To identify the order of project strategy steps

Activities:

1. Introduce objectives.

2. Give brief talk on the background of the project.

3. Divide group into small groups of 4. Give directions to draw a picture of a village to represent bad, unsanitary conditions. Give newsprint, markers, and 20 minutes.

4. Post pictures. Have someone from each group come up to elaborate or explain their picture. Summarize the bad conditions.

5. Direct participants to return to the same groups and draw a picture of villages as we would like them to be. 20 minutes.

6. Post, discuss, and summarize.

7. Give lecture on project strategy utilizing visual aids step-by-step. Give particular attention to new words: "compliance" and "baseline" NOTE: If "bad", pictures are quietly moved to far left and "good" pictures moved to far right; trainer can point out how project strategy steps will take us from unsanitary conditions to perfectly clean and marvelous villages!

8. Review, taking down visuals as you go, pass out "Project Strategy" hand-out.

9. Divide group into 2 teams and give each team a mixed-up set of the project strategy steps. Hold competition to see which team can put the steps in proper order most quickly. (No reference to notes.)

   NOTE: If time permits, review results of survey, pointing out how far group has progressed on the project strategy so far. (i.e., No. of target villages already selected, No. of VHC's already formed, etc.).

10. Summarize the session and close with review of the objectives.

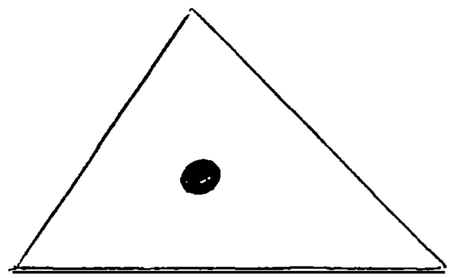
DIRECTION OF A WORKING GROUP

Managers and Supervisors are not only interested in individuals but also in groups.

One way to consider a group is to imagine a ball within a triangle, in an effective group the ball never moves from the centre point.

<u>Tasks to achieve</u>

Solve problems
Take decisions
Share information
Generate ideas
Exchange ideas



<u>Group</u>

- Commitment to tasks
- Use of resources
- Flexibility, sensitivity to other members
- Stimulate creativity
- Share leadership
- Effective procedures to solve differences
- Capability and willingness for self-evaluation, and to learn how to gain confidence and open communication

<u>Individual Needs</u>

- Expectatives
- Feel involved
- Receive support
- Self-assurance
- Contribution
- Influence
- Take his/her suggestions into account

Task: Initiating the project

At the initial phase of the project, agency and community may have several meetings to discuss and inform about the WSS project which will be implemented. It is desirable that this activity stimulates agency and community to work and learn from each other. The agency should preferably approach the community as partners, which requires clarity of needs, interests and perceptions. Discussing together from the beginning will provide inputs to the agency to find out their most appropriate role towards the community.

Related questions which might come up during the initial stage

* What is the role of the agency at this initial stage?
* Is the agency playing a supportive role? How do the local people react to the approach of the agency?
* Does the agency consider the community members as real potential partners or as uneducated persons, who cannot be treated as equal partners?

TECHNIQUES

Attitudes and behaviour (conceptual tools; 1991, Mascarenhas et al)
This is a tool which points out the advantage of creating a partnership between agency and community. Mascarenhas indicates the role, attitudes and activities the agency can develop in order to work as partners with the community. For example, the agency staff is suggested to facilitate, listen to and adapt the methods to the needs of the local people. Moreover to fulfill these tasks the agency staff need to be open to and respect local people's ideas, according to Mascarenhas.
Examples are given on how the agency people can make an attempt to identify with the local people through doing the same things they do, such as baking, or cutting stones in the community. It is desirable that the agency people eat with the local people, and if possible stay with the community for long periods. Agency staff who do these things are usually seen as being more equal than those who do not socialize with the local people.

Defining project background and strategy (exercise; 1983, McCoy)
The exercise is recommended when the facilitator wants to make clear to everyone (agency/local people) that they are supposed to work as partners in the project. During the exercise everyone expresses their expectations of the project implementation. When agency and community share their expectations, a relation may be created encouraging joint development of a project.

Direction of a working group (conceptual tool; 1981, Senati)
This material shows managers and supervisors how task, group and individuals are related to and interdependent on each other for a successful working procedure.

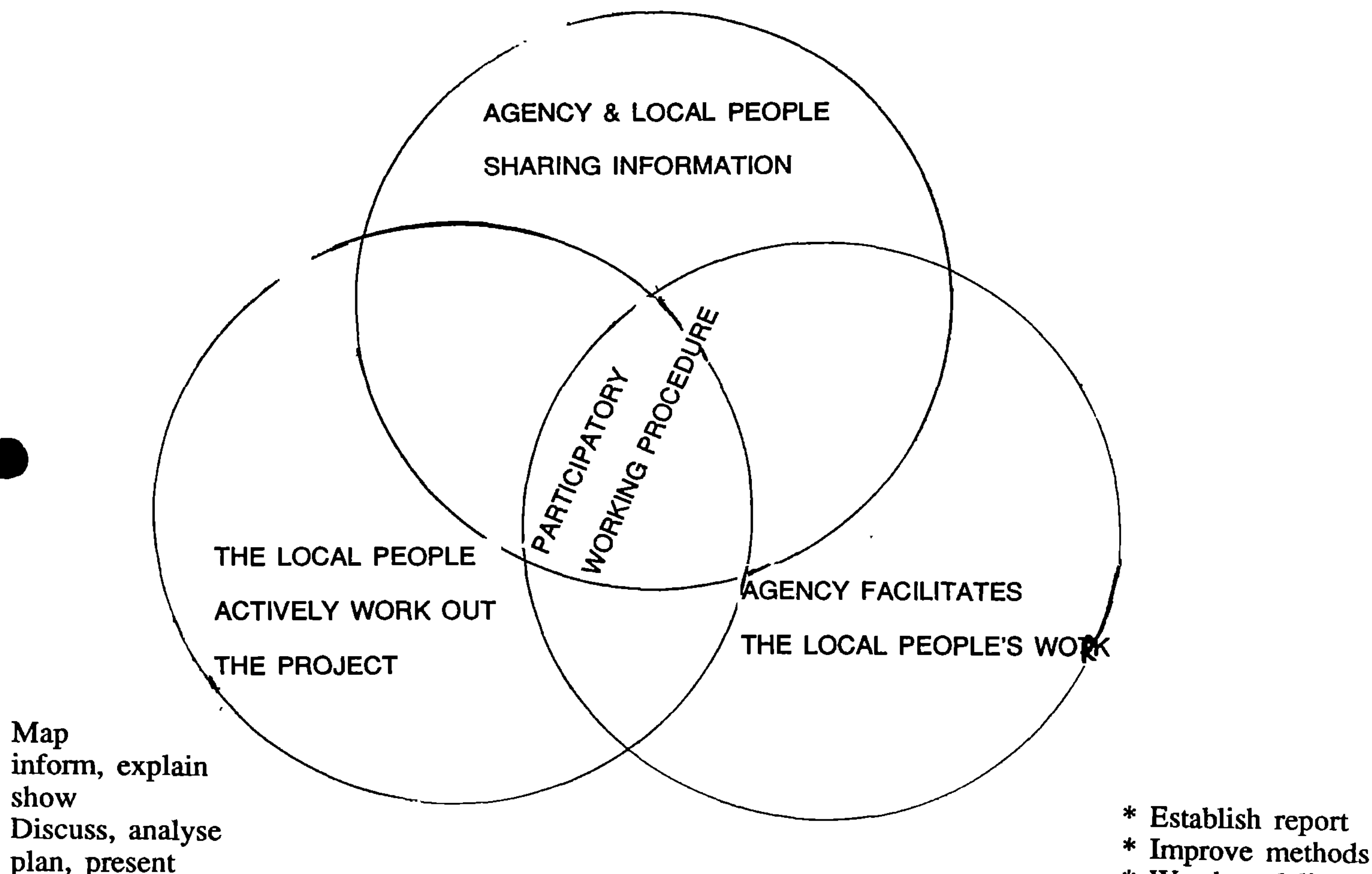
How to approach a community (role play; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This role play shows how genuine participatory approach of an agency differs to a traditional approach. The objective is to let local people as well as agency people, get to know the effects, advantages and disadvantages of the various approaches.

Role perceptions (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise makes clear how the group members perceive each other's the various roles. The group members of the exercise are asked to try to 'see themselves as others see them'. In this way the group members become aware about other people's expectations of them, as well as their expectations of other people's roles. The objective is to develop realistic expectations of each other in the group, which help creating a proper working atmosphere for the work within the project.

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR WHILE WORKING WITH PARTICIPATORY TECHNIQUES

The focus of people in the project should be what they can learn from each other, what agency people can learn from the rural/urban people and vice versa. There are various ways of **sharing the needed knowledge.** Methods have been suggested such as encouraging the local people to interview, map, analyze, present and plan for the project. This way of working out WSS projects is a new approach.
Agency people therefore have to change their focus of themselves, as main actors, to the focus of **the local people as managers.**
The agency people need to emphasize their role as **facilitators, listeners** and **partners.**

So far, there is no technique or method developed on how to promote this approach of sharing such facilitating. A picture of the concepts to be included in such an approach are presented below.



Tips on how to express an attitude of sharing

Use icebreakers to build rapport between villagers and outsiders. For example chat over the morning fire; or ask villagers to choose those tasks based on activities that form part of daily tasks and livelihoods of villagers - "participants must perform these seriously as part of their unlearning" (Eva Robinson); or play games - KGVK took a volleyball and net, playing during the PRA and leaving them behind on departure. "Once the ice was broken, then we went into formal groups" (Ravi Jayakaran).

Equalizers
No matter how hard we try to initiate a PRA/PALM exercise in an atmosphere of participation, the dominant image of outsiders is one of bringers of 'gifts', 'packages' and 'expertise'. On our part too it is difficult to get rid of our cultural baggage which we have accumulated over the years, which at the minimum makes us feel more 'qualified' - after all have we not passed several competitive exams and interviews? We need to find ways to help ourselves and the villagers to progress towards 'equalising' this relationship. Not that one exercise will achieve this objective; several are required to help all of us to move towards equalising, even if we never really achieve it perfectly.

One exercise we have found useful is to identify the various activities in the village (basket making, milking cows, chappal making) and allow each outsider to choose one of them. He/she then spends time learning this trade, with the villager teaching him.her to do it. The 'outsider' often realises how difficult it is to perform what seems easy and primitive, and the villagers develop a sense of confidence as their skills begin to have 'value' and 'status' in the eyes of people around.
We found that if outsiders stay in the village throughout the exercise a riyal strong rapport is developed as the degree of sharing extends over many more aspects of village life which are more intimate to the villagers than their work.

Eating with the villagers is important. Simple food which they are accustomed to can be shared by all the participants. Sometimes food is prepared outside, carried to the P/P location and given only to the 'outsiders'; this must be avoided at all costs. Food should be shared by all; it could be brought from outside but must be similar to what the people eat; avoiding non-veg food. Try to organize the food module properly and well in advance. Rushing around at lunchtime to bring food, disturbs the exercise. Leaf plates are the best utensils.

ROLE PLAY "HOW TO APPROACH COMMUNITY?"

One of the key questions in community development is 'How much do the leaders believe the people's own insight into their own problems?' The following code (play) is useful to stimulate discussion on this. As this is a basic principle in understanding and using this Method for Critical Awareness, make sure you have enough time to discuss this question fully. The play takes 10 players who need to practise the play ahead of time. The two Community Development Officers (C.D.O.'s) need to be very clear about their roles.

C.D.O. play

Scene 1: Four villagers are sitting waiting for a meeting to begin. The CDO comes in and greets each person (but is not very friendly). (S)he asks each person how they are and they each speak of a different problem which they are struggling with: unemployment, a house falling down, a drunken husband, no water, etc.)

The CDO hardly listens to these complaints. (S)he is a busy person wanting to get work done. The CDO sits (facing the audience) and opens the meeting. (S)he has come this day to say that this village needs a clinic. There is money from the government but the village needs to collect money as well. The CDO tells each person what they must do to organise a fund-raising day; one is to collect chickens, others must call a meeting for Saturday, etc. The CDO is dominating and authoritarian.

During this meeting, each member of the village group becomes more passive. One gets sleepy, one looks out of the window. One begins to argue with the CDO, but gives up very quickly. One walks out of the room.

The animator stops the play when the point is made.

Scene 2: This is another village and four villagers are waiting for a meeting to begin. The CDO comes in and greets each person asking how they are. Each person has a different problem and the CDO listens very carefully, questions each person a bit and says that we really need to discuss these problems in the meeting.

The CDO then sits down and begins the meeting. (S)he asks what they think is the most important thing that needs to be done in the village. One person says, they really need a football pitch. The CDO looks very surprised and questions this, remembering the other problems (s)he has heard about. Another villager supports the football pitch. Then a third villager disagrees with the football pitch and suggests a clinic. The CDO is not really convinced of the football pitch, but listens and asks questions. The original idea for the football pitch is argued by three villagers and the one against it finally decides, yes, the football pitch is a good idea. Then the CDO agrees.

The CDO then says, 'Where is the land?' Someone suggests an available piece of land; 'Who will clear it?' They all say they will get the people; the date and time is chosen by the villagers. The villagers get excited and very active during this meeting. The CDO also says he will come to help.

When the point is made, the play is cut.

Discussion questions

1. How did the CDO behave in the first village?
   How did the CDO behave in the second village?
2. How did the villagers react in each situation?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the approach used by each CDO?
4. After 6 months time, what do you think would have happened in the two different villages?
5. In real life, which of these approaches have we seen most often? What have been the consequences?
6. What approach to community development do we consider best?

Procedure

If your group is small (about 15 – 20 people) one procedure for discussion is to put up the first three questions and let them discuss in groups of 3. Then move to a whole group discussion to share the answers to these first 3 questions. Then the animator asks the other questions.

If the group is larger than 20 people, after discussing the first three questions in groups of 3, put 3 or 4 groups of 3's together (to form groups of 9 or 12 people) and ask one of the other animators to lead the discussion in the other group.

There is no need to write on newsprint, for an in-depth discussion of approaches is needed here.

Summary

A summary from this discussion is useful. The discussion has most likely centred around whether any one person knows the needs of a community, and the need for everyone's contribution. People will often point out that the villagers are apathetic and not concerned about their problems. The difficulty is how to get the villagers involved in making decisions about their lives. This often can be a very good opening to discuss the Method of Critical Awareness.

Sometimes the group may doubt whether a community group will ever listen to each other and come to agreement on one priority for action. Here it is necessary to look at the direct link between the intensity with which an animator listens to the group members, and the way in which they listen to each other.

Another point that comes from this discussion is that no matter how much we believe in the villagers being involved in deciding their own solutions, this is not always practical because there are also government plans. The five-year plans of most countries do try to take both these approaches into account (villagers give their priorities to the District Development Office and planning is integrated into provincial and then national planning).

This play raises clearly the two approaches to development:

a. from the top down, where plans are made by government, and
b. from the bottom up, where initiative arises in the community itself.

This does not have to become a debate between the two approaches on an either/or basis, but should be an effort to work out how the advantages of each approach can be balanced and combined.

Time: This takes about 2 hours. The plays take about 5 – 8 minutes total.

Materials: Large name tags for the characters acting in the plays.

ROLE PERCEPTIONS

PURPOSE:

To understand and clarify perceptions about people's roles in different sectors and at different levels.

TIME: 1 hour

MATERIALS:

Newsprint.

NOTE TO TRAINER:

This exercise helps to overcome misconceptions or unrealistic expectations that staff within a ministry or other organisation may have of one another.

On occasion you may find yourself called upon to train a group that is multi-level within one ministry. To have such a diverse group interact can be a very rich experience. In the process, you may find that they know very little about each other's day-to-day functions. Without role clarity, team work even within one agency becomes difficult.

With this problem in mind, this exercise was developed to help participants "see themselves as others see them" and to create genuine willingness to compare and discuss mutual role expectations.

PROWWESS attempted this in one workshop by dividing participants into subgroups according to their specialties and professional categories. Each subgroup then proceeded to define roles for three distinct levels including their own. The activity turned out to be a highly charged one. The heated discussion that followed led to some serious thought as to what can be expected realistically of each level of the delivery system. The insights gained in this way seemed to help participants to be better prepared for follow-up planning by teams.

Supportive multi-sectoral relationships can also be built through the joint training of personnel from different extension services. PROWWESS did this in Lesotho among representatives of district rural sanitation programmes and a cross-section of village health workers. In this situation, we formed intersectoral, rather than specialty, teams and each team was responsible for planning, executing and evaluating village-based activities. In this way, they developed a stronger commitment to collaborative efforts in achieving the rural sanitation objectives of the programme.

PROCEDURES:

- Divide the group into subgroups according to their professional specialty or level.
- Ask each subgroup to define their own role and the roles of one group immediately below and one group immediately above their own. Members should write out the roles as they perceive them.
- Have all the groups post the results in horizontal rows, one under the other, in such a way that the roles of any one category as seen from different perspectives can be compared in a vertical direction. Participants can walk around and observe the perceptions of all the other groups.
- Discuss in the large group the discrepancies in views about each role and the implications for future team planning. Ask them for suggestions of how to work together more effectively now that they understand each other's roles better.

Task: **Getting to know each other in the group**

In this activity people in the project form groups, formally as well as informally. It is desirable that the group members get familiar with each other in order to create an appropriate atmosphere in the project for fulfillment of the tasks. This activity is not only essential at the beginning of the project development, but also alongside the project.

Related questions which can come up

* Is the atmosphere in the group relaxed and comfortable for the group members?
* Do the group members share their knowledge with each other?
* Is there a dialogue between the group members or do only a few of the members speak in the group?

TECHNIQUES

Broken squares (puzzle; 1985, International Agriculture Centre)
The puzzle shows difficulties in the cooperation between group members. After the puzzle is played a discussion is held, which stimulates the cooperation in the group and makes the people more interested in each other. The puzzle helps the group members develop their capacity to cooperate, and it can help situations when there are tensions felt in the group.

Fish bowl (exercise; 1984, Eilington)
In this exercise one group is discussing and another group observes. When the discussion is over, the two groups analyze how the people were interacting. All group members should try to observe as well as discuss, in order to learn about their own and others' habits of discussing. Eilington suggests this exercise for conflict management as well.

Nine dot puzzle, the square trick and the eternity trick (puzzles; 1992, IRC)
This exercise is a set of different puzzles, which all force the group members to think in a creative and original way. The group members are stimulated to think in a non-confirmative way. This exercise stimulates laughter and creates a relaxed atmosphere for work in the group.

Snakes and Ladders (game; 1984, Werner)
This game is a learning activity with a competitive and playful component. It allows the group members to try out ideas and problems concerning health education, which they might find in their own situation. After the game has been played the group members can discuss and learn about competition and collaboration during the game.

Speaking up with photographs (exercise; 1992, IRC)
With the use of a set of photographs, the facilitator can encourage the participants to speak up in front of the group. This exercise creates a relaxed atmosphere and encourages people to speak in a group. The exercise can be used as a warming-up exercise, as well as an ice-breaker, to encourage participation.

Understanding others (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
By interpreting photographs participants get an opportunity to develop their capacity of understanding another person's situation.
Agency staff become aware about difficulties on estimating the local people's feelings, expectations, needs, etc.

BROKEN SQUARES

Issues: 2 - communication in groups: cooperation

Objectives:

To stimulate the group to analyze some aspects of the problem of cooperation in solving a group problem.

To sensitize the members to some of their own behaviors which contribute toward or hinder solving group problems

Materials and Setting:

Chalkboard, chalk, eraser.

Individual tables that will seat five participants.

One set of INSTRUCTIONS for each five persons participating and one for the trainer.

One set of SQUARES for each five persons participating. (See directions for making the sets of squares).

If practicable, tables should be arranged in advance with groups of five chairs around them with a packet of the necessary materials on each table. The tables should be spaced far enough apart so that the various groups cannot observe the activities of the other groups. The members then take chairs as they enter. If this is not practicable, tables and chairs may be arranged after the trainer's introduction.

Method of Development

The trainer begins the session by asking for the meaning of the word cooperation and for illustrations of situations which call for cooperative effort. Insofar as possible, practical and local situations calling for cooperative effort should be stressed as, for instance, a project such as building a hospital or the processing of correspondence in a Registry.

From initial explanation of the meaning of the word "cooperation", an attempt is made to develop from the group some of the required behaviors on the part of individuals if cooperative effort is to be successful.

Such ideas as the following may be brought out:

1. There is a need for each individual to understand the total problem which must be solved.
2. There is a need for each individual to see how he can contribute toward solving the problem
3. There is a need for each individual to be aware of the potential contributions of other individuals.
4. There is a need to see the other individual's problems in order that he may be helped to make a maximum contribution.

Note: The trainer may need to develop illustrations in concrete form if there is difficulty in drawing these ideas out of the group.

When the above point have been listed on the board, the trainer indicates that the plan is to conduct an experiment to test these ideas. He suggests one member at each table open the packet on the table and distribute one of the envelopes to each of the five persons. He indicates that the packets are to be left unopened until the signal to begin working is given.

The trainer reads the instructions carefully to the group. When he has finished he calls for questions. It may be wise to ask for a statement of the different elements of the instructions from the group to ascertain that they are clearly understood. The trainer then points out that there is also a copy of the instructions at each table in case anyone wishes to refer to them. He also refers to the points which have been listed on the chalkboard.

The trainer then gives the signal to begin. By observing the groups at work, the trainer may also collect data which will be useful for raising questions during the discussion to follow. (Other trainers may help monitor and if there are surplus participants they may act as observers.)

Note: It is necessary to monitor the tables to reinforce the rules which have been laid down in the instructions.

When several groups have solved the problem or the maximum allowable time has elapsed, the trainer calls time and engages the group in a discussion of the experience.

Discussion:

This exercise involves so much interest and feeling that the group discussion usually carries itself, though the trainer may need to guide the focus of comments or may wish to add points from his own observations. (The trainer may allow the groups to discuss the experience among themselves before calling for general discussion).

The discussion should go beyond the relating of experiences and general observations. Some important questions are: How did members feel when someone holding a key piece did not see the solution? How did members feel when someone had completed his square incorrectly and then sat back with a self-satisfied smile on his face?. What feelings did they think he had? How did members feel about the person who could not see the solution so quickly as the others? Did they want to get him out of the group or help him?

When the discussion is under way, the trainer may wish to raise questions which stimulate the participants to relate their feelings and observations to their daily work experiences.

In summarizing, the trainer briefly stresses the relationship of the experiences with squares and the discussion to the points which were previously developed on the chalkboard and to back-home work situations.

Instructions to the Group:

In this package are five envelopes, each of which contains pieces of cardboard for forming squares. When the trainer gives the signal to begin, the task of your group is to form five squares of equal size. The task will no be completed until each individual has before him a perfect square of the same size as that held by others.

Specific limitations are imposed upon your group during this exercise:

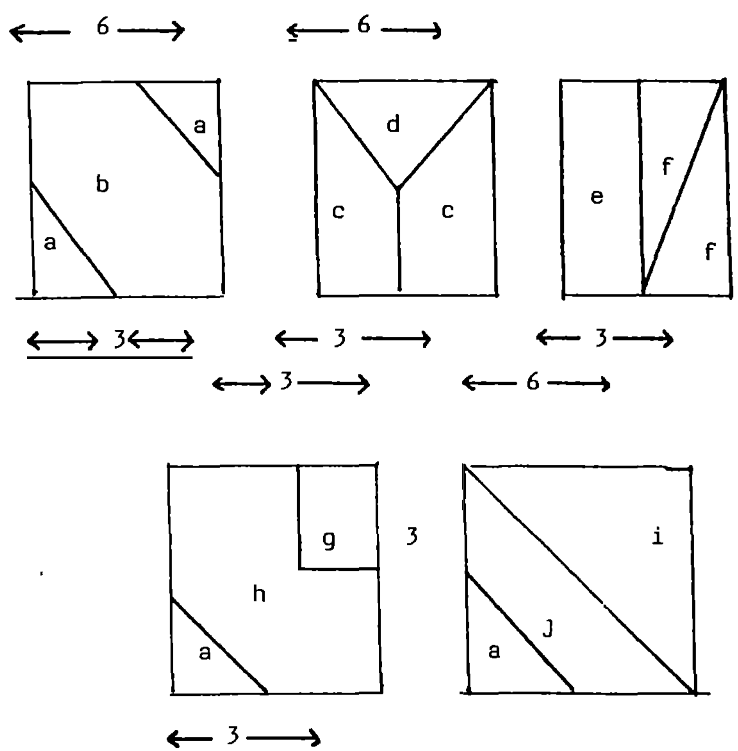
1. No member may speak
2. No member may ask another member for a card or in any way signal that another person is to give him a card
3. Members may, however, give cards to other members.

Directions for making a set of squares:

One set should be provided for each group of five persons.

A set consists of five envelopes containing pieces of cardboard which have been cut into different pattern and, when properly arranged, will form five squares of equal size. To prepare a set, cut five cardboard squares of equal size, six by six inches. Place the squares in a row and mark them as below, penciling the letter a, b, c, and so on lightly so they can later be erased.

EXERCISES



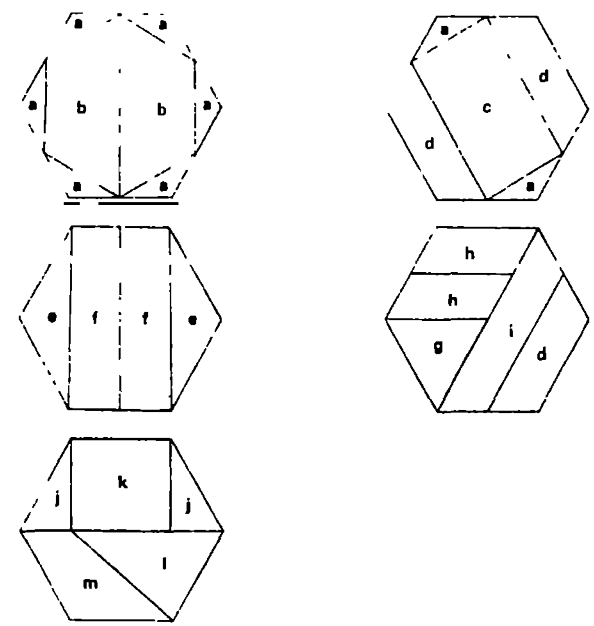
The lines should be so drawn that when cut out, all pieces marked a will be of exactly the same size, all pieces marked c of the same size, and so on. By using umtiples of three inches, several combinations will be possible that will enable participants to form one or two squares, but only one combination is possible that will form five squares six by six inches.

After drawing the lines on the six-by-six-inch squares and labeling them with lower-case letters, cut each square as marked into smaller pieces to make the parts of the puzzle.

Mark each of five envelopes A, B, C, D, and E. Distribute the cardboard pieces in the five envelopes as follows:

Envelope A has pieces	i, h, e
Envelope B has pieces	a, a, a, c
Envelope C has pieces	a, j
Envelope D has pieces	d, f
Envelope E has pieces	g, b, f, c

Frase the penciled letter from each piece and write, instead, the appropriate envelope letter, as Evelope A, Envelope B, and so on. This will make it easy to return the pieces to the proper envelope for subsequent use.



Envelope A has pieces	a, a, c, e, i, l
Envelope B has pieces	a, a, b, f, h, m,
Envelope C has pieces	a, a, d, e, J

FISH BOWLS

Also known as clusters or the group-on-group technique, the fishbowl is a highly worthwhile tool for the trainer who is interested in dynamic group involvement methods.

The fishbowl can assume several configurations. Its most common form is simply an inner ring (Group A), which is the discussion group, surrounded by an outer ring (Group B), which is the observation group, as shown in Figure 4-1.

The inner group can be given an assignment based on content, processing, or content and processing. If the assignment is one of content you ask the inner circle (Group A) to address itself for 10–30 minutes to a given subject such as production problems, scouting the competition, the sales program, how to improve communications (or safety, or employee morale, or field relations, or supplier relations). The outer group (Group B) observes silently.

After the inner circle's time is up, the outer circle can be asked to respond to the same assignment as Group A had, or comment on Group A's deliberations, or do both. It is also practicable at times to repeat the same process a second time. Each group thus engages in discussion and observation twice.

USED FOR:

* ICE BREAKING
* TRAM BUILDING
* GENERATING DIVERGENT VIEWS
* IMPROVEMENT OF COMMUNICATION

GROUP OBSERVATION SHEET

You will shortly be observing the behavior of a group engaging in an assigned fishbowl activity. Here are some things you may wish to look for:

1. Getting started.

   Was the group clear about its task? If not, did the participants attempt to redefine it?

   What method or procedures did they use to attack the problem?

   How was the method adopted? Through the insistence of one dominant person? By group consensus (that is, talking it through without voting)? By voting? By default?

2. Group behavior.

   What was the energy/enthusiasm level of the group?

   Was there high interest in the problem?

   What was the participation pattern? Did some play it safe and hold back? Did all participate with adequate consistency? Was there a dominator? Did people really listen to one another? Did anyone interrupt others consistently?

   What was the trust level in the group? Did members share feelings openly? Were members supportive (did they show concern, caring, etc.) of one another?

   Was the group marked by high esprit de corps, cohesion?

   Was there a leader in the group? If so, did this leader help or hinder progress?

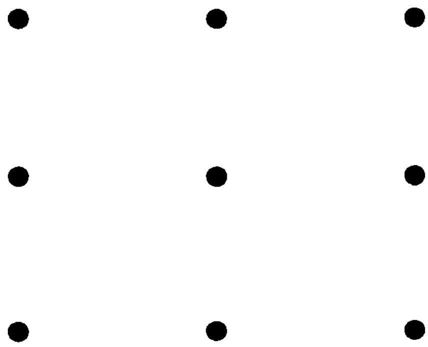
3. Decision making.

   Was a decision reached? If so, how?

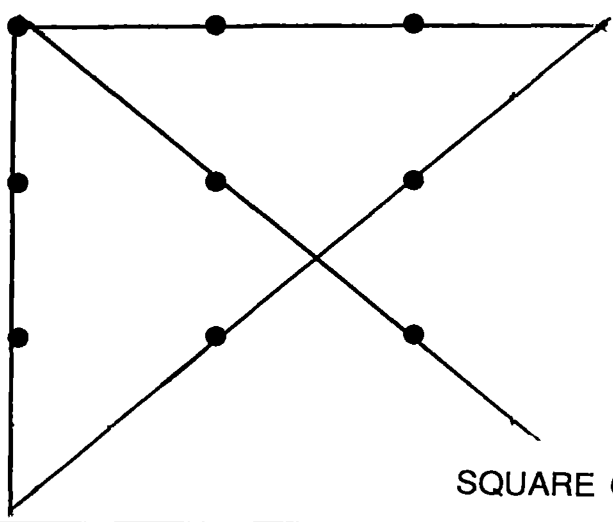
   Was the decision arrived at through consensus, bulldozing, voting, bargaining, or what?

   Were members satisfied with the decision?

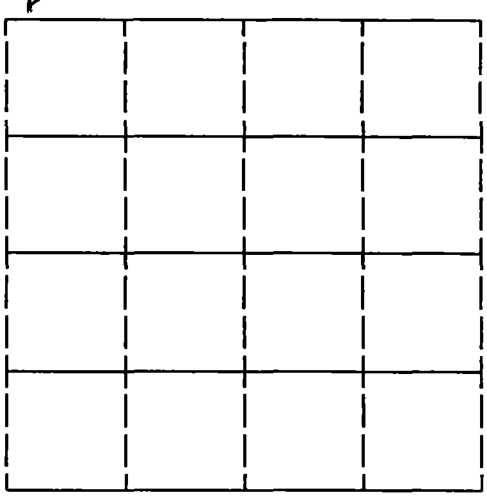
NINE DOT PUZZLE

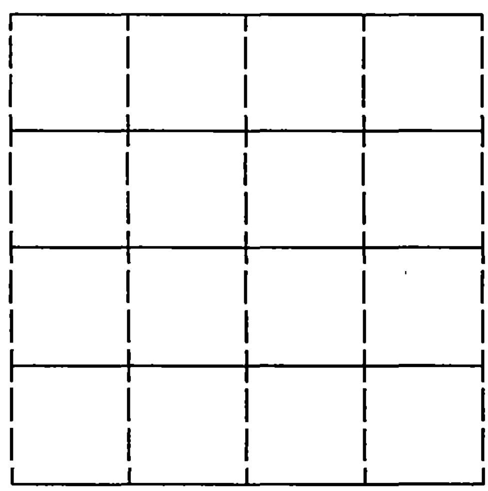


Place the pencil on one of the dots and draw four strait lines through all remaining dots, without lifting the pencil



SQUARE GAME



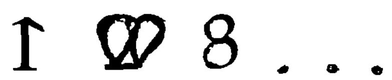


HOW MANY SQUARES

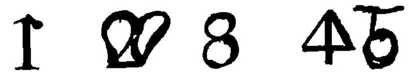
ARE THERE?

$16 + 9 + 4 + 1 = 30$

ETERNITY GAME



which sign follows?



(the numbers are hidden in the signs)

1 2 3 4 5

SNAKES AND LADDERS

This game includes a playful and competitive componenet, which allows participants to try out ideas and solutions. In this way the participants get a chance to prepare themselves on how to work together in the project in relaity. (The game below is meant for a health education project.)

HEALTH EDUCATION SNAKES AND LADDERS*

RULES:

2, 3, or 4 people can play this game. Each player uses a seed to show what place he or she has on the board.

Each player throws the die. The player with the highest number starts the game.

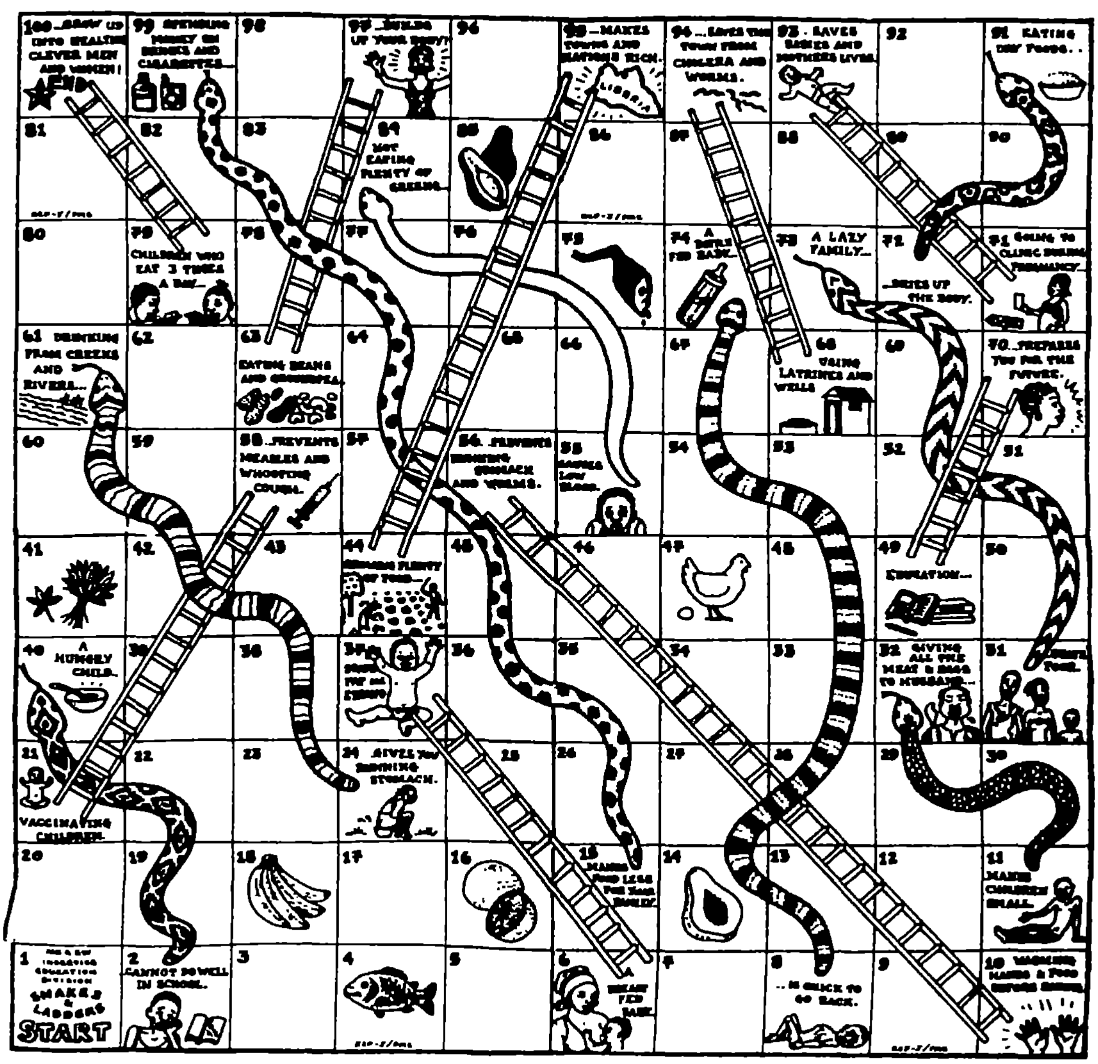
The first player throws the die and moves his or her seed according to the number shown on the die, beginning from square 1, marked **START.**

If a player rolls a 6 the die can be thrown again for another turn

If a marker stops on the head of a SNAKE, the snake swallows it. The player then moves the seed down to the tail of the snake, and reads the message to all the players. That player's turn is over, and his next turn begins from the square at the tail of the snake.

If a seed lands on a square that has the foot of a LADDER, the player moves it to the top of the ladder, and reads the message to all the players That player's turn ends at the top of the ladder, and his or her next turn begins from there

The first player to reach square 100 wins the game, but **the player must throw the exact number needed to land on that final square.**



SPEAKING UP WITH PHOTOGRAPHS

The objective with this technique is to create a relaxed group atmosphere and encourage the people to speak in the group. This exercise needs some shared language capacities among the participants.

1. The facilitator collects a set of photographs/pictures (a few more than s/he expects to be needed)

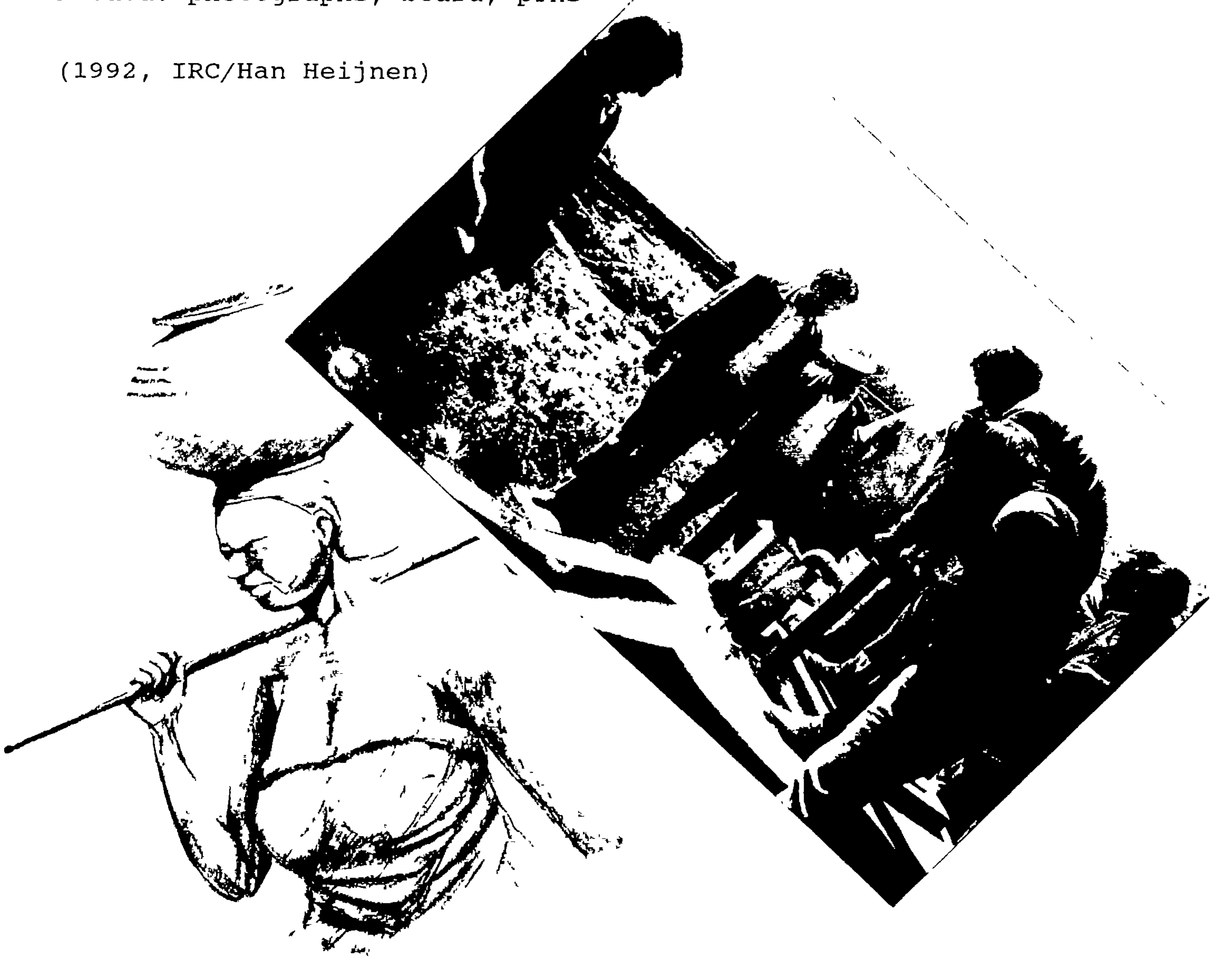
2. The photographs are put on a floor and spread out.

