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CONTENTS

PREFace

INTRODUCTION

PART 1 UNDERSTANDING PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

CHAPTER 1 An Alternative View of Training ....................... 1
CHAPTER 2 Ideology of Participatory Training .................... 6
CHAPTER 3 Theoretical Framework of Participatory
Training .................................................. 9
CHAPTER 4 Principles of Participatory Training .................. 14

PART II WORKING WITH GROUPS

CHAPTER 5 What is a Group .................................... 18
CHAPTER 6 How Groups Work .................................. 20
CHAPTER 7 Development of Groups .............................. 34
CHAPTER 8 Facilitating Groups .................................. 37

PART III DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING A TRAINING PROGRAMME

CHAPTER 9 Designing .......................................... 40
CHAPTER 10 Learning Training Methods ........................ 70
CHAPTER 11 Evaluation ......................................... 94
CHAPTER 12 Management, Reporting and Follow-up ............ 106

PART IV BECOMING A MORE EFFECTIVE TRAINER

CHAPTER 13 Responsibilities, Competencies and Roles ......... 117
CHAPTER 14 Importance of Self Development ................... 123
CHAPTER 15 Understanding Self .................................. 127
CHAPTER 16 Self Development of Trainers ....................... 135

PART V RESOURCE SECTION

A. Sample Training Designs ...................................... 140
B. Learning Exercises Additional ............................... 150
C. Additional Reading & Resource Material ..................... 183
PREFACE

This is a revised, enlarged and more comprehensive Manual on Participatory Training Methodology. It has built on the materials included in the previous edition, but also included more comprehensive and practical additions.

The first edition of this Manual was published in English and Hindi in 1985. It was based on the experiences of two rounds of Training of Trainers Programme conducted by PRIA. Much of that material was developed and used by participants in these TOT programmes. Since then the Manual has been translated and published in several Indian languages (Gujarati, Bengali, Telgu, Oriya, Kannada, Tamil etc.) It has also been distributed worldwide among development practitioners. Many sections of this Manual had been used and adapted in other sectoral programmes: health, women's development, literacy campaign, income-generation, forestry etc. We are happy it has been found relevant and useful.

The revision of this edition and much of its fresh writing has been carried out by Jashodhara and Abhijit Das. They have relied on their experiences as trainers at the grass-roots level as well as their experiences as trainers of other trainers to recast this edition. It has been prepared keeping both kinds of training requirements in mind. It has hints, guides and tools that can be used by community organizers and field workers whenever they design and conduct a training programme.

We hope that practitioners can utilize this manual on their own, without necessarily attending a TOT programme. Yet, we recognize that participatory training is a complex intervention, and requires considerable preparation of the trainers themselves, during and beyond TOT.

We hope you will find this manual useful in practising Participatory Training Methodology. We welcome your ideas and comments on the same.

Rajesh Tandon
Executive Director
Society for Participatory Research in Asia.

February 1995.
INTRODUCTION

A MANUAL FOR PARTICIPATORY TRAINING
IN DEVELOPMENT

About this Manual

This book is a revised edition of the earlier version "Training of Trainers: A Manual for Participatory Training Methodology in Development". It is addressed to those trainers who are engaged in development programmes in both non-government and government sectors: field workers, community organisers and adult educators, as well as a wide range of other activists concerned with the problems of development in the country.

This book is intended to be-

— an introduction to Participatory Training for those who are either unfamiliar with it or interested in knowing more

— a reference manual for the practising trainer of Participatory Training Methodology

— a source-book of sample training modules, materials, exercises and other appropriate learning-training tools. As such it contains theoretical constructs of the various important aspects of Participatory Training, guidelines and checklists for operationalisation of the principles, and a compendium of tools for the practitioner.

What it does not contain are prescriptions. The reader is encouraged to experiment and evolve a personal understanding of what Participatory Training is, and how it works.

The book is divided into four broad sections:

1. Understanding Participatory Training
2. Working with Groups
3. Designing and Conducting a Training Programme
4. Becoming a More Effective Trainer

Each section includes a number of sub-sections dealing with various aspects of the topic in detail.

The four sections are followed by a Resource Section, which contains modules, exercises, materials, and so on for the practitioner's handy reference.

At the end is a Bibliography, listing useful books, for those wanting to know more about Participatory Training.
UNDERSTANDING PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

AN ALTERNATIVE VIEW OF TRAINING
IDEOLOGY OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING
PRINCIPLE OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

PART - 1
Chapter 1

AN ALTERNATIVE VIEW OF TRAINING

Training has always been viewed as a learning process - learning of new skills, concepts and behaviour. As such it is an educational activity. However, it is usually viewed as distinct from formal education, like schooling. In general, training implies non-formal education of adults, but in a purposive, directed sense. Further, training connotes a structured event, with boundaries of time, place and persons.

The traditional meaning of training has been the transfer of expertise from trainer to learner, where the trainer defines what a particular set of learners need to learn. This approach to training believes that trainers know everything, and the learner is looked upon as an empty container to be filled up by the trainer. Learners play a passive role, and are bound to learn what the trainer teaches.

This training approach does not allow learners to participate actively, and gives total control over the process to the trainer. Everything in this type of training from defining the objectives to evaluating the learner, is done by the trainer. The choice of training methods is based upon the trainer’s preference and convenience, and results in a predominance of lectures. The emphasis is on subject matter, or content, and the trainer’s competence is ensured if s/he is a subject matter specialist. This approach to training is very close to formal education or schooling.

Some major assumptions of this training methodology are:

- Acquisition of subject knowledge by learners will automatically lead to action, or change in behaviour.