3. Each participant is asked to pick up a photograph that she/he likes, relates to the project, etc.

4. Afterwards each participant is asked one after another, to pin the photograph selected on a board and put their name next to it. They are also supposed to explain why they choose the photograph.

Needed: photographs, board, pins

(1992, IRC/Han Heijnen)



UNDERSTANDING OTHERS

TIME: 1 hr.

"I wanted this group of trainees to come to terms with the difficulties inherent in understanding and relating to persons whose frame of reference and experience is far removed from their own. By using photographs, I hoped that participants would be stimulated to explore their feelings more deeply, moving a step further in their capacity to empathize and identify with others with whom they would work."

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

A selection of photographs from around the world (at least twice as many pictures as participants) showing adults—working, playing, resting—in a variety of settings, both rural and urban. Most pictures should indicate a social and economic level similar to that of the group with whom the trainees will be working.

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Ask the group to examine the pictures and try to imagine what a person in the scene is doing and feeling.

STEP 2–Ask each participant to select a photograph and then to choose one person in the picture and try to enter into that person's life.

STEP 3–Tell the group that at the end of 15 minutes they will be asked to show their picture and to relate a story or incident in the first person, as though they were the person in the picture.

STEP 4–Ask the participants to listen to each other's stories and then to reflect on the experience.

WHAT HAPPENED

The stories told were generally sad, desperate, or even tragic. It was clear that the poverty reflected in the photographs I had chosen seemed such an overriding factor that it crowded out other things that the persons in the pictures might have known or felt. During the period of reflection, the participants pointed out that they could not really "get inside" the person they were portraying. They recognized their own projections, and saw that preconceived ideas and feelings would make it more difficult to collect and evaluate real data. I felt that the group was then prepared to consider how they would go about framing questions and making observations to learn true facts about the lives and needs of others.

Task: Identifying needs

A project which is planned and implemented according to the felt needs, problems and objectives of the local people has more potential to be effective and sustainable. Therefore identifying needs becomes a necessary activity between agency and community. The objective being that the agency and community come to an understanding and can agree about the most urgent needs concerning water and sanitation.

Related questions which might come up
* How is the community stimulated to express their needs?
* How are the needs of the community prioritized?
* Who defines the priority of the needs?

TECHNIQUES

Assessing learners' needs (role play; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
The technique stimulates a discussion between the felt needs and the perceived needs of agency staff and of local people.
One participant plays a villager, another participant a development worker and the others are observers. Both the development worker, and the villager have to negotiate in order to define the problems of the community. The intention is to raise awareness about the differences in approaching needs and problems between agency staff and villagers.

Informal discussions: group meetings and home visits (conceptual tool; 1992, Simasiku)
This material provides some suggestions to agency extension staff on carrying out informal discussions in communities in order to assess the local people's needs.

Pocket chart (pocket chart; 1992, Simasiku)
The pocket chart is a method for investigation which involves the people directly in their own data collection and the analysis of the outcome. It helps the extension worker in encouraging all participating community members to discuss their needs, their problems and the objectives of the project. The pocket chart can also be used in activities such as planning and evaluation.

Questionnaire on 'imagined needs' (exercise; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This exercise makes agency staff aware of the difficulties of estimating the needs of local people. The author suggests that a concluding discussion can be enriched by Maslow's Ladder of Human Needs, as well as Paulo Freir's ideas on adult education.

Survey of needs (form; 1984, Eilington)
This is a very simple form, where participants are asked to list and rank their needs related to the WSS project. When the needs have been listed agency staff and locals compare and negotiate about the different ranks. This activity, though simple, becomes very interesting when donors, agency and community discuss and compare their needs and objectives.

Task analysis sheet (form; 1989, GTZ)
This tool helps community and health workers to identify knowledge and skills needed for the various tasks in the project.

Transect walks (exercise; 1991, Mascarenhas et al)
To identify needs which have neither been expressed nor visualised, a transect walk in the community can be made. The process of the transect walk involves the agency staff and community people who together observe resources, discusse and make simple maps of the resources. The observation leads to identification of needs and problems and the maps facilitate group analysis of the needs.

ASSESSING LEARNERS NEEDS

TIME: 1½ hrs.

The trainer was working with a leadership group, university-trained but lacking extensive field experience. He felt the group needed to understand the difference between perceived *needs (what the group* thinks *villagers need) and* felt *needs (what villagers themselves say they need). He hoped that a poignant, participatory experience might help the group see that facilitators have as much to learn from villagers as villagers have to learn from them. Perhaps the group would ask, "Who is really the* expert *in the development of learning experiences?"*

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Paper and pencils (enough for each participant)

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Ask the group to discuss the following questions:

- To what extent do you think villagers are aware of their problems?
- If they are not aware of some problems, then are these problems real?
- What does it mean to say someone has a problem but isn't aware of it?
- Who determines when a problem is a *real* problem?

STEP 2–Set up a role-play situation between two individuals or two subgroups, one representing villagers, the other representing urbanized development workers. The job of the development workers is to explain to the villagers what they (the development workers) think the villagers' main problems are and how they might be solved. The villagers should respond to these ideas and suggestions, offering their own analysis of their problems.

The process is then reversed: the villagers explain what they think are the main problems in urban areas and how they might be solved. The development workers respond.

STEP 3–Ask group members who are not involved in the role playing to be observers. Divide these observers into two groups, one to record the views of the villagers, the other to record the views of the development workers.

STEP 4–After the role playing is finished, ask the entire group to discuss what they have learned about themselves and their attitudes towards villagers.

STEP 5–Ask each observer-group to read its list of ideas, those expressed by the "villagers," and those expressed by the "development

workers." Ask them to discuss what they have learned about *real* villagers from this activity. What would they have to do to really understand villagers' attitudes?

WHAT HAPPENED

Those who were playing the role of development workers tended to restate problems already identified in a rural baseline survey. The "villagers" rejected a number of these problems, especially the accusation that they had too many children.

Interestingly, the "villagers" listed several problems that were not mentioned by the "development workers": loss of food to the urban areas, excess of wealth concentrated in urban areas, and the ineptitude of the government. Only one problem—government ineptitude—was shared by both groups.

The trainees, who initially felt that their job was to "tell villagers what problems they have and how to solve them," came to realize that they themselves had problems, and more significantly, that they, as urban dwellers, were in fact the cause of several problems felt by the villagers. They began to suspect that they had as much to learn from the villagers as the villagers had to learn from them. They realized that they would have to spend time in the rural areas to really identify the villagers' felt needs. They also agreed that a "problem" is best understood by the person who has the problem.

INFORMAL MEETINGS TO ASSESS NEEDS

What the Extension Worker will do :

* Start with **introducing the project to the key persons in the area**, e.g. District Council officials, leaders and chiefs. These people must be informed and their support secured before the community is approached.
  They also may have suggestions and ideas on problems and possible solutions concerning the project.

* A **group meeting with community members** can be held, to have a first discussion on problems and interests of the people.

* After the first meeting, it will be necessary to gather more information which gives a deeper understanding of the problems and needs of the people. This can be done through more group discussions, but it is always advisable to make also some **home visits** with those community members who are not able to come to the meetings, or who will not speak freely in a larger group.

* Differences between more wealthy community members and those who are poor, or between different religious or political groups should be taken into account. **Make sure that you get the opinions of all groups within the community.**

* In some communities it is necessary to **approach** the women separately, to make sure that their views are included in the overall picture.

* Make careful notes about all topics mentioned by community members; **make lists of all interests, needs, problems and solutions mentioned.** Prepare large papers for displaying the lists and use them in group discussions and during home visits, to focus the discussions.

Extension worker interviews woman

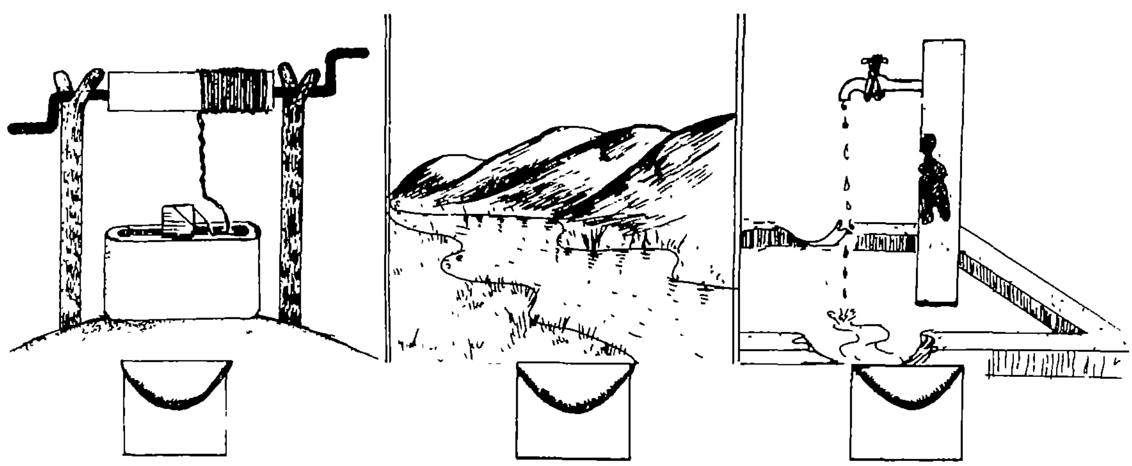
POCKET CHART

A Method to be used in needs Assessment with the Community

Pocket chart

The pocket chart is a method for investigation which involves the people directly in their own data collection and the analysis of the outcome. It helps the extension worker in encouraging all participating community members to discuss the implications of the outcome.
In its simplest form it consists of a number of pictures with a paper pocket (for instance an envelope) attached to each picture. If no paper pockets are available, a pot or plate beneath each picture can be used.
The pictures represent items or issues on which a choice is to be made, or an opinion to be expressed.
Thus, a series of drawings can show different sources for drinking water which the community is using, e.g. a river, a well, a communal tap, a water point at a school, etc.
At a community meeting the pictures, with the attached pockets, are shown to the people. Make sure that everybody present can see the pictures and understands what they mean.
Distribute small pieces of paper (approx. 2 x 5 cm) among the audience; everybody should get some.
Then ask the people to indicate which of the sources each of them is using at present. They will do this by putting a small piece of paper in the pocket attached to the picture of the source or sources they are using.

> It is not uncommon for people to use different water sources for different purposes, e.g. the well or the public standpost for drinking water and the river for washing and watering plants. This could be indicated by having differently colored small papers, for instance blue to indicate drinking water and white to indicate water for other purposes.



Pocket chart on different drinking water sources

After each person present has passed before the pocket chart to make his or her choice, the pieces of paper in each pocket are counted by one of the community members. Another person writes the counts on a piece of paper which is displayed before the audience.
It is important to discuss the outcome immediately, with the whole group. Questions can be raised like : Why do most people use a certain source ? How many people do need an improved water supply ? How could the present situation be improved ? What are the advantages and disadvantages of different sources ? etc.

Important :

* The exercise needs to be prepared well. Have nice, clear drawings ready, with neat pockets attached. Take some extra unused paper with pockets, to indicate water sources or other issues which have been forgotten and for which no drawings are available.

* Take some large pieces of paper (poster or newspaper size) to write down and display the results. A nice chart to fill in the results can be drawn in advance.

* Make sure that there is a suitable place (a wall, a board, a string with clothes pegs, etc.) for displaying the pictures with the pockets, and the large papers with the results.

* Have sufficient small pieces of paper ready for everybody to put in the pockets.
* The exercise has to be well explained to the audience. Make sure that everybody understands the meaning of each different step. Explain the whole thing briefly once, at the beginning, and then explain again each step separately while going along.

* To keep the interest of the audience the voting should be done quickly, but take sufficient time for the discussion of the outcome. The exercise is not just a game, it is the outcome that makes it important.

* Make sure that women take part in the pocket chart exercise. Usually they have a good knowledge about the advantages of different water sources, and for the project to be successful it is important to discuss their choices.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON IMAGINING NEEDS

Who Defines Community Needs?

This exercise is to help individuals see that the way they see the problems of a community might not, in fact, be the way the community itself sees its problems. It is also a useful exercise in helping people to learn to listen to others in a group. It sometimes shows that people with local life experiences (and perhaps less formal education) may have a better insight into the problems people face than those with formal education.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Priorities of Mathari Valley people

The Nairobi City Council recently made a survey of over 2,000 families in Mathari Valley. They asked the people what problems the people saw as most important in their lives in the Valley.

Instructions: Rank in order of what you think the **people in the Valley** answered **as their first**, second, third priorities, etc. Place a number 1 by the one you think **they** ranked first, a number 2 by the one you think they ranked second, etc. up to 10. Write your numbers in the left hand column.

	Individual Ranking		Group Ranking
A.	_______	Land	_______
B.	_______	Clean water	_______
C.	_______	Shelter	_______
D.	_______	Clothing	_______
E.	_______	School fees	_______
F.	_______	Food	_______
G.	_______	Money to expand their business	_______
H.	_______	Educational facilities	_______
I.	_______	A better standard of Housing	_______
J.	_______	Sanitation	_______

After the members of the group have finished working individually, form groups of 5 to 7 people and try to arrive at a rank ordering **as a group**. The group has 30 minutes for this task.

Procedure

1. Give out the Questionnaire asking everyone to answer it. Stress that they answer it in the way they **imagine** the people in Mathari Valley themselves see their own priorities. (This is important to repeat in the instructions.)
2. They give their own answers to the questionnaire on the left side of the page. This will take about 5 minutes.
3. Then, in groups of about 5 – 7, they are asked to try to agree to a common order of priorities. The aim is to come to a common understanding of the basis on which each person has ranked their answers, not merely to average individual answers. They are asked to listen to each other and come up with a common list which all, more or less, agree with. (Give about 30 minutes.)
4. When the groups have finished making their lists, the animator puts up the correct answers given by the people in Mathari Valley. This is the people's own view of their problems.

Ask each individual to check to see how close their own answers were, and then see how close their group listing was to the correct answers

Correct answers for this exercise

1. food
2. shelter
3. school fees
4. clothing
5. land
6. money to expand their businesses
7. clean water
8. sanitation
9. better standard of housing
10. educational facilities.

5. **Score** as follows: Count how many points your answer is a away from the correct rank given and that is your score. It makes no difference whether you were below or above the correct answer, the distance counts. For example:

Your answer	Correct Answer	Your score
4	1	3
7	5	2
1	3	2

You then make a total of your score. The **lower** your score, the more you understand the priorities of the people of Mathari Valley.

6. **Before** using this exercise, one should check to see if anyone in the group has seen this study. If someone has, ask that person to observe the session. If many people have, this exercise will not be helpful to the group.

This exercise can be adapted to any topic if you have a survey of correct answers in a rank order.

Discussion questions

1. Whose score was lowest? Was the group score lower than any individual?
2. Did everyone feel listened to in the discussion?
3. Why were some people not listened to?
4. Was the group influenced by some people whose answers were in fact wrong? Why?
5. What have we learnt from this exercise in relation to working with poor people (or villages)?

Summaries

The animator must be clear before using this exercise what main problem to focus the discussion on. One summary on development that is helpful is **Maslow's Ladder of Human Needs**. This exercise however is a very clear example of the need for dialogue with the people. A good summary can be **Paulo Freire**'s ideas on the need for dialogue and how projects and programs must be chosen and directed by the people themselves. (See Chapter 1 on the Five Key Principles of Freire and Chapter 4.)

If the groups had major difficulties in coming to a common agreement, a good summary can be taken from some of the **decision-making** theories found in Chapter 8.

Time: About 1½ to 2 hours.

Materials: Duplicated questionnaires for each participant (as written on page 72), and correct answers written on newsprint to be used at the end of the exercise.

SURVEY OF NEEDS

SURVEY OF NEEDS

Please list below the topics you wish to have covered in the course. Your number one listing is the most important to you. Your number ten is the least important to you.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

TASK ANALYSIS SHEET

WHAT ABOUT:

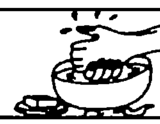
The tool gives an example of a training module for community/health workers (here: introducing latrines). It explains the different stages of the task, the knowledge and skills needed and the ways to learn.

WHAT FOR:

The tool may be used in further trainings of community/health workers and of the staff of local services by foreign and national training experts.

TASK ANALYSIS SHEET 

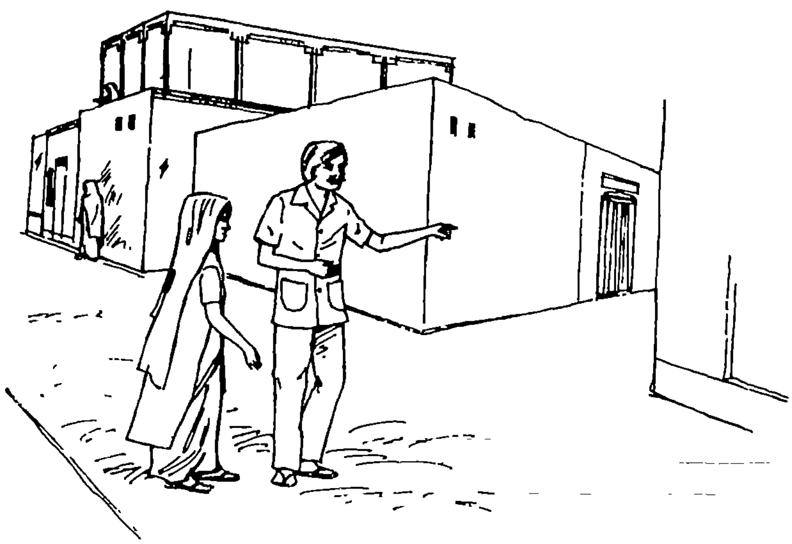
The Task: Introducing latrines

Stages of Task Actions (A) Decisions (D) Communications (C)	Knowledge and Skills needed ↓	Ways to Learn ↓
1. Find out community interest. (C) 	ability to explain and listen 	talk with experienced health workers; role plays; group dialogue
2. Decide if latrine project is possible at this time. (D)	understanding of people and customs 	community dynamics; discussions about traditions & behavior
3. Help people learn importance of latrines to health.(C) 	knowledge of how dissease spreads; teaching skills 	from observation, books. and discussions; practice teaching 
4. Decide where latrines will be built. (D)	knowledge of safety factors 	books and discussions; thinking it through with local people
5. Get materials needed. (A) 	what local materials can be used; what else is needed; where to buy at low cost, etc.	talk with local mason; trip to market 
6. Help people build the latrines. (A) 	dimensions of pit and platform; how to mix, cast reinforce, and cure cement; how to build outhouse & lid	have students take part in actually making latrines 
7 Encourage people to use latrines and to keep them covered and clean. (C)	home visits; art of giving suggestions in a friendly way 	practice, role plays, and discussion 

TRANSECT WALKS

Transect Walks and Participatory Transects

These are systematic walks with key informants through the area of interest, observing, asking, listening, looking, identifying different zones, seeking problems and possible solutions. The findings can be mapped on to a transect diagram. There are many different types of transects - vertical, loop, combing, nullah, tank, and sweeping. Most transect walks result in the outsiders discovering surprising local practices. Some documented at the workshop included:



A community cannot be found simply by looking at the lines on a map It is necessary to walk along the streets and talk to residents to discover where they consider the boundaries of their own community to be The community survey (see pages 40–53) is an educational tool that will help you and the members of the community learn more about who belongs to the community and what are its special needs, resources, and culture

Depending on the local mapping of resources on the ground, transects are decided. Our experience has shown that doing a transect based on the local soil classifications has proved to be the most effective and representative of the diversity of the natural resources and the people affected by them. Each transect team involves 5 to 8 participants who own and use the resources and know the problems related with them. In case of the transect team working on the common lands (forest etc) women and the landless are very important members of the team and it should be ensured that they participate as they are the major users of products from common lands.

However, presence of women and landless is largely determined by the timing of the exercise (mostly they are working during the day when transect exercises are done). It would be useful to have a discussion with the group and ask them to nominate people for the transect. In a very undulating area, Top to Bottom transects or Upland-Lowland transects are helpful in understanding resources and problems related with them. Generally going to a high point is useful because it helps in identifying certain resources and problems which are related with the interrelationship of the resources, which is difficult to visualise or discuss while discussing a particular problem.

The process of transect involves the following steps:

Observation of physical characteristics eg. erosion, waterlogging, soil depth, soil type and people's perception on these issues. This is done by walking through various resources ie. public lands, private lands, forest lands, rivulets, nallas, gullies, local land use and soil types. People are encouraged to talk about their own land and the problems as they affect them. Physical observations may involve diagramming on the ground and drawing simple maps showing flows of run off, ground water, drainage and showing how various phenomena are affecting productivity and management of resources owned and used by the participants.

A number of small thematic maps are drawn at this stage on the paper like the water resources map, local land use classification map, resource utilisation map, cropping pattern map, Aquifer map. These are generally an extension of the ground map and are very useful to understand the resources and the problems related with productive management and utilisation of these resources. Each map is produced by a group of 5 to 6 people during the transect exercise. It is not uncommon to find a source of local expertise on a thematic issue like a water diviner or a local soil expert who is able to contribute towards inventorising of these resources and identifying critical areas requiring intervention. These maps become a basis for use of other methods and discussion. However, it is difficult for illiterate people to participate unless they are encouraged to draw symbols to illustrate various aspects of the diversity, characteristics, problems and solutions. They can draw well and most of them are creative in drawing diagrams. It is always helpful if people can describe the resources, process, status and problem in terms of symbols and colours eg. symbol of a crop, deforested trees (by black), colour of the coil (by different colours) and numbers by number of grains. Some of the examples of the maps prepared by people are shown in Figures 18, 19 and 20.

These lead to questions about problems faced/constraints faced in effective utilisation of resources. In fact it is difficult to segregate the problem definition phase and

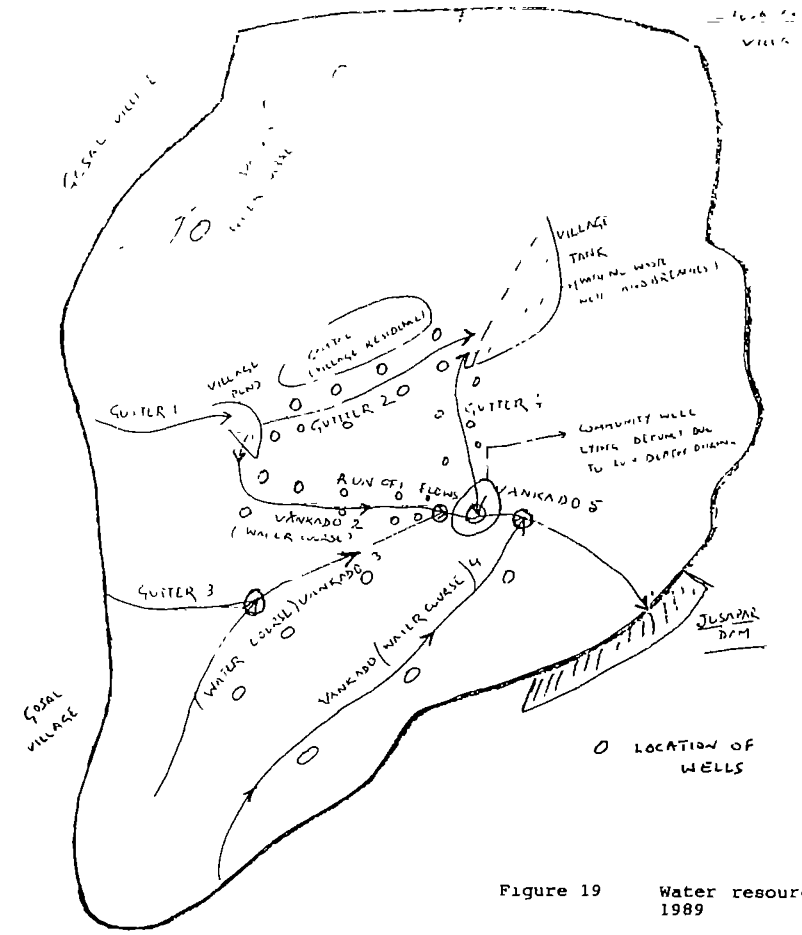


Figure 19 Water resources map, Madargadh village. December 1989

the solution identification phase. Our experience has shown that most people have some solutions in mind when they are talking about the problem and they tend to indicate them along with the problems. During the transect walk observations are made leading to identification of problems. Mapping is done to facilitate analysis of the problem and helps in focusing on the problems and the solutions during the subsequent discussions (both local as well as suggested based on the experience).

This is followed by an intensive discussion with the transect team on the field itself to take advantage of the visual clarity to the persons asking the questions and answering them. Utmost care should be taken not to ask leading questions. Questions like what more! should be asked again and again. It is important at this stage to ask people to suggest solutions which they have tried out earlier, which have worked and which have not worked and why. It would be also useful at this stage to ask people why they have not been able to try some solutions is very critical to ensure that their feasibility is appraised by both local people as well as outsiders while deciding their priorities. All possible problems and solutions should be identified.

This leads to a transect diagram which is prepared by the local people in form of a Opportunity Identification Matrices. This matrices show al natural resources, local land use classifications, existing state of resources, constraints/problems in productive development of these resources, local solutions tried out by the people and options identified by the people for solving the problems and development of each resource. A typical opportunity matrix is shown in Figure 21. This matrix is subsequently used as a facilitating input to other methods used subsequently.

Task: Working out expectations and benefits

Realistic planning and implementation can be facilitated when the expectations of the project's outcome are clarified between agency and community. Defining expectations is part of the whole negotiation process between agency and community.
Expectations are related to:
- kind/type of facilities the project is going to offer
- help, support and training each side expects from the other
- the participation of everyone
- status given by the project
- money, donations, contributions
- responsibilities
- motivation.

Related questions which might come up
* What kind of facilities are appropriate in relation to the expectations of the local people?
* How to make the expectations of the local people, concerning responsibilities of the project, more realistic?

TECHNIQUES

A learning contract (group exercise; 1993, Espejo)
With this exercise participants make a commitment to what they are going to learn and to comply during a training activity. The participants express what they want to reach during the course and give feedback to the facilitator's proposed agenda. The role of the facilitator and the group for the accomplishment of the course is discussed as well as the expectations on the outcome of the course.

Initial brainstorming (group discussion; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This material offers, step-by-step, instructions on how to carry out a brainstorming session in order to collect various opinions concerning an issue.

Participatory mapping (exercise; 1991, Mascarenhas)
In cases where the people need to give information concerning community features or conditions mapping is an alternative. The local people express how they see particular conditions in the village and how they expect them to develop during the project's process. Mapping has turned out to be a tool which enables local people to contribute and make changes within the project, by playing the role of analyzer of the information given.

Pocket chart for expressing expectations (pocket chart; 1992, IRC)
This material shows agency staff how they can provide room for local people to express their expectations, before an educational activity (formal as well as informal) is carried out.
Workshop participant expectations (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This material is meant for participants in a workshop and helps the agency staff to find out if their plans for the working procedure are appropriate to the expectations of the participants. Sheets are circulated on which the participants write down their expectations.
The written expectations might be used as reference point during the discussions or kept for the evaluations later on.

A LEARNING CONTRACT

Objective

To promote participants to make a commitment to learn and comply with the tasks assigned to in a course.

Use

This technique is used at the very beginning of a course to find out how the program matches the expectations of the participants. The program is discussed and there should be possibilities to adapt it according to the interests of the participants.

Implementation

1 Ask participants what they want to obtain/gain from the course. The answers can be put on cards or on a board.

2 Present the course program designed by the facilitator or organizer. Find out if the participants want to make some changes, in order to include their interests and the benefits they would like to obtain.

3 Make clear that the final outputs of the course will depend on the facilitator as well as the participants. Explain and discuss the role of the facilitator and the participants.

4 Indicate the "final product" that you want to achieve.

5 In small groups the participants will establish the game rules, the available resources, and the methods to be used in order to obtain the final product. You can use a checklist (prepared by the facilitator) like the one appearing on the following page.

6 Present the conclusions of each group, which will be considered as "learning contracts".

Planning my Learning

Checklist

1. Identification

   What are we trying to do?
   Obtain more information?
   Reach the accomplishments in a mechanical way?
   Learn from each other?
   Explore or study the subjects deeply?
   Solve practical problems?

2. Use of resources

   What resources do we have?
   What experience and relevant skills do we have?
   What time do we have?
   What relevant information do we have?
   Are we waiting for some of our resources?

3. Systems and procedures

   How are we going to plan our time?
   How are we going to work
   How are we going to decide
   Who is doing what?
   What does participation mean? suggest, give information, ask, challenge, initiate activities, intermediate, cohesionar to the group, stimulate, support)
   How are we going to keep the information found?
   How are we going to review our progress?

4. Human relations
   How are we going to work together? supporting/competing with each other?
   Do we speak the same langauge?
   How much do we like to listen?

INITIAL BRAINSTORMING

TIME: 45 minutes

"Each member of this group had different ideas of what education was all about: its purpose, content, methods, and the appropriate roles of teachers and learners. I wanted to give everyone a chance to express thoughts on the subject so that the group could agree on a working definition."

SETTING

A quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pens

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Explain the ground rules for brainstorming:

- Don't criticize during the brainstorming.
- Don't alter or edit the ideas; take them just as they come.
- Encourage farfetched ideas; they may trigger more practical ones.
- The more ideas the better.

STEP 2–Ask trainees what words they think of when they hear the word *education.* Have a volunteer write all the words the group suggests. (Use the blackboard or newsprint for this purpose.) Call a halt only after the group seems to have run out of word ideas.

STEP 3–Review the list together, crossing out words that the group agrees do not fit.

STEP 4–Seek some kind of consensus on key words, explaining that these words will become the basis for a group definition to be developed later.

WHAT HAPPENED

On the basis of this initial brainstorming, I was able to organize a further activity using dictionaries, which led to development of an agreed-upon definition of education. In my view, the advantage of brainstorming was that the basic ideas to be used later came from and belonged to the participants. These were not given to the trainees, but represented their own thinking.

Note: Brainstorming is widely used by trainers. In Bangladesh, a group about to embark on a workshop in materials development was asked to brainstorm activities of villagers that might be used as part of an educational program. Games, puzzles, folktales, etc., were listed, and the group quickly reached consensus on which were the most appropriate for use in learning materials, and began to develop these.

In a training session in Thailand, a consultant asked participants to brainstorm ways to reduce the dropout rate in literacy classes. The diverse ideas that were suggested proved useful later to program administrators.

PARTICIPATORY MAPPING

The intention with this technique is to give the local people a tool to express their expectations on the project with.

How? A group of the local people, including women, men, and local leaders, are asked to illustrate how they perceive the conditions of water and sanitation in their community. Afterwards they are asked to illustrate specific issues which they want to improve.

The illustrations can be made through making a map made of stones, pieces of wood etc. or if the local people prefer, draw how they perceive the conditions.

After the drawing/maps are made, a discussion on **how** to reach the improved stage, **whom** to involve and **what** to do are discussed.

Effect? This exercise attracts the local people's attention and stimulates the discussion about need of water and sanitation.

POCKET CHART HELPING EXPRESSING EXPECTATIONS

The objective is to let participants from a community select the issues to be carried out in a training program, planning session, etc.

1. The facilitator has prepared a set of issues, which might be worked out. The issues are written on cards.

2. The facilitator shows the cards to the participants and asks them to select five of the issues, which they think are interesting to work on. They are then asked to put the cards in five envelops, pockets, etc.

3. When all participants have voted, the various issues are ranked and the five issues, which have been voted for most, are selected.

Cons:
The facilitator needs a lot of time for preparing each issue suggested (and still all won't be used).

Pros:
Brings about independent thinking, identifyes training needs and gets solutions more adapted to the local environment.

(1992, IRC/Eveline Bolt)

WORKSHOP PARTICIPANT EXPECTATIONS

Please write, in a few sentences, what you expect will take place at this workshop, what role you think the workshop organizers will play, and what you think you will be expected to do as a participant.

At this workshop we will

____

____

____

____

____

The workshop organizers will

____

____

____

____

____

The participants will

____

____

____

____

TIME: ½ hr.

"Before initiating the training workshop, we wanted to check the plans we had already made against the expectations of the participants. Their responses would condition how we would present the purposes and events of the workshop. We also wanted to see how closely our understanding of staff and participant roles resembled those of the participants."

SETTING

At the registration desk or at a meal or social hour before the official opening of the workshop

MATERIALS

"Workshop Participant Expectations" sheet (page 8) and pencil for each participant

Newsprint and felt pen

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Hand out "Workshop Participant Expectations" sheets.

Note: If the sheets are distributed during registration, give information about when they are to be returned; if a meal precedes the first session, the sheets can be filled in and collected immediately.

STEP 2 (for the staff)–Record responses on newsprint.

Note: The tabulated responses should be shown during the first session and used as a reference point for presenting information about the objectives and schedule of events and for describing the roles of staff and participants.

WHAT HAPPENED

The responses were useful in revealing disparities in expectations. Such disparities have occurred most often when participants, accustomed to more traditional educational events, expect that the staff will give lectures on a variety of techniques and methods. In another workshop, however, we forgot to hand out the sheet and, instead, used it after we had already presented the objectives and plans. It was obviously useless since participants merely repeated what they had already heard!

Task: Facilitating group discussion

During the working process of the project a great deal of time is spent on various kinds of discussions. The agency staff representative plays an important role in keeping the discussion going through stimulating the group members to speak and actively listen to each other. Tools have been indicated below concerning aspects such as communicating, exchanging ideas, listening, etc. These aspects all play an important role in the process of a group discussion.

Related questions which might come up

* How can participants be stimulated to listen better to each other?
* How can participation in a group discussion be strengthened?

TECHNIQUES

Communicating ideas (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This exercise makes clear how participants' differing perceptions and expressions can distort communication. The expected outcome of the exercise is that the participants will keep their differences in perceiving and expressing in mind, to avoid ambiguity and to communicate better.

Group discussions (conceptual tool; 1993, Espejo)
Four phases of a group discussion are shown with this tool. The information may help facilitators to be aware about the importance of each phase.

Johari's window (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This activity facilitates communication between field workers and community members, through creating greater awareness about degrees of inter-personal communication. The activity shows agency staff four different relationships between agency staff and community members, which all influence communication.

Leading a discussion (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
In this exercise the participants practise how to lead a discussion, in order to keep it going. While working out the exercise the participants identify techniques with which to enforce the discussion and they agree upon what the role of a discussion leader is. The participants are split up in smaller groups, where each person gets the possibility to lead the discussion. When everyone has played the role of the leader they go back to the big group. They discuss how a leader can influence situations such as passive participation, managing group conflicts.

Listening (conceptual tool; 1991, R.V.B. and 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This tool is a brief summary on how to practise active listening, such as noticing non-verbal clues and gestures, being sensitive to what is **not** said in the discussion. The R.V.B. notes can be used a "hand-outs".

Poster sequence (posters; 1987, Hammeijer)
A series of posters is used to stimulate a discussion on a specific topic. The idea is to not let participants 'report' what the posters shows, but to develop a discussion about its content.

Non-verbal communication or "What do I express?" (group discussion; 1985, IAC)
This group discussion shows the participants how difficult it is to interpret someone's non-verbal behaviour. The participants are asked to look at a drawing and write what they think the figures express by their non-verbal behaviour. When all participants have described the figures, they are compared and the findings are discussed. Instead of a drawing someone in the group can express a feeling through non-verbal means.

What helps adults learn (group discussion; 1983, McCoy)
This step-by-step procedure motivates the participants to take active part in the discussion on the theme "What helps adults learn?". During the discussion different kinds of benefits of the discussion are presented, such as the possibility to influence the project and the learning aspect, as well as two ways of leading a discussion (one-way and two-way communication). Two other important factors for active participation, feeling confident and feeling comfortable in the group, are also discussed. The discussion is ended through letting the people suggest ways to create a relaxed atmosphere.

COMMUNICATING IDEAS

TIME: 1 hr.

The trainers were working with a group involved in a rural development project. Group members were content specialists and trainers whose backgrounds were extremely diverse. The trainers introduced this activity to make the group aware of the way differences in perception and expression can distort and retard communication. It was hoped that, with this in mind during their work together, they would find ways to communicate clearly and avoid ambiguity and so to function better as a team.

SETTING

A large enough meeting room with a door

MATERIALS

A photo or drawing (clear visual message that is culturally relevant)

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pens

Three identity cards (numbered *1*, *2* and *3*)

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Explain the activity as follows:

"Three of you will be asked to volunteer to be *Persons 1*, *2* and *3*. You will leave the room and wait to be called back in, in turn. While you are out of the room the other members of the group will study a picture, decide together how to describe it to *Person 1*, and appoint someone to speak for the group. *Person 1* will be invited to return to the room, stand with the reporter in front of the group, and listen to the description of the picture. *Person 1* will not actually *see* the picture, and will not be able to take notes, draw a picture, or ask any questions. The reporter can repeat the description a second time, if *Person 1* asks for it.

"Following the same rules, *Person 1* will describe the picture to *Person 2*, who will describe it to *Person 3*. *Person 3* must follow the same rules as the others, but, when ready, will draw a picture of what he or she thinks *Person 2* described."

STEP 2–Ask for three volunteers and give each one a card–1, 2 or 3. Ask all of them to leave the room.

STEP 3–Show the remaining members of the group the picture. Give them up to five minutes to decide how it can be described and to choose a reporter. Put away the picture.

STEP 4–Invite *Person 1* back into the room and restate the rules that apply. Have the reporter describe the picture–twice, if requested by *Person 1*.

STEP 5–Ask *Person 1* to describe the picture to *Person 2*, following the same rules.

STEP 6–Ask *Person 2* to describe the picture to *Person 3*, following the same rules. *Person 3* will then draw the picture described on the newsprint sheet or blackboard available for this purpose.

STEP 7–Show the original picture once again, and have the group compare it with *Person 3*'s drawing.

STEP 8–Engage the group in a discussion: Did the picture description change from person to person? How? Why? What do you think was the purpose of this activity?

WHAT HAPPENED

The group responded enthusiastically. Questions about the activity's purpose and the general message on communication and perception led to a lively discussion. Everyone got the idea that messages tend to become altered, garbled, and confused. They were able to relate this experience to the possibility of problems of communication occurring in their own projects and to examine how such problems might be avoided.

GROUP DISCUSSIONS

A group discussion generally consists of four phases.

1) Initiating: the objectives and expectations of the meeting are introduced

2) Informing: the group members exchange ideas and opinions.

3) Analyzing: information is interpreted and feedback given. This is the "discussion" itself.

4) Concluding:; the group members agree upon something and make decisions.

The phases "informing" and "analyzing" are interchangable and interrelated. Though the initating and the concluding phases should be carefully done. Below see how the phases are interrelated.

INICIAR * Objetivo CLARO (Chairman - Secretary) * Presidente - Secret. * Crear Atmósfera	INFORMAR * dar/pedir inform. * Preguntar * Escuchar. * Usar Mat. Didáctico.
DECIDIR BUSCAR ACUERDOS * Resumir * Presentar Alternativas * Responsables? Planes?	ANALIZAR INTERPRETAR Resumir Interpretar

INITIATING * clarify objectives * create atmosphere	**INFORMING** * give information * get information * listen
CONCLUDING * conclude * present alternatives * define responsible people plans	**ANALYZING** * conclude * interpret

JOHARI'S WINDOW

PURPOSE:

To facilitate communication between field workers and community members by creating greater awareness about degrees of inter-personal communication.

TIME: Under 30 minutes (1 hour if role play follows)

MATERIALS:

Johari's Window (SARAR adaptation) drawn on large size paper, and four separate labels (See fig. 2).

NOTE TO TRAINER:

This analytic model takes its name after its two authors, Joe Luft and Harry Ingham, both psychologists, who were concerned with different styles and processes of interpersonal communication. To illustrate differences in degrees to which two people may be mutually aware, they devised a model with four quadrants or WINDOWS labelled OPEN, BLIND, HIDDEN and UNKNOWN (see fig.1). The SARAR adaptation of this model includes pictures of two people facing each other at each Window with eyes open or blindfolded to represent the degree to which mutual understanding has been established (see fig. 2). The person shown inside each Window represents an average villager and the person on the outside represents the extension agent.

	Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	1 **Open**	2 **Blind**
Not known to others	3 **Hidden**	4 **Unknown**

Fig. 1

This tool helps participants realise that extension workers generally relate to the community from Window 2: They feel they have all the right answers to village problems while the villagers are considered to be ignorant or blind. Extension workers therefore may try to instruct the villagers, thereby hoping to help them open their eyes (overcome ignorance) and see things as clearly as the outsider does. The expectation is that villagers will then change their behaviour to match the outsider's instruction. This strategy has seldom proved effective.

The tool also brings home the point that the outsider (extension agent) facing Window 3 is in fact as good as blind when working with villagers without first getting to know their true feelings, beliefs, and values, which are not often disclosed by people until genuine trust has been established. This serves to remind participants that establishing trust, by listening to the people with respect and providing them with opportunities for self-expression, is the starting point for opening Window 3. This should have precedence over teaching people the outsider's agenda as in Window 2.

Finally, the most effective way of opening Window 4 is through a process of reciprocity and horizontal relationships with villagers by which the community's rich experience, knowledge of customs and beliefs, and intimate understanding of the local situation, can be integrated with the extension worker's technical know-how.

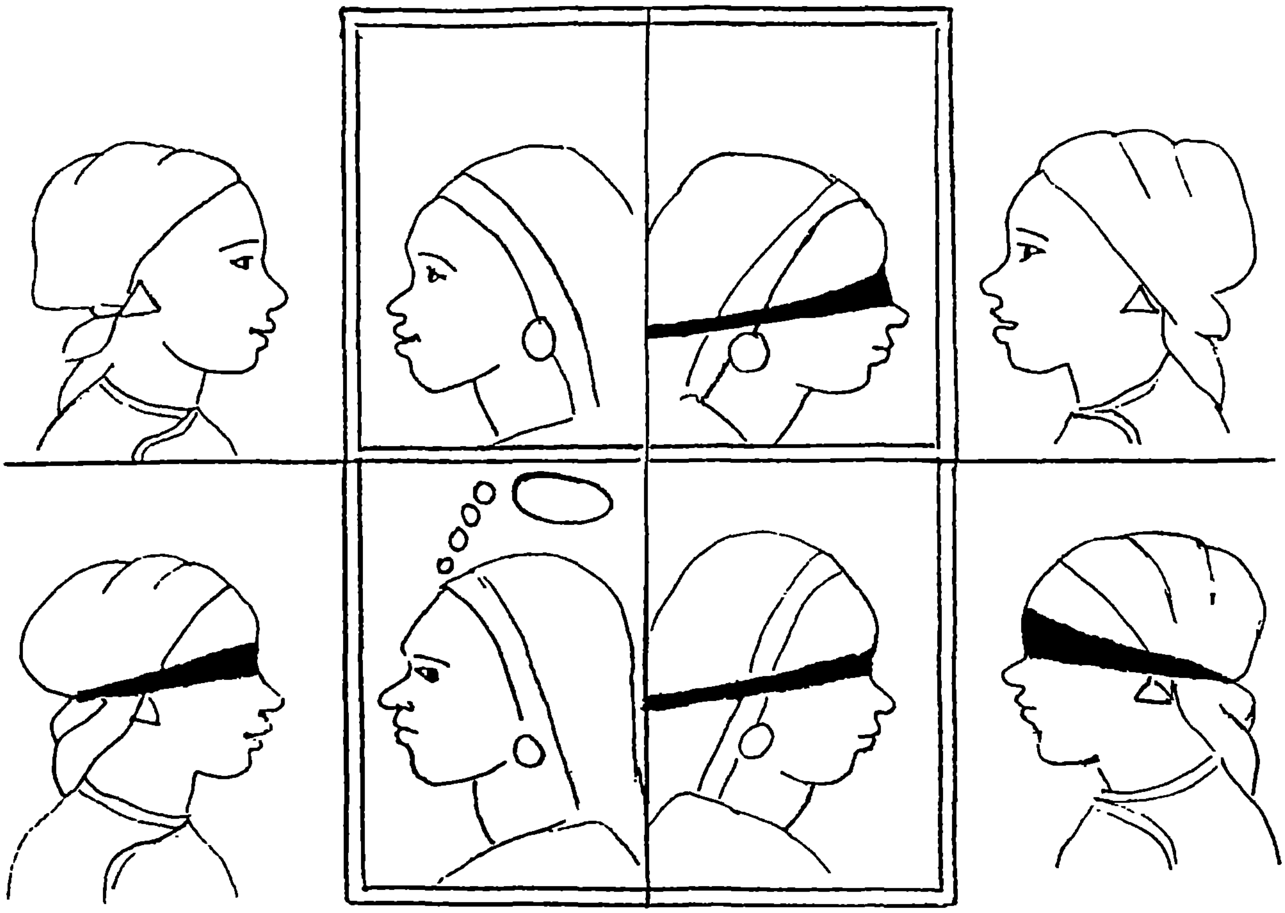
That this concept makes good sense to the participants is evident from the fact that once understood, they constantly refer to it. One team in Zimbabwe actually adopted it for use in their field work to sensitise the commercial farmer on the need to establish dialogue with his farm workers. In the attached adaptation, (fig. 3) the team also decided to exchange the places of Windows 1 and 4 so as to lead to a positive conclusion.

PROCEDURES:

- Post a large Johari's Window (adapted) on the wall. Place the four labels on one side, in mixed up order: BLIND, UNKNOWN, OPEN, HIDDEN.
- Give a brief explanation of the model as in Fig. 2. (Do not identify which label goes with which Window.)
- Start with the explanation of the "Blind" Window, then the "Unknown", then the "Open" and last the "Hidden". Use minimum words as in the Note under Fig.2. Speak slowly so that participants can study the four Windows as you speak.
- After explaining all four labels, invite a volunteer to come up and place the four labels on the windows. Check if all agree with the way they have been placed. If there is controversy over Windows 2 and 3, let all views be aired and then say why Window 2 is labelled "Blind" and Window 3 "Hidden".
- Invite discussion of the relevance of Johari's window to extension workers contacts with villagers.
- *Time permitting, invite participants to role play the Windows.*

OPEN - Both parties know each other at least superficially and the relationship seems friendly.

BLIND - The outsider (extension agent) can see problems and their solutions clearly but the insider (villager) does not see them at all.



HIDDEN - The insider (villager) has certain feelings, beliefs, values, fears, etc. which only insiders are aware of. They are hidden from outsider's view.

UNKNOWN - Neither party knows the other well. They may however get to know each other better in the future in the course of working together over a period of time.

LEADING A DISCUSSION

TIME: 2 hrs.

"We were almost at midpoint in a three-week workshop. Realizing that conducting a lively discussion—one in which everyone becomes involved —is an important tool of the trainer's trade, we suggested a session on 'discussion techniques,' followed by actual practice in leading a small-group discussion."

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

4" x 5" index cards or paper slips, each with a lively discussion topic written on it

Blackboard and chalk

or

Newsprint and felt pens

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Explain in your own words, using newsprint to note major points, that a lively discussion, where ideas and opinions are exchanged, is always a way of learning from others. A discussion helps:

- people to talk about and consider new ideas
- the group to work together in finding solutions
- the discussion leader to learn the ideas and feelings of others

STEP 2–Ask the participants, "What is the role of the discussion leader?" Encourage discussion about the question and write the responses on the blackboard or newsprint.

Note: Help your group to discover for themselves that a discussion leader *guides* the discussion and *keeps it going* by knowing the subject well, through quiet encouragement, and without forcing opinions on the group. The discussion leader helps the group to look at the problem posed, discuss its causes and possible solutions, and consider ways of selecting and bringing about the best solution.

STEP 3–Distribute the discussion topic (see materials), or let trainees select another topic of particular personal interest.

STEP 4–Divide the large group into subgroups of five or six persons, and call for a volunteer in each group to be the first to lead a five- or six-minute discussion of the topics that were distributed. (Each subgroup member should have a turn at being the discussion leader.)

STEP 5–Return to the large-group format and once again ask, "What is the role of a discussion leader?" (Help them in their search for answers that best apply to their own experience.) Allowing am-

ple time for answers, ask the following questions:

- What kind of behavior on the part of the discussion leader motivates active participation?
- What should the discussion leader do if:

  members of the group have conflicting views?

  sensitive issues are raised?
- How can the discussion leader:

  encourage quiet people to participate?

  keep one person from talking too often?

  build questions based on responses?

  keep discussion focused on the topic?

Note: If participants do not bring up the following important points, you may wish to suggest them yourself: a discussion leader should avoid doing all the talking, should ask questions, should introduce new ideas if discussion stops, lags, or begins to repeat itself. If two or more members begin to argue, the leader might quickly direct a question to an uninvolved member of the group, or introduce a new idea. The leader should acknowledge differing viewpoints and introduce facts that help to clarify them. The leader should be alert to sensitive issues. If discussion of the issue seems inappropriate at the time, the leader might say, "If anyone is interested, this can be discussed after the meeting."

STEP 6–Summarize by reviewing the role of a discussion leader.

WHAT HAPPENED

We had tried to write provocative statements as suggested discussion topics on the slips that each group received. (Examples: "Sickness is a form of punishment." "Nobody ever learns from experience." "Women must always obey their husbands.") About half the group used these topics and the rest supplied their own. People spent a lot of time in the reporting session describing their own difficulties on other occasions in keeping a group on the topic. They felt it was easier in this practice session than it would be working with unknown people in a "real" situation. A lot of uneasiness about the method surfaced. We had to get into the whole issue of the value of nonformal education and learner-centered approaches again. The exercise served as a means of facing things that were bothering the group and it was followed by actual practice in leading a discussion.

LISTENING

L I S T E N I N G IS NOT ONLY:

'PASSIVE' - HEARING
- ACTING LIKE AN 'INFORMATION PROCESSING SYSTEM'; INPUT AND STORAGE OF INFORMATION
- WAIT AND SEE (HEAR) ATTITUDE.

'ACTIVE' - HEARING WHAT WE THINK OR WANT TO HEAR
- MAKING OUR INTERPRETATION OF WHAT THE OTHER HAS SAID
- DRAWING-MOSTLY TOO QUICKLY- OUR OWN CONCLUSIONS
- JUDGING OR CRITICIZING TOO QUICKLY
- EXAGGERATING
- TAKING THE POSITION OF ASSUMING YOU ALREADY KNOW WHAT THE OTHER IS GOING TO SAY.

L I S T E N I N G IS MORE:

- HEARING WHAT THE OTHER SAYS
- OBSERVING AND NOTICING NON-VERBAL CUES
- BEING SENSITIVE TO CONTEXTUAL CUES
- GIVING ATTENTION TO THE OTHER
- HAVING SOME EMPATHY, THAT IS, TRYING TO SEE THE OTHER'S POINT OF VIEW
- "TALK WITH THE OTHER"

⟶ BE ACTIVE

BEING AN ACTIVE LISTENER MEANS FOR INSTANCE:

- SAYING: YES, YES, HMM....HMM, OH...AH ETC.
- REACTING NON-VERBALLY: NODDING
- HAVING EYE CONTACT
- ASKING QUESTIONS
- SUPPLYING A WORD HERE AND THERE
- NOW AND THEN SUMMARISE HIS STORY IN YOUR OWN WORDS TO CHECK IF YOUR UNDERSTANDING IS CORRECT
- DURING THE CONVERSATION DO NOT DO OTHER THINGS
- SIT IN A RECEPTIVE MANNER
  AN ACTIVE WAY - 

'LISTENING OR GIVING SOMEONE ATTENTION IS LIKE A MEANS OF PAYMENT: IT GIVES GREDIT'

EVEN IF YOUR OPINION DIFFERS, THE OTHER WILL SAY 'WELL, HE DID LISTEN TO ME.' AND HE WILL RECIPROCATE BY LISTENING TO YOU.

THREE SHORT INPUTS ON LISTENING

The following inputs can be given on listening techniques. It would also be useful to ask the group to discuss in 3's and then brainstorm on one of the following before giving the input:

— objectives in listening,
— do's and don'ts of listening,
— responses to encourage — further talking
— restatement
— deeper reflection
— summarizing
— decision-making

Objectives in Listening in any Helping Relationship

The objectives when we listen to people are both basic and simple.

1. We want people to talk freely and frankly.
2. We want them to cover matters and problems that are important to them.
3. We want them to furnish as much information as they can.
4. We want them to get greater insight and understanding of their problem as they talk it out.
5. We want them to try to see the causes and reasons for their problems and to figure out what can be done about them.

Some Do's and Don't s of Listening

In listening we should try to **do** the following:

a. Show interest.
b. Be understanding of the other person.
c. Express empathy.
d. Single out the problem if there is one.
e. Listen for causes of the problem.
f. Help the speaker associate the problem with the cause.
g. Encourage the speaker to develop competence and motivation to solve his or her own problems.
h. Cultivate the ability to be silent when silence is needed.

In listening, **do not** do the following:

a. Argue.
b. Interrupt.
c. Pass judgment too quickly or in advance.
d. Give advice unless it is requested by the other.
e. Jump to conclusions.
f. Let the speaker's emotions react too directly on your own.

LISTENING TECHNIQUES

Types	Purpose	Possible Responses
1. *Clarifying*	1. To get at additional facts. 2. To help the person explore all sides of a problem.	1. 'Can you clarify this?' 2. 'Do you mean this?' 3. 'Is this the problem as you see it now?
2. *Restatement*	1. To check our meaning and interpretation with the other. 2. To show you are listening and that you understand what the other has said.	1. 'As I understand it, your plan is. . .' 2. 'Is this what you have decided to do . . . and the reasons are. . .'
3. *Neutral*	1. To convey that you are interested and listening. 2. To encourage the person to continue talking.	1. 'I see.' 2. 'I understand.' 3. 'That is a good point.'
4. *Reflective*	1. To show that you understand how the other feels about what (s)he is saying. 2. To help the person to evaluate and temper his or her own feelings as expressed by someone else.	1. 'You feel that. . .' 2. 'It was shocking as you saw it.' 3. 'You felt you didn't get a fair hearing.'
5. *Summarising*	1. To bring all the discussion into focus in terms of a summary. 2. To serve as a spring board to discussion of new aspects of the problem.	1. 'These are the key ideas you have expressed. . . .' 2. 'If I understand how you feel about the situation. . . .'

Poster sequence

This is an example of how an active discussion among local people can be created. The local people are asked to express what they think the posters show. The agency worker does not give any leading questions, but asks open questions like:

What do you think...?

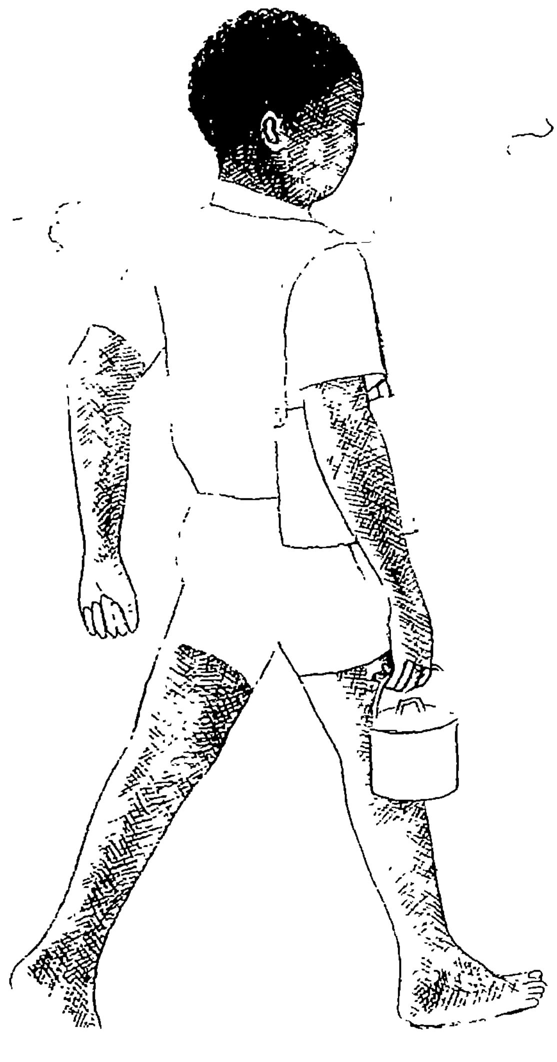
How has he...?

Can you tell more about...?

With these kind of questions the community members are stimulated to express their own ideas, perceptions etc.

1

2



3

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Issues: 1.4.1: non-verbal communication

Objective: To be made aware of how you interpret non-verbal behaviour.

Time: Preparation: 5 minutes
Performance: 15 minutes
Retrospect in twos: 10 minutes
Retrospect and evaluation in the entire group: 30 minutes
Total: $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours

Performance: Take a look at the drawing (initial situation in the group) Form a subgroup of two. Just write down for all figures in the drawing what they express by their non-verbal behaviour.
When everyone has given his/her own description of these figures, compare the results.
Then discuss findings in the entire group.

Retrospect: Is it difficult to interpret someone's non-verbal behaviour accurately.

Evaluation:
- What have you found out from this exercise?
- Has the exercise achieved its object?
- To what extent does your assessment of someone's non-verbal behaviour influence the further development of the communication process?
- What have you learned from this exercise?

Variant: Instead of a drawing, a fellow-member of the group can express a certain postural feeling by non-verbal means.
You could then examine together whether the impression you have obtained accords with the intention of the portrayer.

INITIAL SITUATIONS IN GROUPS

From: SOVA, Samen werken samen leren, Nelissen, Bloemendaal, 1978

WHAT HELPS ADULTS LEARN

What Helps Adults to Learn 1 1/2 hours

Objectives:

To understand why discussion and sharing of knowledge is important to learning.

To identify ways to encourage group discussion of ideas.

Activities:

1. Ask field workers to make notes about each point as as you explain it and it is discussed by the group.

   INTEREST: Adults learn most easily about things they are interested in.

   EXPERIENCE: Adults base many of their views and opinions on their own past experience.

   SEEING RELATIONSHIPS: Adults are more likely to try new practices when they see how they relate to improving their lives.

   PROBLEM-SOLVING: Adults have to solve problems every day of their lives. New ideas presented in the form of problems and questions enable people to use and develop these problems-solving skills.

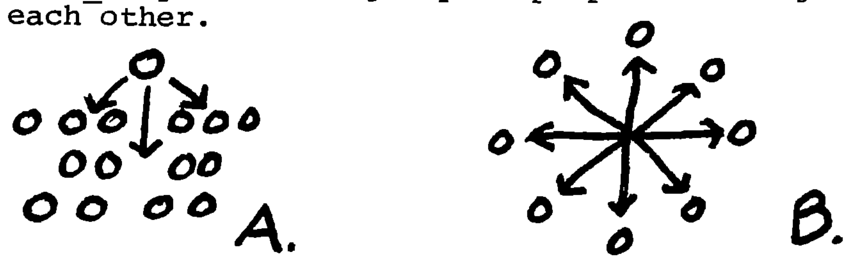
   DISCUSSION: Most adults like to discuss things. In discussion of problems, people have the chance to explore ways a problem might be solved and share their ideas with others. When people share information and ideas, new ways to solve problems often are discovered.

   ACTION: When people take action and find that new ways of doing things improve their lives, they gain confidence and become interested in learning more new things.

2. Summarize: Ask the participants how they feel about these points and discuss those that are unclear.

What helps Adults to Learn

3. Draw the following illustration on a chart. It represents two types of learning situations. A illustrates one person teaching the others, and B represents a group of people learning from each other.



Lead a large group discussion on the following questions:

- What is happening in illustration A? in B?
- Which represents a learning situation? Do they both?
- Which way is communication flowing in A? in B?
- Who is the teacher in A? Who is the teacher in B? Is everyone?
- Who is learning in A? Who is learning in B?
- When is A a good teaching technique? When is B a good teaching technique?

NOTE: Important points to bring out in the discussion:

A) Both A and B represent learning situations. A shows the more traditional setting with the learners focusing their attention on one person. In B everyone can more easily talk to and look at each other.

B) In A, communication tends to be more in one direction--from the teacher to the learner. In B, it is easier to encourage two-way communication among all learners with everyone having a better opportunity to participate.

C) In A the teacher is the main source of information. In B there is not only one person who teaches, but everyone both teaches and learns as participants in the group, sharing information and exchanging ideas among each other.

D) A may be appropriate for giving a talk to provide information or for a demonstration.
B may be appropriate for discussions, problem-solving, changing ideas, conducting a home visit, etc.

4. Post chart written as below:

WHAT ENCOURAGES ADULTS TO DISCUSS THINGS AND DISCOVER NEW IDEAS?

The answers:

FEELING COMFORTABLE

FEELING CONFIDENT

RECOGNIZING THEY HAVE THINGS TO LEARN AND THINGS TO TEACH OTHERS.

Discuss each point with participants and determine how they feel about the three statements. Help field workers to understand that in order to discuss important ideas, adults must recognize that they have knowledge and information to share with others; they must have the confidence to express their ideas; and they must know that their ideas will not be rejected. No single person can know everything, and everyone knows some things. Therefore, both the teacher and the learners will learn from each other as they try to resolve problems and answer questions.

5. Now ask the participants to look at the questions posted.

What can I do in a meeting to make villagers feel comfortable?

What can I do in a meeting to make villagers feel confident?

Divide the large group into smaller groups of 4 to 6 persons to work together to list responses to these questions.

6. Summarize: Ask the field workers to come back together after 20 minutes and report their lists to the whole group. Ask participants to each list answers to the questions in their notebooks, adding those things which they might not have included during their small group discussion.

7. Handout "What Helps Adults to Learn?"

8. Summarize session and review objectives to close.

Task: Posing questions

When agency and community are working together, the posing of questions is an important activity. It is a crucial means to collect information, to promote participation, to evaluate and assess, to monitor, etc. It may be useful for the agency staff to develop skills in posing appropriate questions, while dealing with community members.

Related questions which might come up

* Are we posing the right questions?
* Is this an appropraite way of asking in relation to the cultural situation?
* Is this a statement or a question?

TECHNIQUES

Cup exercise (group exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise helps participants see the difference between directive and non-directive approaches. The participants are asked to rank a set of cards with various questions. Through ranking and discussing the questions they understand the fine grading between the approaches.

How to ask questions (conceptual tool; Feuerstein 1986 and 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This tool gives suggestions on open questions to be used with pictures or posters. The questions give the participants the possibility to express their own ideas.

Stimulating questions (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This exercise is a step-by-step procedure to be used when participants have to develop skills on posing open, closed and redirected questions.

CUP EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

To help participants clearly see the difference between directive and non-directive approaches as well as become aware of the fine gradations of directiveness/non-directiveness in a set of tasks.

To introduce a tool which can serve as a yardstick for measuring the degree of control or freedom implicit in a variety of learning tasks.

This exercise provides a tool to understand the role of the trainer in adult learning and how the highly directive or highly open trainer can influence the behaviour of participants.

TIME: 15-20 minutes

MATERIALS:

Sets of seven cards, each of which has a picture of a cup but with different instructions to go with it in mixed up order, for example:

- Put some coffee in the cup.
- Fill the cup to the brim with hot coffee.
- Do what you like with the cup.
- Put some liquid in the cup.
- Fill the cup with hot coffee.
- Put something in the cup.

There should be enough sets of cards for participants to work in pairs or in small groups of three to four persons.

PROCEDURES:

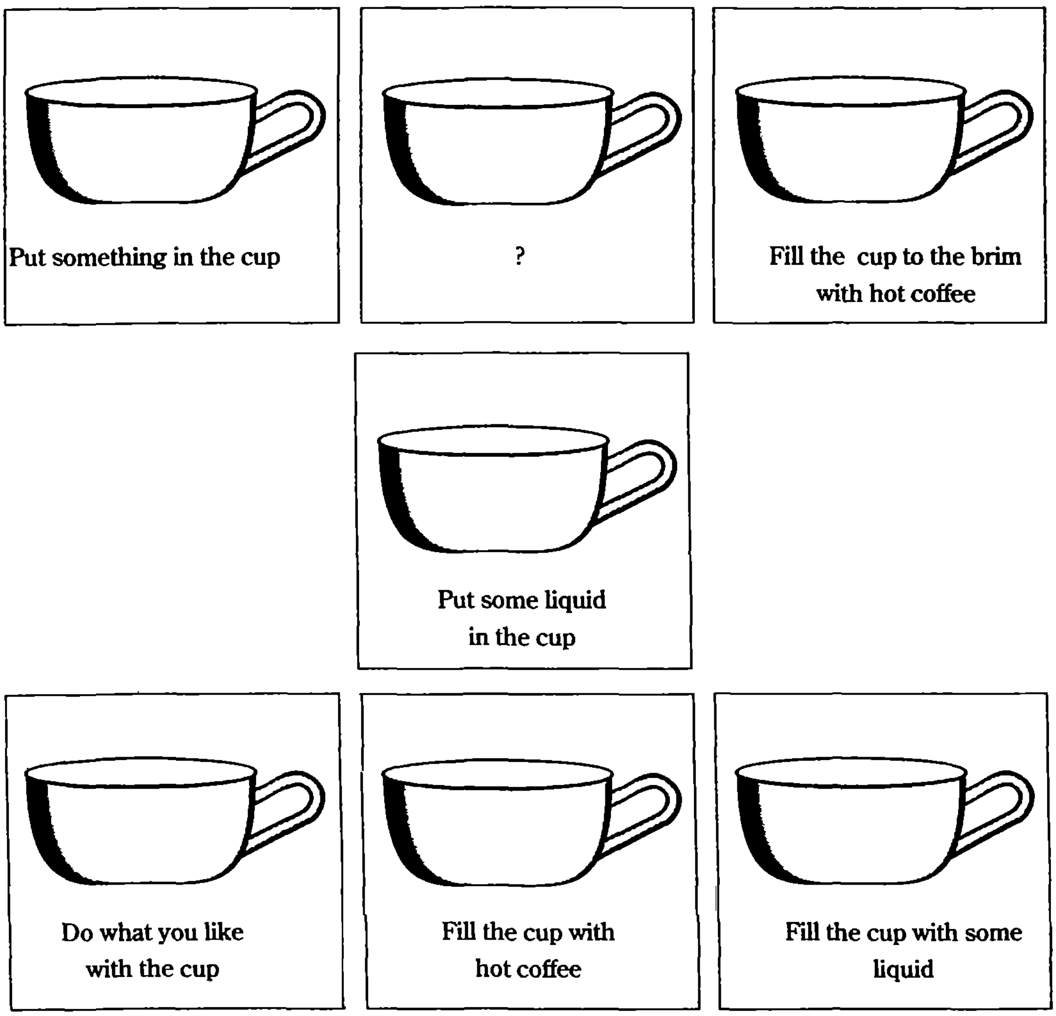
■ Invite the participants to arrange the cards in an order which indicates differences in degrees of directiveness or control starting with the most directive card on the left and ending with the most open on the right. The chances are that with minimal effort they will all get it right.

■ You may wish to ask them why it is that they all came up with the same answer. (The material was designed in such a way that there could only be one "right" answer.)

■ Encourage the group to comment on how the exercise can help them to understand the difference between didactic teaching materials and open-ended learning materials.

■ Invite them to consider at which points of this continuum they would place the workshop activities done that day, or the previous day.

The Cup Exercise



HOW TO ASK QUESTIONS

General guidelines to asking questions

1 **Do not begin with difficult/sensitive questions.** Put these near the end so that if the respondent decides not to answer these, you do not lose his/her willingness to answer earlier questions.

2 **Do not make respondents feel they ought to know the answers.** Help them by saying "perhaps you have not had time to give this matter much thought?" Maybe they can find the answer later.

3 **Respondents may not have the answer.** Even though they would like to co-operate, respondents may not have the answer. Perhaps they just do not know, cannot remember, cannot express the answer well in words, have no strong opinion, or are unfamiliar with answering questions. Also, they may even be unreliable or untruthful.

4 **Decide carefully whether you should avoid emotional or sensitive words.** Using words like 'greedy', 'oppressed' or 'immoral' may seem to imply a judgement. Such words can cause bias in the answers. Respondents may be reluctant or nervous to give answers. However, if you are looking for truthful answers you may need to use such words.

5 **Avoid making assumptions.** Do not ask questions like "How many grades did you complete in primary school?" Perhaps the respondent had no chance to go to school.

6 **Do not use confusing questions.** Avoid asking questions like "would you prefer your child not to be vaccinated?" Keep it simple and positive. Ask "do you wish your child to be vaccinated?"

7 **Different ways of asking the same question.** These may be needed by the interviewer in order to be able to adapt the questions to different respondents.

8 **Use both direct and indirect questioning.** For example, asking a parent about an older child's health is not the same as asking the child about his/her own health. Older children can often provide important answers, but it is necessary to get their parent's or guardian's permission first, before questioning them.

The care with which you plan and design your questionnaire will influence the quality of the information you obtain.

Different types of questions elicit different kind of information

Closed Questions

All questions that can be answered fully by "yes" or "no" are closed questions Many questions on questionnaires are closed questions Here are some examples.

- Do you have a latrine?
- Are you married?
- Were any of your children sick with diarrhea yesterday?

Open-Ended Questions

Open-ended questions are questions to which you hope people will give more information than just yes or no. Usua these questions begin with question words such as "what, when, where, how", etc ou are looking for opinions bout a topic o for some detailed information. Here are me examples of open-ende questions

- What kind of latrine would you like to have?
- How could the health committee do a better job?
- When your child had diarrhea, what did you do to make him better?
- What did you like about the film you just saw?

As you can see, open ended questions cannot be answered by "yes" or "no " These questions ask people to share their views or reasons for doing something Unfortunately, people are not always willing to give you a lot of information when first asked. Someone could answer the four questions listed above with short answers that do not give you as much information as you would like, such as:

- A nice one
- They could do more things
- Gave him some medicine
- It was interesting.

When people do not give you as much information as you are looking for, you can ask a follow-up question.

Follow-Up Questions

Follow-up questions are designed to get more information by asking for further details or more explanations Using the above examples, some follow-up questions might be

- What kind of latrine would you like?
  A nice one
- Could you perhaps describe for me what makes a latrine nice for you?
- How could the health committee do a better job?

  They could do more things.

  Could you perhaps tell me what kinds of things you would like to see them do?
- When your child had diarrhea, what did you do to make him better?

  I gave him some medicine.

  Do you happen to remember what the name of the medicine was?
- What did you like about the film you just saw?

  It was interesting?

Before asking questions, you need to know what information you are trying to gather so that you can continue to ask follow-up questions until you have the information you need It is important to learn how to pose follow-up questions in such a way that the person does not get annoyed and stop answering you questions before you have the information you need. Always remember, you are the person that needs the interview to be a success, not the person being questioned.

Planning Questions to Start Discussion

The discussion starts with the picture. Give everyone plenty of time to look at it and think about it. With your first question, find out what everyone sees in the picture, what it reminds them of, what they think it depicts. You can begin by asking questions like:

- What do you see here?
- What are the people doing?
- What do you think happened just before the picture was taken?
- What is going to happen next?

When everyone has described what they see, encourage people to give more personal reactions:

- How do you feel when you look at this picture?
- How do you think these people feel?
- How would you like to be in this situation?
- Did anything like this ever happen to you?

By the time you turn to the story, the group should have become emotionally involved in the situation presented in the photo and curious to read the story. Have everyone read the story, together or individually. Or maybe you will decide to read the story aloud.

Ask the group to retell the story in their own words or to act it out. Ask general comprehension questions first:

- What is happening?
- What happens first?
- Where does the story take place?
- Who is involved?
- How are the characters related?
- What happens at the end of the story?

Then move on to the questions that draw on the students' own experiences:

- What are these people like?
- What do you think of them?
- What problems do they face?
- What do you think caused these problems?
- What should the people do about them?
- Have you ever had problems like theirs?

You will think of plenty of questions as you go along. Let the session develop as your students indicate. Don't be afraid of letting them go in unexpected directions. Planning should help you, not limit you.

STIMULATING QUESTIONS

"Almost any technique–pictures, games, problem dramas, etc.–is only as effective as the questions and discussions that occur along with it. That is why, before giving our group a chance to experience these techniques, we introduced this activity. We wanted to give the group concrete experience with the way different types of questions can be used to help people express their ideas and become interested and involved."

SETTING

A quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pens

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Explain to participants, in your own words, that a good facilitator or group leader makes the learners feel relaxed and happy to be at the group meeting. The leader welcomes each person, asks about their children, and talks about local events while waiting for others to arrive. After showing pictures, or at the end of a problem drama or game, questions can help group members think about important points and talk about their ideas. Different kinds of questions have different purposes. A good mix will usually lead to a good group discussion. Three kinds of questions will be considered: *closed* questions, *open* questions, and *redirected* questions.

STEP 2–Write the three kinds of questions on the newsprint or blackboard as headings, allowing space under each for sample questions to be written in later.

Note: A *closed* question calls for a brief, exact reply. The advantages are that it can focus discussion on a specific point, can help the teacher or facilitator check whether or not the group understands the content and agrees with content ideas. If the participants do not agree–or do not know the correct answer–additional teaching of content must be planned. The disadvantage of a closed question is that it may limit discussion by discouraging expression of attitudes related to the topic.

An *open* question allows for several different, and often lengthy, answers. The advantage of an open question is that it stimulates thought and makes people want to give opinions. It is a good way of getting ideas out in the open for the group to discuss. An open question, however, may not work as a discussion starter with people who are not used to expressing their opinions freely in a group.

A *redirected* question focuses attention away from the teacher or facilitator and returns the responsibility of problem solving to the group. When the leader is asked a question it is sometimes a good idea to ask someone else in the group to answer it. A disadvantage of this technique is that the person to whom the leader redirects the question may not be prepared to answer it. Discomfort is a more likely result when the redirected question is also a *closed* one that demands a factual answer.

STEP 3–Write an example of a *closed* question under its heading, such as, "When should a mother start feeding her baby small amounts of soft porridge?"

Ask participants to discuss and define a *closed* question, and encourage them to suggest ways of handling reactions to it. Consider its advantages, disadvantages, and when it should be used.

Ask for examples of *closed* questions and add these to the list under your own example.

STEP 4–Write an example of an *open* question, such as, "What should a wife do about her mother-in-law's strong wish to have more grandchildren?"

Invite a trainee to lead the group in discussing the example. After a few minutes' discussion about the example ask for other examples of an *open* question and add these to the list.

STEP 5–Write an example of a *redirected* question, such as, "Mrs. Shinn says her whole family drinks water from the stream without getting sick. She is asking why she must boil the stream water for her baby. That's a good question. What do you think, Mrs. Lee?" Continue as in Steps 3 and 4.

WHAT HAPPENED

After some initial difficulty with the difference between open and closed questions the participants became intrigued by the idea and a lively competition in question posing ensued.

Task: Interpreting messages

Human communication is a continuous process of interpreting messages. It is therefore important to be aware of the subjective component of communication. Due to the fact that individuals' backgrounds, attitudes and beliefs differ, humans interpret things differently.

Related questions which might come up

* How to stimulate awareness about interpretation of messages?
* How does the agency interpret statements of the community members and vice versa?

TECHNIQUES

Broken phone (exercise; 1993, Espejo)
This group exercise shows limitations and difficulties of communication between or among people. A story is verbally passed on from one participant to another in a group. The observers will realize that the original story changes completely while going from mouth to mouth.

Differences in visual perceptions (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This exercise shows a set of pictures. Though the pictures are recognizable, the participants recognise them differently. The exercise aims to explain the difference in visual perception; that what one sees is influenced by how it is interpreted.
The participants are presented with a poster showing various objects. The participants are asked what they see on the poster and if think villagers will recognise these objects. When the participants have said what they saw on the posters, they will be told how the villagers interpreted them.

Old woman, young woman (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This is a step-by-step exercise showing differences of visual perception within a group. The participants are shown a picture which can be perceived in two totally different ways, depending on what one associates with the picture.

BROKEN PHONE

Objective

To show the limitations and difficulties of communication among people.

Use

This exercise creates a lively atmosphere and can be used at agency as well as at community level.

Implementation.

1. The facilitator prepares a story in accordance to the characteristics of the group. For example:

   "One of the serious problems of the "Junta" is that they fall in a political game from which it is very difficult to escape. A possible solution will be to include men and women that are well respected in the community, who can take turns/shifts each year and can also handle accounts".

2. If the group is big the facilitator selects ten participants and ask them to leave the room. The remaining group will be the observers.

3. Let the participants return to the room one by one. Tell the story(slowly) to the first participant, then s/he will tell the story to the next participant and so on.... When a participant has passed on the story, s/he also becomes an observer.

4. The facilitator should check how messages were transferred from person to person and also how the messages were distorted.

5. Discuss the results with the group, including how this exercise relates to daily work. Finally, get the group's own concept of communication.

TIME: 45 minutes

DIFFERENCES IN VISUAL PERCEPTION

It was the first training session on designing materials. The trainer thought it important at this early stage to remind the group of the importance of selecting pictures that are culturally relevant and visually clear, depicting persons, places, and things that are sufficiently familiar to villagers. She hoped that this activity would help the group select effective materials from the outset and would reduce the need for revisions after field-testing.

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

One copy of both picture pages (Figures 1 and 2 on pages 91 and 92) for each participant

Note: Make copies of drawings included with this activity. Figure 1 shows drawings of a variety of common objects. Figure 2 is a duplicate of Figure 1 but includes percentages of adult illiterates who correctly identified the objects.

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Distribute Figure 1 and engage participants in discussion.

- Ask participants if they think adult illiterates would have difficulty in identifying any of these objects. If so, which ones?
- Ask them to guess what might be the interpretations of the difficult objects.

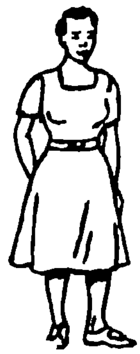
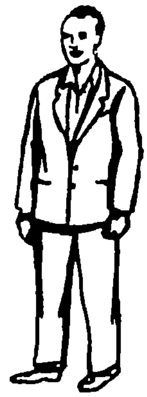
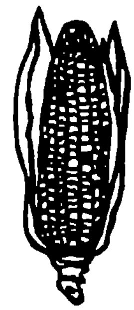
STEP 2–Distribute Figure 2. Ask the participants to review the percentages and then discuss their findings.

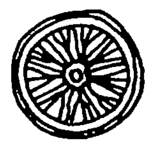
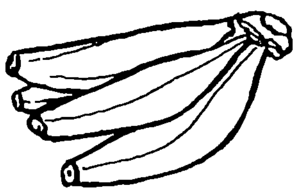
WHAT HAPPENED

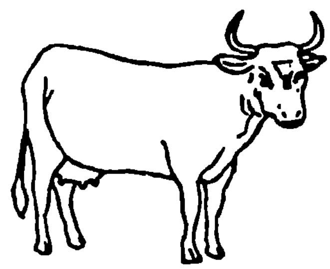
After studying the drawings, the group decided that only the bananas and the wheel would be difficult. They were surprised to learn that the results of the study indicated that even the most common objects, like the cow, were difficult for some illiterates to identify, and that not even *one* object was identified correctly by everyone.

Participants concluded that line drawings had to be well planned and very clearly drawn to communicate anything, but that even so, the interpretation of line drawings is in itself an acquired rather than an innate skill. Their observation concurs with the study done by Fuglesang among African illiterates, in which outline drawings were ranked lowest in preference among four types of pictorial techniques tested. The trainees agreed to remind themselves constantly of such differences in perception when they designed graphic materials for rural people.