- The trainer ‘owns’ the knowledge and can therefore transmit or impart it as ‘instructor’.

- Learning depends essentially on the trainers’ teaching capacity and the learners’ learning capacity.

- Training is the responsibility of the trainer and the training institution.

- Knowledge, and training, are value-neutral and ‘objective.’

"Education thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositaries and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues ‘communiques’ and ‘makes deposits’ which the students patiently receive, memorize and repeat. This is the 'banking' concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing and storing the deposits”.

Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed.
However, an alternative view of training has evolved over the second half of this century in which it is not limited to 'transfer of expertise' or equated with 'imparting knowledge.' Training is seen as a process of growth and discovery aimed not just at 'knowing more' but at 'behaving differently'. The focus is on building up one's critical consciousness, examining one's values, attitudes and orientations; on 'unfreezing' set notions and set patterns of behaviour, and questioning, re-thinking, re-learning.

It is a non-formal, on-going process, in which both trainers and trainees learn from each other. This approach to training is intended to build the learners' confidence in their capacity to observe, criticize, analyse, and figure things out for themselves. Thus learners discover they are just as good as their teachers and everyone else. They learn to cooperate, rather than compete for the trainer's approval. Learners are encouraged to consider the whole social context and past history when they try to understand realities of their situation. Their learning revolves around their own needs, and progresses through opportunities for reflection and analysis.

We can call this training for change. Emphasis is more on learning than on training. Learners are encouraged to voice their own ideas and explore ways to solve their problems, investigate their own reality on the basis of their own experience. This approach to training aims at freeing people from patterns of thinking imposed upon them by dominant forces. Its methodology is learner-centred, experience-based and open-ended.

Some major assumptions of this alternative approach to training are:

--- People cannot be developed, they can develop themselves.

--- Acquired knowledge does not automatically lead to action or changed behaviour, people first need to be convinced about the importance of change.

--- Learners themselves are a rich source of information and knowledge about the real world.

--- The collective is a powerful tool for learning and change.

--- Training and knowledge, can never be neutral.

Participatory Training is an educational strategy based on the alternative approach described above. Learners are active participants in the educational process, and their needs and questions, their reflection and analysis, and their strategies for change carry the process forward.

It is important to realize that Participatory Training is not just a set of techniques. It functions in a certain historical, socio-political context. The ideological bias of Participatory Training needs to be understood clearly, otherwise the methodology can get reduced to a set of tricks and gimmicks. We need to be aware of the constant danger of co-option, where similar words and activities are used but the hidden intention is basically to make people conform and accept control.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Banking Approach</th>
<th>Alternative Approach</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning as a product</td>
<td>Learning as a process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Controlled</td>
<td>Student centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of knowledge</td>
<td>Discovery of principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainer=Expert</td>
<td>Trainer=Facilitator, Resource person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner=Knows nothing</td>
<td>Learner=Full of capacities, Knowledge of reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner=Passive, Receptive</td>
<td>Learner=Active, Discovering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages Conforming, Coping</td>
<td>Stimulates Independent thought, Creativity</td>
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Adapted from FMD Consultants, BV, Apeldoorn
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<thead>
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<th></th>
<th>CONVENTIONAL</th>
<th>PROGRESSIVE</th>
<th>LIBERATING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Function</strong></td>
<td>to CONFORM</td>
<td>to REFORM</td>
<td>to TRANSFORM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aim</strong></td>
<td>Resist change; keep social order stable</td>
<td>Change people to meet society's needs</td>
<td>Change society to meet people's needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategy</strong></td>
<td>Teach people to accept and 'fit in' to the social situation without changing its unjust aspects</td>
<td>Work for certain improvements without changing the unjust aspects of society</td>
<td>Actively oppose social injustice, inequality and marginalisation. Work for basic change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intention towards people</strong></td>
<td>CONTROL them, especially the poor</td>
<td>PACIFY or CALM them, especially those whose hardships drive them to protest</td>
<td>FREE them, from oppression, exploitation, mind-control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General Approach</strong></td>
<td>AUTHORITARIAN (rigid top-down control)</td>
<td>PATERNALISTIC (kindly top-down control)</td>
<td>HUMANITARIAN and DEMOCRATIC (control by the people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Effect on People and the Community</strong></td>
<td>OPPRESSIVE—rigid central authority allows little or no participation by learners or community</td>
<td>DECEPTIVE—pretends to be supportive, but resists real change</td>
<td>SUPPORTIVE—helps people find ways to gain more control over their lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONVENTIONAL</td>
<td>PROGRESSIVE</td>
<td>LIBERATING</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>How Learners are viewed</strong></td>
<td>Basically passive, empty</td>
<td>Basically active. Able to take charge</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>containers to be filled with</td>
<td>and become self reliant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>standard knowledge</td>
<td>Responsible when treated with</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Can and must be tamed</td>
<td>respect and as equals</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>What learners feel about the teacher</strong></td>
<td>FEAR—Teacher is an absolute, all-knowing boss who stands apart from and above the learners</td>
<td>GRATITUDE—Teacher is a friendly parent-like authority, who knows what is best for learners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Method</strong></td>
<td>Teacher lectures</td>
<td>Teacher educates and entertains learners</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learners ask few questions</td>
<td>Dialogue and Group Discussions but the teacher decides which are the right answers</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often boring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Main way of Learning</strong></td>
<td>PASSIVE—Learners receive knowledge</td>
<td>More or Less active</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Memorisation of facts</td>
<td>Memorisation still basic through doing and discussing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group Interaction</strong></td>
<td>Competitive (Cooperation between learners on tests is called cheating)</td>
<td>Organised and directed by teacher. Many games and techniques used to bring people together</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperative—Learners help each other. Those who are quicker assist others.</td>
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</tbody>
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*Adapted from 'Helping Health Workers Learn' by David Werner and Bill Bower. VHAI, India*
Chapter 2

IDEOLOGY OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

WHAT IS SOCIAL CHANGE?