Note: When World Education tested this exercise in Latin America, participants found it hard to believe that their own clients would have such problems in perception. Our consultant had to produce evidence that rural people in Latin America, subjected to a similar test by Oscar Viganó, had also failed to recognize simple drawings. But this group of educators and family planning specialists were still dubious. So finally the trainer produced this activity: He wrote the sentence "Latinoamérica y su su primavera" on a large triangular piece of cardboard and showed it to the group. After allowing time for them to look at it, he asked them what they saw, and what the sentence said. They described the card in detail–its shape and color–and read the sentence, "Latinoamérica y su primavera." Then the trainer showed them the card again and pointed out the error: that the word "su" was written twice. The group agreed that they had seen what they expected to see and hadn't noticed the error at all. They admitted that it would be even harder for learners with whom they worked to identify visual images correctly.

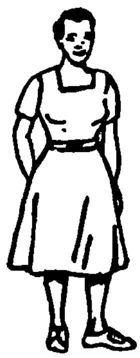





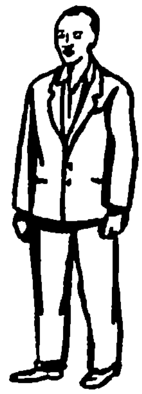


LATINOAMERICA Y SU SU PRIMAVERA

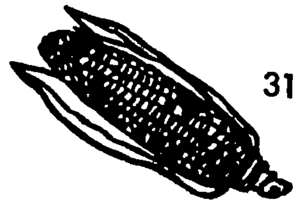
Percentages refer to correct responses of illiterate rural adults in field tests with groups ranging from 162 to 793 people.



98%



98%

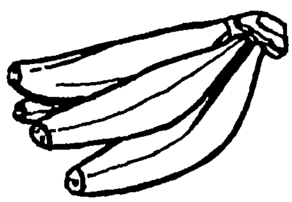


31%

Misconceptions: tortoise, crocodile, pineapple, bird, fish, mosquito, man

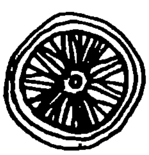
75%

32%



Misconceptions: fingers, palm, bird, flowers, tree, man

69%

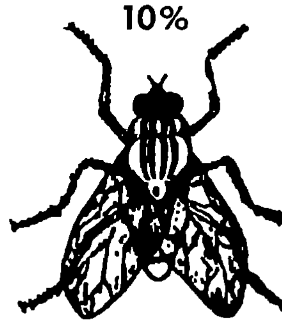


11%

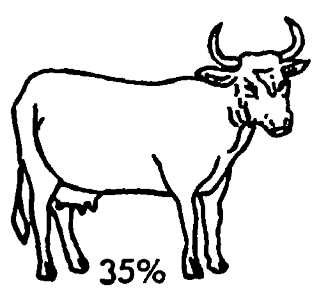
Misconceptions: watch, moon, umbrella, bowl, star

48%

10%



Misconceptions: butterfly, bee, locust, spider, mosquito, grasshopper, cockroach, crab



35%

OLD WOMAN, YOUNG WOMAN

TIME: 1 hr.

On the second day of a three-day workshop to help facilitators improve their skills, the trainer wanted the group to experience how people may perceive the same thing differently. He also wanted them to examine how the immediate environment can affect an individual's perception.

SETTING

Any space large enough for two groups to have a discussion without disturbing each other (preferably two rooms)

MATERIALS

Discussion guides: "Young Women's Fashions" (for half the group)
"Old People's Homes" (for the other half)

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pens

Copies of one of the drawings on page 87 (at least one for each group—use whichever seems more appropriate)

Pencils and paper

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Divide participants into two groups of six and eight people each. Give discussion guides—"Young Women's Fashions" and "Old People's Homes"—to different groups and ask the groups to discuss their topic for 10 minutes. During the discussions, move from group to group, answering any questions.

STEP 2–After about 10 minutes, stop the discussion and ask participants to listen to your directions: "The next part of the exercise should be done in silence. I'm going to give each of you a drawing—look at it and write a brief description of the subject you see." Distribute the drawing to participants and ask them to complete their description in five minutes.

STEP 3–After five minutes tabulate group members' perception of the drawing according to the subject they describe. (Use this chart, reproducing it on the blackboard or newsprint.)

TABULATION CHART

SUBJECT OF PICTURE	GROUP A	GROUP B
Young Woman		
Old Woman		
Other		

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR GROUP A

Young Women's Fashions

It is often said that today's young woman is not fashion conscious; she prefers dirty blue jeans and scruffy men's shirts to furs and silk scarves. What does your group think about this statement? Discuss the issue quietly among yourselves.

DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR GROUP B

Old People's Homes

It is sometimes said that old people's homes are sad places, for all elderly people need the company of their families and grandchildren, not only the company of the elderly people.

Put yourself in the place of an older person. Pretend your group is made up of residents of an old people's home. How do members of your group feel about their lives? Discuss this quietly among yourselves.

Task: Giving feed-back

As a general description feedback is a mechanism by which persons interacting or working together, find out if they have understood each other. Naturally through feedback, communication can be strengthened. It is of importance to know that feedback can be given on two levels: on the content level, namely what someone said and on how someone said something. This mechanism is not meant to be done as a criticism of what other do or say, but to contribute with a genuine intention of improving the communication. (1990, Graver & Meyer).

Related questions which might come up

* How can the group members find out if they have understood each other?
* How can it be avoided that people feel offended when someone expresses what they think about their behaviour?

TECHNIQUES

Different kinds of feedback (conceptual tool; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This tool explains various kind of feedback: personal, indirect and direct feed-back. Suggestions are also given on how to give and receive feedback in an effective way.

Johari's window (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This activity facilitates communication between field workers and community members, through creating greater awareness about degrees of inter-personal communication. The activity shows agency staff four different relationships between agency staff and community members, which all influence communication. (The exercise can be found in the task "Facilitating group discussion")

Prepare people for feedback (exercise, 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This exercise helps people become more aware of their own behaviour in groups, and understand various types of behaviours in others. Recognizing such differences can help a group and prepare people for feedback later. Some types of behaviours, such as task-centred, emotional etc, are written on papers and stuck to a wall. The participants are asked to go and stand next to the paper which best describes their behaviour in the group. Afterwards discussions are held about what is helpful and what is not helpful about the kinds of behaviours in groups.

Unhelpful behaviour in groups (exercise; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This is a tool for participants to give feedback on each other's interaction in a group. The exercise should preferably be used when the group members have been together for some time and they have experienced stress in the group. The participants are presented with pictures of animals and descriptions of their characters are presented to the participants. The animals' characters symbolize, expressions of human behaviour while being stressed. Each participant is asked to choose one animal, which s/he thinks matches her/his stressful group behaviour. Afterwards the participants discuss their own and the others way of reacting to stress.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF FEED-BACK

1. Personal Feedback

Personal feedback means receiving information on how other people have reacted to one's own behaviour in a particular situation. It is very important for animators to know honestly how people have reacted to their behaviour, styles of leadership, and to the programs which they have organised. Only then can they know whether any changes or improvements are necessary. Far too often leaders continue organising certain programs, acting in certain ways, and no one ever tells them that people are not interested, or are 'put off' by some of the things they do.

2. Indirect Feedback

If we are sensitive we can pick up a great deal of indirect feedback through observation.

- Do people begin to look out of the window or get a glassy stare in their eyes after we have been speaking for some time?
- Do people quietly drop out of our meetings, classes, clubs or churches?
- Do groups actually carry out the plans we make with them?

However, if we rely on indirect feedback we may mis-interpret what we observe. (Maybe someone with a glassy stare has actually got a stomach ache!) We are much better off if we can ask people directly for their reactions and receive an honest reply, although sometimes people will fear to say exactly what they thought and felt if it was somewhat negative.

3. Direct Feedback

The purpose of personal feedback is to improve a person's performance and build up their self-confidence. It is **totally unhelpful** just to cut a person down and destroy their self-confidence.

If it is well given and well received, feedback supports and encourages the helpful aspects of a person's behaviour and gives them an opportunity to change those aspects which are not helpful.

Direct and indirect personal feedback is different in different cultures. If we agree that improvement of one's work with people is essential, then the following exercises and inputs need to be adapted to each local culture.

> **One camel does not make fun of the other camel's hump**
>
> — Guinean proverb

4. Points to Remember and Giving Feedback

a. We can only give feedback helpfully to a person if they know that we accept and appreciate them as a person.

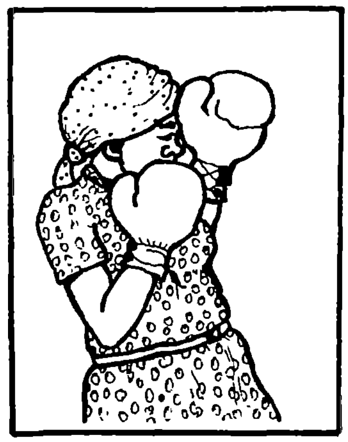
b. It is important that an atmosphere of trust and mutual appreciation be established when feedback is given. This can only exist if we give genuine, positive as well as negative feedback.

c. Feedback should only be given if the person wants to know how others see him/her and has asked for feedback. It should be offered, not forced upon a person.
d. Feedback should deal with what a person **did**, their behaviour, not their motivation.
e. It is often best if we can present negative feedback as our own problem, a sharing of our personal feelings when something happened. For example, 'I felt squashed and humiliated when you interrupted and brushed aside my suggestion just now,' not 'you always try to make people feel they have nothing to contribute.'
   (Only the person concerned really knows why they acted as they did.)
f. Each person should express only their own feelings and not assume that the whole group felt that way. Others can say so for themselves if they did.
g. Feedback should deal with things that can be changed. 'I would find it easier to listen if you made fewer points at one time.' Not 'Your accent drives me mad,' or 'I do not like the shape of your ears.'

Some points to remember in Receiving Feedback

1. We learn most from feedback if we listen carefully to the feelings expressed and
   a. do not try to defend our behaviour or
   b. give reasons about why we acted in a particular way.

   One cannot argue with feelings. If a person felt bored or irritated or humiliated, it is no good telling them that 'they ought not to have felt that way'. Each person is the 'expert' on their own feelings. Only by listening carefully to their analysis of what caused these feelings of boredom, irritation or humiliation, can an animator learn how to avoid boring, irritating or humiliating other people in the future.



2. A person receiving feedback always has the right to decide when (s)he has had enough for the time being. Just say, 'O.K. Thanks very much. I will think about all that, but I think it would be good to move on to someone or something else now.'
3. A person who receives negative feedback should remember that different people react differently to different behaviour. (S)he may like to check how others reacted to the same thing. If only one person reacted negatively, (s)he might decide to do nothing about it, but if the entire group felt the same way, (s)he might realise that it is important to try and change that behaviour.

Feedback plays an important role in team-building.

It helps ensure that everyone is able to make their best contribution, and helps to remove points of friction. It helps each person to know where (s)he stands and, if constructive suggestions are given, it soon builds solidarity and trust in the group.

He who cannot dance will say: "The drum is bad."

— Ashanti proverb

PREPARE PEOPLE FOR FEED-BACK

This exercise helps people become more aware of their own behaviour in groups, and understand various types of behaviour in others. Recognising such differences can help a group and prepare people for feedback later.

Procedure

a. Before you begin this exercise, have the following types of behaviour written on separate large pieces of paper:
   aggressive,
   thoughtful — quiet,
   task centred,
   emotional,
   rational (intellectual).

b. The animator explains that there are many kinds of behaviour in groups and this exercise helps us understand the effects of our own behaviour and that of others in a group.

c. (S)he explains that (s)he will put five pieces of paper around the room which describe five common kinds of behaviour. Each person is to consider these five kinds of behaviour and go and stand under the one that describes his or her usual behaviour in groups. They should not think too long about this, but move to the one that first strikes them as their most usual behaviour.

d. The animator puts up the 5 types of behaviour, acting each one out as (s)he explains it. They should be put on different walls of the room, as far apart as possible.

e. The animator then asks everyone to get up and go to the one which best describes themselves. If someone really cannot choose (which is unusual), they should sit in another place and talk with others who cannot choose.

f. Once people are standing under these signs, the animator asks them to form small groups of 3's to discuss:
   'What is helpful about this kind of behaviour in groups, and what is not helpful?'

g. After about 10 minutes, the animator asks the participants to form a large circle again but to sit together with those who chose the same type of behaviour under their own signs.

h. Each group then shares the helpful and not helpful sides of their own behaviour. There is usually much laughter but the animator needs to help the group not to defend their own behaviour and not to attack other's behaviour too much. In all the fun, help the group to recognise that we need all kinds of behaviour in a group to work well together.

Time About 45 minutes to 1 hour.

Materials The five types of behaviours written on 5 separate sheets of paper beforehand.

We all delight in hearing we have been helpful in a group, but it is hard to face ıonestly the fact that some of our behaviour has not been helpful. This exercise uses ıumour to make this easier.

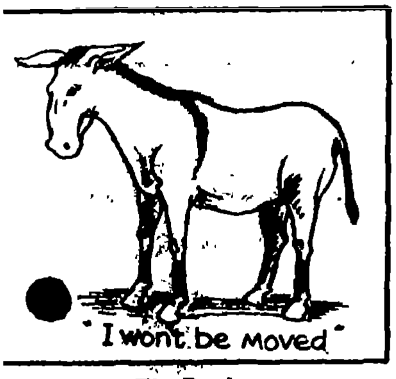
It should only be used after a group has been together for some time and when ıard work ın groups has broken down the first politeness, and participants have h( )ome of their characteristic reactions in time of stress.

UNHELPFUL BEHAVIOUR

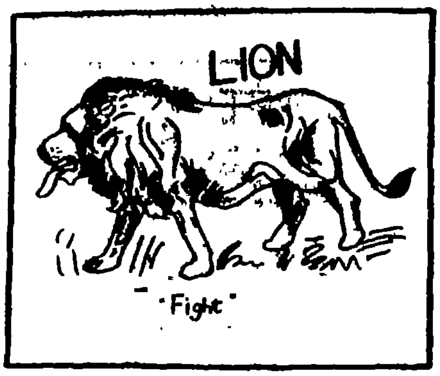
IN A GROUP

'rocedure

1. The animator explains that we need to look at the negative as well as the positive side if we are to improve our leadership skills. Animals show in a very clear way some kinds of human behaviour.
2. The animator(s) describe with actions, gestures and humour each type of behaviour, and then they put up a picture of the animal described.



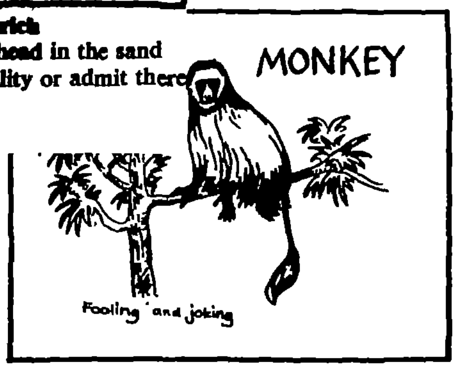
The Donkey
ho is very stubborn, will not change s/her point of view.



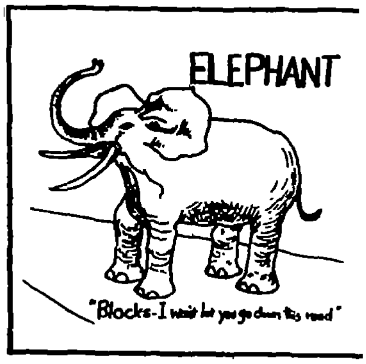
The Lion
who gets in and fights whenever others disagree with his/her plans or interfere with her or his desires.

The Rabbit
ho runs away as soon as (s)he senses nsion, conflict, or an unpleasant job. ıis may mean quickly switching to ıother topic. (Flight Behaviour)

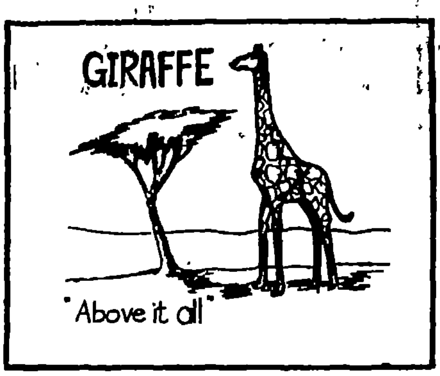
The Ostrich
who buries his or her head in the sand and refuses to face reality or admit there is any problem at all.



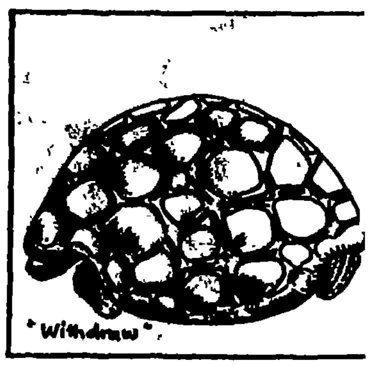
The Monkey
who fools around, chatters a lot and prevents the group from concentrating on any serious business.



The Elephant
who simply blocks the way, and stubbornly prevents the group fro continuing along the road to their desired goal.



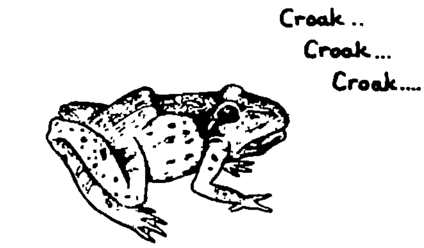
The Giraffe



The Tortoise

The Cat
who is always looking for sympathy. 'It is so difficult for me . . . miauw. . . .'

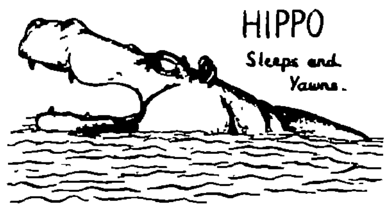
The Peacock
who is always showing off, competing for attention. 'See what a fine fellow I am!'



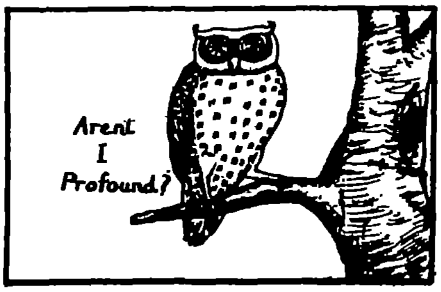
The Frog
who croaks on and on about the same subject in a monotonous voice.

The Snake
who hides in the grass and strikes unexpectedly.

The Rhino
who charges around 'putting her/his foot in it', and upsetting people unnecessarily.

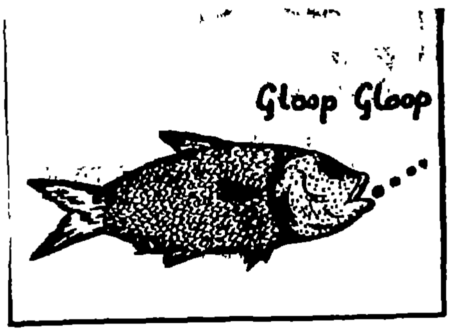


The Hippo
who sleeps all the time, and never pu up his head except to yawn.



The Owl
who looks very solemn and pretends to be very wise, always talking in long words and complicated sentences.

The Mouse
who is too timid to speak up on any subject.



The Fish
who sits there with a cold glassy stare, not responding to anyone or anything.

The Chameleon
who changes colour according to the people she is with. She'll say one thi to this group and something else to another.

3. After each animal has been explained and the pictures put up, the participants are asked to find a partner with whom they feel at home an discuss:
'If and when they have behaved like anyone of these animals during the workshop?'
4. Later these animals provide the group with a helpful vocabulary for givi feedback to one another. This should not be imposed upon people but o given if it is requested.

Time About 45 minutes.

Materials Pictures of animals.

Task: Collecting information

Agency and community need proper information in order to make appropriate plans, decisions, evaluations etc. Clear information about the nature of a problem makes it easier to choose priorities, solve problems and make decisions in general. It is essential that the information collected represents the reality of the communities. Below the techniques aim to strengthen the participatory collection of information.

Related questions which might come up

* Who collects the information? (agency, community or both)
* How can the collection of information be facilitated?
* How can the community members be included in the collection of information?

TECHNIQUES

Adapted version of Johari's window (exercise; 1992, IRC and 1992, Peace Corps)
Johari's window is an exercise to collect information from the agency as well as from the community. The exercise makes the agency aware that they need to include information, knowledge, etc. from the community members in order to get a full understanding of the project. Johari's window has been adapted in several ways, some of them have been presented in this document.

Bidding game (group discussion; 1992, IRC)
This group discussion is initiated by the agency staff, with the aim of getting to know what the community members are prepared to pay for water facilities. The facilitator asks various groups in the community how much they are prepared to pay for their water. The discussion includes a component of bidding, which stimulates the facilitator and the community members to find a price they all can agree upon.

Collecting information (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This is a session for the agency to collect information which represents the actual needs of the community members. The staff becomes aware of how their own perceptions influence the collection of material. Once the agency staff have collected information in a community, they are asked to explain why they found the information selected important for the villagers. In this way the agency staff can see whether their own perceptions have influenced the choice of information or if it is based on the villagers' priorities.

Documentation (conceptual tool; 1991, Mascarenhas)
In order to learn from project experiences happenings and situations need to be documented. This material indicates constraints and possible solutions to collect information on a regular basis.

Forms (form; 1988, Isely & Yohalem and 1992, Devi)
These simple forms help agency staff and community members to get an overview of situations related to water, environment and personal hygiene, as well as what is harmful/helpful and what possible actions can be taken in the project.

Learners as expert (exercise; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This is a step-by-step exercise which makes agency staff think about 'what to ask the villagers', in order to collect information for creating problem-solving material. The following step for the agency staff is to imagine, how the information can practically be obtained from the local people.

Village mapping (exercise; 1992, IRC & 1986, Feuerstein)
This exercise is effective for gathering information on existing facilities, for example to monitoring purposes. The villagers are asked to construct a map of their home environment including certain aspects, such as water supply, defecation areas, etc. The map making arouses a lot of interest and discussion among the community members. The advantage of mapping is that the information is not selected but comes straight from the people. It is a particularly useful tool, since it does not demand any special language skills.

ADAPTED VERSION OF JOHARI'S WINDOW

The objective with this technique is to make clear for agency people that, the local people have a lot of valuable information. The agency should become aware, about the necessity of involving the local people for an effective project development. The game is basically used in courses for project and agency people.

SETTING: A training session with community health workers.

TIME: 1-2 hours

PURPOSE: To help trainees to understand and appreciate the community's perceptions of its problems and resources.

PREPARATION: You will need a chalkboard and chalk, or several large sheets of paper and marking pens. Draw a window with 4 panes which are labeled: 1,2,3,4.

PROCEDURE: 1. Explain that the window has four panes through which one sees different types of information that must be considered in developing educational or community development programs.

2. Explain that each pane represents different information and viewpoints. As you explain each pane, ask trainees for examples from their field experiences. List the information in each pane.

Pane 1:

Obvious or easily available information: population, common illnesses, income, resources, etc. Information obtained through interviews and observations.

Pane 2:

Outsider's views, impressions, or knowledge that is unknown to or rejected by community members: ties with tradition, lack of education, judgement of health and nutrition practices, and perception of what community people "should do," etc. This information is based on outsiders' priorities and knowledge, and from their analysis of interviews and observations.

Pane 3

Views, impressions, aspirations, and beliefs of community members, which are difficult to discover because people often give the answer they think outsiders are looking for. Examples: villagers' beliefs; priorities; feelings about their community, about us, and the government; and their understanding of fate. This

information becomes known to the community worker by using activities such as flexi-flans, serialized posters, etc., described in Section B of this chapter

When all three windows are opened, one begins to understand the steps necessary to plan and carry out an appropriate program.

Pane 4:

Information initially unknown to all but acquired by the health worker and people in the process of working together. These insights can help increase people's motivation, confidence, and aspiration levels.

Helping trainees appreciate villagers's perceptions of their own problems and resources takes time, sensitive listening, and the building of trust.

"Johari's Window" is an excellent way of beginning to appreciate the importance of understanding and considering other people's perceptions. Often, community workers develop programs for the community using information from panes 1 and 2, but in order to involve the community members in the program it is crucial to have information from pane 3. this may be a factor in the success of a program since the community worker and members begin to understand each other, learn from each other and work together. This information helps the community worker in planning educational materials that reflect the community member's perceptions about health and nutrition problems. It also can be useful for planning projects with the people to help solve the problems that exist.

Johari's Window

1. Open Window — obvious information available to everybody [illegible] [illegible]ability [illegible] available type of soil skills available land use religion climate illnesses poverty line income activities political situation literacy infrastructure social structure institutions exp. in dev projects water sources	**3. Community's views, opinions, feelings and knowledge that agency might not know or share** water sources attitudes, practices behaviour envir. situation private property willingness to participate cultural taboos social organization power of leaders political exp. in dev. projects users' contribution priorities
2. Agency's views, judgements and knowledge that community might not know or share design/technology budget beneficiary contribution experience [illegible] needs [illegible] of beneficiary women (target groups) technical feasibility staff political financial capacity priorities	**4. Information acquired in the process of working together.**

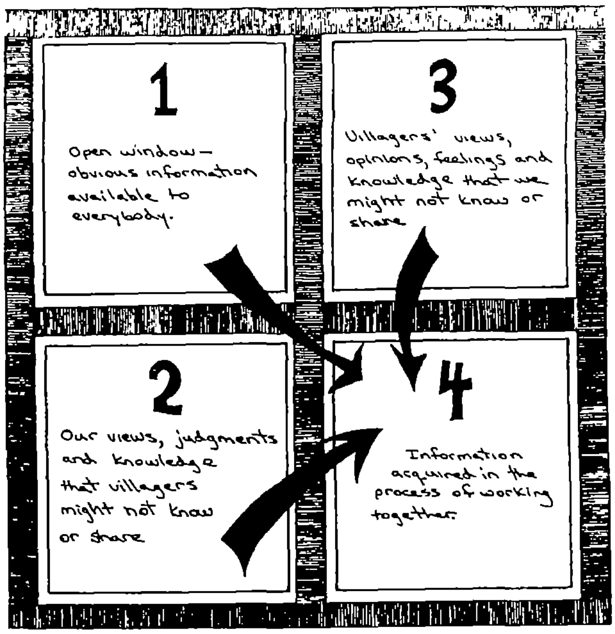


Table 1: Interaction Model for a community based strategy for improvement

1) OBJECTIVE INFORMATION Demographic data Religion Economic conditions Current development programmes Previous development programmes Existing infrastructure Existing sanitation facilities Inventory of sanitation risk factors and problems Types of sanitation related diseases prevalent Sanitation related services Environmental conditions Building materials available Technical skills available Formal organizational structure of the community Formal leadership and community groups Formal position of women	**2) COMMUNITY RESOURCES** Development priorities Attitude towards development programmes Attitude towards outside intervention Capacity for self-improvement Local management systems and capacity Financing mechanisms Underlying social structure Status of women Informal leadership Sanitation behaviour Local concept of sanitation related diseases Cultural and religious values Motivation and demand for sanitation Willingness to participate (time,labour, money) Preferences in sanitation design Experience with environmental conditions Skills available
3) AGENCY RESOURCES Technical skills and knowledge Sanitation technology options Upgrading options Project budget Availability of project staff Experience in sanitation improvement Health and hygiene knowledge Knowledge of organizational, technical, infrastructural requirements Knowledge of operation and maintenance requirements Information <u>needs</u> for monitoring and evaluation Human resources development skills Training and communication skills Communication with concerned government departments Awareness of political priorities	**4) RESULT OF INTERACTION** Identification of sanitation priorities and options Appropriate technical solutions Agreed project goals and objectives Agreed division of responsibilities and resource inputs Community based management for improvements Identification of target groups Cost recovery mechanisms Programme for hygiene education, promotion and mobilization Human resource development programme Project implementation plan Operation and maintenance system System for monitoring and evaluation

FACILITATOR SKILLS DEVELOPMENT FORM

Meeting/Date________________________

Directions. After each meeting, take a few minutes to complete this form. The, discuss your answers with your partner Give each other suggestions on how to do better in the areas you select. This quick and easy form will help you become an outstanding facilitator!

How did the participants react to the session? How did I feel about the session and why?	What did I do well?
What difficulties or problems occurred? Why?	What areas would I like to do better in next time? - arranging the meeting (chairs in a circle, places for small groups, etc.) - preparing supplies in advance. - giving a "mini-lecture" - using a particular audio-visual material - coordinating tasks with partner - guiding participants to discover answers, not giving them answers - other, specifically

From. Women working Together, OEF International, 1987

BIDDING GAME

This simple group discussion helps agency staff to find out what the community members are prepared to pay for water supply. The facilitator stimulates the discussion within the community, concerning various price rates of water, which make agency as well as community realise what an appropriate price might be.

1. The facilitator walks around in the community and discusses prices of water and sanitation facilities, with various community members. The facilitator asks what they currently pay for their and through suggesting other price levels, tries to find out how much they are prepared to may more. The community members answers back what they think and in this process a component of bidding develops.

2. The discussion is informal and simple, but still gives the facilitator an idea about the opinions of the people. Moreover the discussion initiates an internal discussion in the communities on the appropriateness of the water prices and if they could be changed.

(1992, IRC/Madeleine Wegelin-Schuringa)

COLLECTING INFORMATION

TIME: 45 minutes

"The group would be returning to the villages after they had gathered some initial data about villagers' needs. We wanted them to explore different ways of verifying the problems they had attributed to rural families as well as ways to determine if villagers would indeed be interested in trying to solve those problems. We introduced this activity to help the group members discover whether their perceptions of villagers' problems matched the villagers' own priorities, and if not, to work to establish an accurate list of those priorities."

ED CLARK

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pens
List of villagers' needs and problems gathered thus far

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Ask trainees to refer to their lists of villagers' needs and problems gathered thus far.

STEP 2–Ask how they can verify that these are indeed important problems and needs.

Have trainees, working alone, make a specific list or outline of how they will verify that this is a problem, when they return to the field.

STEP 3–After participants have had time to develop their lists or outlines, ask one or two to write their outlines on the blackboard or tell what they intend to do.

STEP 4–Ask the group to supply missing ideas, and have them added to the lists.

DOCUMENTATION

Documentation and information sharing is widely recognised as a major problem. Too little of the rich experience of field activities is being documented and shared. As James Mascarenhas put it during the workshop: "Much of what I have heard today is for the first time, even from within my own organisation". Participants divided into five groups to explore the following questions: what documents do you need? What would you use and why? What are the major constraints that stop you producing documentation? How can these be resolved? In what areas do you need help?

Types and Uses

The types of documentation include:

- Proceedings and books
- Reports of PRAs
- Reports for donors (each with a unique format)
- Slides
- Videos
- Posters
- Photographs
- Diagrams/Charts
- Newsletters
- Letters
- Full Reports
- Manuals/handbooks
- Users' Notes
- Case histories of successful PRAs

These will vary in their:

- Usefulness for trainers
- Emphasis on process and structure
- Accessibility to non-English speakers, especially field level workers, and illiterate people
- Realism
- Cost of production
- Quickness and ease of use
- Usefulness in the project process
- Usefulness at the grassroots level

- Accuracy and representativeness
- Value for research
- Documentation of new ideas and methods
- Usefulness in research
- Usefulness for networking

These different types of documents and their various qualities may be combined in a matrix so as to help decide the priorities (see Figure 3).

Types of documents → Relative qualities ↓	Photos Posters	Videos Slides	Outputs	Process Reports	Manuals	'How-to' notes	Full reports	Proceedings and books	Newsletters	Letters	Any other type
Usefulness for training											
Realism											
Accessible to educated/literate											
Accessible to all including villagers											
Good illustration of process											
Cost of production											
Ease with which it can be produced											
Quick and easy to use											
Usefulness at grass root level											
Useful for project cycle											
Accuracy											
Useful as reference material											
Usefulness in research											
Usefulness for networking											
Any other a. b.											

Figure 3. Documentation in PRA: Matrix of types of documents and 15 attributes.

Constraints to Documentation

- o Loss of details and distortion of proportions when transforming maps/models from the ground to paper (see Plates 1 and 2);
- o Maps and charts which stay in villages for continuous monitoring and updating must be copied for use elsewhere;
- o PRA forms only a part of participants' work;
- o Little access to other PRA materials;
- o Not knowing what quality levels are acceptable;
- o Writing is time-consuming;
- o Team work is required if the process is to be well documented;
- o Not having the writing skills;
- o Not having the skills to pull a report together;
- o Organisational culture and attitude may not be supportive;
- o Strict format for reporting to donors;
- o Documentation distracts from day to day needs of project implementation. Just that much may be recorded that is necessary, and the rest put aside 'to be written up later'.

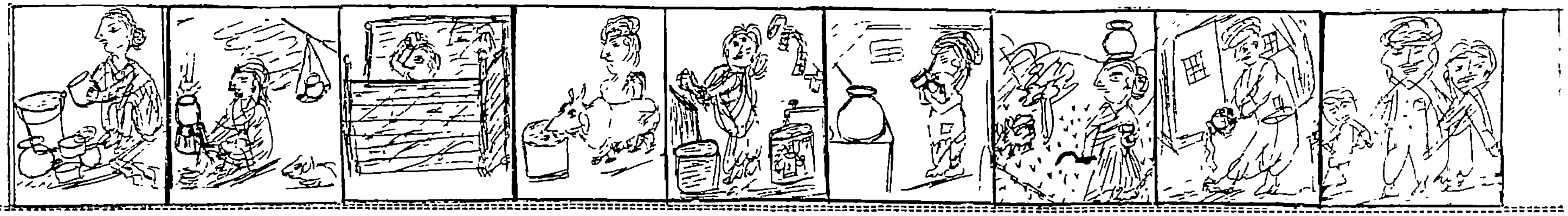
Possible Resolutions

- o Use the diary approach as a basic framework for writing about process. For example, "I woke up and attended a brainstorming meeting before breakfast. We discussed ...". Focus upon what was surprising and unusual, so as to document the richness of experience;
- o Record experiences in letter form and share with colleagues and fellow practitioners;
- o Train villagers in own documentation;
- o Use more diagrams and photos as these documents are more attractive;
- o Need documents that pull together all experiences with example PRAs;
- o Need training materials for training teams and village trainers especially in local languages as this not only gives access of information to many more people, but is also empowering;
- o Need detailed case studies, with successes and shortcomings;
- o Hire a typist;
- o Preserve the narrative by using a tape-recorder;
- o Accept "local English" in drafts;
- o Write in teams to provide support to each other;
- o Need training in documentation and communication skills;
- o More training in semi-structured interviewing;
- o Don't be put off by a blank sheet of paper;

FORMS

SYNTHESIS/CONCLUSION	HARMFUL/HELPFUL	POSSIBLE ACTIONS
WATER		
ENVIRONMENT		
PERSONAL HYGIENE		

QUANTITY OF WATER USED FOR DIFFERENT ACTIVITIES ➔ PROBLEM-WISE & CASTE-WISE PER SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS



CASTE	ACTIVITIES	WASHING VESSALS	COOKING	BATHING	CATTLES	WASHING CLOTHES	DRINKING	WATER CARRIED TO FIELD	WATER USED FOR MISC. ACTIVITIES	AVERAGE FAMILY SIZE	TOT. POTS OF WATER
HIGH	In Scarcity Villages										25
MIDDLE											14
LOW											21
MUSLIMS											24
HIGH	In Fluoride Village										21
MIDDLE											34
LOW											30
MUSLIMS											22
HIGH	In Brackish Villages										27
MIDDLE											28
LOW											27
MUSLIMS											24
HIGH	In Controlled Village				surface water			Surface			26
MIDDLE				used			water			17
LOW				— " —			used			16

NOTE - one pot of water = 12 Liter

LEARNERS AS EXPERTS

The group of materials developers would be going out to the field to learn more about those with whom they would be working. This group did have some previous knowledge about the area and its people. The trainer thought a structured, participatory activity would alert them to what they still needed to learn from the villagers, and how they might go about learning it.

SETTING

Any quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Paper and pencils
Newsprint and felt pens
Transparent tape

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

Part I

STEP 1–Give each participant paper and pencil.

STEP 2–Ask each person to make a list in answer to the following question: What would you need to know *from* or *about* learners in order to create problem-solving materials? (Allow 15 minutes.)

STEP 3–Have the participants divide into small groups. Distribute the felt pens. Have each of these groups gather around one blank sheet of newsprint taped to the wall and produce a consensus list by combining and discussing their individual list. (Allow 20 minutes.)

STEP 4–Have the entire group produce an overall consensus list by combining the small-group lists. Assign someone from the group to actually write the list. (Allow 20 minutes.) A master list will thus be produced.

STEP 5–Allow about 10 minutes for discussion, comments, and revision.

Note: The group's master list looked something like this:

We would need to know: –current practices
–needs
–level of knowledge
–interests
–traditions and customs
–working vocabulary
–problems of daily life
–religious and cultural norms

Part II

Note: This part of the activity should be fun, capitalizing on the suspense of producing the chart column by column. Allow for "table talk" between individuals, but remind everyone to be honest in evaluating his or her *own* knowledge.

STEP 6–Distribute additional paper, if necessary. Ask each person to rule the paper into five columns, and to copy the overall consensus list produced in Part I in column #1.

STEP 7–Ask each person to head column #2 "I know . . . ," and next to each item in column #1 to write one of the following phrases: "a lot," "a little," or "almost nothing."

STEP 8–Have them head column #3 "How I know. . . ." Next to each item, ask each person to write the appropriate response: reading and study, observation, investigation (surveys and interviews), personal experience.

STEP 9–Have everyone head column #4 "I would like to know more about . . ." and put a check mark next to the appropriate items.

STEP 10–Have everyone head column #5 "How I could find out. . . ." Next to each item checked in column #4, ask each individual to write how he or she could begin to investigate the topic he or she wants to know more about.

STEP 11–Conduct a 10-minute large group discussion about how the group felt about the exercise.

WHAT HAPPENED

The ultimate purpose of this exercise was to find out what information still needed to be gathered before the materials development process could begin. Since the group of trainees contained both field level workers and other participants, there were variations in knowledge about prospective learners. If this discrepancy surfaces, the trainer should try

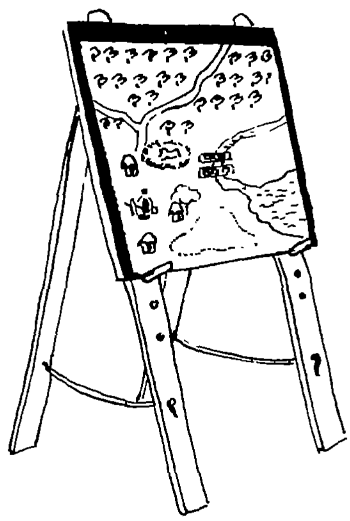
VILLAGE MAPPING

Village mapping. A group of people in each village was asked to draw a map of the village. The group could not contain any government officials, teachers, or nurses, but should be made up of ordinary villagers only. All important features, such as hills, woods, fields, houses, and public buildings, were asked to be indicated. The groups were also specifically asked to include water sources, water points, latrines, waste disposal sites, and washing slabs. They were also asked to use different colours to illustrate the water supply and sanitation situation before the HESAWA programme began, and the present situation. Comments and questions were encouraged while the maps were being drawn, and the finished maps were then discussed in detail.

This technique proved to be very effective in gathering information and opinions on existing facilities and the new and improved ones built through HESAWA. The drawing of the map also aroused a lot of interest and discussion among the villagers. In many cases a very informative, comprehensive drawing emerged, of which the makers were justifiably proud.

Using small maps

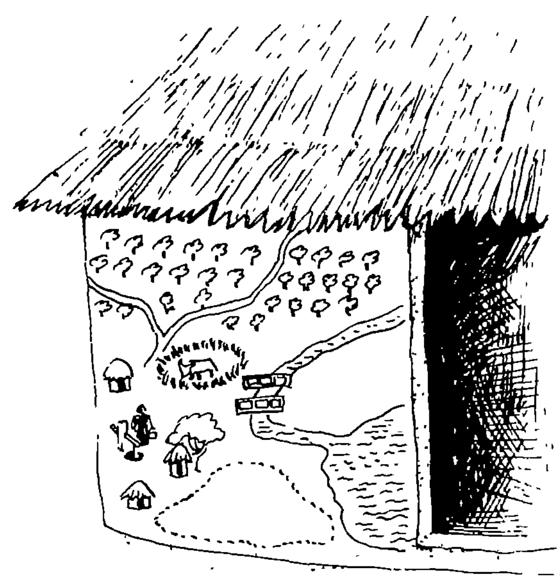
Small-size maps are useful if you need to produce a lot of them. Paper that is about the size of this page is often used. Such maps are easily transported and distributed for learning purposes.



Using larger maps

Larger maps are often drawn or painted on strong paper or cloth. Several smaller sheets of paper can be joined together to get the size you need.