Our society is characterised by a small section of the various kinds of elite who own and control a large amount of resources (land, capital, etc.) This section is well informed, powerful and well organised, and dominates the economic, political and cultural life of society. On the other hand, there is a vast majority of people who have no control over resources including their own labour. They are weak, unorganised and considered ignorant; they include labourers, small farmers, tribals, workers, women who spend their lives struggling to survive. There are also several categories of people between these two classes.

Social change implies improvements in the lives of this vast majority of the people in the direction they consider appropriate for themselves. It entails informing, mobilising and organising this vast majority so that they can identify, articulate and struggle for their common interests. It entails widespread conscientisation of all classes and categories of people to uncover and examine both hidden and overt expressions of injustice.

Social change thus requires changes in individuals, groups of individuals, and in systems and structures of society.

Participatory Training derives its perspective from an assessment of contemporary socio-economic reality. If we stop to think for a minute, we find that unequal systems are being systematically perpetuated and reinforced all around us, at home, in society, at work, in organisations, across nations, throughout the world. Power and control in the hands of the few are being used to advance their own narrow economic and political interests, usually at the cost of the interests of those who are many. Systems of inequality, continued exploitation, underdevelopment and marginalisation are being manipulated through control over the minds and thinking of ordinary people. They ultimately come to believe in and accept the systems of inequality and injustice.

Right from the early period of history, religion and literature produced by the learned and scholars, use of language, symbols, culture, rituals, mores and traditions have been utilised to reinforce the perpetuation of unjust and unequal systems in our society. Socialisation from infancy instils into us those values and attitudes which make us take these systems for granted, as unchangeable aspects of reality. Over the last hundred years or so, formal education or schooling has contributed to the same trend.

Schooling, from the viewpoint of those in power, could have involved a risk. Through literacy, communication increases radically, information becomes accessible, and people can read things that will help them discover their legal and human rights. They may begin to question what they had accepted as
'Fate'. They may even begin to realize they can do something to change their situation. This means then, that for the few to keep control in their own hands, schools must teach people to obey authority, to fit into the existing order of things rather than to question or try to change it.

This is done by encouraging students to follow rules, to compete and not cooperate, to memorize and not think. School books paint the present government as completely good and just, with leaders who always have the interests of all the people at heart, and so forth. The most powerful means schools have for teaching children to 'listen and obey' are the teaching methods themselves, by which students are led to believe that the only way to learn is to be taught by someone who knows more. The teacher is called the 'master', an authority whose statements must not be questioned.

Whether people remain illiterate or go through an education that resists change, conditioning ensures that they conform to existing systems. In recent years, media, radio and television have become major tools in controlling the minds and dictating and thinking of ordinary people. The rise of 'expertise', 'specialisation', high-level academic research and so forth have created a general conviction that ordinary people possess no useful knowledge, and therefore have no right to question anything. People's experience and popular knowledge have been devalued and disregarded as a basis or guide in social and economic actions. In the meanwhile monopolistic control over the production, distribution and use of knowledge has increased manifold.

Ordinary people have lost faith in their abilities to understand their world, leave alone transform it. They suffer from low self-esteem and shaking trust in themselves and those around them. Our villagers and urban slum dwellers have been conditioned through decades of neglect, hardship and subjugation to doubt that the system can ever be changed, and to mistrust their own capacities to change their situation. Their aspirations are bounded by a low self concept and feelings of dependency and vulnerability. In the absence of any social organisation or formalised systems of mutual support, people tend to stay submissive and voiceless to the limits of human endurance. People spend lifetimes without a chance to discover what they can do and how well they can do it under conditions of equity and encouragement. Feelings of submission are ingrained to such a tragic extent that the victims of an unjust system themselves become instruments of perpetuating the same system, as is the case with women.

Our view of a better world, our vision of a humane, just and equal society provokes us to act in ways that will begin to weaken the forces that have power over the minds, that control the thinking of ordinary people. It inspires us to do something about this helplessness, submissiveness and feeling of inferiority that has made ordinary people accept control, accept injustice. Participatory Training is an educational intervention in this direction. It serves the interests of the poor and the oppressed, those who are dispossessed, unorganised and powerless. It seeks to prove that ordinary people are capable of bringing about change, they possess valuable knowledge born of experience, and they can
break through their conditioning through a process of continuous inquiry. It challenges the myth that some people are “too old, too poor or too primitive to learn.”

- Participatory Training aims at creating an experience of personal and collective change, thus strengthening people’s understanding that change is possible, within one’s self and at the level of the group.

- Participatory Training encourages people to question what they have always accepted, to critically examine their own experiences, to derive insights through analysis. This process of releasing people’s critical faculties enables them to discover and exert their latent powers for autonomous constructive action.

- Participatory Training recognizes and validates authentic and accurate people’s knowledge, which is based on the experience of reality, and synthesizes it with fresh insights and restructured concepts based on the analysis of experience. The new body of knowledge thus created leads to a powerful sense of ownership and a willingness to transform the reality. Learners thus become prepared for action.