Use paint, ink, dyes or permanent markers for a map which is to last and which will not fade in strong sunlight.



Using maps on walls

Maps can be drawn or painted on plaster or mud walls. Maps inside a building usually last longer. They cannot be moved, but they do provide a permanent visual record.

A community can be involved in making its own map and in monitoring and recording changes as they occur. In this way the map is also a tool for learning.

Task: Elaborating educational aids

Educational aids are additional tools to the participatory techniques. Aids like forms, posters and questionnaires clarify the messages of a facilitator and they can be part of a technique. It is suggested that facilitators involve the local people while making the aids. In this way the aids will be more culturally appropariate. Below you will find some advice on how to develop aids.

Related questions which might come up

* How can the community members be shown in a simple way the relation between poor sanitation and water-borne diseases?
* How can this be explained in another manner?

TECHNIQUES

Guidelines for the development of and example of visual tools(conceptual tool; 1989, GTZ and 1986, Laver)
This material defines criteria for the production/selection of visual aids(pictures, posters) and gives an example of pretesting these ideas in the field. The material is meant for project staff and national training experts, while preparing and implementing educational material. The example is taken from a project in Zimbabwe, where aids were used to back up a low-cost sanitation programme.

Making visual aids (exercise; 1987, Fetter)
These exercises explain for the participants how they can make visual aids to show an idea. The aids can be used in the daily work of the facilitators.

GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF VISUAL TOOLS

WHAT ABOUT:

The tool defines criteria for the production/selection of visual aids (pictures, posters) and gives an example of pre-testing these aids in the field.

WHAT FOR:

National training experts and the members of the project unit (in cooperation with the consultant) could use this tool for the preparation and implementation of educational measures.

GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF VISUAL AIDS

1. Keep pictures as simple as possible.
   The simpler the picture, the easier it is to draw the attention of the audience to what you want to show them.
2. Leave out unnecessary details, but make the picture not too simple. Line drawings toned in are the easiest to recognise.
3. Leave out backgrounds. Backgrounds draw the attention away from what you want to tell.
4. A picture is better understood when it has only one, sharp meaning. When you want to tell more than one thing, it is better to make a series of pictures.
5. When you show a series of pictures together on one page or poster, make sure that the right order is understood. Not everybody looks at pictures in the same order.
6. Illustrate a person's whole body and not only a part of it. If only a part of the body is shown (for example a head, hands or feet) it is often not easily understood.
7. Pictures will be more successful if faces, clothing and buildings are based on what is familiar locally.
8. Food, animals and objects (like a spoon or a pot) are more difficult to recognise than pictures of persons.
9. Use only common objects. For example do not show an uncommon water vessel.
10. Coloured pictures are attractive, but are no easier to recognise than black and white pictures.
11. If you want to use pictures before an audience, be sure that they are big enough to be seen by everybody.
12. Avoid making very small objects or animals too big. For example, when you show a picture of a very big mosquito, people will not recognise it as the insect they know.

13. Perspective (for example a house at a distance) is often very difficult to recognise.

14. Use only words in pictures (of course in local language) when your audience can read.

15. Combining upper and lower case letters is easier to read than only capital letters.

16. Symbols such as crosses, arrows, lines for speed, and so on, are difficult to understand when they are not carefully explained.

17. Remember local customs. For example, some colours may have a special meaning; some topics may be too sensitive to show in pictures.

18. Always test (try out) the pictures before you are using them in hygiene education activities. Just ask some people in the community to tell you what is on the picture and what do they feel about it. If your pictures prove to be unclear or if they do not correspond with what you want to show, you can adapt them.

19. When you show a picture before an audience, give the people plenty of time to look at it and to ask questions about it.

Communications for low-cost sanitation in Zimbabwe

by Sue Laver*

Sue Laver describes how she and her colleagues developed visual aids to back up Zimbabwe's vigorous low-cost sanitation programme.

THE impact of practical research on the development of low-cost technologies for water and sanitation in rural Zimbabwe is significant, and progress in this field is widely recognized both within our borders and outside the country Simple low-cost devices for raising water in villages have evolved through vigorous field testing. Other new technologies for drilling shallow tubewells have also been developed.

Low-cost sanitation is becoming a reality for more and more families, and home-built Blair Ventilated Pit (VIP) latrines are viewed with pride by their owners

These developments are the result of a team effort which involves not only the village-based extension workers, but the people themselves. The Ministry of Health has official responsibility for developing low-cost water and sanitation, but other ministries and non-governmental organizations have contributed significantly to projects Projects are co-ordinated locally through village development committees (VIDCOs) and Ward Development Committees (WARDCOs).

*Lecturer Department of Community Medicine University of Zimbabwe, PO Box A 178, Avondale Harare, Zimbabwe

Participation

Development workers have adopted the philosophy that technical progress in rural Zimbabwe should not be dependent on machinery alone and that development should be approached through the people. The essential components of this concept are good management and a well-informed community – which depend on effective communication.

Communication at project level can take place either by personal contact through extension workers, by media such as instruction leaflets, posters and other visual aids, or by a combination of these strategies

However, with a growing demand for low-cost technologies from villagers, the one-to-one approach to sharing information is limited by lack of time and man-power. Under these circumstances, we think that visual media will have to play a greater part in assisting the transfer of technical information at community level They should also play an important role in promoting the programmes, by stimulating change and creating a better understanding of the reasons for technical intervention in rural Zimbabwe.

We needed to develop visual aids both to teach people and to promote the programme at the planning, mobilization, implementation and maintenance phases. We could not use video or film but we did use drama to enhance people's understanding of key issues. We therefore developed a Communications Support Guide to help project workers select the best combination of media to use, and it appears as Table 1.

Project phase	Key issues	Method of communication support
Planning phase	Establish contact with key leaders	Face to face contact with key leaders
Community needs survey	Community needs survey eg. assess problems needs and priorities	Small group discussions
	Discuss technology options/project benefits	Visits to other projects
	Explain about support organizations and structures	Psycho-social methods for problem solving eg. picture codes
Mobilization phase	Facilitate decision-making through groups	Group/public meetings/promotional media
	Discuss community objectives/contributions	*Poster The People of Zimbabwe are Building Latrines – Join Them!'
	Facilitate community organization through local management structures	*Leaflets ie 'summary leaflets Build a Latrine
	Choose project site with the people/leaders and community-based workers	Visits to other successful projects
Implementation phase	Provide information support	
	Facilitate delivery support materials ie cement etc	*Instructional support ie Builders Instructional Manual
	Encourage maximum community support for project	*Information leaflets ie summary leaflets Build a Latrine
	Encourage completion of project	On site assistance where necessary
	Facilitate visits by key leaders/local authorities	
Maintenance phase	Encourage placement of high value on facility	Maintenance training eg personal approach
	Facilitate selection/training of maintenance personnel through local management structures	*Maintenance reminders ie encapsulated leaflets Care for your Latrine
	Establish support/referral system for maintenance through local management structures	*Ceramic tiles for plastering into completed structures
		Other hygiene interventions (handwashing etc)

*Asterisk indicate promotional and instructional support media developed for Zimbabwe project

Tab[illegible] Communications Support Guide which media to use

A background survey[1] provided a lot of useful information about how well people understood the latrine technology, their grasp of how to measure the latrines during construction and their concept of management. Important questions were where to site the latrine, division of labour and what the community should contribute to the project. Our study was closely linked to an earlier survey by Boydell.[2]

When compared and combined, the results of both surveys confirmed that local builders were unclear about many basic questions to do with construction. For example, untrained local builders varied in their conception of how high the vent-pipe or how thick the slab should be. This was consistent with the findings of Boydell's study.

Our findings reinforced the need for standardized instructions for project workers, so we developed a Builders' Instructional Manual with simple step-by-step information for building a latrine, covered in plastic

Posters were also designed to promote a community-based approach to latrine projects, and the caption 'The people of Zimbabwe are building latrines – join them', has been widely accepted by project workers and has even been quoted by community leaders

To put across the message 'Care for your latrine', we developed a plastic-covered leaflet and, slightly less orthodox, local potters designed a series of hand-painted ceramic tiles illustrating maintenance and hygiene procedures. The tiles have proved to be an eye-catching way of reinforcing the information communicated more conventionally through the leaflets and the Builders Instructional Manual at demonstration latrines at schools and clinics

The visual aids were developed by continuous liaison between long-suffering illustrators, technical experts, project workers, and the author and her co-workers

A must

Evaluating the media they have developed almost seems the last straw to many development workers, for it always involves a mammoth effort and readily reveals inadequacies. So it is often neglected, but material which is haphazardly [illegible]iled and hurriedly put out can b[illegible]aging.

We consider that evaluation is a 'must', not an 'option', as shown by the results of the Zimbabwe study. We invited health workers, experts and development workers throughout Zimbabwe who were interested, to assess our visual media for communicating about sanitation in an objective way. Groups and individuals reviewed the content, illustrations and appropriateness of the media for us

We gave copies of the Builders Instructional Manual to groups engaged in building, and asked them to construct a latrine from the information given. Each stage in the process was observed, problems were noted and the completed latrines were measured to find out how closely they lined up with the instructions. This was very valuable, and exposed many errors. If we had neglected the evaluation, many technical inconsistencies would have been perpetuated through inaccurate illustrations and omissions in the text. We are now confident that the end result is nearer to what the people want – and need – to support the development of sanitation in Zimbabwe. The procedure will help us move on to develop a wide range of communications media to support low-cost water development projects

Acknowledgements

The German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ), in collaboration with the World Bank's Technology Advisory Group, generously funded the Media Development Project described in this article. Assistance was also given by the Research Board, University of Zimbabwe Thanks is also due to the illustrators, in particular Kors de Waard and Colleen Cousins

References

1 Laver, S M. L *Designing instructional support media for sanitation development projects at community level in Zimbabwe. An interim report on the development of media strategies* Mimeograph, Department of Community Medicine, University of Zimbabwe, September 1985.

2. Boydell, R. A. *An evaluation of a number of Blair VIP latrines, drilled boreholes, hand-dug wells and hand-augered boreholes recently constructed in Masvingo Province, Zimbabwe.* Mimeograph, Ministry of Health/GTZ, September 1984.

3 Laver, S. M. L 'Information – the link between technology and people' *Zimbabwe Science News*, Vol 19, Nos 9/10, pp 120-122, September/October 1985.

Ceramic tiles used in Zimbabwe provide a constant reminder to care for the latrine. The [illegible]om picture shows how they a[illegible]lt into the wall of the latrine

MAKING VISUAL AIDS

Time 3 hours

Objective Each learner will be able to apply the 6 steps in making a visual aid to the planning, pre-testing, and making of a one-idea visual aid. In this case, the visual aid will be a poster.

Materials

Paper, pencils, and erasers for sketching.
Heavier weight paper for the final posters.
Coloured pens or markers or pieces of coloured cloth or paper that can be cut and glued onto the poster.
Scissors or knives to cut cloth or paper.
Glue if using paper or cloth for colours.

Instructions

1 If possible, give each person a copy of the case study on the following page.
If that is not possible, read the case study out loud. Be sure everyone understands it.
2 Write the 7 teaching questions on the chalkboard. Ask learners to answer the questions as a large group. When the questions are answered, ask if everyone agrees that a poster would be a useful visual aid for Mrs Abubaber.

3 Be sure everyone has a copy of the 6 steps in making a visual aid. The steps should either be written on the chalkboard or posted on a wall throughout the activity. If this is not possible, be sure learners have the steps copied into their notes.
4 Tell learners that in this activity, each person will be making a poster as a solution to this case study. They can refer to the 6 steps for guidance on how to make the poster. Tell them you will also be going from person to person to answer questions and check their progress.
Give participants paper and pencils for sketching. Let them ask you for other materials when they need them.
5 Help each person work with the topic and the 6 steps. This part of the activity is like a workshop. Learners work individually, except when they need help. Allow people to help each other, but not to do each other's work.
6 When a person is ready to pre-test the visual plan, have him ask 3 other participants to look at it for him. Suggest to participants that they will gain much from this activity by helping and co-operating with each other in this way.
7 If you do not have coloured pens or markers, participants can draw figures on the poster paper and then cut pieces of coloured cloth or paper to fit.
8 When the posters are finished, have participants take turns presenting them to the large group. Then display the posters on the wall.
At the end of each person's presentation ask the group to respond to the questions in the guidelines included with this activity. After the first few presentations these questions can be answered very quickly and briefly.

1 You can make up your own case study if you like. If you do this, be sure that you have a list of answers to the teaching questions for your own reference. Also be sure that a poster or other one-idea visual aid is the best solution for that case study problem.
2 You can have participants pre-test their posters with each other as an overnight homework assignment.

Planning a visual aid that shows more than one idea

Time

7–8 hours (including presentations by groups)

Objective

In small groups, learners will make a plan for a visual aid which shows more than one idea. The plan will be for 1 teaching or training session.

Materials

Paper and pencils for sketching.
Coloured pens or markers.

Instructions

1 Tell learners to divide into small groups of 3–6 people each.
2 Make sure groups have copies of the 7 teaching questions and the 6 steps in planning and making a visual aid, either written on paper or on the chalkboard.
3 Choose one of the topics on the pages that follow. Give each group a copy of the same topic and information. Give them a few minutes to read the information.

4 Explain that the assignment is for each group to plan a visual aid for one teaching or training session on the topic given to the group. (You may want to specify a time limit, such as 15 minutes, for the session.) The groups will follow only the first 3 steps in planning and making a visual aid. They will not actually produce, use or evaluate the visual aid (steps 4–6).
5 Point out that the information does not actually answer the 6 teaching questions. Each group will have to decide how they want to answer the teaching questions based on the information, and limit the information about the topic according to the time limit for the session they are planning.
6 The groups will work separately on planning their sessions and visual aids and can decide how they want to work as a group. For example, a group may work together to answer the teaching questions and define the main ideas, and then assign each individual to make sketches of one or more main ideas.
7 Explain that for step 3 (try out, or pre-test, your visual plan) each group will present their visual plan to the large group for review and suggestions for revision.
8 Tell participants that they will have about 6 hours to prepare their visual plans before presenting them to the large groups. Ask if participants have any questions about the assignment or the topic.
9 Go from group to group. Help each group work with the information and the 6 steps in making a visual aid. Usually, the most difficult steps are listing the main ideas and making a sketch for each main idea. These are part of step 2: plan the materials.

10 When the groups have finished their visual plans, have learners arrange their chairs so that everyone can see. Ask one person from each group to pre-test their visual plan with the large group. The person conducting the session with the visual plan must tell the others *who* the intended learners are and *what* the learners will be able to do after the teaching session. Then the large group will pretend to be these learners. The presenter can use the guidelines suggested in Activity 3, **How to pre-test visual aids: a role play.**

11 At the end of each session, ask the large group to respond to the first 6 questions on the guidelines included with this activity. (15–20 minutes for each session and discussion by the large group.)

12 When the sessions have been conducted, ask the small groups to revise their visual plans based on the suggestions made by the large group. (This is step 3 of the 6 steps in planning and making a visual aid). (30 minutes)

13 Go from group to group to help them make the necessary changes.

Making your own visual aid

Time

Learners will vary in time taken. Plan for at least 6–8 hours of individual working time.

Objective

Learners will make their own visual aids, which they can use in their work.

Materials

Thin paper for tracing.
Paper, pencils, and erasers for sketching.
Poster paper or cardboard.
Coloured pens, markers, coloured cloth, paint or dyes.
Scissors or knives.
Glue, rubber cement, or paste.
Rope, twine, yarn.
Real objects related to family planning and family health.
Any other available supplies you feel are appropriate (see 'Possible adaptations').

Instructions

1 Let your learners choose a topic from their own work situation.

2 Allow learners to work on choosing a topic and answering the 7 teaching questions. Give them a few guidelines to work with such as:
– choose a topic which has only 3–5 main ideas; or
– this visual aid will be for use in a 10-minute session.
Go from person to person, helping them to choose topics they can do in the time allowed without too much frustration. Also help them answer the 7 teaching questions, if they need help.

3 Tell learners they can make any kind of visual aid they want as long as it fits with their answers to the teaching questions. What they make also depends on what supplies you have available. They may choose to make a picture series, model, display, flannelboard, or whatever they want that you have supplies for.
Ask people not to make visual aids which have been used as examples in the manual. It will be more useful for them to have to work with one of their own teaching problems, and decide for themselves what the most important information is.

4 Give your learners time to make a visual plan for their visual aid. Tell them to follow the 6 steps in planning and making a visual aid. If they are making a model or display, they will have to make one to pre-test it.

5 Require that learners do both content, review and pre-testing, if this is at all possible.

Task: Planning

This activity is part of the whole project development cycle and takes place at many levels, such as policy, agency, community, etc. The activity needs several practical tools in order to involve the participants in the planning. Participatory planning strengthens the implementation of a project. The techniques below can be used both at agency and community level.

Related questions which might come up

* Are those who will benefit from the project included in the planning?
* Can participants with various backgrounds plan together?
* How is it possible to find out if the plans are appropriate for the resources of the project?
* Is the plenary session conducted in a participatory way?

TECHNIQUES

Health case study (case study; 1990, Srinivasan)
This case study raises awareness among agency staff on the importance of involving people with differing responsibilities in WSS projects for appropriate planning and implementation. The participants are presented with a case concerning the plan of action of a water supply programme. The participants are asked what they think about the procedure described in the case and how they would have planned, if they had been faced with the same problem.

Integrated project planning (exercise; 1992, IRC)
This exercise shows agency staff why they should include people with technical as well as social backgrounds in the project planning. The participants are separated into groups of technical and social workers. The groups get sets of cards describing various technical and social steps in a plan. The groups are asked to prioritize the steps. Then the participants change groups, where technical and social workers work together. The same cards are distributed and the participants are once more asked to set the priorities. The groups present their plans and a discussion is held about how the different workers set priorities.

Objective Oriented Project Planning (exercise; 1992, IRC)
This technique aims to assist the groups involved in the project in having a participatory communication process, so as to identify and analyze problems they see. The technique is divided into three phases: identifying the problems, identifying the objectives and making the plans.

Preparing training programmes for water committees (exercise; 1993, Espejo)
This exercise uses the fish bowl technique for elaborating a training programme for water committees. The main benefits of this exercise are that participants practise how to entertain different ideas rather than excluding or rejecting them. In this way "long discussions" are avoided.

Water point building (demonstration; 1992, Simasiku)
In order to construct facilities in such a way that they are appropriate to the users, the community members need to be involved in the planning. This demonstration gives local people a chance to express how they think a water point should be constructed. The people who will benefit from the water point are asked to construct a model, as they want it to become. The agency staff is not supposed to interfere with or disturb the work of the local people; instead the agency staff should encourage the local people to work it out on their own.

HEALTH CASE STUDY

PURPOSE:

To initiate discussion about community participation in local problems and how it can affect the outcome of projects.

TIME: 40-60 minutes

MATERIALS:

Newsprint or copies of the case study for each participant.

NOTE TO TRAINER:

This exercise gets participants talking about local situations and how they can improve their work with villagers.

The case study involves health and sanitation but it could be adapted for other sectors.

Participants can be provided copies of the entire case study and factors or you can read it aloud. They should be able to have a copy of the factors as they discuss the case.

The exercise can be done in a large group or three small groups.

PROCEDURES:

- Read the following case study to the participants. If possible, have the factors posted on newsprint and reveal them only after the story is finished.

HEALTH CASE STUDY

The health engineering department of a local Government Ministry had launched a project to provide 60,000 villages with four tubewells each, over a 3-year period. In spite of organisational and logistical problems, by the end of its second year, the project was reaching two-thirds of the villages and was seen as a masterful job of management assistance. The people, however, were reluctant to contribute towards maintenance costs and many tubewells were showing signs of neglect or misuse.

In addition, a survey by a diarrhoeal research team showed that in many villages where wells were provided, diarrhoeal rates showed no decline. In fact, there was a sharp increase of diarrhoea in several villages where people supposedly had safe water.

The team attributed this to the fact that no real effort seemed to have been made to involve the people in decision-making and to raise their awareness of the health consequences of unhygienic practices. In particular the team noted that the following factors may have contributed to the deteriorating local situation:

- Feelings of helplessness, apathy or fatalism in regard to common ailments such as diarrhoea.
- Dependence on external resources to solve problems for the community.
- Belief that initiatives and responsibilities incurring costs (such as maintenance of improved water systems) are beyond the meagre financial resources of the community.
- Belief that those who installed the system should care for it and bear the costs.
- Belief that water, being God's gift, should not require payment.
- Lack of experience in group planning and in mobilising resources for problem-solving, particularly among women.
- Low value placed on women's contribution to community level decision-making.
- A long tradition of hierarchical relations by which only a few speak on behalf of the many at community meetings, and decision-making is generally left to prestigious leaders.
- Mistaken beliefs and obsolete local practices associated with the prevention and cure of illnesses, presenting serious obstacles to behavioural change.

The department of engineering rejected the study. They suggested that the real problem was insufficient numbers of wells. "You cannot expect people to keep clean if there is not enough water for everyone. If there had been eight tubewells, the rates of diarrhoea would be bound to go down."

The case study was contributed by Jacob Pfohl, Consultant.

- Ask the group to discuss:

  What is your opinion? Which team is right?

  If you were an adviser to the project, what plan of action would you recommend to ensure effective usage and maintenance of water resources, as well as hygienic behaviours?

- Ask them how this learning applies to their own jobs and situations.

INTEGRATED PROJECT PLANNING

In order to stimulate tecnnical and social workers to use both software and hardware knowledge, while developing a project, this technique can be used. The intention is to make social and technical people realize that they cannot build up a project, with only their own perspective in mind. (The technique takes about half a day to work out.)

1. Prepare cards before working out the activities.

2. Gather the participants related to technical issues in three separate groups and them related to social issues in three other groups.

3. Each group get a set of cards describing various steps in a project. The steps are socially or technically related. Each group is asked to set the priorities of the project's steps. This exercise should go fast.

4. Afterwards the groups are changed, this time technical and social people are integrated in the groups. The same kind of cards are distributed and they are asked to set the priorities again.

5. A few participants are asked to function as observers of the process. The observers and the facilitator should check which issues are debated in the groups.

6. When the groups have put the cards in order, they are asked to present their project planning. The presentation is visually described through using a kind of schedule.

   Example of an integrated project planning schedule, where the cards defined are placed under Activities.

Time phase	People involved	Activities
Identify	community	discussion
needs	project planners	problem-solving

When all groups' cards have been placed in the schedule, a discussion about the outcome takes place. It is then possible to compare the various set of priorities the groups have made and indicate steps which are missing. The facilitator can with the help of the cards, make the people aware about essential issues, through raising questions related to the cards.

TIPS!
Try to arrange that there is an uneven number of groups. Otherwise the facilitator runs the risque of being a judge, who has to take side of some group(s).

(1992, IRC/Jan Teun Visscher)

STEPS OF TECHNICAL AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

Hardware

Arrange for supply of spare parts
Conduct geological survey
Hold planning meetings
Select a village
Brief the hydrologist
Plan use of area around pump
Establish drilling
Compile village files
Purchase drills, vehicles, and other supplies
Ensure delivery of pumps
Do aerial photo study of the area
Conduct pump trials
Plan drilling campaigns
Map the selected village
Select site for a pump

Software

Create a village fund
Promote women's participation
Evaluate use of water source
Hold community meetings about the project
Discuss agency and community roles in the project
Select site for a pump
Evaluate project impact
Meet with local leaders
Train trainers
Register the Water Committee
Help community open a bank account
Make informal contacts between project staff and community members
Sign land agreement for placing the pump
Conduct participatory needs assessment
Form water committees
Collect money within the community
Plan training activities
Conduct learner-centred educational activities
Select and train new water source caretakers
Train village committee members
Conduct hygiene education

OBJECTIVE ORIENTED PROJECT PLANNING (OOPP)

The technique aims to stimulate all groups involved to have a participatory communication process, to identify and analyze the problems as the participants see them. When the problems have been identified, the cause-effect relation-ship between the problems is defined. When the problems have been put in a logical order, an attempt is made to define the objectives. Everyone has to come to a consensus and be satisfied with the objectives, before they finally are selected.

1. The participants write their problems anonymously on cards which are displayed on a wall. In this way, the difficulties people experience feel in expressing problems in front of others, can be overcome.

2. The facilitator leads a group discussion afterwards to clarify the issues. It is asked if everyone understands the problems suggested and if they are missing any problem. In this way more underlying problems can be identified. The facilitator avoids linking what is written on the cards with either the originator or the source of the problem.

3. Sort out the core problem and look for the problems leading to this one (problem-tree). Through letting various people describe the problems, a more holistic view of the problem appears. The problems are then organized in cause-effect relation to one another. The use of cards makes it easier to change relationships of the problems.

4. Reformulate the problems into objectives and check how they become means to an end(objective tree).

5. When the objectives are defined, some of them are chosen for plan of action and the focus of the project is determined. (Depending on the need for planning one can go on or stop the exercise here.)

6. The planning phase starts with scoping the project. The clusters, which are outside the project's responsibility are identified. Then a priority matrix is made on clusters to be included and they are also defined as priorities.
7. The project description and conditions from objective tree are fixed. The project's purpose, as well as the overall objective is selected. The objectives leading to the project purpose are identified and named as results or conditions.

8. Then the conditions are assessed in order to determine the assumptions, such as conditions for success and sustainability.

9. At this stage the objectives in the Objective Tree are reformulated into activities. Other activities needed to reach the results are also identified. A discussion on how to initiate the activities is held. The selected activities are finally identified as result or conditions.

10. As one of the last steps it is checked whether the project planning and results are achievable in relation to the assumptions.

11. Finally the completeness of the planning is checked.

The facilitator's role
The facilitator should determine the outcome of the exercises as little as possible. His/her main task is to stimulate the participants to give their opinions of problems, objectives and plans. One way of stimulating is through posing questions which make the participants think about a situation, which they have not done earlier.

For the facilitator to manage working out this method in a successful way, he/she needs to be very confident about the method, as well as have some knowledge about the topic. The facilitator should also know how to motivate the participants, as well as him/herself, through out the process. The method demands lot of attention from the people involved. The facilitator needs therefore to be alert, in order to stimulate the participants.

Pros and cons of the OOPP technique:

Cons:
- The exercise depends very much on a good facilitator, who encourages all participants to express their opinions(even they who are quite).
- The facilitator must be able to guide the participants to a solution/plan, which all agree to.
- The facilitator needs to be flexible, objective and independent.
- There should not be more than 15 participants, because of the intensive interaction.
- It can be difficult for illiterate people to follow the exercise, since it mainly is a visual method.
- The method cannot guarantee that decision-makers, who did not participate, approve the ideas.
- It is crucial(even if difficult) to keep the time schedule. Each of the exercise need attention, to fulfil the objective of the OOPP method.

Pros:
- The OOPP method makes it possible to visualise the problems in a logical order, which makes it easier to discuss the problems and improves the problem-solving. This method makes it possible to vent clashes and conflicts(which otherwise are not dealt with) in functional discussions.
- Through letting all people involved plan and decide what results they want to reach, the participants become committed to the implementation. It is clarified who should do what, which gives each person an idea of his/her responsibilities.
- OOPP is a valuable method for reviewing proposals, which organisations, such as EEC already uses (Burgers).

(1992, IRC/Eveline Bolt & Francois Brikke)

PREPARING TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR WATER COMMITTEES

Adapted version of "Fish bowls"(see "Getting to know the group") for project staff.

Use

The fish bowl technique is a useful exercise, which includes many creative ideas, for elaborating a training program. The exercise is used at agency level.

Implementation

1. Clarify the task of the group: to develop a training program for water committees.

2. Two groups of four persons each have to be formed. One group makes an inner circle and the other an outer one. If possible form a multidisciplinary group.

3. The inner group starts and they discuss a theme, a problem, etc. for twenty minutes. The external group just watches and listens carefully. Then the persons from the inner circle are shifted to the outer circle and vice versa. The new inner circle continues building up the discussion.

4. Discussions are based on one rule: Each inner group has to build upon ideas presented by the previous group. This encourages the group to integrate different ideas rather than excluding them.

5. The group must work with a blackboard, etc. so that the progress of the work can be shown.

Task: Making decisions in a participatory way

Making decisions is an activity closely linked to other activities in the process of the project, such as identifying needs and planning. The objective while making decisions in the project, should be that both local people and the agency are part of the decision-making process. The techniques below can be used at agency as well as at community level.

Related questions which might come up
* What can be done when the people have difficulties agreeing on one decision?
* Do all people involved share information necessary to make a decision?

TECHNIQUES

Broken squares (puzzle; 1985, International Agriculture Centre)
The puzzle shows difficulties in the cooperation between group members. After the puzzle is played a discussion is held, which stimulates the cooperation in the group and makes the people more interested in each other. The puzzle helps the group members develop their capacity to cooperate, and it can help situations when there are tensions felt in the group. (For handout of the techniuqe, see the task "Getting to know the group")

Force field analysis (exercise; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This exercise helps agency staff and community members, who have decided on a major goal, to find intermediate goals with which to reach the major goal. During the activity helping as well as hindering forces are indicated. The group members try to find out how to strengthen the helping forces and/or to reduce the weakening forces.

Negotiating (role play; 1985, IAC)
This role play makes the participants realize the difficulties of negotiating. The role play is about six persons negotiating how a large amount of money is to be used. There are certain preconditions and circumstances which have to be considered while deciding how to spend the money. Six participants are asked to play the various roles, while the others observe.

Problem-solving and decision-making (form; 1984, Eilington)
This form helps agency staff as well as community members to get an overview of a problem, its possible solution, how to implement the solution, etc. The questions and the structure of the form helps the participants to think of the various aspects of a problem, before they decide what to do with it.

Simple decision-making (exercise,; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This exercise can be used to reflect on group patterns and problems in decision-making. The group members are asked to make a real decision, concerning something related to the project. Afterwards the group has made its decision, the process of deciding is discussed.

WATER POINT BUILDING

Community demonstration

The people, particularly the women who have to work daily with the new facilities, usually have good ideas and suggestions on how these facilities should be designed for efficient use and easy maintenance. Therefore they should be encouraged to contribute to improving the design.
This can be done by asking them to build a "real" model of a water point, using bricks and/or cardboard boxes, or other suitable materials.
The extension worker asks a group of women and some technicians or designers from the Water Authority to get together for a model building exercise. Also, the extension worker makes sure that all necessary materials are available, including a measuring tape.
After a short explanation of the purpose of the exercise, the women are encouraged to build a water point according to their own ideas. They stack up bricks or other materials till they have the right shape and size of a convenient and efficient waterpoint. Proper measurements of features like a platform for buckets, standing space, place of one or more taps, etc. are established.
When the women are satisfied about the shape and the other features of their model, the technicians are asked to take the exact measurements. Later they will make a proper technical drawing for the new design, taking as much as possible the measurements of the model into account.
The new design can be discussed one more time with the community before it is built. Its use should be monitored closely by the community together with extension workers and the technicians, to assess the appropriateness of the new design.

Model building of water point by villagers

Important :

* After they have explained the exercise, and everybody has understood it, the extension worker and the technicians should not interfere with the women building their model. They may only help when they think that the women forget something important.

* Final measurements should only be taken after the women are completely satisfied about the right size and shape of their model, buckets of varying sizes have been tried upon it, etc.
  Building a model can never be done in a hurry !

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

This model should be used with groups that have already analysed their situation and decided on a major goal. Often this goal is very ambitious and not immediately attainable. Force Field Analysis can help them to find useful intermediate goals which will help move the situation towards the major goal.

It is helpful to look at the forces which are helping to reach the goal, and those which are hindering (or pushing in the opposite direction).

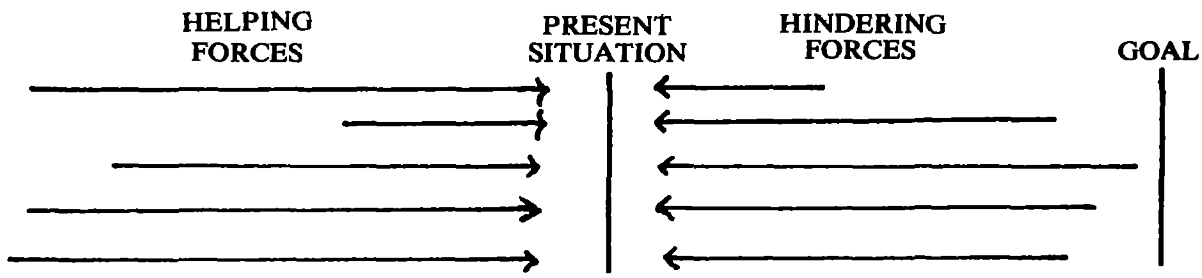
Procedure

a. It is best to work with this model in groups of 3 – 5 people who share a common goal and work in the same situation.

b. Ask the group to draw the following diagram on newsprint, defining briefly **the Present Situation** and the **Major Goal.** They should write one summary statement about each of these along the vertical lines.

c. Then ask the group to list the helping forces on the left side, drawing longer or shorter arrows to indicate the strength of the forces which are pushing the present situation towards the goal.

On the right hand side, list the hindering forces which prevent change or reduce its power. Again use longer or shorter arrows to indicate the strength of these forces.



d. Explain that one can move towards the goal **either** by increasing the helping forces,

or by weakening the hindering forces.

Sometimes the more pressure that comes from the helping forces, the more resistance develops in the hindering forces. In such cases, it is often best to start by reducing the hindering forces.

e. Now ask the group to choose

either one of the helping forces which they could strengthen,

or one of the hindering forces which they could reduce or weaken.

Taking this 'force' as the new situation, ask them to identify their goal in regard to working with this force.

f. Once again, draw a new diagram listing the helping and hindering forces related to this new sub-goal. This process can be done 2 or 3 times.

Summary

The work on the diagrams stimulates a process of intense communication in the group and helps them to work out a strategy involving one or more clear sub-goals which will be concrete steps towards the major goal.

Time 2 or more hours.

Materials Newsprint, markers and tape.

NEGOTIATING

Issues: 3.5 leadership in group discussion
4.7.2 negociation

Objective: variable, depending on place in the training

Procedure: Six persons choose a role and try together to arrive at a decision on the way the money is to be spent.
Video equipment is used.
Other participants act as observers

Duration: Introduction + exercise: 45 min.
Retrospect 45 min.
or less

Outline of situation (on separate sheets for participants and observers)

In a village an amount of Frs. CFS 10,000,000 has been made available by the authorities for aiding the village's development. The government leaves it to the villagers' discretion as to how the amount is to be applied. A precondition is, however,that a large section of the population must be able to benefit directly or indirectly from this investment and that the money must not be devoted, for example, to festivities. You have to determine, together with the other villagers, a way in which the money can be spent. In the casting of the roles you choose one of the persons to whom you consider the role is the most congenial. Several people can choose a particular role. The together to find a optimum use which is feasible. The village lies in one of the arid areas of Africa. The population is mainly dependent on agriculture.

You may choose from the following persons:

1. (state-registered) nurse (male or female)
2. veterinary surgeon
3. household management consultant (male or female)
4. farmer (female)
5. midwife (male or female)
6. head of local information service
7. person of your own choice.

SIMPLE DECISION-MAKING

Every group has to make decisions and the way in which these decisions are made, will affect deeply the commitment of the members to the life and work of the group. If we have shared in the process of making a decision, we are far more likely to carry it out.

When a group cannot make decisions, the members become very frustrated.

Most groups need some skill practice in decision-making so that all the members learn what helps and what hinders good decision-making.

DECISION-MAKING EXERCISE

The following exercise can be used to give a group a common experience on which to reflect about their own patterns and problems in decision-making. After the discussion, the animator can add to the insights of the group by presenting whichever of the following theories seem most relevant to their needs.

Procedure

a. Give the group an experience of making a real decision. This can be deciding about what to do with a free evening, or a reflection on real work in small groups (such as making codes). Or the animator can arrange a fishbowl exercise giving those in the middle responsibility to make a decision.
b. After the group has made the decision, the animator asks the group to identify what major problems they had in reaching the decision. The animators then decide which theory is most relevant.
c. The appropriate theory is given as a short lecture. Handouts are given to each participant on this theory.
d. The animator then asks the group either to form groups of 3 or go back to their work groups. In small groups they discuss which of the problems of decision-making they experienced.
e. Bring the whole group back together and discuss the problems of decision-making.
f. After discussing these problems, ask the group what they can do as a group to improve their decision-making. In this way, they will set their own norms and guidelines and be more likely to abide by them.

PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING

Step 1. Problem definition:

Step 2. Main facts bearing on problem:

Step 3. Possible solutions (options) to problem resolution:

a.

b.

c.

d.

Step 4. Evaluation of alternatives:

Solution a
Pros:

Cons:

(Continue this process--pros and cons--for each possible solution.)

Step 5. Selection of solution (also explain why this one was chosen):

Step 6. Implementation (planning for action)

Who is to be notified of the decision?

What are the action steps for implementation?

1.
2.
3.
4.

Who is to assume responsibility for

Action Step 1
Action Step 2
Action Step 3
Action Step 4

Step 7. How will this plan, when completed, be evaluated? How will we know when the need has been met?)

Task: Managing conflicts

Conflicts among individuals in a working group are very common, like in a project. It is therefore very important to develop skills how to deal with them. Conflicts develop when there are different needs, goals, opinions and interests, which can split a group. However differences in opinions do not always develop into conflicts, the reason being that we have a tendency to see conflicts as something "abnormal" and avoid them. But conflicts are just as normal as any other group process. It is therefore desirable that we consider conflicts as something positive, from which new solutions can be found.

Related questions which might come up

* Are conflicts dealt with in the project?
* How can conflicts be dealt with among community members?
* How can the facilitator show that conflicts can lead to positive effects in the group?

TECHNIQUES

Resistance to change (exercise; 1993, Espejo and 1990, Srinivasan)
A resistance to change is a human reaction which can create many conflicts in a relationship. There are different levels of resistance and this exercise shows cultural features which reflect resistance to change.

Role-play on how to solve conflicts (role play; 1988, WHO)
A role-play consists of acting out real-life situations and problems. The role-play can exemplify conflicts in the interaction of the group. An example is two field agents who have a conflict since one of them thinks s/he does more work than the other. In a role-play participants receive descriptions of different characters which they are going to play. The others watch the play and might come with suggestions on how the actors can act. After the role-play a discussion is held about the role-play and how it is linked to the actual project activities.

The speak out exercise (exercise; 1986, Habitat)
This activity is designed to identify barriers preventing community participation and, in the process, identify sources of conflicts that can occur in the interplay of agencies and residents involved in low-income housing improvement.

ROLE PLAY

Role-playing consists of the acting-out of real-life situations and problems.

In a role-play, the player receives a description of the character he or she is to play. From the description, the player makes up the action and dialogue as the role-play progresses. The player tries to behave in the way that the character might behave when faced with a given situation or problem

The participants simply behave in a natural way, so that their roles and the action develop as the play goes along.

In a role-play, people volunteer to play the parts Other people watch carefully and may even offer suggestions to the players. Some of those watching might decide to join in the play

After the play, players and watchers always discuss it and their reactions to it. Here, you have the important task of guiding the discussion. Ask the players questions like these: How did you feel? Are you happy with the way the situation you were acting worked out? Could you have done anything different to get better results? Then ask the audience to give their views. This discussion helps people to learn something from the play.

Purpose

By acting out a real-life situation, people can better understand the causes of their problems and the results of their own behaviour Role-playing can help an individual explore ways of improving his or her relationships with other people, and of gaining other people's support in efforts to live more healthily

Another purpose of role-playing is to give people experience in communication, planning, and decision-making. Finally, it helps people to reconsider attitudes and values. We learn about our own behaviour during a role-play. We can discover how our attitudes and values encourage cooperation and problem-solving or, how our attitudes and values create problems.

Group size

Role-playing is usually done with small groups. A role-play can be done with a health worker and one or two other people. Someone may come to a health worker in private. The health worker may ask the person to act out their own problem The health worker would play the part of someone important in the other's life.

Time

A role-play should last about 20 minutes If the action is lively and the audience is interested, allow the play to continue But you should stop the play if (*a*) the players have solved the problem; or (*b*) if the players are getting confused and cannot solve the problem; or (*c*) if the audience looks bored

Allow another 20-30 minutes for discussion. Discussion helps people focus on the important issues in the play If the discussion is lively, allow it to continue longer You may suggest a repeat of the play to try out the suggestions that have resulted from the discussion.

Other concerns

Role-playing works best when people know and trust each other Before using role-playing with an individual, be sure you have established a good relationship with that person If a group is involved, be sure that the members have already met a few times so that they know each other.