In conclusion however, it must be mentioned that the role of Participatory Training in bringing about change has some limitations. Firstly, structures and systems of society do not change within the training programmes. Individuals can understand social dynamics and social change, their potential role in the process of change, assess their strengths and weaknesses, acquire relevant skills to play a meaningful role and appropriate values necessary to build an alternative society. Groups can learn how to function as an effective unit for action, and groups can experience in a microcosm, the possibilities of democratic functioning in an egalitarian society. But all these notwithstanding, structural transformation can never be brought about through training alone. Additional important steps outside the training context are needed for social change.

Secondly, while working towards change with poor, downtrodden, illiterate people, there is a great temptation to define change for them. As such, the educational intervention basically mobilizes support for a particular cause that we consider ‘right’. We can skillfully manipulate their thinking so that they start believing it is their cause. In this we become equally guilty of mind-control as any other oppressive power. Participatory Training may create informed options for the learner, but it gives the learner the option to accept or reject any option.

If learners are helped to discover and develop their inner resources through an environment providing opportunities to use their abilities, they will demonstrate an increased capacity to manage their lives. We need to trust them to do this. Our responsibility is to help learners achieve a “raised consciousness” and to liberate their latent powers of independent thought and inquiry, so that they begin to view themselves as creators of ideas and initiators of action.

Good training is the art, not of putting ideas into people’s heads, but of drawing ideas out.
Chapter 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR
PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

Participatory Training deals with adults, and as such, has its theoretical base in the principles of adult learning. According to these principles, adult learning takes place in a different way, and under different conditions, from those of children's formal school education. Ineffectiveness of programmes for adults may have partly to do with lack of understanding about the various principles and conditions of learning. Those who try to make adults learn in an environment similar to formal school and by the same methods sometimes end up believing it is impossible to bring about any change in adults. Another common misconception is that most learning takes place through childhood and stops after adolescence, and that it is impossible to alter this learning afterwards.

Contrary to such beliefs, people learn, grow and change even in adult life. Effective adult learning takes place when the essential characteristics of their learning mode are operationalized as principles guiding the process. We can distinguish five key principles:

A. Adults come to the learning situation with a well-defined self-concept, and their learning can be facilitated by helping them to build up their self-concept.

If the self concept is low, the learner thinks that s/he is incapable, ignorant, inexperienced and powerless. This blocks new learning. This self-concept may have been conditioned by adverse circumstances, by marginalisation and exploitation. If the learner is helped to overcome this low self-concept, and recognizes that s/he is capable, has something to contribute and has the potential to learn, s/he becomes more open to the learning process. Similarly, an unrealistically high self concept may block learning.

B. Adult learning is an emotional experience, both in the sense that certain emotions are associated with learning, and that learning occurs through feeling as much as thinking or acting.

All change entails risk, and learning is always a potentially painful process. Thus, the act of learning creates anxiety, stress, perhaps fear, frustration or helplessness. This needs to be understood and handled with sensitivity, especially when dealing with those who have never been to school and are very apprehensive about the learning situation.

Moreover, feelings as such are an important mode of learning, a basis for learning, and a vehicle of learning. We avoid what angers us, or frightens us, or what we are contemptuous of. Conversely, we are eager to find out more, learn more, about the things for which we have positive feelings.

C. Adults choose whether to learn or not.
Adult learning is volitional and autonomous. Forced learning does not last. Adults need to be interested and ready before they learn something. If they have come non-voluntarily or as a result of external demands, they will need extra support, encouragement and guidance. Learning improves when self-directedness is encouraged, when learners are involved in planning and monitoring the process. Interest can be heightened by feedback on progress in the desired direction of learning.

D. Adults learn what they think is relevant to their lives and their problems.

Unlike children’s learning which is for postponed application, adults want to learn today what they can apply tomorrow. Hypothetical problems, or content areas far removed from their reality appear a 'waste of time'. Learning is easier when it involves practical material related to current or perceived future concerns of the learner.

E. Adults learning is based on experience.

Adults come to a learning situation with a rich storehouse of past experience which can be both a potential learning resource or an unavoidable hindrance. For past experiences determine how a learner interprets new experience, and how s/he learns. Moreover, adults equate experiences with themselves, their understanding of the meaning of life. Devaluing or ignoring adults' experience is tantamount to a personal rejection. Sharing of experiences by learners and trainer, and giving value to past and present experiences, creates a readiness for new learning.

Adults prefer learning 'relationally', that is, perceiving how facts relate to reality, rather than memorising facts. Effective learning occurs when adults use past or present experience to gain a deeper understanding of their reality, and thus prepare to encounter fresh experiences.

Adults learn 20% of what they hear, 40% of what they hear and see, and 80% of what they discover for themselves.

Malcolm Knowles “The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy VS Pedagogy”

LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Looking at the principles of adult learning, it becomes evident that a special learning environment is essential for adults to learn effectively.

A learning environment is not given to the trainers, it has to be created, built, sustained and nurtured by the trainers.

In the context of our learners and the learning process, the challenge of building and sustaining an environment that would facilitate both individual and collective learning, that would facilitate a process of questioning, critiquing,
reflection becomes very crucial, and as trainers we have to create conditions for the principles of adult learning to become operationalized. Some of the key characteristics of the learning environment are:

1. Valuing Learners and their Experiences

A fundamental aspect of the learning environment is valuing the learner, valuing his/her uniqueness, experiences, contributions, knowledge, and capacity to learn, grow and change. Valuing and respecting the learner becomes the hallmark of creating a learning environment and this valuing has to be demonstrated by the actions of the trainer, by the conditions created in the training and not by empty words alone. This involves that the trainers both during formal and informal sessions (outside the training) pay keen attention to the learners, try and understand what they are saying and sharing, provide support etc.

2. Sharing Personal Experiences

Since adults learn from their experience, conditions have to be created for an easy, open, systematic and effective sharing of their past experience. Sharing of experience doesn't mean endless, open-ended story-telling sessions. Sharing has to be focussed in relation to specific learning objectives and therefore structured in a way that learners find the opportunity to share their experience in relation to those learning objectives with other learners and the trainers. This is why the task of facilitating small groups sharing, expressing, opening up, articulating, listening to others, caring for others - becomes an important one. The purpose of sharing is also to promote critical analysis and be challenged to experiment with new ideas, feelings, behaviour and action. Mutual sharing process involves not merely learners sharing, but the trainers also sharing information about themselves and their experiences.

3. Openness

Another principle of the learning environment is openness. Openness to oneself, openness to others, openness to learn, openness to question, openness to examine, openness to observe. Conditions have to be created so that learners and trainers can be open with their thoughts and their feelings and they can be open with their actions - open with themselves in the privacy of oneself and open with themselves in the presence of some others and open with others, on their face. This is important because learning occurs in relation to others, with the support of others, in the process of reflecting on oneself, on others and on the situation.

4. Challenging

The next characteristic of learning environment is that there should be a challenge to the learners. Learners should be provoked, stimulated, cajoled, challenged. It is not a passive environment; it is not do your own thing; it is the questioning, critiquing, asking, stimulating, provoking. Creating conditions for people to be stimulated, to stretch themselves beyond their immediate
capacity, to utilise their potential creatively, to utilise their capacity, to unfreeze themselves, to realise their critical faculties.

5. Safety

Another key characteristic of the learning environment is psychological safety and comfort. The learner should be challenged but not be dumped upon. The learner should be stimulated and provoked but never undermined. The learner should be questioned, but not demolished. A sense of psychological safety—I can be myself, I can say to myself, I can look at myself, I can try myself, I can make mistakes myself and yet be acceptable to and by others, is an essential aspect of the learning environment. Safety issues are also related to the security provided in and by the group. This facilitates opening up, taking risks, sharing about oneself etc.

6. Support

A related aspect, therefore, is support—emotional support, intellectual support, behavioral support, availability of support-individually available, available in small groups, creating conditions so the learners are supporting each other as much as the trainers and facilitators are supporting the learners and themselves: support in action and not as a verbal exercise. Support needs to be provided both during the sessions and outside the sessions. Support also needs to solicited from the learners by trainers.

7. Feedback

And finally, the learning environment must have conditions built in for feedback—for information to come back to the person and to the group. Through mechanisms which are easy and relaxed, and not constrained and difficult; feedback from each other, from self, in unobtrusive ways, from the trainers and the learners, continuous feedback on one's thoughts, emotions, actions; on what one has learnt and what one has attempted.

In brief, these are some of the key characteristics of an effective learning environment.

In order to build it and sustain it, there are several things a trainer needs to do:

a) The design of the training should be such that it all the time helps in building the environment, keeping learners involved and the pedagogy alive and relevant.

b) Shared responsibility for learning by the learners: Involving the learner, soliciting their support, commitment, responsibility, feedback towards building and maintaining the learning environment, supporting their roles as facilitators, counsellors, friends with their peer groups.

c) Physical aspects of the training. Ensuring that all physical, administrative aspects (food, travel) of training are well coordinated and managed and do
not cause stress and anxiety of any kind of the learners. Even small things like the cleanliness and organization of training room, advance preparation/installation of technical aids, organizing small rooms for group exercises, noise effects, too much movements in the room-people coming and going etc. become important issues for the trainers to ensure that the learners do not get disturbed or have to fend for themselves in the process.

d) Most importantly, the trainer's behaviour becomes a significant contributor to the learning environment. Knowledge of training design alone is not enough, their understanding about themselves is crucial-their perspectives, values, behaviour, action-how do they respond to learners, how do they care, what effort they put into the content areas, how do they enhance the self-esteem of learners, etc. All these set the normative structures for the training. What do they do to set up the others, in the training. What do they do to set up the learning environment....all this has implications of what the learners would do, when they go back from their training centre.

**The Conditions for Learning**

- **An environment of active people:**
  People learn when they feel they are personally involved with others in a learning process.

- **A climate of respect:**
  When a high value is placed on individuals and a sense of caring prevails.

- **A climate of acceptance:**
  Accepting a person means that s/he can be himself/herself and express her/his beliefs without fear.

- **An atmosphere of trust:**
  When people have a feeling of trust in themselves and in others.

- **A climate of self-discovery:**
  When learners are helped to find out about themselves and to meet their own needs, rather than having their needs dictated to them.

- **A non-threatening climate:**
  So that persons can confront each other and ideas without fear.

- **A climate of openness:**
  When personal concern, feelings, ideas and beliefs can be expressed and examined openly.

- **An emphasis on the uniquely personal nature of learning:**
  When each individual knows that his/her values, beliefs, feelings and views are important and significant.

- **A climate in which differences are thought to be good and desirable:**
  When differences in people are as acceptable as differences in ideas.

- **A climate which recognizes the right of individuals to make mistakes:**
  Learning is facilitated when error is accepted as a natural part of the learning process.

- **An atmosphere that tolerates ambiguity:**
  When alternative solutions can be explored without the pressures of having to find an immediate single answer.