Role-playing involves some risk. Since we do not know the outcome, players are taking a chance when they act in a role-play. Do not ask people to take parts that might embarrass them Some people may not be interested or may be very afraid to speak out in a group. Do not force such people to take part Let

RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Objective

To help identify different human reactions showing resistance to changes or to adopting new behaviours.

Use

This technique is used for specialists of agencies and for field workers.

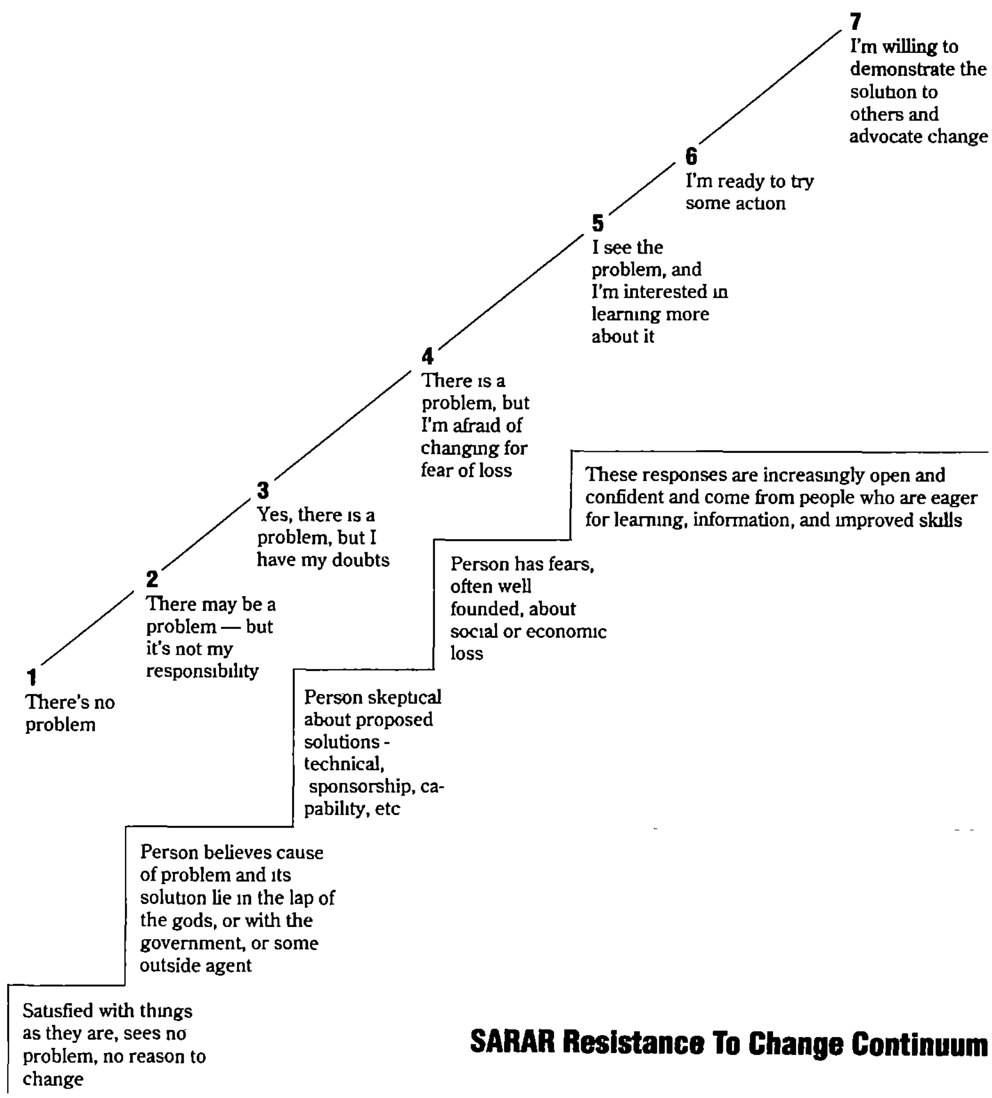
Implementation

1. Discuss the topic "resistance to change" with the group. A scheme of steps(see below) will help to explain the different levels of resistance.

2. Allow all kinds of questions and examples.

3. Form groups of four people and ask them to think about beliefs, popular phrases or anecdotes which will illustrate the different levels of resistance(1/2 hour period to work).

4. Each group will present its findings which will be placed under each step.



SARAR Resistance To Change Continuum

THE SPEAK OUT EXERCISE

Objectives This activity is designed to identify some of the barriers that might prevent community participation and, in the process, identify a number of sources of conflict that can occur in the interplay of agencies and residents involved in low-income housing improvement. It is a brainstorming exercise of a kind which encourages your colleagues and you to expose attitudes and feelings which might not often be expressed but which can strongly affect the success of projects.

There is general agreement that the involvement of residents of low-income housing projects in the formulation, implementation and management of their own settlements improves a project's chances of responding to their real needs and of achieving lasting results. Such community participation is only possible, however, when a partnership between the authorities and the residents can be established. Both parties have to agree on how responsibilities and duties will be shared.

The exercise invites you to explore the reasons why the authorities on the one hand and the residents on the other do or do not co-operate with each other.

Sequence

1. Divide your group into four clusters.
2. Each cluster takes one of the following questions:

- Why are authorities interested in co-operating with low- income residents?
- Why are authorities NOT interested in co-operating with low-income residents?
- Why are low-income residents interested in co-operating with the authorities?
- Why are low-income residents NOT interested in co-operating with residents?

3. Each group brainstorms and makes a list of reasons.

   It might facilitate contributions if you ask yourself first:

   What does my **head** tell me are the reasons;

   and then:

   What does my **heart** tell me are the reasons?

   Include, also, what you think are the thoughts and feelings of others - the sorts of remark you hear in casual conversations with staff members of housing authorities or residents of settlements.

4. On flipchart paper or newsprint, compile a list of your group's responses which you can display and discuss with the other participants.
5. In the large group, review the responses from all the groups and compile four agreed lists after discussion.

6. In a further discussion session, in the light of participants' experience of projects, consider measures that might be taken to:

- Overcome the barriers to collaboration the "restraining forces";
- Stimulate or reinforce positive attitudes to collaboration - the "driving forces".

Review

Engaging in the "Speak out" exercise should have helped to establish the context for this exploration of how conflict affects our work in housing projects. On the positive side, those of you who are working in countries where governments have made a commitment to community-participation strategies will have identified "driving forces" related to both the ideologies and the administrative structures of those organizations which exist to promote dialogue between authorities and residents. A strong lead from the top will have influences right down to the local levels of administration.

However, even in those countries where community participation is an agreed and established policy, there will be a number of reasons why barriers to its implementation occur. No doubt you will have identified some of the following:

- Highly centralized administrative systems which are not suited to the development of partnerships with communities at the local level;
- Local authorities who are not staffed with officers or technical personnel with necessary participatory skills;
- Low status of community-development departments;
- Bureaucratic attitudes of officials who might be unduly concerned with the maintenance of building standards and the meeting of strict time schedules or, less worthy, the maintenance of personal position and the keeping of personal authority.

As far as residents are concerned, you might have identified such factors as:

- The lack of confidence and skills;
- A mistrust of officials and official procedures;
- The lack of appropriate organization within the community;
- The existence of competing organizations within a community.

All such "restraining forces" set up barriers and, hence, are potential sources of conflict when a project seeks to maximize participation and to build a working partnership between authorities and the people they are serving and servicing.

Effects of conflict

However, so far, conflict has been talked of as if it is wholly or always negative. This is not so. It can be either constructive or destructive.
In the previous manual, which was concerned with leadership in problem-solving groups, we have seen how conflict can be used constructively to:

- Introduce different solutions to a problem, by using the force field analysis technique;
- Stimulate creativity, by using the brainstorming technique.

Also, by recognizing and sensitively exposing conflicts, a skilled group leader can bring emotive and non-rational arguments into the open and encourage

the “safe” expression of long- standing tensions This exposure of interpersonal problems can “free” a group for harmonious and productive work.

Conversely, if conflict is destructive, it can:

- Impede progress towards the identified goal, by various subgroups pursuing subgoals;
- Induce individuals to use defensive and blocking behaviours;
- Stimulate “win-at-all-costs” attitudes, where emotions win out over reason;
- Lead to the disruption or, even, disintegration of groups and projects.

To explore further the consequences of conflict, especially of intergroup conflict, consider what happens when you engage in the following simulation.

Task: Solving problems in a participatory way

Problem solving should be seen as a process and not as an urgent search for solutions. The process includes the identification of problems and solutions, as well as how to implement the solutions.

Related questions which might come up

* Has the problem really been identified before solutions are suggested?
* How can the community members be involved in solving the problems?

TECHNIQUES

Balloon exercise (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
With this exercise the community members are given an opportunity to identify problems and their consequences which occur in their daily life. Through writing down the specific problems and linking them to their consequences, a chain of problems and effects is made. Afterwards a discussion is held to study whether and how the links can be broken in order to solve the problems.

Brainstorming (group discussion; 1984, Eilington)
The brainstorming sessions are particularly useful in activities where many ideas are needed, such as identifying problems, generating ideas about causes of a problem and looking for various solutions.

Carts and rocks (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise visualizes the process of achieving a goal and how the process can be supported. The participants are asked to define a goal for their project. The goal should then be symbolized with an empty box, bowl, etc. Afterwards the participants are asked to define resources for as well as constraints to reaching the goal. These are also supposed to be symbolized, the resources as things pulling the goal (box, etc) forward and the constraints hindering the process. When the whole process is symbolized a discussion is held.

Case study (case; 1998, WHO and 1993, Espejo)
These case studies help participants to learn how to solve problems. The facilitator presents the participants with a problem, which another group of people have solved. The participants are asked to study how the problem was solved, if they would have done it in a different way, etc. Through this analysis the participants become aware about various aspects to think of while solving a problem.

Critical incident (exercise; 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise helps community members develop their analytical skills of solving local problems. The exercise is based on visuals illustrating crisis situations. The group is asked to analyze what problem the visuals present, what might be the cause of the problematic situation and how the problem could be solved. When the problem and its various solutions are defined, the pros and cons of the solutions should be discussed.

Identify problems and enforce collaboration through paintings (exercise; 1992, IRC)
This exercise helps the agency identify what the local people consider as problems in their environment. The exercise also creates a procedure of collaboration among the local people, while they tell the story on paper. The facilitator should not intervene in the painting activity. The facilitator only asks questions, etc. when the people have finished painting.

Problem identification A B C (list; 1984, Eilington)
This A B C-list is a question list to use while identifying problems in a project. A list might also be made with suggestions on possible solutions. The main idea with this kind of list is that it gives the participants suggestions on possible problems (The list need to be adapted to WSS projects).

Problem/Resource Analysis (group discussion; 1980, Crone & Hunter)
This group discussion gives the participants a chance to look at their problems and goals in a structured way. The participants realize how many resources they have, as well as how these can solve many of their problems. The participants are asked to list their problems, goals, and factors for and against the goal achievement. The facilitator then shows how the 'for' can overcome things in the 'against' column.

BALLOON EXERCISE

PURPOSE:

To involve participants in an analysis of women's situation in terms of the chain of consequences that result from any one problem faced by them.

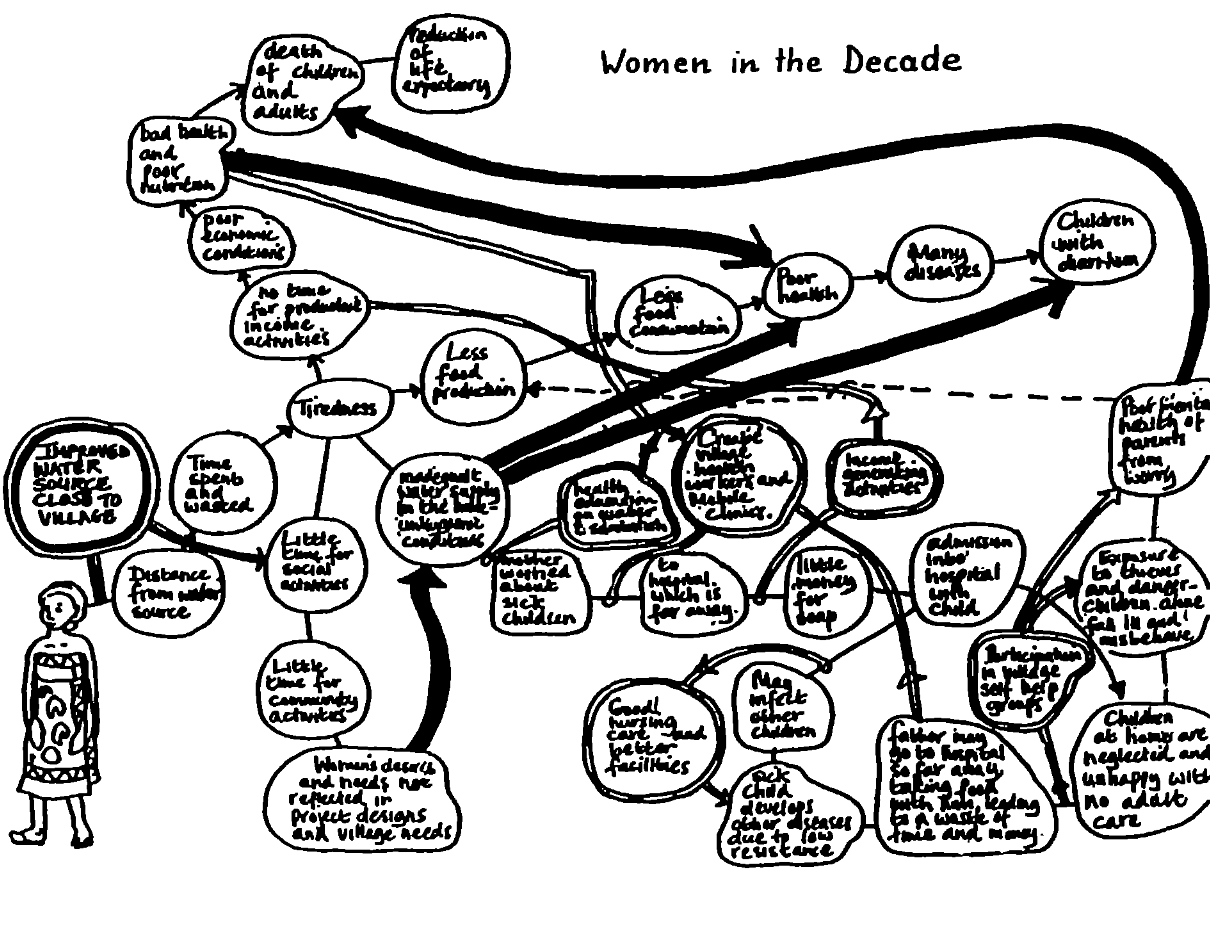
TIME: 45-60 minutes

MATERIALS:

Newsprint and markers.

PROCEDURES:

- Divide participants into small groups of no more than ten members each.
- Give each group a set of markers and newsprint.
- Ask them to begin by drawing or pasting a picture of a village woman in the lower left-hand corner. Close to this picture they should draw a balloon in which they should note down one major problem affecting women.
- They should then reflect on one or more consequences resulting from the first problem. For each consequence, they should draw a new balloon and link it to the first, indicating that it is a consequence of the first problem. They should continue drawing and linking other balloons representing the consequence of those consequences.
- When a whole chain of balloons has been created in this way they should reflect on *how* and *where* the chain of negative consequences can be broken.
- The small groups should sum up their thinking on women's situation based on this exercise and share it in a plenary session.



Double-lined circles are solutions

BRAINSTORMING

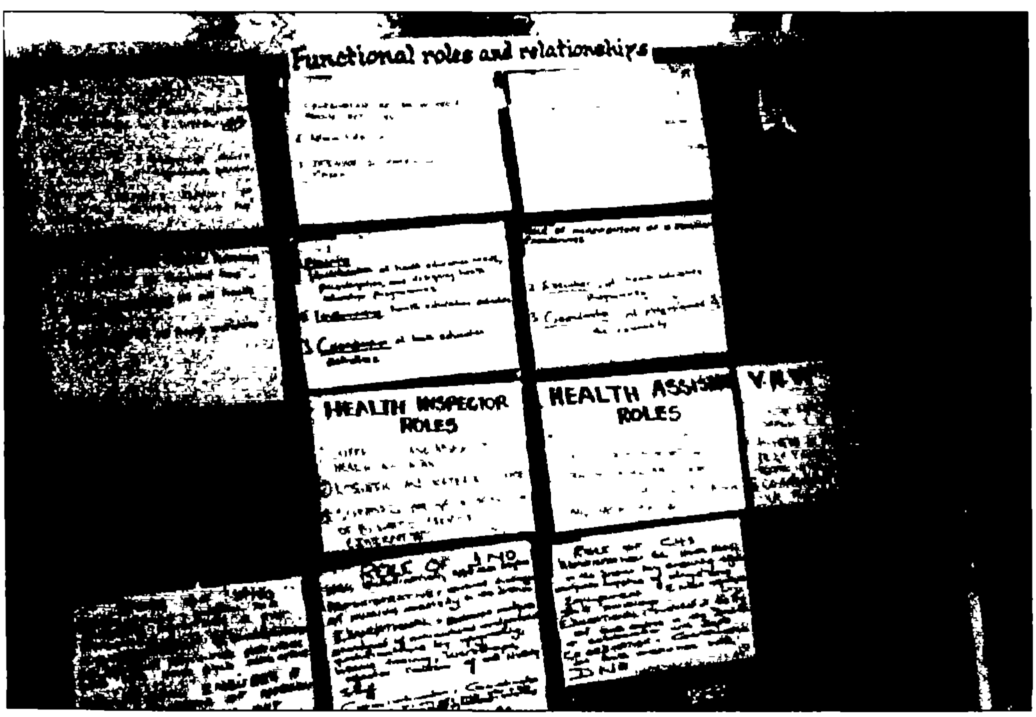
Brainstorming is a versatile problem solving tool. It is extremely useful in the first three stages of the problem solving process; that is, to:

- Identify problems for resolution
- Generate ideas (about causes, about the problem)
- Generate solutions to resolve an identified problem

Other idea producing techniques to help generate data about a problem is the "journalists'" six questions

- WHO?
- WHAT?
- WHEN?
- WHERE?
- WHY? and
- HOW?

Answers on these questions related to the problem makes it easier to find an appropriate solution



CARTS AND ROCKS

PURPOSE:

To involve village participants in the analysis of **resources** and **constraints** related to the achievement of a set goal.

TIME: 30-45 minutes

MATERIALS:

Any locally available cheap materials or found objects that can be used to represent: a cart, rocks to put in the cart, and beasts to pull the cart.

PROCEDURES:

- Engage participants in a discussion of a local problem they would like to resolve or situation they would like to improve, thus setting a goal to be achieved. Use an appropriate object to symbolise the goal.
- Using a large found object such as an empty box to represent a cart, place it some distance from the goal but facing in the direction of the goal. The cart represents the community aspiring to move towards the goal. Then ask the group what resources are available to help them succeed in this effort. For each resource identified place an object in front of the cart symbolising an animal harnessed to pull the cart towards the goal.
- Similarly, ask the group to identify the constraints to goal achievement. For each constraint identified, let the group place an object (e.g. a rock) in the cart suggesting additional weight to carry or forces holding people back. The size of the rock selected should correspond to the complexity or weight of the constraint it represents. Ask the group to assess the likelihood of the cart reaching its destination (overcoming the current problem).
- Encourage the group to make realistic judgments so that the model can accurately reflect the real situation. The positive and negative forces should be analysed one by one, and in relation to each other, for example, by considering which resource could be most helpful in overcoming any given constraint.

CASE STUDY

Case studies are based on facts and present events as they really happened.

Purpose

Case studies help people learn how to solve problems. By reading or hearing about a case (or problem) in another group or community, people can begin to think how they themselves would have solved the problem. They will learn from the successes and mistakes of the people in the case study.

Size of group

Although you can discuss case studies with individuals, they are more interesting when read and discussed in a small group. That way more people can share ideas. This helps learning.

Case studies are useful with groups of schoolchildren, with community development committees, and during training sessions with, for example, community health workers.

Selecting and writing up a case study

First you must know what problems people want to solve. Let us say that you are working with a community development committee which has chosen to improve the village water supply. From your own experience, can you think of other villages that have tried to solve the same problem? Ask other health workers about their experiences in such projects, particularly if you have never been involved in one before.

Choose both successes and failures from among these experiences. Also choose experiences in communities with a culture similar to that of the community where you now work.

Write out these experiences to form the case study. If the village you are using for the study is near where you are working, change the name of the village and the people. They may become embarrassed if they learn that you are talking about them to people in neighbouring villages.

In the case study, describe each step that was taken to solve the problem. How did people first notice the problem? What did they think caused it? Who participated in trying to solve the problem? What action did they plan to solve it? How did they carry out the action? Did things go smoothly or were there difficulties? What were the final results?

Try to write briefly. The case study should be no longer than about two handwritten pages. If it is too long, people may not remember the details and may become confused when they discuss it

Using the case study

If the group can read, you may try to make a few extra copies of what you have written for them to share and read. If the group cannot read, you must read the case study to them. Read slowly. It is a good idea to repeat it to be sure that everyone has heard the main points.

After the case study has been read or heard, encourage group members to begin discussing it. You may ask a few opening questions. Do you agree with the solutions the people in the case study planned? Why do you think they succeeded (or failed)? Would the things they did work in our community? What should we do differently?

Encourage everyone to share opinions. Help the group reach some decisions about possible ways of solving the same problem in their own village or group.

Sample case study
'Safe water for Amata Village'

The Iddo Community comprises a number of villages. In all of them, people suffer from guinea-worm infection, a waterborne disease. If people drink contaminated water, nine months or a year later they may find that a long, thick white worm has grown in their bodies. The worm usually grows in a part of the body that comes into contact with water (often the legs). The adult worm will cause an ulcer in the skin and push itself through so it can deposit its eggs in the water This painful disease is responsible for many absences from work and school, and the ulcers can become infected with tetanus

After discussing the problem with the staff at the local health centre, the residents of Iddo decided to organize a primary health care project to deal with guinea-worm and other local problems

Word about the primary health care project was sent to every village in the Iddo area Each village was asked to send at least one volunteer to the health centre to be trained as a community health worker

The health centre staff drew up a training programme that took the problems mentioned by the community leaders into account, covering subjects like these.

- Clean water supply, including how to build wells, protected springs, and simple filtering, with emphasis on self-help;
- First aid for cuts and wounds.
- Treatment of simple problems like fever and diarrhoea
- Health and nutrition of children

Amata is a small village about 10 kilometres from the Iddo health centre When the villagers heard the news about the primary health care programme, they were very happy Out of the 75 people living in Amata, 40 were suffering from guinea-worm infection They wanted someone to go to Iddo to learn how to rid the village of the disease

When the chief of Amata heard the news, he asked his two brothers to come and discuss the idea They decided that the son of one of the brothers would be sent to Iddo for training This son, Amos, had finished primary school several years earlier The three men thought that the boy was bright and thus a suitable choice. They also thought that the training might help him in the future

When the decision to send Amos was announced in the village, people were not happy Some had wanted to send members of their own families. They also thought that the boy was too young and might eventually run away to the city He would be of no use to them then A few people

voiced their opposition, but the chief's mind was set His nephew was sent for the training

When Amos returned, the first thing he did was to call a meeting of the village elders He said that the community should build a small hut or room for him next to his father's house This room would be his 'clinic'. It was the planting season and everyone was busy, but they agreed to do as Amos asked They hoped that the clinic would help him work better.

Amos enjoyed treating sick people He had been given a small supply of drugs in Iddo to use in his village He had been told that he should charge a small amount of money for the drugs in order to be able to pay for replacements. Amos decided to charge more for the drugs and keep the extra money The people did not complain at first, because they did not know how community health workers were acting in the other villages

Amos tried to use up his drugs quickly He would then go to Iddo to buy more He would sometimes stay in Iddo, or even go to the city, for up to a week, enjoying himself with the extra money he had made from selling the drugs

After a few months, the Amata people learned from friends what the community health workers in other villages were doing Most of these workers had already started self-help efforts to dig wells and protect springs None of them had asked their villages to build them a clinic All were selling their drugs cheaply The health workers in other villages were never away for a long time. When they went to collect new drug supplies, they usually returned on the same day

The people of Amata were unhappy because they had not benefited from the primary health care programme.

Learning from the case study

A case study like this could be used with village leaders to help them learn how to select and use community health workers. It could be discussed with the community health workers themselves to help them learn how best to behave and work in their communities.

Here are some of the questions that might be discussed.

- What went wrong with the programme?
- What could the chief of Amata have done differently?
- What should those villagers who did not agree with his choice have done in the beginning?
- What is the best way of choosing a community health worker?
- What should be the qualifications of a community health worker?
- What should the people of Amata do now?

Then, on the basis of the ideas that come up during discussion, you could do a role-play. People could take the parts of the chief, his brothers, Amos, and several other villagers. One play could try to show how a good primary health care programme might have been organized in Amata. Another could try to show ways of improving the situation in which the people of Amata found themselves.

CASE STUDY TO IDENTIFY PROBLEMS BETWEEN COMMUNITY AND AGENCY

Use:
This case was used for extension agents and supervisors. It shows a typical problem in a WSS project.

Ani, the work supervisor, arrives at the community after a two-hour trip in order to check the construction work. The person in charge of the work informs her that for nearly a week he has not been able to do any work. He requested material for the construction(river sand and stones) from the committee, 15 days ago. He has still not received the material.

He can not go ahead either on the trench digging nor the pipe laying because the neighbours have not come to help him. The supervisor takes note of this situation and leaves with a feeling of frustration, since the work has not been accomplished as originally planned. Upon her return she requests to the corresponding authorities the intervention of the community promotion.

After few days the promoter visits the community and requests some explanation to the water committee.

QUESTIONS

1. Can you identify the problems this situation creates?

2. What do you think about the behaviour of the supervisor, Ani?

3. Which alternative do you suggest in this situation?

CRITICAL INCIDENT

PURPOSE:

To help villagers develop analytical ability in order to solve local problems.

TIME: 20-30 minutes

MATERIALS:

Pictures or drawings of problem situations.

NOTE TO TRAINER:

As noted earlier, in development activities at the village level, analysis is needed to understand the dimensions of a problem, to identify the most logical and efficient procedures to arrive at solutions and to define the precise investment implications for manpower, funds or equipment. This is one of several analytical exercises for villagers. See also the "Mini-Cases" Activity in this section on page 104.

A Critical Incident activity is similar to the Problem-Drama in that it involves analysis of the pros and cons of proposed solutions. Structurally, it can be simpler and shorter, especially if a set of visuals is used to illustrate the circumstances leading up to the crisis.

For example, at a Training of Trainers workshop in Lesotho, one subgroup presented a critical incident in the life of a rural household that had no latrine. The story was developed with the help of three visuals: The first one showed an angry husband refusing to build a latrine; the second showed the wife going out to the bush on a rainy night due to lack of household sanitary facilities; the third showed the wife ill with fever, the house neglected and the husband looking very worried.

PROCEDURES:

- Present two or three visuals that illustrate a problem situation.
- Ask the group to analyse what problem is being conveyed in the pictures, what factors might have contributed to the problem and how it could be resolved.
- Discuss the pros and cons of different options.

IDENTIFY PROBLEMS AND ENFORCE COLLABORATION THROUGH PAINTINGS

This technique makes it possible for agecny staff to get to know problems in the community as the local people see them. The technique also stimulates a working procedure where the community members need to collaborate around the certain problem, such as water scarcity. The technique creates interest among community members and strengthens their participation.

1. The facilitator provides a group of community members with a piece of paper, finger paint or any other painting material. The group is then asked to draw a painting, which explains the history of the water sources in their community.

2. The facilitator is not supposed to intervene, while the people are painting. The facilitator's task is to observe what the community members paint and how they collaborate within the group.

3. When the group has finished painting, they are asked to explain what the painting shows. The facilitator may ask questions to clarify doubts he/she has and to indicate certain important issues.

4. When the community members have explained their work, the facilitator can discuss the working procedure of the group. How did they collaborate, what influence did their working procedure have on the outcome(painting), etc? How can they relate the work in the group to the work in the project?

The experience of this technique is that community members get a feeling of how important collaboration is for the task accomplishment.

Needed: paper, finger paint or some other painting material.

(1992, IRC/Christine van Wijk)

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Problem Identification—ABC Approach

On the assumption that if we sincerely want to identify problems it's "as easy as A B C," a comprehensive question list that should aid groups in locating their problems is given in Figure 10-4.

Groups working with this list have several options:

1. They can define or redefine any item in the list.
2. They can add new items, the one's provided triggering other more pertinent ones.
3. They can respond directly to what they see: "Yes, our problem is the 'half-measures' we take."

EXAMPLE OF ABC-APPROACH

A —Attitudes? Antagonisms? Apathy? Adaptability? Aesthetics? Automation?
B —Behaviors? Bottlenecks? Bargaining? Bureaucracy? Budgets?
C —Communication? Climate? Change? Crises? Complaints? Careers? Conflict?
D —Delegation? Decentralization? Defects? Danger? Difficulties? Deviations? Durability? Deadlines?
E —Environment (situation)? Economy? Errors? Ethics (morality)? Experimentation?
F —Frustration? Fear? Fantasies? Fun? Failure? Forecasting?
G —Garbage (as in computer inputs-outputs)? Goals? Group (processes)?
H —Hazards? Half-measures? Hierarchy?
I —Indecision? Interaction (inadequate, inappropriate)? Intentions? Insensitivities? Ideas? Ideals?
J —Job (design, enrichment, cycle, rotation, security)?
K —Knowledge?
L —Listening? Loyalty? Leadership? Lemons? Laziness?
M—Motivation? Money? Manpower? Material? Methods? Mixups? Meetings?
N —Negativism? Nitpicking? Negotiation? Needs?
O —Organization? Objectives? Operations? Opportunities? Obstructions?
P —Pressures? Performance? Policies? Plans? Personnel? Procedures? Pay? Pessimism? Production?
Q —Quality? Quantity?
R —Resistance (to change)? Rejects? Reward System? Relationships? Responsibility?
S —Safety? Standards? Seasonal set-ups? Scheduling? Sales? Secretaries? Staff?
T —Training? Turnover? Time Management? Timing? Team (building, management)?
U —Utilization? Urban (aspects)? Union? Unity? Unification?
V —Vendettas? Venom? Variables? Visibility?
W—Waste? Workweek? Workday? Warehousing?
X —eXpense?
Y —Yesterday's breadwinners? You-I?
Z —Zero defects? Zig zags?

Figure 10-4. An alphabetically arranged question list to aid in problem identification.

The issues in this ABC can of course be exchanged to appropriate issues for WSS projects.
An ABC-list of such character could also help activities like planning, decision-making and evaluation.

PROBLEM RESOURCE ANALYSIS

TIME: 1½ hrs.

"I was working with a group of men and women farmers who were community leaders. They were all from the same area and they knew each other but they never before had compared their perceptions of village problems. I wanted to introduce them to a brainstorming technique for problem solving and, in the process, to create a sense of group unity."

SETTING

A quiet, large enough meeting place

MATERIALS

Blackboard and chalk
or
Newsprint and felt pen

Paper and pencils (enough for each participant)

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

STEP 1–Have the participants identify the three most important problems facing them. This can be done by asking each participant to write down on a piece of paper his or her three most pressing problems and read these aloud to the group. The participants may wish instead to call out their answers for the facilitator to write down.

STEP 2–Copy the table below onto the blackboard or newsprint:

PROBLEM	AGAINST	FOR	GOAL

Under *Problem*, list one most pressing problem facing the participants. Under *Goal*, write the solution perceived by the participants.

STEP 3–Ask the participants to list all of the things preventing them from solving their problem. These should be listed in the *Against* column. Next, have them list all the things working *For* the solution of the problem. It is then up to the facilitator to show specifically how the activities in the *For* column can overcome things in the *Against* column and aid the participants in achieving their goals.

STEP 4–Repeat the process with the other two major problems perceived by the participants.

WHAT HAPPENED

The participants were really excited, both to realize that other people felt the same way about problems facing them and to see a longer list in the *For* column than in the *Against* column. They suddenly recognized that they had many resources they had never been aware of before. And they were delighted to discover that they could use those resources to solve their own problems.

Task: Understanding group leadership

Group leadership is a skill that people can develop if they are willing to take time to:
- observe what goes on in the group
- identify clearly the needs of the group
- learn ways of dealing with the group's needs
- practice these skills in many different situations
- take people's feelings seriously
- listen to feedback about other's reactions to their own behaviour as a leader

It takes sensitivity to develop one's skills as a leader, as well as a number of years of practice. Leadership is a complex phenomena, very much related to certain values. The concepts and techniques below are meant for agencies that are "westernised". Other cultures have an even more complex nature than the leadership roles described in the tools below. For example leadership within a traditional community might be related to age, position in the society, skills, etc. which are not considered in these tools.

Related questions which might come up

* What kind of leadership does the agency have in the project?
* Is the agency leading the project in an appropriate way, in relation to needs of the group?
* Can the participants influence the agency's leadership?

TECHNIQUES

Broken squares (puzzle; 1985, International Agriculture Centre)
The puzzle shows difficulties in the cooperation between group members. After the puzzle is played a discussion is held, which stimulates the cooperation in the group and makes the people more interested in each other. The puzzle helps the group members develop their capacity to cooperate, and it can help situations when there are tensions felt in the group. (For handout of the techniuqe, see the task "Getting to know the group")

Concept leadership (conceptual tool and chart; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This material gives agency staff and community members three examples of leadership styles and their effects on a group. A chart is included showing the different styles of leadership. The chart can be used in a group discussion, in order to make the participants aware of when to use a certain leadership style, as well as pros and cons of the various styles.

Role-play on "bossy teacher" and "good group leader" (role-play; 1982, Werner)
This role-play shows the participants how different leadership styles influence the learners and their capacity to tackle problems. Two role-plays are carried out showing two very different ways of teaching a group of people (one-way and two-way communication). Afterwards a discussion is held, where the two types of leaders are compared and analyzed. The facilitator asks the participants how they will use what they have learnt in their projects.

Shared leadership (group discussion; 1984, Hope & Timmel) This group discussion shows the participants how leadership can be shared by a group of people instead of by only one person. The focus is on the maintenance of a good working atmosphere in the group, and how the content is worked out by the whole group. The group discussion should preferably be held after a decision-making activity, in order to have something to reflect back on during this discussion. It can then be discussed how the group members interacted, who was leading the discussion.

CONCEPT LEADERSHIP

Some people regard leadership as a mysterious, 'charismatic' quality, which some people have and some people do not have. It can also be seen as a **skill** that many people can develop if they are willing to take time

- observing what goes on in groups,
- identifying clearly the main needs of groups,
- learning ways of dealing with these needs,
- practising these skills in many different situations,
- taking people's feelings seriously,
- listening to feedback about other's reactions to their own behaviour as a leader,
- making changes in their behaviour, so that people will will respond in a positive and not a negative way to them.

It takes sensitivity, humility, and love to develop one's skills as a leader, and it takes a number of years of practice.

Animator/Facilitator/Co-ordinator

The style of leadership is extremely important in any program aiming at full participation of the community in a liberating process and self-reliant development. There are many styles of group leadership. As we see in the table on page 102, (Book 3) leadership may be Authoritarian, Consultative or Enabling.

Though authoritarian leadership may be necessary at times of danger, when a group is struggling for survival, such leadership does not foster initiative, creativity or responsibility in the members of the group. Authoritarian leadership tends to make people act as obedient robots, which do not think for themselves. They may accept this situation for a while, but later people with initiative and creativity will start to rebel

The role of a facilitator is to **provide a process,** which will help the group to discuss their own content in the most satisfactory and productive way possible. The facilitator is neutral about the content of the meeting, and has no stake in the decisions that are taken. The facilitator is totally concerned with process, not at all with content.

The facilitator's responsibility is to ensure that there is good communication in the group and that all the members are satisfied with, and fully committed to, the decisions taken.

In some cases, a facilitator is not from the community. In such cases, the role taken on is to facilitate the group. A facilitator who comes from outside a community may challenge the group about the implications and consequences of their plans, but ultimately, the group must 'own' their own plans, not following ideas from outside.

The Role of an Animator is to help a community discover and use all its potential for creative and constructive team work.

An animator needs all the skills of a facilitator but the animator also has a special responsibility **to stimulate people**·

- to think critically,
- to identify problems,
- to find new solutions.

For this (s)he may need a code to focus everyone's attention immediately on the same problem, and a careful plan to help the group move progressively from one step to the next

The animator provides a process in which people can:

- share their concerns
  their information
  their opinions
- set goals
- make decisions
- plan action.

The animator needs to **understand the different forces** operating in a group. When the process gets stuck, the animator needs to identify the problem. It may be a hidden conflict, a lack of information, a power struggle or some other problem.

The animator needs to enable the group to understand the problem and deal with it constructively.

Many of us have had very little experience in an educational process which is truly problem-posing, but we have all had much experience of 'banking'. We therefore have a tendency to move back very easily to the traditional 'teaching method' if we do not design problem-posing learning events or meetings carefully

The Role of a co-ordinator is to draw together people, actions and events, in such a way that they support and strengthen each other, and do not compete or clash with each other. There needs to be co-ordination within each program and co-ordination between different programs. The role of the co-ordinator will be dealt with much more fully in Chapter 10.

A group leader can be any one of these types. The word 'leader' is a vague term when we see how many different types of leadership there are and what is needed in a

Discussion

In a workshop, an animator can give a short input on these three different styles of leadership. Each participant is given a handout on 'Leadership Styles' and in small groups, they can discuss:

1. When have you seen all 8 different forms of leadership styles used in your own situation?
2. Was each leadership style appropriate in the situation? Why or why not?
3. Should another style have been used? Why or why not?

Materials

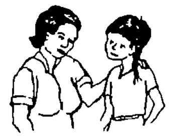
Copies for each participant of the chart on 'Leadership Styles'.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

ENABLING LEADERSHIP participation	Leader Calls on Members to Identify Limits, Explore Situation, Make Decision	Leader maintains a facilitating role allowing members to identify situation or problem, identify limits, explore, and make decision.
	Leader Defines Limits, Calls on Members to Make Decision	Leader shares any "givens" (e.g., funds available, time parameters, etc.) and facilitates a decision by members on basis of limitations.
CONSULTATIVE LEADERSHIP security	Leader Calls on Members to Make Decision, but Holds Veto	Leader calls on group to identify situation and limitations, explore and make decision contingent on leader's veto power.
	Leader Presents Situation, Gets Input, Makes Decision	Leader identifies situation or problem and moves into a facilitating role to surface assumptions and suggestions, then moves out of facilitating role and makes a decision
	Leader Presents Tentative Decision Subject to Change	Leader announces his "tentative" decision and announces that he is open to questions of clarification and discussion. (Dialogue with willingness to change decision if necessary.)
AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP survival	Leader Presents Decision & Invites Questions of Clarifica-tion	Leader announces his decision, but responds on an impromptu basis with a rationale based on the questions of clarification from the members. (Dialogue with no expressed willingness to change decision.)
	Leader Presents Decision but "Sells" It to Members	Leader announces his decision and shares the reasons behind it, which were prepared in advance. (Monologue)
	Leader Makes Decision and Announces It	Leader announces his decision with no feeling of responsibility or accountability to share the reasons.

ROLE PLAYS THAT HELP PEOPLE EXPLORE TWO KINDS OF TEACHING

The bossy teacher



The friendly group leader

For health workers to appreciate the importance of appropriate teaching, it helps if they experience two kinds of teaching and then compare them

A good way to do this is through 'role playing' (see Chapter 14) Here we give ideas for two role plays to compare the ***bossy teacher*** with the ***good group leader.***

These role plays are most effective if they take the students by surprise. Although the whole class participates, at first students will not realize that the instructor is 'acting'— and that they are actors, too!

In the role plays, the instructor (or two different instructors) will **teach the same health topic in two very different ways.** Then the students compare their reactions to the two lessons. They discuss how each of the classes affects the learners personally, and how each prepares them to meet important needs in their communities.

The two role plays we present here deal with dental care They have been used effectively in Latin America and Africa. But of course you can choose any health topic you want.

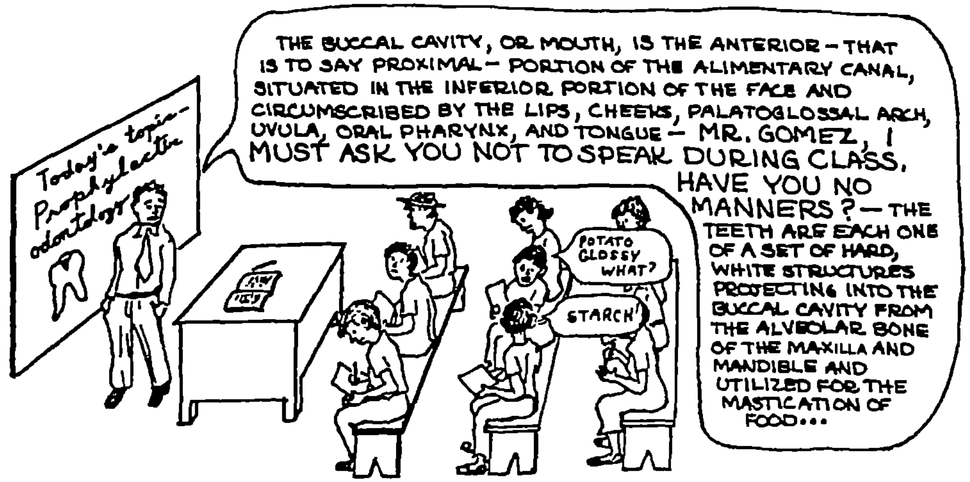
The first role play: THE BOSSY TEACHER in a conventional classroom

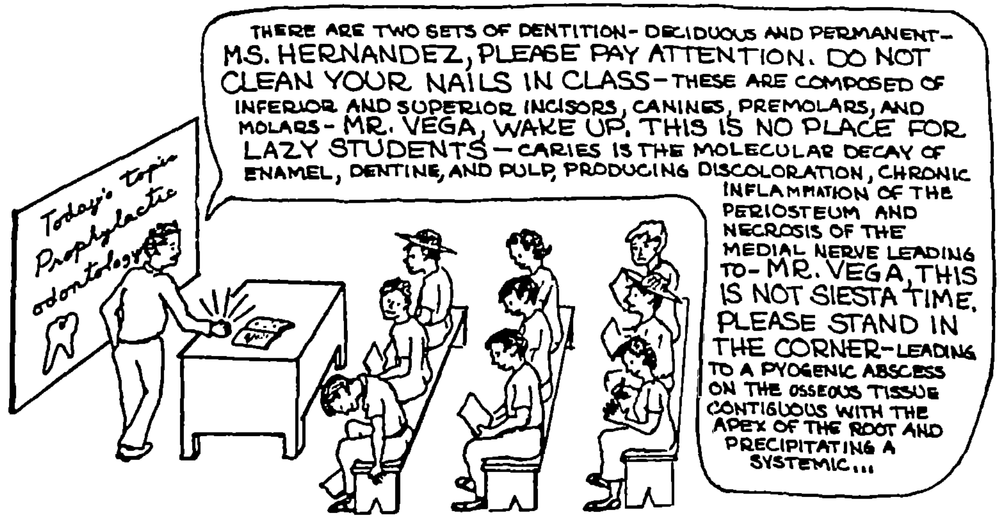
Suggestions to the instructor:

- Before the students arrive, put chairs or benches in neat rows, with a desk or podium at the front.
- When the students arrive, greet them stiffly and ask them to sit down. Make sure they are quiet and orderly.
- Begin the lecture exactly on time. Talk rapidly in a dull voice. Walk back and forth behind the desk. If some students come late, scold them! Use big words the students cannot understand Do not give them a chance to ask questions. (It helps if you prepare in advance a few long, complicated sentences that use difficult medical terminology Look in a medical dictionary, or copy phrases out of any professional textbook.)
- If any student does not pay attention, or whispers to a neighbor, or begins to go to sleep, ***BANG*** on the table, call the student by his last name, and scold him angrily. Then continue your lecture
- From time to time, scribble something on the blackboard. Be sure it is difficult to see and understand.
- Act as if you know it all, as if you think the students are stupid, lazy, rude, and worthless Take both yourself and your teaching very seriously. Permit no laughter or interruptions. But be careful not to exaggerate too much! Try not to let the students know you are acting

The first role play: THE BOSSY TEACHER

The teacher talks over the heads of the bored and confused students, like this,





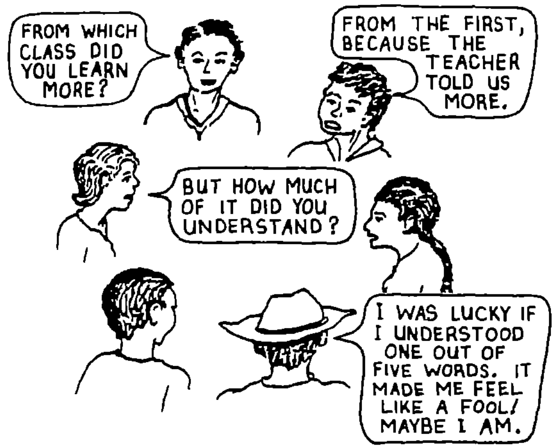
The lecture goes on and on—all very serious At the end of the class, the teacher may simply walk out Or he may ask a few questions like, "MR. REYES, WILL YOU GIVE US THE DEFINITION OF CARIES?" And when he gets no answer, scold him by shouting, "SO, YOU WERE SLEEPING, TOO! THIS GROUP HAS THE ATTENTION SPAN OF 5-YEAR-OLDS!" And so on.

Group discussion following the two role plays

You may want to discuss what the students think about the first role play as soon as it is over. Or you may want to wait until both role plays have been presented, so the students can compare them.

Good questions to start a discussion might be

- What did you think of the two classes (on dental care)?
- From which class did you learn more?
- Which did you like better? Why?
- Who do you think was the better teacher? Why?



You may be surprised at some of the answers you get! Here are a few answers we have heard students give.

"I learned more from the first class, because the teacher told us more. I learned a lot of new words. Of course, I didn't understand them all . . ."

"The first class was much better organized."

"I liked the second class better, but the first one was better taught."

"The second class was too disorderly. You could scarcely tell the teacher from the students."

"The first teacher wasn't as nice, but he had better control of the class."

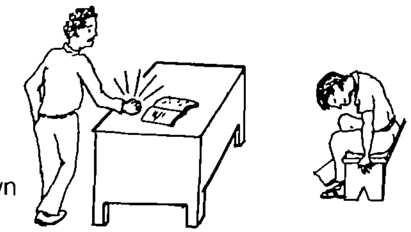
"The first teacher was by far the best. He told us something. The second one didn't tell us anything we didn't already know!"

"I felt more comfortable in the first class—I don't know why. I guess I knew that as long as I kept my mouth shut, I'd be all right. It was more like real school!"

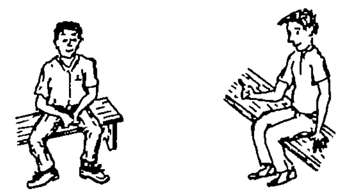
"The second class was more fun. I forgot it was a class!"

By asking still more questions, you may be able to get the students to look more closely at what they learned—and have yet to learn—from the two classes. Follow through with questions like these.

- In which class did you **understand** more of what was said? Does this matter?
- From which class can you **remember** more? Does this matter?
- Do you remember something better when you are told the answer, or when you have to figure out the answer for yourself?
- In which class did students seem more interested? More bored?
- In which class did you feel freer to speak up and say what you think?
- Which class had more to do with your own lives and experience?



- From which class did you get more ideas about ways to involve people in their own health care?
- Which class seemed to bring the group closer together? Why? Does this matter?
- Which teacher treated the students more as his equals? Could this affect the way the students will relate to sick persons and to those they teach?
- Which is the better teacher—one who has to be 'tough' in order to keep the students' attention? Or one who keeps their attention by getting them interested and involved?
- Did you learn anything useful from these classes, apart from dental care? What?



- In what ways are the relations between each teacher and the students similar to relations between different people in your village? For example, between landholders and sharecroppers? Between friends?

With questions like these, you can **help the students to look critically at their own situation.** As much as you can, **let them find their own answers, even if they are different from yours.** The less you tell them, the better.

If the discussion goes well, most of the questions listed above will be asked—and answered—by the students themselves. Each answer, if approached critically, leads to the next question—or to even better ones!

If the students do not think things over as carefully as you would like, do not worry And whatever you do, **do not push them.** Your answers have value only for yourself. Each person must come up with his or her own. There will be many other opportunities during the training to help students discover how education relates to life. In the last analysis, **your example will say far more than your words**—for better or for worse

If you want lasting results:
POINT but don't *PUSH.*

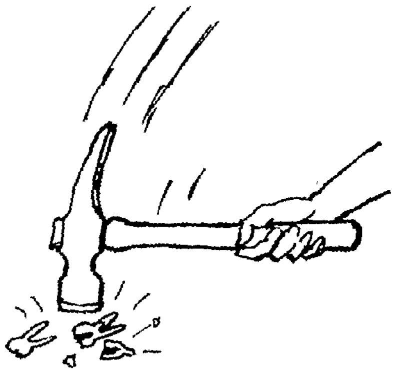
People will move by themselves once they see the need clearly and discover a way.

The second role play: THE GOOD GROUP LEADER or 'facilitator'

This time, the instructor treats the students in a friendly, relaxed way—as equals. (This role can be played by the same instructor or a different one Or perhaps a student could prepare for it in advance.)

Suggestions to the group leader:

- At the beginning of class, suggest that people **sit in a circle** so they can see each others' faces. Join the circle yourself as one of the group.
- As a group leader, you 'teach' the same subject as the instructor in the first role play But whenever possible, try to **draw information out of the students from their own experience.**
- Be careful to **use words the students understand.** Check now and then to be sure they *do* understand.
- **Ask a lot of questions.** Encourage students to think critically and figure things out for themselves.
- **Emphasize the most useful ideas and information** (in this case, what the students can do in their communities to prevent tooth decay).
- **Use teaching aids that are available locally** and are as close to real life as possible. For example, you might invite a young child to the class so students can see for themselves the difference between baby teeth and permanent teeth.
- Do not waste a lot of time discussing detailed anatomy. Instead, include such information when it is needed for understanding specific problems.
- Have students look in each others' mouths for cavities. Then pass around some rotten teeth that were pulled at the health center. Let students smash the teeth open with a hammer or rock, so they can see the different layers (hard and soft) and how decay spreads inside a tooth. Ask someone to draw the inside of a tooth on the blackboard.
- **Encourage students to relate what they have seen and learned to real needs and problems** in their own communities. Discuss what action they might take.

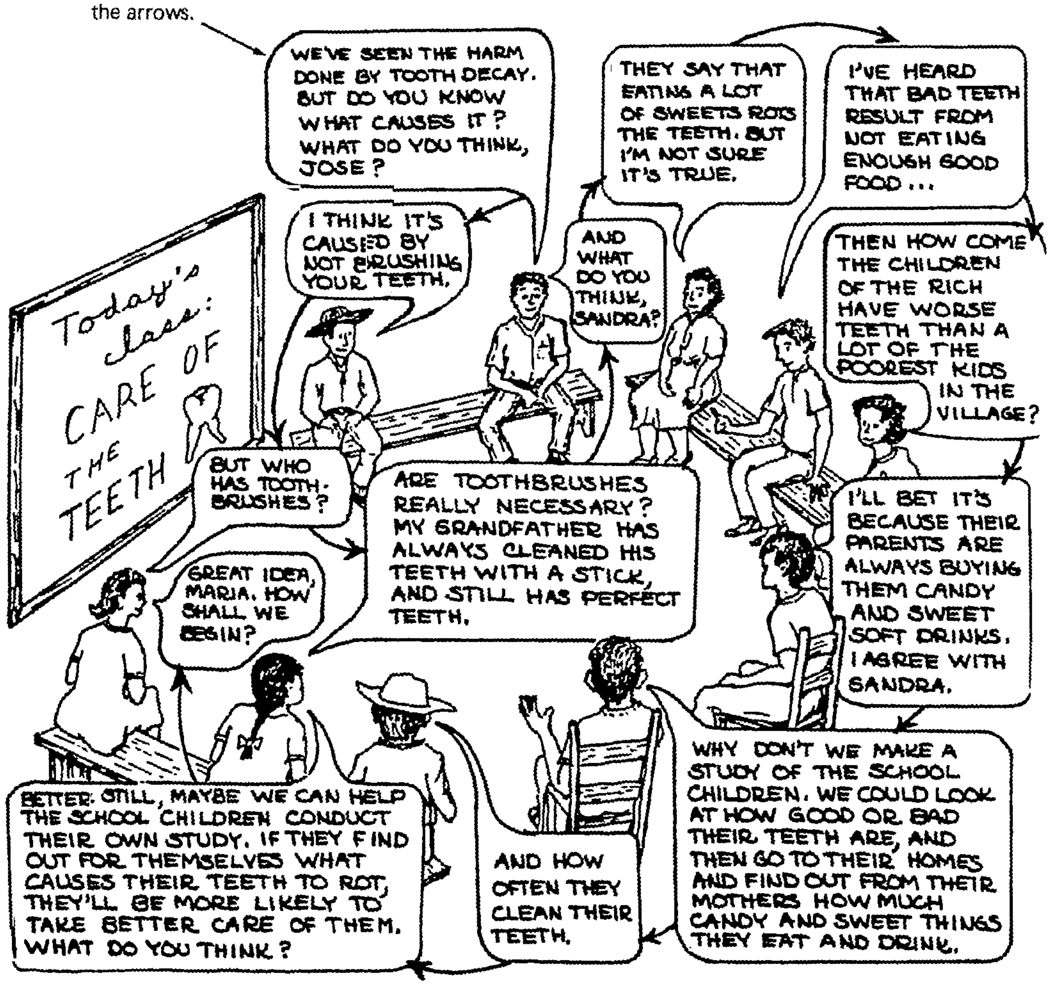


Students can break open teeth that have been pulled to see for themselves what the inside of a tooth looks like and what damage a cavity can cause.

The second role play: THE GOOD GROUP LEADER

The teacher or leader tries to get a discussion started—then stays in the background as much as possible, like this

To follow this discussion, start here and follow the arrows.



At the end of class, the leader asks the group what they have learned and what they plan to do with what they have learned. He helps them realize that the ideas raised in class need not end in the classroom, but can be carried out into the real world—into the communities where the health workers live and work

SHARED LEADERSHIP

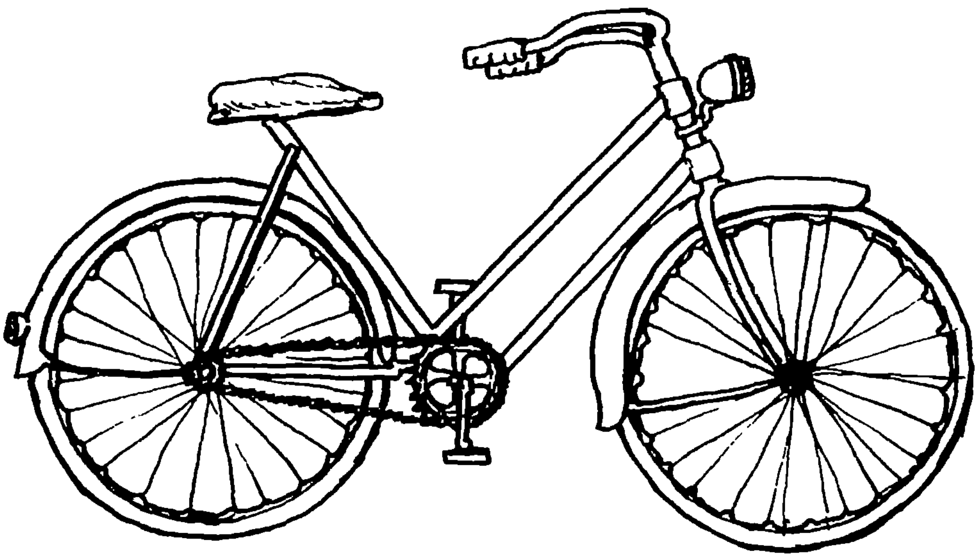
If a group has just done the previous exercise, one can look back to the list made of what a good animator should do in the group. It usually strikes the group that this involves an awful lot for one person to concentrate on and that the animator needs help from the rest of the group. The following discussion can help a group to be much clearer about shared leadership and the role of the animator.

Procedure

1. When the group has just had a fairly positive experience of discussion and decision-making, ask them to form groups of 3's and discuss:
   What factors helped the group to reach its goal? Ask them as specific as possible, e.g. not just everyone was co-operative, but to explain in what way people were co-operative.

2. Make a list on newsprint of all the different factors mentioned. Then show how most of these factors were meeting needs of one of two kinds:
   — Helping to **get the task completed,** or
   — Helping to **maintain a good spirit in the group.**

3. Draw a bicycle and list the Task Needs under the back wheel and the Good Spirit (Maintenance) Needs under the front wheel.



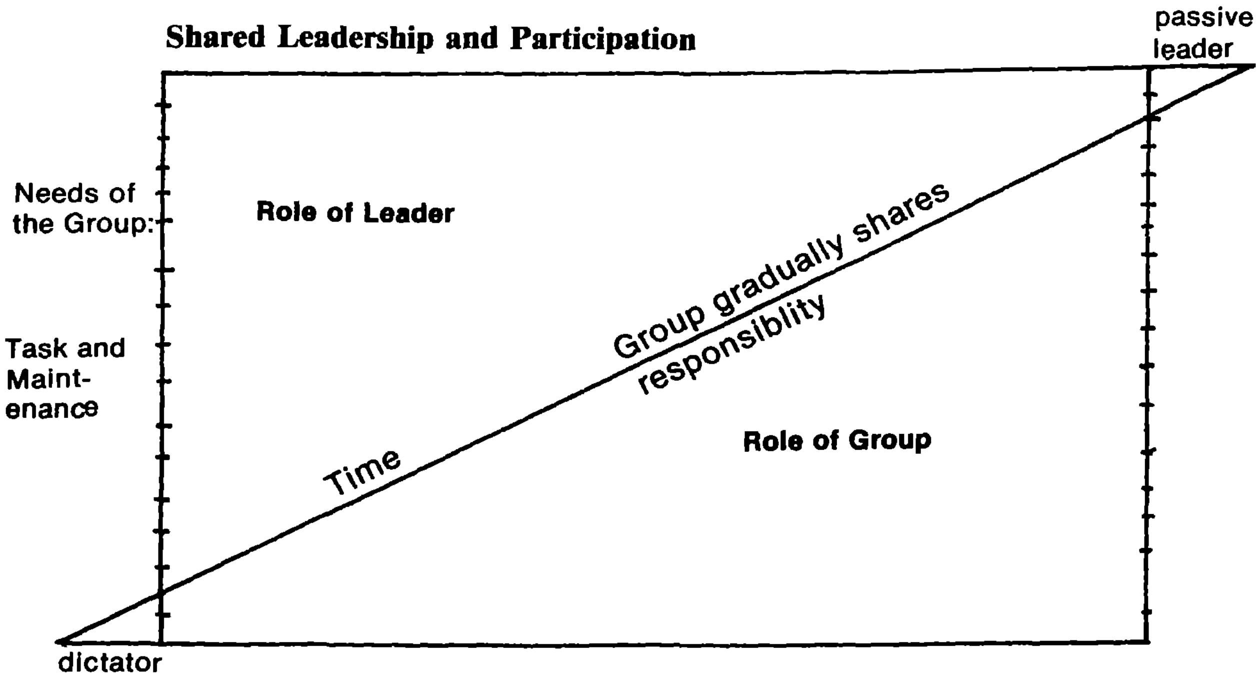
Task	**Maintenance**
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________

4. Ask what happens in a group if,
   a. the task needs are ignored,
   b. the maintenance needs are ignored.
5. Handout the prepared list of task and maintenance functions and ask them to compare this with their own list, noting anything missing.
6. Explain then that leadership involves being sensitive to the needs of the group at any particular moment and responding to this need. This response can be given by any member of the group, not necessarily the chairperson or animator.

This then becomes Shared Leadership

7. Draw the following diagram on the board and explain how leadership becomes shared over a period of time.

Shared Leadership and Participation



It takes time for a group to develop an effective way of sharing leadership. At first the leader may need to respond to as many of the needs as (s)he can her/himself. Members who have had training will quickly recognise group needs and start responding to these needs also.

As the group gets to know each other, gradually different members will assume more and more of the leadership roles themselves. The leader should then take responsibility mainly for those needs which no one else in the group seems to be meeting. This will vary from group to group. Sometimes the leader may notice that everyone is asking for or giving information very freely, but no one is gatekeeping. At other times group members may be full of original ideas but no one is summarising or building upon the ideas offered. etc.

As the group members take more and more responsibility, for its own life, the leader can become less active. This process shows how a group becomes self-governing, self-reliant and not dependent.

Task

1. **Initiating** Getting the group started on the task. Offering new suggestions, topics for discussion, plans, etc

2. **Asking for Information** Drawing out the resources of the group and identifying information which needs to be found elsewhere.

3. **Giving Information** or facts or sharing relevant experiences.

4. **Asking for Opinions** Good decision-making depends on knowing what all members think and feel about a suggestion.

5. **Giving Opinions** Some do this too much and some too little. Sometimes a quick way to get all opinions needs to be found (e.g. straw votes).

6 **Explaining** Giving practical examples to make a point clear.

7 **Clarifying** Asking a question or repeating a point in different words to make it clear to all.

8 **Summarizing** Stating briefly the main points made so far.

9 **Checking Concensus** Seeing if everyone, especially silent members agree on a point.

10 **Suggesting a Process for Decision-making** (See Chapter 7 for details on such processes.)

Maintenance

1. **Encouraging** Being friendly, responding to and building on suggestions made by others, showing acceptance and appreciation of others and their ideas.

2. **Gatekeeping** Giving a quiet person a chance to join the discussion. (e.g. 'John was about to say something.'

3. **Setting Standards** 'Shall we agree that everybody speaks once and nobody speaks more than twice?' or 'Let's try to stick to the point and avoid discussing outside situations.'

4. **Diagnosing Difficulties** 'I think we cannot make this decision until we get more information.' or 'Maybe some of us are afraid of the consequences of this decision.'

5 **Expressing Personal and Group Feelings** 'I'm getting bored. This is a small point and we have spent half an hour on it.'

Harmonising Helping those in conflict to understand one another's views.

7. **Evaluating** Creating an opportunity for people to express feelings and reactions towards the working of the group.

8. **Relieving Tension** By bringing it out into the open, putting a problem in a wider context, or making a well-timed joke.

Task: Assessing and evaluating a project in a participatory way

Participatory evaluation and assessment are processes of involving participants in programmes to reflect critically on their own projects, aims, leadership, etc. These activities require the executing level of a project to take active part in evaluating their activities. Through examining strengths and weaknesses the participants can contribute more to the task accomplishment. Below techniques refer to both general as well as formal assessment.

Related questions which might come up

* Are the community members participating in the evaluation of the project?
* How can evaluation be a regular activity in the project development?
* How can the evaluation be facilitated in the project?

TECHNIQUES

Alternative evaluation methods (role play, drawings & discussions; 1982, Werner)
This material gives examples of four simple techniques which can be used to evaluate various activities. The techniques can be used for participants who are literate as well as illiterate.

Clarifying concept of evaluation (conceptual tool & exercise; 1984, Hope & Timmel)
This material gives examples of the benefits of including evaluation in the on-going process of the project. Through exercises the participants become aware of how assumptions, expectations, direct their evaluations. Moreover problems, ethics, methods, of evaluation are clarified.

Evaluation package - a review of evaluation techniques (conceptual tool; 1992, IRC)
This material describes how a facilitator can stimulate local people to evaluate a project. The facilitator initiates the different evaluation techniques, but does not intervene in the process of the evaluation. With this material both local people and agency staff learn about priorities and plans of the community.

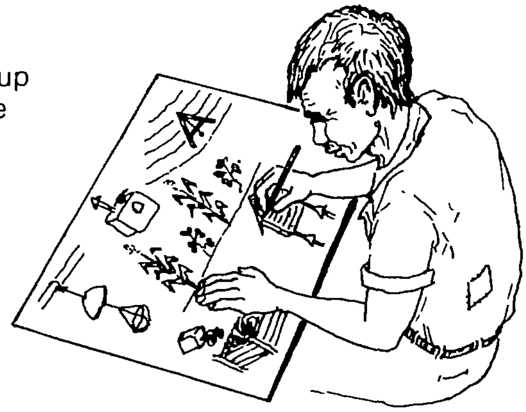
Minimum evaluation procedure (MEP) (conceptual tool, 1989, GTZ)
This tool structures the evaluation procedures related to functioning, utilization and impact of water and sanitation systems installed. The tool can be used by project holder as well as by community members. There are three step of the MEP to go through in order to evaluate a completed water and sanitation system installed.

Three squares assessment (exercise, 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise evaluates the degree of freedom a trainer gives trainees in a workshop, to autonomously participate in the project. The participants are presented three squares symbolizing the relationship between trainer and trainee. The trainees are asked to express which square they think symbolizes their relationship to the trainer.

Village mapping (exercise; 1992, IRC and 1986, Feuerstein)
This exercise is effective for gathering information on existing facilities, for example to monitoring purposes. The villagers are asked to construct a map of their home environment including certain aspects, such as water supply, defecation areas, etc. The map making arouses a lot of interest and discussion among the community members. The advantage of mapping is that the information is not selected but comes straight from the people. It is a particularly useful tool, since it does not demand any special language skills.
(The techniques can be found in Collecting information)

ALTERNATIVE EVALUATION METHODS

DRAWINGS



"In Bukidnon, instructors once grappled with the task of evaluating their first training session with a group of farmers who had reached only the lower grades in elementary school.

"Solution: they had the farmers put into drawings what they had learned during the session. The drawings weren't any more sophisticated than what most non-artists would produce, but in terms of content, the drawings conveyed a lot more than would have been expected from a written report."

DRAMATICS

ROLE PLAYING

"Instructors had used two different training processes in two ***barrios.*** Curious about the consequences of their use of different approaches, the staff asked the ***barrios*** to present skits centering on how they looked at their situation.

"The differences in training methods, the instructors found out, were very strongly reflected in the plays presented by the ***barrios.*** In the ***barrio*** where health skills were emphasized, the people's perception of their situation was passive, almost fatalistic.

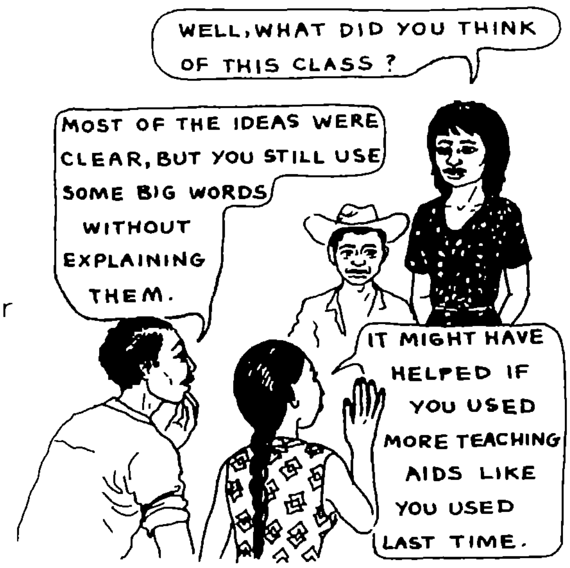
"But in the other ***barrio,*** where organization skills were emphasized, the people depicted their situation the same way as the neighboring ***barrio*** did, with one important difference. Instead of showing passive acceptance, they portrayed themselves as people aware of their own potential to change their situation.

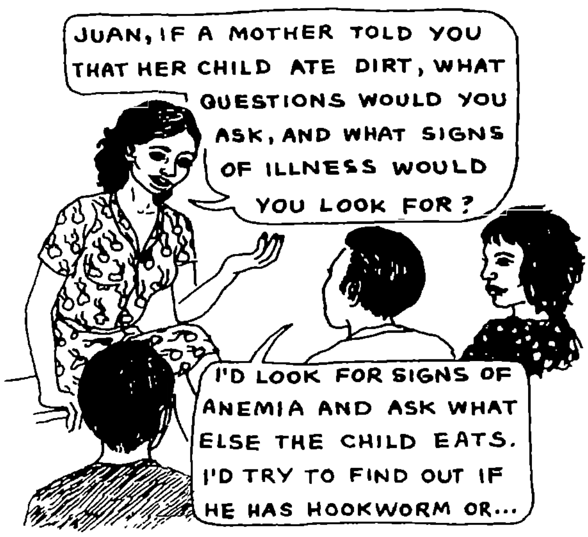
"That experience set the instructors to thinking about the program as a whole and impressed them with the need to change their own orientation and methods."

1 **Short evaluation discussions at the end of each class.** These can happen in both of the following ways:

Instructor asks students to comment on how they liked the class, what they learned, and how it might have been better.

At first it may be hard for students to speak up and criticize the instructor. But if the instructor makes it very clear that she welcomes friendly criticism, students can become good evaluators by the end of the course.





Students test themselves by asking each other about what they have learned. They try to ask questions that relate their learning to real situations, questions that make each other think.

The main purpose of this kind of questioning is to see how well everyone can understand and apply what was covered in class. In this way the students help the instructor learn how effective her teaching was. She finds out where she needs to make things clearer, or to teach the material differently.

At first students may find it difficult to think of good questions, but with helpful suggestions, many will become quite skillful at this by the end of the course.

CLARIFYING CONCEPT ON EVALUATION

Most development workers are so totally involved with the day-to-day activities of programs, that it is very difficult to see what are the over-all weaknesses and strengths. The result is that projects are soon run on a perpetual crisis basis. Planning is forgotten, co-ordination is non-existent and resources are not used properly. How often have people from the same office gone to work in the same area, and not co-ordinated their efforts?

Evaluation needs to be a constant process built into all levels of a program:

a. by the participants in all projects,
b. by animators,
c. by development co-ordinators and administrators.

Evaluation also needs to be done

a. at the end of learning events,
b. at key points in a group (literacy classes, women's clubs, agricultural projects) at least once a month,
c. at regular times in a project, (e.g. at the end of each year before planning the next year's program).

The value of evaluation includes:

— seeing our successes
— assessing our weaknesses,
— clarifying what needs to be changed or strengthened.

There are two major exercises on evaluation presented in this chapter.

— Participatory Evaluation of projects and Programs, and
— Evaluation Exercises for Workshops.

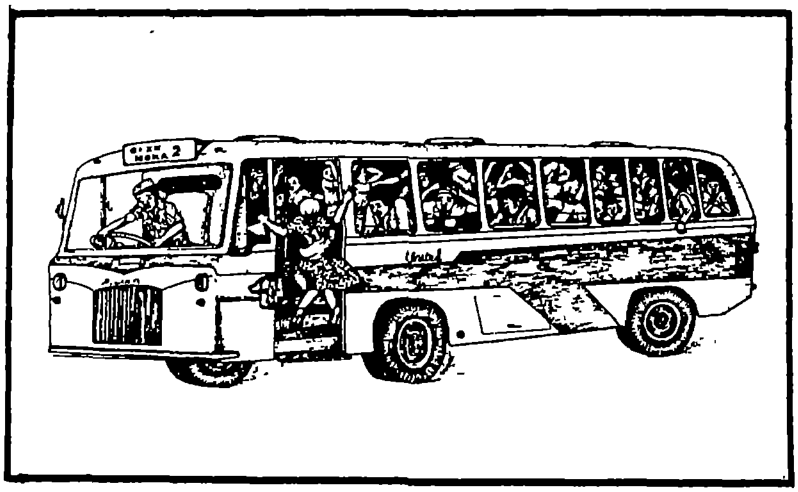
WHAT IS EVALUATION?

This is a quick brainstorming session. The question posed to the group is: 'What do you think evaluation means?' These answers are put on newsprint after the group has discussed them in small groups first.

At this point it is useful for the animator to give a short input on what participatory evaluation is. Participatory evaluation requires the participants of a program or a project to take an active part in its evaluation. The people themselves examine the strengths and the weaknesses so that they can contribute more to the success of their own work. All the information shared by the participants during this kind of evaluation is for their own benefit and is made available to them. Its main purpose is to have a positive effect on their own lives and the community of which they are a part.

EVALUATION EXERCISE

Four topics are chosen, written on sheets of paper and placed on the walls as far apart as possible. Participants are asked to select one of these topics. They sit under these headings and evaluate the topic as fully as possible by writing down evaluation statements on newsprint. The four topics could be:



i. An introductory exercise all have used earlier,
ii. The breakfast or meal they have just eaten,
iii. The conference centre they are using.
iv. Transport in the country.

Each group has about 10 – 15 minutes to note down evaluation statements on the topic.

When this task is completed, each group goes around the room and looks at the other evaluation statements.

The groups are asked to move clockwise to a different topic, for example the group that wrote evaluation statements on transport might move to the breakfast statements. The new group now needs to study each statement carefully, write a question that was being answered by each of the statements made previously. They are also asked to write other questions that could have been in the minds of the original group.

The purpose of this exercise is to recognise that behind every evaluatory statement, we all have assumptions, values, and questions. There is a standard, an expectation, or a set of values that we consciously or unconsciously are trying to reach. It is therefore important for people who are doing evaluation to be clear about the assumptions, values and standards, which they are setting for themselves.

When this task is completed, the whole group goes to one of the topics and the questions are read to the whole group. When this is finished the whole group moves to another topic and this continues until they have finished with the four topics.

If there is time, one could ask the group what they feel they have learnt from the exercise.

EVALUATION PACKAGE

Activity 1: Objectives and achievements. The first activity was a simple mapping and self-evaluation exercise in which participants defined the objectives and achievements of the HESAWA programme. All participants were given cards and asked to write down as many objectives as they could think of, each one on a separate card. These were displayed on a large wall chart. Once participants were satisfied that all cards had been completed, they were reviewed and sorted out under a number of different headings. The number of cards on the chart was reduced by removing those which were repetitions of others, until eventually an agreed and sorted list of objectives was arrived at.

As the charts show, there was a high degree of consensus across all three regions on the basic aims of the programme.

After clarifying the objectives, participants were asked to produce two further series of cards, one to show what has been achieved to date, and the other to show the continuing shortcomings of the programme.

Activity 2: District organization charts. For the next activity participants were asked to work in groups to prepare organizational charts showing the way in which the HESAWA programme was related to the formal government structure at district level. Each group then presented its chart and pointed out, from their point of view as implementors, the strengths and weaknesses of the way in which the programme is organized. This activity stimulated a general discussion on the impacts of the HESAWA programme on the government structure, and the effects of this on prospects for the long-term sustainability of the approach.

Activity 3. Preconditions for sustainability. In the third activity participants identified and discussed the preconditions which must be satisfied to ensure the sustainability of both the programme achievements and of the HESAWA approach itself. It was recognized that preconditions will have to be met both in the villages and within the government system.

Activity 4. Future directions. The final activity drew together the outputs of the previous three by analyzing the gaps in current levels of achievement, the problem areas seen in government organization and capacity, and the conditions which still need to be fulfilled in order to improve sustainability, and presented the main lessons learned in the form of a checklist of issues to be addressed in the next phase of programme implementation.

At the end of each workshop, the participants provided feedback to the facilitators through a workshop evaluation exercise. Each participant wrote four cards, two indicating good points of the workshop and two indicating weak points. These were read out and analyzed before the closing of the workshop.

MINIMUM EVALUATION PROCESS

WHAT ABOUT:

The tool gives a short introduction to an evaluation method. It helps to structure the evaluation procedures related to functioning, utilization and impact of the water and sanitation systems installed.

WHAT FOR:

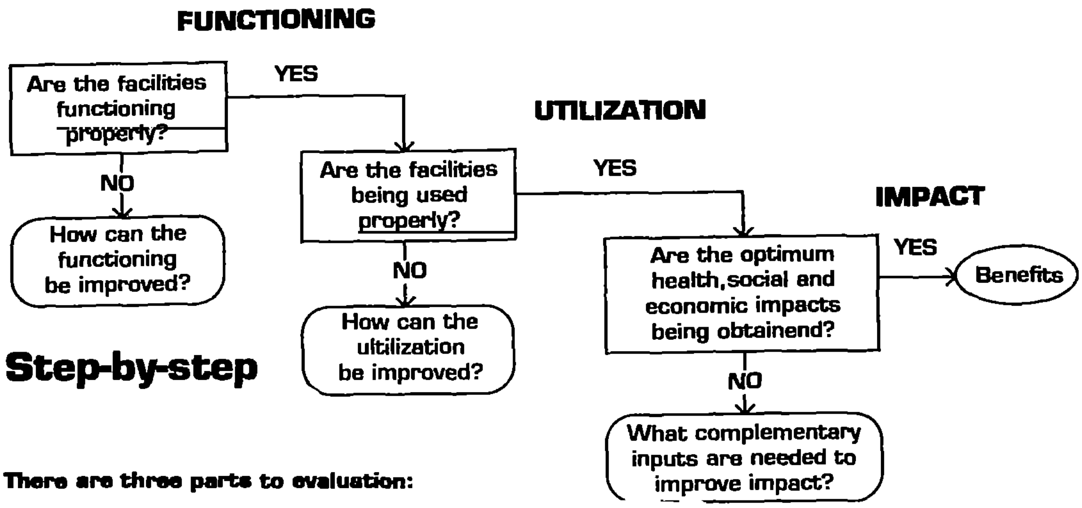
The tool may be used by the project holder, the services involved and the community itself when establishing a monitoring and evaluation system on community level.

What is MEP?

The letters stand for Minimum Evaluation Procedure – a relatively inexpensive and simple method of evaluating water supply and sanitation projects, developed and tested by the World Health Organization.

The technique is quick, allowing judgements to be made in a matter of weeks rather than months, with few resources in terms of money or manpower.

MEP follows the three step system, but to keep the method simple, description of data collection and analysis is limited to the first two steps; evaluation of functioning and of utilization. Evaluation of impacts will be dealt with in a later document.



Step-by-step

There are three parts to evaluation:

1. Are the facilities functioning properly?
   If the answer is NO, ways of improving the functioning should be sought before a full evaluation can be made of the next part;

2. Are the facilities being utilized properly?
   Some information on utilization will have been collected during the first stage, more will come when functioning defects have been remedied. Again, proper use of facilities should be assured before proceeding to –

3. Are the optimum health, social and economic impacts being achieved?
   This last step is not always needed. Basically a system which functions and is used properly can be expected to produce impact. The idea behind the procedure is that experience from the real world helps in two ways: it shows how to get the most out of an operating system by making improvements where necessary; and it provides knowledge for application elsewhere. The focus is not just on engineering; functioning and utilization depend equally on many social factors, which are reflected in the MEP.

What to measure

Collecting too little information during evaluation may put the whole exercise in jeopardy, while collecting too much is both time-consuming and expensive. In MEP, WHO identifies the key parameters which should be measured when evaluating, for example, the quantity of water provided from a water supply facility: Comparison of theoretical and actual values for demand and production is one of the ways to judge the functioning of the facility (along with water quality, reliability, and convenience).

In the second step, the evaluator will want to know the proportion of households using the facilities and the way that different amounts of water are being used.

THREE SQUARES ASSESSMENT

PURPOSE:

To analyse workshop experiences in terms of the degree of dominance of the trainer compared to autonomous participation by the trainees.

TIME: 15-20 minutes

MATERIALS:

Three squares shaded or coded to indicate three different ratios of trainer/trainee dominance. The first square has a large shaded area indicating approximately ninety percent trainer dominance, the second is coded to 50/50 participation; and the third only ten percent trainer dominance.

NOTE TO TRAINER:

This exercise helps clarify the concept of directive vs. non-directive educational strategies. It also helps participants realise that, although a trainer must work hard to prepare a learning exercise, if the task has been well-prepared, the trainer's role is simply to introduce it and let go; the task itself provides the structure within which the participants can operate on their own.

However, the amount of freedom which participants are able to exercise in responding will vary depending upon how much subject matter or content is already built into the materials utilised. It is extremely important for the extension workers to understand this principle.

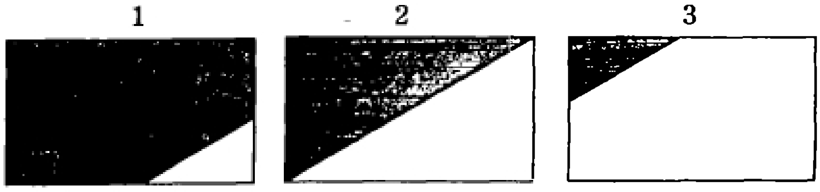
Be prepared to list at least three activities from the programme that illustrate a range of trainer/participant control. Choose at least one in which their role was minimal, e.g. the "Cup Exercise" (*Theory*), and one where they have participated very actively, e.g. "Map Building" (*Methods/Investigative*).