- **An emphasis on co-operative evaluation and self-evaluation:**
  When people can see themselves as they really are, with the help of their peers.
Chapter 4

PRINCIPLES OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

The principles of Participatory Training derive from an alternative view of training, a clear ideology and the tenets of adult learning. What underlies these and binds them together may be called the cornerstone of Participatory Training: something that ensures that we act consistently with our analysis of social reality and our vision of a better world. This is our article of faith. It includes our faith—

— in ordinary people, and their ability to learn, change and grow.
— in people’s capacity to understand, act and transcend their limitations
— that ordinary people do know, are capable of knowing and are interested in knowing.

These articles of faith form an anchor for us, especially when we are in a dilemma. Our faith may be shaken when we find that people just don’t seem to demonstrate their capacity to learn, grow or change after generations of ‘brainwashing’. They don’t show confidence in knowing more, and do not easily articulate what they already know.

This compels us to create conditions and opportunities to counteract the forces which maintain and reinforce control over people’s minds. We have to find effective ways to strengthen the self-esteem of learners so that they have greater confidence in themselves and their abilities. We need to operationalize our articles of faith into respect, felt and demonstrated respect. By communicating respect, we help others to respect themselves. We help to change their attitude of hopelessness and worthlessness. We help them to get back their dignity.

Hierarchical relationships are often patterned on the parent-child relationship, and create dependence and fear in place of autonomy and self reliance. If the purpose of Participatory Training is the personal development of adults, an adult-adult relationship is more effective. The quality and pace of learning increases when a learner can sense that s/he is seen as a peer, as another adult—and just as capable as any other adult.

Adults are highly sensitive to signs of displeasure or correction. Part of the trainer’s role is to avoid judging or condemning, so as to elicit an adult response from the learners. As soon as they note a critical, judgemental, scolding gesture or attitude in the facilitator, they may respond by showing signs of fear or intimidation. Such a response is counter productive for the facilitator who aims at empowering and enabling the group.

Thus, deriving from our articles of faith, we need to respect learners, their experience, what they know and what they wish to know, who they are and what they may become. We need to deliberately create mechanisms to show the

[ 14 ]
value of the learner's experience, knowledge and capacities, and to demonstrate that we do not consider them naive or easily manipulable.

Based on the preceding analysis, the main principles of participatory training are derived:

(a) The primary principle of participatory training is that it is participant-centred. The training arises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them; it focuses on their objectives as opposed to trainers; and the participants maintain control and influence upon the methods of training. In essence, participation is both a basic value underlying this method of training as well as an instrumental requirement whereby trainees learn through participation. The participation of trainees determines content, location, duration and methods of training. It also ensures that the trainer is not seen as a know-all but more as a co-traveller on the path of joint exploration.

In reality, it may be difficult to ensure this strict requirement of participation. In many instances, the trainer promotes participation through stimulation, encouragement, withdrawal and patience. It is, therefore, important to realise that joint influence is exercised by both the trainer and the trainees, rather than a one-way influence of either.

(b) The comprehensive nature of participatory training necessitates combined focus on awareness, knowledge and skills. Awareness of one's own situation and the overall socio-economic reality is important. Awareness-raising, therefore, has to be an important element of such training. Similarly, knowledge-acquisition is a very common objective of all training programmes. Thirdly, learning new skills must be built in such training programmes. The actual combination of these three foci may vary from one programme to another, but every programme must aim at a minimum component of each of these three.

The combined focus of awareness, knowledge and skills makes the choice of training methods complex. Each of these three foci is best accomplished through a particular method. Awareness-raising is most aptly achieved through a dialogue among trainees and between trainer and trainee. It entails critical examination of objective and subjective reality. Knowledge-acquisition is most efficiently done through lectures, talks or reading. Relevant and precise information can thus be disseminated and absorbed. Learning of skills calls for practice. Learning new skills or sharpening existing ones demands practice opportunity within the training programme itself. Thus a combination of varied training/learning methods is utilised in participatory training.

(c) Another important principle of participatory training is learning through the experiences of the participants. This experiential approach relies heavily on the past experiences of the trainees. A systematic sharing of trainees' experiences related to the themes of training is undertaken. These shared experiences are then analysed collectively by the trainees and the trainers
together. Insights are then drawn from these for all. This principle underscores the need for valuing all types of human experiences and not placing a priori judgements on their validity.

Another aspect of experiential learning is generating common experience during training itself. This is accomplished through simulations and exercises designed to provide experiences to participants on themes on training. These exercises help to generate data during training itself which are then analysed by the trainer and the trainees together to enhance learning. It is the combination of past experiences and the here-and-now experiences generated during the programme that provide materials for learning.

(d) Creation of suitable learning environment is a crucial consideration in participatory training. It has been observed time and again that trainees need an opportunity to first unlearn and then relearn. Both these processes can be highly threatening to a person. Learning implies acknowledgement of a current deficiency, and thus resistance may develop easily. It is important that the learning environment be such that trainees are accepted as they are, feel psychologically safe to experiment and take risks, enjoy mutual support, and feel confident that whatever happens in training will not be used against them later. These elements of a suitable learning environment are not easy to build and, therefore, it calls for special attention on the part of the trainer. It is important to realise that such an environment does not develop automatically.

Another ingredient of learning environment is stimulation. A training programme must continue to be interesting and should continue to motivate trainees to learn. Lack of enthusiasm and interest can set in rather quickly and effort needs to be made to check such trends.

(e) An important ingredient of training is its utility in day-to-day life and living. What is learnt in a training programme needs to be transferred to real life situations. Transfer of learning needs to be carefully planned as it does not take place automatically. In order to ensure effective transfer of learning to real life situations, the training programme must provide the opportunity to plan this transfer. It can be accomplished through a method of action-planning where participants identify a few problems in real life that they want to solve, plan for their solution and identify new insights being used in this solution during the last phase of a training programme. It is important that clear, conscious and enough attention is paid to transfer of learning.

(f) When participation is valued, training becomes a social event. Participatory training entails a social process where the training programme becomes a temporary organisation. It is important that this temporary organisation follows values, norms and principles which are congruent with the training objectives. This has to be consciously ensured.

(g) Since participatory training is geared towards building a group or an organisation, the focus of training has to be a group. It is not then the
concern to develop all skills and impart the same knowledge to all individuals but to ensure a distribution of skills and knowledge in such a fashion that all the required ones are available with the group as a whole.

Moreover, part of the training has to aim at building and strengthening the group. Group development, therefore, becomes an important ingredient of such a training programme. This group development effort also needs to be made in the light of the preceding principle whereby the creation of a temporary organisation is recognised. Group development also constitutes an important step towards building a suitable learning environment. In consideration of all these aspects, participatory training must contain group-building processes and interventions.

Finally the trainer's behaviour is an important element in participatory training. While in technical training, the technical expertise of the trainer is the sole requirement, it is not so in participatory training. Here the trainer's own behaviour and value system is equally critical. For one, the trainer needs to be aware of his/her own self and be sensitive to others.

The trainer has to have skills in working with groups and a keen sense of observation of individual and group processes. Moreover, the behaviour of the trainer should be congruent with the aims, values and principles of training. At no point during training should he/she appear to be expressing a value that is in conflict with the essential core of participatory training. Such small, trivial matters as seating, talking, eating and dress can reflect one's values. Particular attention needs to be paid to avoiding an attitude of bossism and superiority over trainees. Humility can help in this regard: openness to others' ideas can facilitate participation. These demands on the trainer can be quite overburdening but they have to be recognised and dealt with by each trainer himself/herself.

For further reading on the topics covered in this Part, refer to the Resource Section at the end of the book.
What is a Group
How Groups Work
Development of Groups
Facilitating Groups

Part - 2
Chapter 5

WHAT IS A GROUP

We are all in some way or other, members of group—groups like the family, a club, an organisation, and so forth. Is a group just a collection of people? What distinguishes it from any accidental or incidental gathering of people, from a crowd or mob?

A group has the following characteristics:

— An objective or goal, or a common and shared purpose
— A framework or boundary in terms of time and space
— A definable membership which is relatively stable
— Interaction and interdependence between members
— A group consciousness or a conscious identification with each other
— The ability to act together as one unit or organism

Thus, a number of individuals standing at a bus stop waiting for the same bus would not qualify to be called a group. But if an accident occurs on the road and these individuals begin to act cooperatively, united by a common concern for the accident victim, they might briefly become a group.

In the context of Participatory Training, we work in or work with three broad categories of groups:

1. Training Groups - Here the group is quite temporary, has a clear objective: learning, and in most cases, everyone comes from a different background.

2. Organisational groups - these are semi-permanent groups. Members are reasonably familiar with one another and the objective is to work with each other to fulfil the objectives of the organisation.

3. Community groups - group members come from similar backgrounds here, are very familiar with each other, and the group is of a longer duration.

Group sizes vary, some are small families, others are large trade unions. Learning takes place optimally in a group with 5-13 members. This size allows for face to face interaction. Small groups of this size form an important medium of learning in Participatory Training.

RELEVANCE OF SMALL GROUPS

We need to understand groups in greater depth, so that we function more effectively as group members. In the context of Participatory Training, moreover groups have special relevance for the following reasons:
Small group is a powerful **Vehicle for Learning**: The experiential nature of Participatory Training makes it imperative that learners work as part of a group. A group is able to share experiences, to provide feedback, to pool ideas, to generate insights, and provide an arena for analysis of experiences. Group discussion is a very effective learning method.

Small group is a **Basis for Action and Change**: Learning is seen as leading to change: in behaviour, attitudes, self concept and so on. An individual needs to try out the learning and experiment with changed behaviour in a secure environment before applying the learning in the outside world. The group provides a measure of support and reassurance. Moreover, as a group, learners may also plan collectively for change action.

Small group is a **building block of People’s Organisations** When working towards social change, we are all involved in organising and strengthening groups. The village ‘sanghams’, Mahila Dals, Panchayat Samitis are all small groups. In larger units, the decision making bodies are also small groups, like the executive committee. By reinforcing a base of small local groups, we make people’s organisations more effective.

Kurt Lewin, an American psychologist, is considered the father of the ‘Group Dynamics’ movement. During the second World War, the American Government wished to change the eating habits of its population in keeping with the war economy. Lewin wanted to demonstrate the effectiveness of group discussion by comparing it with the effects obtained after lectures. One group of subjects were given a very well prepared lecture on the desirability of diet change and given attractive alternative recipes. A second group was allowed to discuss the relevance of the domestic diet to the war effort and to exchange ideas and opinions about change to a new diet. Interviews carried out a week later clearly showed the difference: while 32% of the group discussion members had actually served at least one alternative meal, only 3% of the lecture subjects had done so.

*(From: *Psychology and Adult Learning*, Mark Tennant)*

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**Teams**

The word team is not synonymous with the word group. The essential difference between a team and a group lies in the fact that members in a team perform complementary functions which are essential to the accomplishment of the task. In addition to the characteristics of a group, a team has the following:

- A team has a definite structure
- The members have definite roles and functions which may be assumed or assigned
- Members usually have complementary skills and competence in order to accomplish the task
- A team has a functional hierarchy.