PROCEDURES:

- Remind participants of three or more activities in which they have recently participated. Do not disclose your reasons for choosing those activities.
- Show the Three Squares and explain that the shaded area of the square represents the facilitator's role and the light area stands for the participants' role.
- Ask the participants which of the three squares represent how they acted during each of the activities you have selected for discussion.
- Let the participants discuss freely among themselves. Avoid giving the "right answer". The answer must emerge from their own analysis and from mutual challenging. You can help by occasionally pointing to issues that have been overlooked and if necessary underscoring the difference between the structure (format) of a task and the content which it evokes, i.e. the difference between setting a task and fulfilling it.

Trainer/Trainees Participation Percentages

1 2 3



Trainer dominates | Equal control | Trainees control

Task: Monitoring a project

In this activity the agency follows up the project, for which the community now has full responsibility. Through this activity the community can get suggestions on how to solve problems with operation and maintenance, how to improve construction, how to share working responsibilities. The objective is to make sure that the local people can manage to sustain the project on a long-term basis.

Related questions which might come up

* How can the community members learn how to take care of operation and maintenance?
* How can the agency help the community with the project once the implementation phase is over?

TECHNIQUES

Checklist for monitoring water supply, sanitation and hygiene education (form; 1992, PSSC project Zambia)
This checklist helps community members and agency staff to collect information necessary for monitoring of a WSS project. The checklist includes pictures, which makes it easier to study water facilities etc, in order to obtain appropriate information.

Figures to make monitoring and evaluation information more appealing (figures; 1991, Boot)
These figures and drawings are used to visualize information collected while monitoring.

How monitoring works (conceptual tool; 1988, Stephens)
These sheets help the facilitator and the participants to discuss tasks, deadlines, attendance at meetings, etc. A chart is made to each task with space to record progress. These tools can be adapted to the literacy level of a group or other characteristics of the group.

Monitoring (conceptual tool; 1992, Simasiku)
Monitoring is an ongoing activity of the project. When the implementation phase is over monitoring becomes important for the sustainability for the project. This activity helps the community members critically study the project process in order to find out if the activities are going according to plan, and what results and effects are being achieved.

CHECKLIST FOR MONITORING

MONITORING SYSTEM: WATER SUPPLY CHECKLIST

WS 1

Name or Area: . . . . Date: . . . .

Standpost No.: . . . . No. of Households: . . . .

Name of field Officer: . . . .

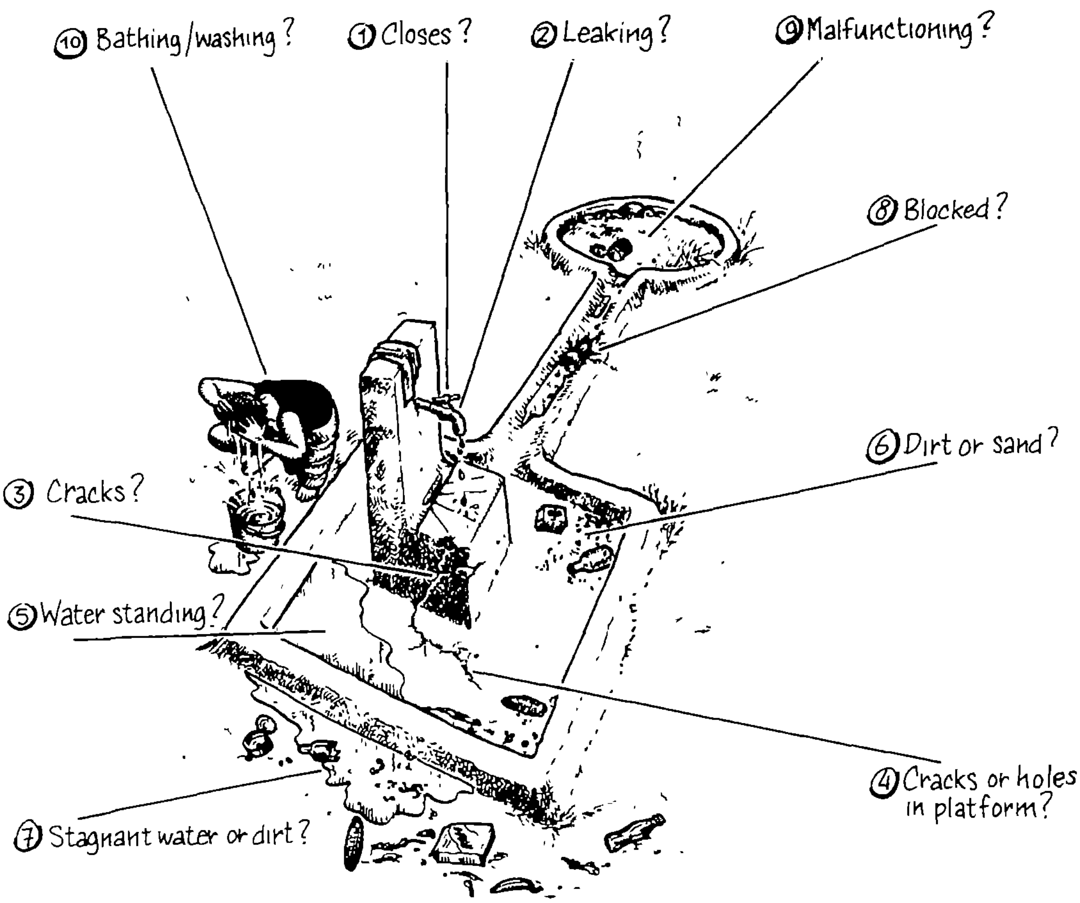
N.B.: This checklist shall be administered every two weeks by a field worker and returned to the Project Engineer

---

A. OBSERVATIONS

1.	Is it impossible to close the tap?	y/n
2.	Is the tap leaking?	y/n
3.	Are there any cracks on the standpost?	y/n
4.	Are there any cracks or holes on the apron?	y/n
5.	Is water collecting on the apron?	y/n
6.	Is there dirt or sand accumulating on the apron?	y/n
7.	Is there any stagnant water or dirt around the apron?	y/n
8.	Is the drainage channel blocked?	y/n
9.	Is the soakaway system malfunctioning?	y/n
10.	Are there people bathing/washing near or on the standpost?	y/n
11.	Is the number of people seen at the platform at the time of monitoring more than eight?	y/n

TOTAL SCORE NO ....



B. QUESTIONS

1. Is the caretaker capable to make adjustments and do minor repairs on the tap? y/n

2. Did caretaker need any help from the users? y/n

3. If yes, did the users provide this support? y/n

4. Does the caretaker have any complaints against the cooperation of the consumers? y/n

5. If yes, what are they? . . . .

. . . .

6. Do the consumers have any complaints about the way the caretaker works? y/n

7. If yes, what are they? . . . .

. . . .

8. Is the water being supplied by opening the main valve at standpost for at least six hours per day? y/n

9. What is the number of households which paid water charges for the previous month (for Treasurer) ....

Compliance rate: CR = .../total no of HH y/n
(if CR > 0.8: fill in yes) ______

TOTAL SCORE YES ....

10. Any other observations or comments: . . . .

. . . .

. . . .

PIPED SUPPLIES FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES PSSC PROJECT - ZAMBIA

MONITORING SYSTEM: SANITATION CHECKLIST

S1

Name of area: . . . . Month: . . . .

Name of Officer: . . . . Date: . . . .

NB: This checklist shall be administered monthly by a field worker and return it to the Project Manager.

INSTRUCTIONS

- New improved pit latrine refer to latrines built or permanent materials eg. slab; concrete, walls: bricks, blocks, etc.
- Traditional pit latrines which have been upgraded refer to latrines which have been provided with concrete slabs, san-plats.

A. Progress on latrines (for extension worker health).

1. How many new, improved latrines have been constructed since last month? No. . . . .
2. How many traditional latrines have been upgraded since last month? . . . . .
3. How many latrines are being constructed or being upgraded since last month? . . . . .
4. How many new or upgraded pit latrines collapsed last month? . . . . .

B. Progress: Refuse Collection, Storage and Disposal

1. How many new refuse pits have been dug since last month? . . . . .
2. How many refuse pits have been filled up since last month? . . . . .

PIPED SUPPLIES FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES PSSC PROJECT - ZAMBIA

MONITORING SYSTEM: LATRINE CHECKLIST

S 2

Name of area: . . . . Month: . . . .

Name of Officer: . . . . Date: . . . .

NB: This checklist shall be administered monthly by a field worker and return it to the Project Manager.

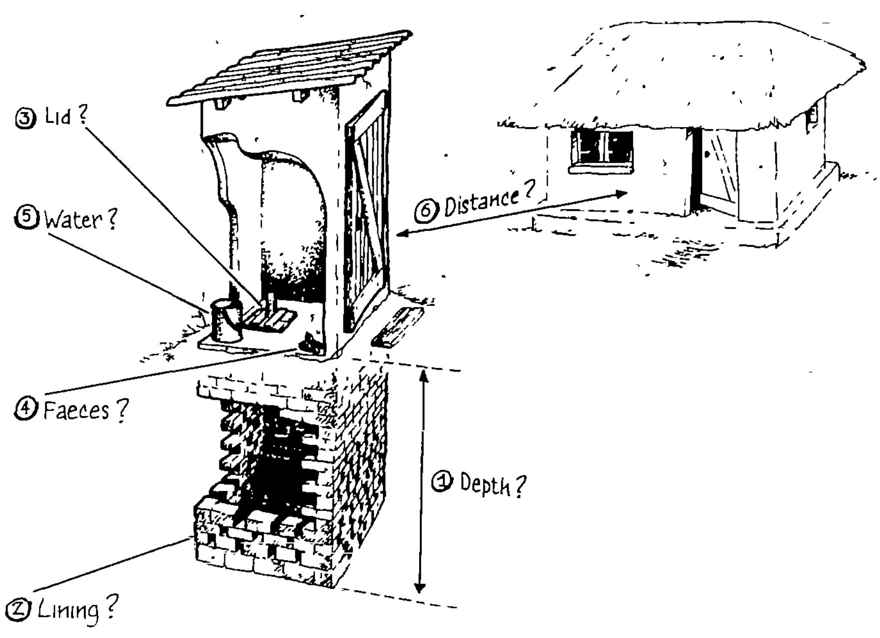
INSTRUCTIONS

- Use a separate form for each completed latrine.
- New improved pit latrine refer to latrines built or permanent materials eg. slab: concrete, walls: bricks, blocks, etc.
- Traditional pit latrines which have been upgraded refer to latrines which have been provided with concrete slabs, san-plats.

CONSTRUCTION OF PIT-LATRINE FOR INDIVIDUAL HOUSEHOLD

Tick/circle the appropriate. Y (yes) N (no)

1.	Is the pit latrine more than two metres deep?	y/n
2.	Is the pit latrine lined with blocks or drums?	y/n
3.	Is the hole covered with a lid?	y/n
4.	Are the faeces absent/non-visible on the floor/or inside walls?	y/n
5.	Is there a container of water for washing hands after using a toilet?	y/n
6.	Is the latrine built further than five metres from the house?	y/n
7.	Is the slab constructed by a skilled person?	y/n
8.	Was the pit latrine constructed by a skilled person?	y/n
9.	Is it used by all members of the family?	y/n
	TOTAL SCORE YES	. . . .
10.	How much was the total cost of the latrine construction	. . . .
11.	Was the pit dug by the family	y/n
12.	Was the pit latrine constructed by the family?	y/n



PIPED SUPPLIES FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES PSSC PROJECT - ZAMBIA

MONITORING SYSTEM: REFUSE PIT CHECKLIST

S 3

Name of area: . . . . Month: . . . .

Name of Officer: . . . . Date: . . . .

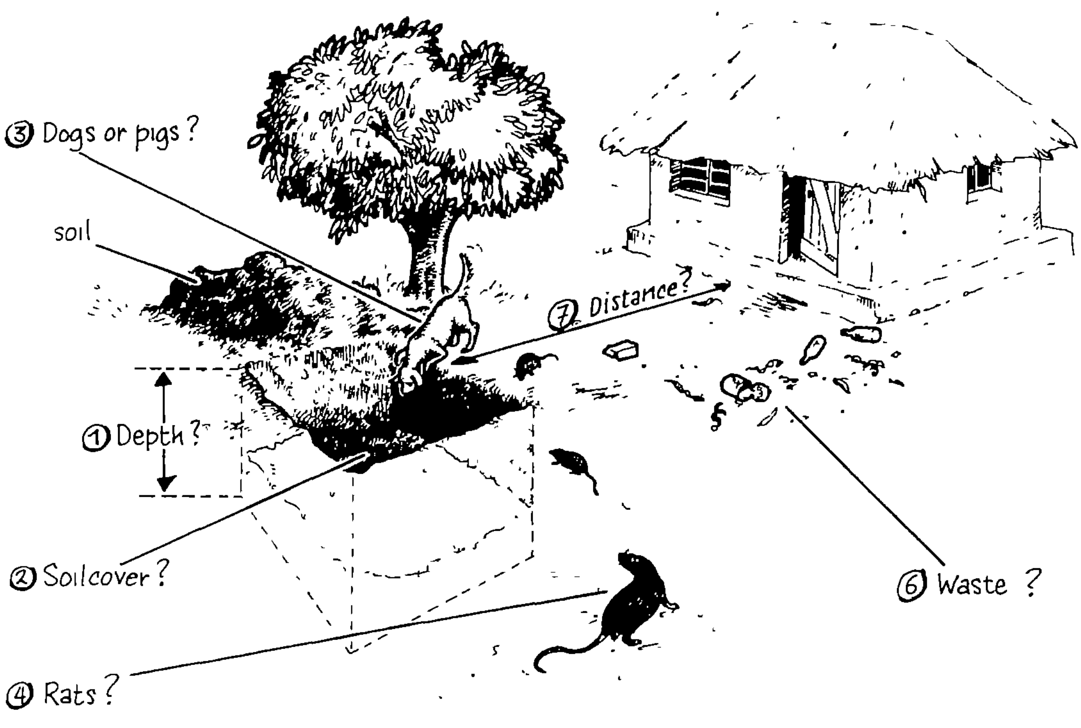
NB: This checklist shall be administered monthly by a field worker and return it to the Project Manager.

INSTRUCTIONS

- Use a separate form for each completed refuse pit.
- New improved pit latrine refer to latrines built or permanent materials eg. slab concrete, walls (bricks, blocks) etc.
- Traditional pit latrines which have been upgraded refer to latrines which have been provided with concrete slabs, san-plats.

1.	Is the depth of refuse pit less than one metre deep?	y/n
2.	Is refuse uncovered with soil/exposed?	y/n
3.	Are dogs/pigs/chickens/goats seen on the refuse?	y/n
4.	Are rats seen at the refuse?	y/n
5.	Is the refuse pit badly smelling?	y/n
6.	Is solid waste seen laying around?	y/n
7.	Is refuse put more than five metres away form any house?	y/n

TOTAL SCORE NO . . . .



PIPED SUPPLIES FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES PSSC PROJECT - ZAMBIA

MONITORING CHECKLIST: HYGIENE EDUCATION PROGRAMME (TALKS)

HE 1

Date of Hygiene Education: . . . .

Name of area . . . .

Name of Offcıer: . . . .

Use a separate sheet for each hygiene education conducted

---

1. What was your target group?

	Grades	No. of people attended
School children:	. . . .	. . . .
	. . . .	. . . .
Tap Committees	. . . .	. . . .
Water Committees	. . . .	. . . .
Individual families	. . . .	. . . .

2. Did you use any posters?

- Produced by Ministry of Health? y/n
- Produced by the PSSC project team? y/n
- PROWWESS material/approaches? y/n

Other specify . . . .

. . . .

3. What was the community's target group participation to the session?

	VERY GOOD	GOOD	FAIR	BAD
MEN	. . . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
WOMEN	. . . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
CHILDREN	. . . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .

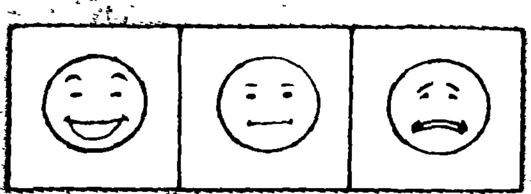
4. Do you see any need for change or improvement of hygiene education materials?

If yes, suggestıons? . . . .

. . . .

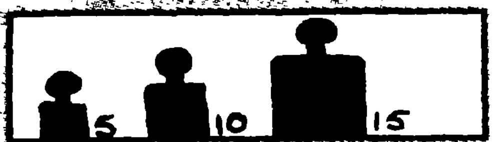
. . . .

FIGURES TO MAKE MONITORING INFORMATION MORE APPEALING

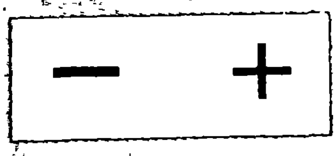


- degree of satisfaction, for example with hygiene education activities

- number of children, for example with and without scabies



- number of households using the improved well



- something present or absent, for example fence around water point

HOW MONITORING WORKS

A participatory monitoring and evaluation system is something which may not be possible to implement with a new group, still coming to grips with internal and structural problems. Instead, participation itself may need to be built up first. When the time comes to begin monitoring and evaluation, some elements of the system may be initiated by introducing the group to the idea. A good start may be a Task Monitoring Sheet, as shown in Figure 3. This includes specific tasks and deadlines for the group to maintain. After discussing each task assigned within a project, a chart is made with space to record progress. Variations can be developed with a little imagination to suit literacy levels, numeracy skills and the needs for a particular group.

Figure 3 Task monitoring chart (reduced from wall chart size). Colours may indicate progress or otherwise, if these are available.

TASK MONITORING SHEET

GROUP : Meijo Groundnut Group PROJECT : Agric. Prodn. YEAR : 1988

JANUARY	FEBRUARY	MARCH	APRIL	MAY	JUNE
Cut fence posts.	Erect fence and treat posts with E. oil	Weeding	Weeding	Harvest	Repay loan to bank
Dig holes for posts	Plough and form mounds	Watering	Watering	Dry gr. nuts	Distribute profits to group
Order wire staples, wire strainer	Purchase fertilizer	Check and repair fence and gate	Check and repair fence and gate	Negotiate selling price and check local market price	Meet to decide on new work plan
Plough the land	Apply pre-planting fertilizer	Pest control	Apply fertil-izer.		
Dig drains	Plant groundnut seed	Pile earth on mounds	Pest control		
Cut palms for shade.	Collect bank loan		Pile earth on mounds		
Apply for bank loan			Purchase packaging for harvest		
			Check market		
Accounts + Records	Accounts + Records	Accounts + Records	Accts + records	Accounts + Records	Accounts and Records

Another simple system of monitoring progress is shown in figures 4 and 5. These charts monitor progress made by a group in various aspects of a small community forestry project. The chart shown under figure 4 is generally used each month for groups unused to assigning a numerical value to their achievements. After a few months, one chart as in figure 5 may be made for several months.

Figure 4 One month chart for monitoring progress in a community forestry project.

COMMUNITY FORESTRY MONITORING CHART Month June	NURSERY	TREE PLANTING	FERTILIZER	EXTENSION SUPPORT	GROUP MEETINGS	LOAN REPAYMENTS	FUELWOOD	FODDER	FRUITS	SOIL IMPROVEMENT	VISITORS
5			✓	✓	✓						
4	✓										✓
3							✓	✓		✓	
2									✓		
1		✓				✓					

Figure 5 Six months chart for those more used to using a rating scale.

COMMUNITY FORESTRY MONITORING CHART		NURSERY	TREE PLANTING	FERTILIZER	EXTENSION SUPPORT	GROUP MEETINGS	LOAN REPAYMENTS	FUELWOOD	FODDER	FRUITS	SOIL IMPROVEMENT	VISITORS
5	January	3	3	4	5	4	2	2	3	4	3	1
4	February	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	2
3	March	4	4	3	5	5	3	3	4	4	3	3
2	April											
1	May											
	June											

Participation in meetings or project activities is more difficult to monitor and evaluate, since each person may define participation differently. Further, criteria, standards and expectations may vary considerably. Labour participation is not difficult in terms of time input, but skills are less easily measured except in terms of concrete outputs. Participation in decision making is extremely difficult to monitor accurately.

Among some of the small farmer groups, the example in figure 8 has been found useful to increase awareness of the relevance of participation, and the part it plays in promoting cooperation and self reliance among members.

Figure 8. Participation monitoring chart

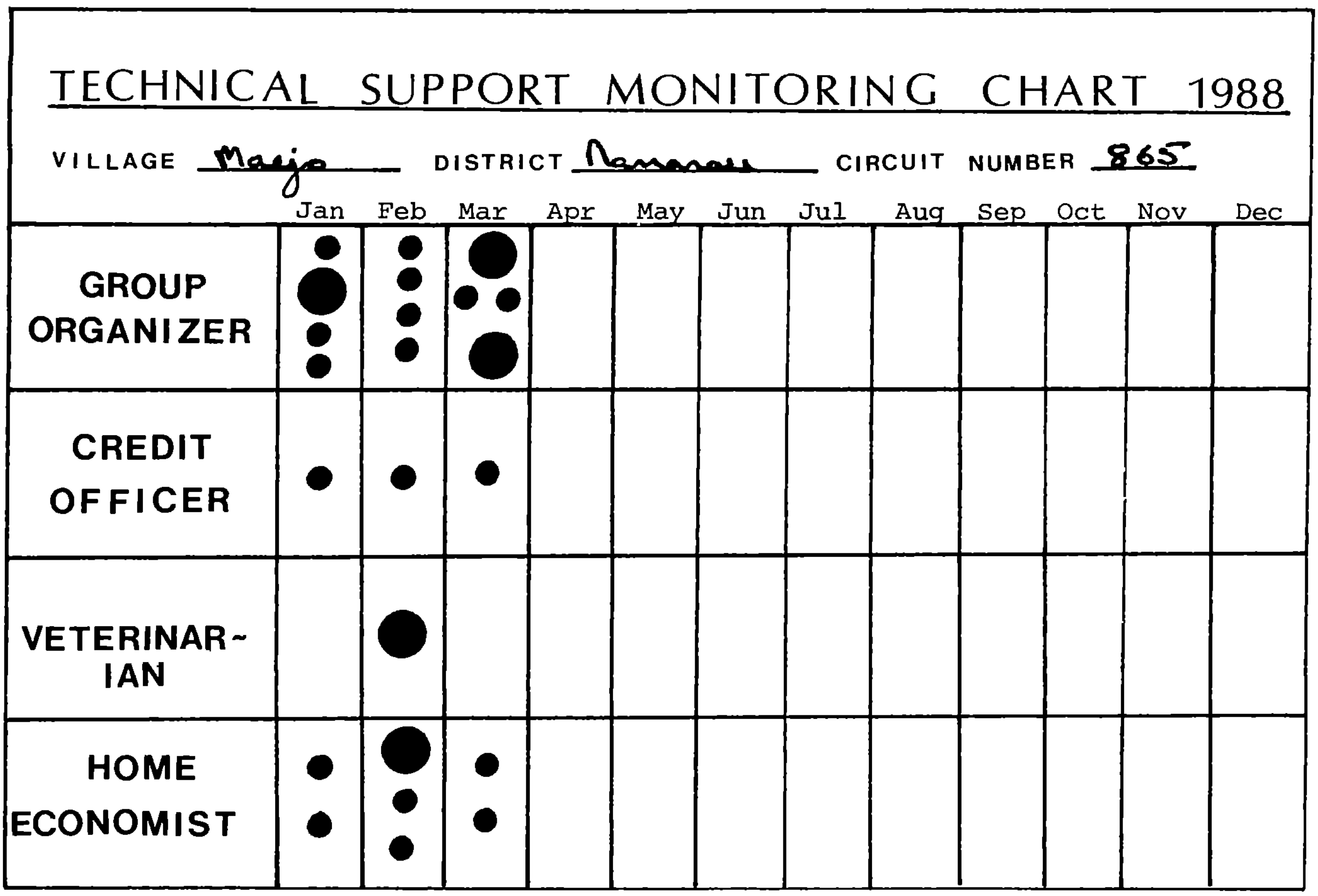
MAEJO DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

Adult population 1/1/88 426 Adult population 31/12/88 ______

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Number of members Per cent of total	54 12.6	57 13.4	62 14.5									
Average attendance at meetings	44.1	49	52.4									
Labour contribution (person/days)	475	1320	842									
Participation in training (number and person/days)	60	20	95									
	15	–	3									
Leadership and participation (5-1)	3	4	3									

In addition to monitoring group progress, the group members may also wish to monitor the provision of services from agencies and institutions set up to serve them. Figure 10 shows one such chart used to monitor technical support. A small dot indicates a brief visit by a technical officer. A large dot indicates a substantive technical support visit.

Figure 10 Chart for monitoring technical support services



MONITORING

Monitoring is an ongoing activity in support of a project. It is done to find out whether the activities are currently going according to plan, what results and effects are being achieved.
Good results of a project depend very much on continuous monitoring, not only during the project, but also after it has formally ended. Thus, during the project cycle of a water supply project as described above, monitoring will take place. But also after construction has been completed, when the new water point is being used and the Tap Committee is fully functioning, monitoring will have to continue.

Key Issues in Monitoring are :

* getting information on progress : are all activities for the water supply project done as planned ?

* getting information on functioning and use: are the improvements functioning well ? Are they kept in good condition ? Is the Tap Committee performing appropriately ?

Most of the monitoring data should be gathered by the extension workers, together with the community and the Tap Committee. Some specific (technical) data may be gathered also by the agency or the Water Authorities.

Important :

* Monitoring should not be a haphazard exercise. It should be well organized.

* A checklist with questions is an indispensable tool for the systematic gathering of data on progress and effects. Checklists have to be set up carefully. They should be comprehensible and simple.

* The frequency of data collection has to be established. Some data need to be gathered monthly, while some should be checked fortnightly.

* All data should be well recorded and kept in appropriate files. They should be analyzed frequently, to provide the necessary information to improve, adjust or correct project activities.

What the Extension Worker will do :

* **Discuss with the community and the Tap Committee the issues which are to be monitored** : what do we all need to know to improve and adjust project activities ?

* **Establish the frequency** of data collection; **make up a checklist** (also in co-operation with the agency); **appoint persons** who will be responsible for data collection. Also, agreements must be made with the agency on the filing of data, on timely analysis, and reporting and discussing the results of the monitoring with the community. This is important to make plans for corrective activities if necessary.

* **Perform the monitoring with a participatory methodology**, involving the community and the Tap Committee as much as possible in data collection and analysis.
  Some methods for participatory data collection and analysis are described briefly below.

What the Community will do :

* The community and particularly the Tap Committee will support the extension workers and the agency in collecting all necessary information on the progress and the functioning and use of the project.

* The community and the Tap Committee should insist that the extension workers and the agency share these results of the analysis with them. It will enable them to make appropriate decisions about their water supply, and to plan improvements.

Methods to be used in Collecting and Analysing Monitoring Data with the Community

Pocket chart

This method has been discussed in the section on needs assessment (page 6). It can also be used in monitoring to get an indication of changes in people's behaviour :

- how many people are using the new facilities ?
- how many are still using traditional facilities ?

As people can vote anonymously, it may be easier for them to indicate exactly what they are doing. When they have to answer questions, they may in some cases be reluctant to tell the truth.

Tables, diagrams and graphs

It is possible to make simple diagrams or tables for the Tap Committee to fill in every week. For instance, a table showing all small repairs of a communal tap over a certain period will make clear to the community as well as the agency the scope and importance of the work the Tap Committee is doing.

Equally a table or diagram showing increasing numbers of latrines built in the community, together with (hopefully) decreasing numbers of cases of diarrhoea (as reported at Dispensary or Health Centre), could be very useful in showing to everybody the need for good sanitation.

Task: Agency disengages from the project

For the sustainability of the project it is essential that the community is prepared and able to take full responsibility of its outcome, when the agency turns the project over. When an agency makes clear for themselves and the community members that they will leave the project at some point of time and that the community will have to take full care of the project, they can start prepare for this situation. For example the agency can help the community members identify the new roles they will get when the agency has left the project. The disengaging can take anywhere from four month to two years.

Related questions which might come up

* Is the community prepared to take care of all the responsibilities of the project?
* Has it been determined who is going to be responsible for the certain activities?
* How can the agency support the transferring of responsibilities from the agency to the community?

TECHNIQUES

Action plan as a contract (form; 1983, Philips)
This form gives community members the possibility to imagine what goals, decisions, problems, etc. they will have to handle on their own, once the agency has left the community. Through answering various questions related to the coming situation, the community members have to picture themselves in these situations.

Checklist for disengaging (checklist and conceptual tool; 1990, Yacoob)
This tool helps the facilitator to be aware about important issues while planning to disengage from the project.

Project sustainability analysis (group discussion; 1993, Espejo)
This group discussion helps the participants identify weak and strong sustainability areas of a project. The participants discuss the sustainability of their projects in groups. Afterwards the various projects and their sustainability are compared and analyzed.

Water committee responsibilities (exercise, 1990, Srinivasan)
This exercise makes it possible for the participants to analyze roles of a pump committee. The participants are shown flexiflan figures (men, women, trees, etc), which can create various village scenes. The participants are divided into groups and are asked to choose figures representing their pump committee. A discussion is then held about why these figures were chosen, their responsibilities, etc. In the end the groups compare and analyze different the responsibilities of the pump committees.

ACTION PLAN

How to help contracts "take"?

* Early commitment
* Realistic goal setting
* Group discussion concerning the decision taken

The action plan cannot work unless there has been practical training during the implementation phase. Thus that is a pre-request.

Performance Contract

SUBJECT	State the specific area(s) or topics you have picked for improvement
OBJECTIVE	What do you want to accomplish? What is your purpose or broad objective?
GOALS	How will you know what you've accomplished? Your specific targets or yard-sticks by which you will measure improvement.

ACTIVITIES

List in sequence the steps required to bring about the desired change Indicate the time period for each in the column to the right, using actual calendar dates and estimates of the number of hours required for each activity listed

TIME

PROBLEMS

What barriers, resistance, interruptions, obstacles, etc (anticipated and unforeseen) might you encounter as you *implement your Action Plan?* Number them.

SOLUTIONS

How do you plan to avoid or to deal with the problems that you've just enumerated? Number to correspond with your list at the left

RESOURCES

What people will you need to implement this plan? Time required? (Did you include your own time?) What other resources — equipment, materials, outside assistance?

COSTS

List the costs of implementing your action plan, including both initial capital investments (if any) and any changes in *operating costs*

BENEFITS

Itemize the dollar benefits and estimate the value of any intangible benefits

COMMITMENT

In signing below, we agree to make the *commitment of time and money* needed to carry out this Action Plan as outlined. We further agree to meet at the time(s) noted below to review progress and modify the schedule of Activities *described on Page 3* as may be needed to achieve our Goals and thereby meet our Objectives

Signatures	Date/Time for Progress Review(s)
____________________	____________________
____________________	____________________
Today's date ____________________	____________________

CHECKLIST FOR DISENGAGING

CHECKLIST

Before disengaging from the village, the extension agent should . . .

- √ Gradually cut back visits.
- √ Reassure the community that it can solve problems on its own.
- √ Provide auxiliary training support to the village water committee as needed.
- √ Help the water committee to evaluate and improve its performance.

This stage provides for a period in which the project staff monitors and then gradually disengages from the project. The staff corrects any deficiencies in the community's ability to properly operate and maintain the water and sanitation systems and also makes certain that the community is using the systems in a safe and sanitary way so that the desired health benefits result. This stage can take anywhere from four to five months to more than two years.

Only after the village water committee and the village have shown that they have developed the necessary skills for operating and maintaining both systems does the project enter the disengagement stage. It is important for the extension agent not to leave the community in an abrupt manner. At the beginning of this stage, the extension agent informs the community that she will be cutting down on her visits, perhaps to just once a month. Meanwhile, the agent is preparing to begin the project cycle in another community. Problems inevitably occur, and it is important in this final stage that the agent and the project staff be available to help the community recognize that it can solve most problems on its own.

The village water committee was trained in the necessary skills to manage the water and sanitation systems at the time they were installed, but this was done with the project team close at hand to offer advice. As the committee actually begins to manage the systems on its own, it may need additional short training sessions, reviews of lessons learned earlier, or moral support. Experience in water projects around the world reveals that conflict in the community is a major cause of the neglect of the systems. The role of the agent in on-going conflict resolution support is very important

After the system has been in operation for four or five months, the extension agent should lead the village water committee through a self-evaluation to see how it can improve its management. It may be clear that some members should be changed or additional skills further developed, such as bookkeeping. This evaluation, which could be based on criteria decided on by the committee, might include the length of system downtime, the care of the source, and the numbers of people/families installing latrines and practicing improved hygiene behavior. One useful tool is a map showing the village households and the improvements each made.

PROJECT SUSTAINABLILITY ANALYSIS

Objective

To identify strengths and weaknesses of a project's sustainability.

Implementation

1. Promote discussion about sustainability. Present the scheme "Manual on the Principles and Financial Methods" WHO/IRC 1990(see following page, English version yet to be included).

2. Form groups of participants working in the same project. Each group should answer the questionnaire "Is my project sustainable?" (see following page).

3. Discuss the results of the groups. Obtain the profiles (from the questionnaire) of both the institution and the community and compare them.

WATER COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITIES

PURPOSE:

To help participants analyse the possible roles of the pump committee in the village.

TIME: 45 - 60 minutes

MATERIALS:

Assorted flexi-flan figures of men and women. Other flexi figures including children and a variety of "props" (houses, trees, animals, pump, etc.) to be used in creating a village scene. (See sample flexis in the activity on "Flexi-flans as Creative Materials"

PROCEDURES:

- Have participants seated in three groups.
- Invite each group to send two representatives to the table where the flexis are spread out. They are to choose one flexi each (male or female) to represent a village pump committee member.
- Upon returning to their groups they should explain to their peers why they chose those particular figures to represent pump committee members: what qualities they seem to possess, what functions they seem capable of fulfilling, and why. The group should discuss and elaborate on these ideas and make a list of the functions they believe their committee members are capable of fulfilling.
- The three groups should introduce their "committee members" in a plenary session; they are to post their lists of functions and comment on them verbally.
- Next, the three lists of functions are to be compared, discussed and consolidated in the plenary. Additional ideas that arise from this discussion should be incorporated into the list.
- Throughout the activity, the participants should freely contribute from their village level field experience to propose functions and assess their feasibility.

Reference list

Bergdall, T. D. (1991) The MAP facilitator's handbook for Promoting Rural Participation.

Blom, J. (1992) Using games to learn about complicated realities. Paper presented at Water, Environment Education Seminar, Stockholm, Sweden.

Boot, M. (1991) Just stir gently. The way to mix hygiene education with water supply and sanitation. IRC, The Netherlands.

Cash, K. (1983) Designing and using simulations for training. Centre for International Education, University of Massachusett, USA.

Crone, D., St John Hunter, C. (1980) From the field: tested participatory activities for trainers, World Education, New York, USA.

Devi, S. (1992) Report from a WSS project. BKH Consulting engineers, Bangalore, India.

Donnely-Roark, P. (1987) New participatory frameworks for the design and management of sustainable water supply and sanitation projects. UNDP/Prowess WASH. Washington, USA.

Edwards, D.B. and Pettit, J. (1988) Facilitator guide for conducting a project start-up workshop. WASH, Washington, USA.

Eilington, J.E. (1984) The winning trainer. Gulf Publishing Company, Houston, Texas.

Espejo, N. (1993) A compilation of participatory techniques for training programmes. IRC, The Netherlands.

Eugenia, E., Briscoe, J. (1990) Participation effect from water projects. Social Science Medicine. Great Britain.

Fetter, K.A. et.al. (1987) Teaching and learning with Visual Aids. INTRAH, Macmillan publishers, North Carolina, USA.

Feuerstein, M-T. (1986) Partners in evaluation. Macmillam Publ. Ltd. London, England.

Graver, T., Meyer, A. (1990) Hoe begeleid ik de groep? - een erste kennismaking. Intro, Nijkerk, Belgium.

GTZ (1989) Community participation and hygiene education in water supply and sanitation. Technical Cooperation Germany. Germany.

Habitat (1989) Community participation in problem-solving and decision-making(3). UN Human settlements(Habitat) Nairobi.

Harnmeijer, J. (1987) Participatory health education. WASHE, Zambia.

Hope, A., Timmel, S. (1984) Training for transformation(1). Mambo Press. Zimbabwe.

Hope, A., Timmel, S. (1984) Training for transformation(2). Mambo Press. Zimbabwe.

Indonesia-Australia Development Cooperation Program (1991) Sustainable development through community participation. Lombok, Indonesia.

International Agricultural Centre(IAC) (1985) International course on rural extension. Workshop - Communication. Wageningen, The Netherlands.

International Agricultural Centre(IAC) (1983) Workshop - Management. Wageningen, The Netherlands.

IRC (1992) Evaluation report of the SIDA supported HESAWA Programme(Health through Sanitation and Water) in the Lake Regions in Tanzania. IRC, The Netherlands.

IRC (1992) Information obtained from interviews with IRC's professional staff, concerning experience of participatory techniques used in the field. IRC, The Netherlands.

Isely, R.B. & Yohalem, D. (1988) A workshop design for community participation: planning and implementing sustainable projects. WASH, Washington, USA.

Jennings, L. et al (1991) Evaluation guideline for training in water and sanitation. WASH Technical report no 70. Washington, USA.

Jones, K. (1988) Interactive Learning Events, a guide for facilitators. Kogan Page Ltd. London, United Kingdom.

Kumar, R. (1982) Training of trainees. Foundation for International Training for Third World Countries. Canada.

Mascarenhas, J. et al (1991) Participatory rural appraisal. RRA Notes Nr 13. IIED & Myrada. London, United Kingdom and Bangalore, India.

McCoy, L. (1983) Draft design for field workers in health education and sanitation promotion. Malawi.

Notes from a seminar on communication. (1991) International Institute for Management and Development(R.V.B.), Delft, The Netherlands.

Peace Corps (1992) Training of committee water boards. Peace Corps, Honduras.

Philips, J. (1983) Handbook of training evaluation and measurement methods. Gulf Publishing Company. Houston, USA.

Redd Barna International Training Office (1998) Facilitation techniques in Training. DSR Inc, Colombia, USA.

Samasiku & IRC (1992) A manual on community participation. PSSC. Zambia.

Senati (1981) Notes from a training package for organization consultants. Lima, Peru.

Srinivasan, L. (1990) Tools for participation. UNDP/Prowess. New York, USA.

Stephens, A. (1990) Participatory monitoring and evaluation. Handbook for training field workers. FAO, Bangkok, Thailand.

Travel report - interview with the Globetree theatre - using participatory techniques to stimulate communication. (1993) Stockholm, Sweden.

Uphoff, N., Cohen, J. (1977) Rural development participation: concept and measures for project design.

WASH (1989) Training of trainees workshop Benin, rural water supply and sanitation projects. WASH, Arlington, USA.

Werner, D., Bower, B. (1982) Helping health workers learn. Hesperian Foundation. Palo Alto, USA.

WHO (1988) Education for health. A manual on health education in primary health care. WHO, Geneva, Switzerland.

Yacoob, M. & Roark, P. (1990) TECH PACK: steps for implementing rural water supply and sanitation projects. WASH, Washington, USA.

Yacob, M., Cook, T. (1991) Evaluating community participation. WASH. Washington, USA.

Appendix

Evaluation of the process while using a technique

1. **Name of the participatory technique used?**

2. **How much did the facilitator intervene in the process?**

   very much . . . . very little

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

3. **Degree of mutual trust**

   high suspicion . . . . high trust

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

4. **Degree of mutual support**

   every man for himself . . . . genuine concern for each other

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

5. **Technique's objective**

   not understood . . . . clearly understood

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

6. **Handling conflicts within team**

   through denial, avoidance suppression or compromise . . . . acceptance and working out 6conflicts

   (1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

7. **Organizational environment**

restrictive, pressure . . . . free, supportive

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

B. <u>Self-evaluation of the facilitator's role while working out the technique</u>

1. **How did the facilitator take part in the technique?**

- instructing much . . . . little
- questioning much . . . . little
- listening much . . . . little
- took notes much . . . . little

2. **How did the facilitator stimulate the people to actively take part in the technique?** Did they seem to be stimulated?, describe the process.

3. **How was the link between the technique and the actual project clarified?** How did the people respond to the explanation?

4. **Which were the constraints with the technique?** How can the constraints be overcome to another time?

5. **What was the general impression of the technique?**

6. **Will you use this technique again?** Describe why you want/ not want to use the technique.