A managing committee is a group but it is not a team. While all members participate and pool in ideas and analysis, no distinct functional differences exist between them. On the other hand, a football team can be seen as having definite roles, functional division and captain/coach also. The processes and patterns observed with groups are applicable to teams as well.
Chapter 6

HOW GROUPS WORK

In order to know how groups work, we have to observe the functioning of groups. We have to understand what is going on within the group both on the surface and imperceptibly, under the surface. When we begin to see the patterns emerging, we will be able to facilitate groups more effectively. We will be helping groups to overcome their blocks in functioning smoothly.

Thus, we need to look at:

- Small Group Processes
- Unconscious Group Processes
- Task and Maintenance Roles in a Group

SMALL GROUP PROCESSES

When we observe a group, we usually take note of what the group is talking about, what are the ideas being exchanged, what is the goal the group is working towards. All this refers to the 'CONTENT' of the group task.

But there is another aspect which is just as important to observe, for it affects performance of the task. This refers to how the group is functioning, how it is handling communication, how members are trying to fulfil the task, how they are relating to each other. All this refers to the 'PROCESS' going on within the group.

There are a number of such 'processes' to be observed: communication, participation, leadership, decision making, problem solving and so on. Every group manifests these processes. As skillful observers - within or outside the group - we can identify the patterns in which the processes occur. We can then decide whether these patterns should be changed or improved.

Participation

Participation is a fundamental process within a group, because many of the other processes depend upon participation of the various members. Levels and degrees of participation vary. Some members are active participants - talkative, demanding, volatile; while others are more withdrawn, quiet, passive. In essence, participation means involvement, concern for the task, direct or indirect contribution to the group goal.

Participation by members is basic to the existence of a group. If members do not participate, the group ceases to exist. But this participation does not mean just physical presence or that everyone speaks. Silent members could be listening very carefully. What needs to be identified and tackled are the members who are "there but not there" those who are indifferent, uninvolved
or could not care less. They can potentially damage the group.

Factors which affect member's participation

- The **content** or task of the group - is it of interest, importance and relevance
- The **physical atmosphere** - is it comfortable physically, socially and psychologically
- The **psychological atmosphere** - is it accepting, non-threatening
- Members' **personal preoccupations** — are there any distracting thoughts on their mind?
- The **level of interaction and discussions** - is adequate information provided for everyone to understand? - is it at a level everyone understands?
- **Familiarity** between group members - do members know each other from before

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHECKLIST FOR OBSERVING PARTICIPATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- How much talking is done by the leader, how much is done by the others?</td>
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<tr>
<td>- To whom are questions usually addressed - the group as a whole or to particular members?</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Do members appear interested, bored, apathetic or self-conscious?</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Are pairings and subgroups taking place and are they discussing issues other than those addressing the group task?</td>
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<td>- Are quiet members being encouraged to speak?</td>
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Communication

Communication within a group deals with the spoken and the unspoken, the verbal and the non-verbal, the explicit and the implied messages that are conveyed and exchanged relating to information and ideas, values and feelings.

To clearly understand the various exchanges while they occur one has to consider various aspects of communication, like direction, mode and reception.

A. The direction of communication

(i) **One-way and two-way communication**

One-way communication relates to a situation where one person conveys the
message and the other passively receives it. Some dismiss it as not deserving to be called communication but merely the passing on of information and ideas. But then it takes place commonly and provides indicators to the relationship existing between the two parties.

Two-way communication implies a situation where not only do the two parties talk to each other, but that they are listening to each other as well. It helps in

- clarification of doubts, confusions and misconceptions
- both parties understanding each other
- receiving and giving of feedback

It indicates the degree of respect between the two parties.

(ii) Communication Networks

While one-way and two-way communication do provide clues to the hierarchy existing between the two individuals, in a group this alone is not enough. A clear idea of hierarchies is generated by observing the ‘who talks to whom’ communication networks.

If we plot our observations on a piece of paper we may see patterns like these emerging:

![Common patterns of communication in a group.](Source: F.E. Finch; "Managing for Organisational Effectiveness")

In the first two patterns, communication is directed only at some specific group members, for example, towards a single authority. In the third pattern communication flows through all possible channels in every direction. It is interesting to note that groups exhibiting either one of these communication patterns would differ situationally from each other in the efficiency of task performance, time required for work, and satisfaction of members with their roles in the group.

(iii) Communicating ‘Upwards’ or ‘Downwards’

Two individuals, or an individual and a group, may sometimes treat each other as inferiors or superiors. This could be on the basis of differences in sex, caste, religion, education, status and so on. Those who assume an inferior position tend to talk ‘up’ to the other person, demonstrating humility or submission. Those who assume a superior position tend to do the opposite. If however, there
is a position of relative equality, as between good friends, communication can occur 'horizontally'.

B. The mode of communication

We are used to equating communication with conversation, or the exchange of words. But if we think for a minute, we realize that a great deal of what we express and a great deal of what we understand from others does not occur through words at all. There are vast number of 'signals' that we send and receive consciously or unconsciously. These include gestures, expressions, changes in voice and so on. Communication occurs through both modes: verbal and non-verbal. In fact, it has been estimated that of the entire message that gets transmitted, words constitute a tiny part, and the bulk comprises non-verbal expressions. While many of us translate these non-verbal 'signals' unconsciously, we can make our communication more effective by becoming aware of this process. We can then assess whether there are any biases or errors in our translation, whether we are misinterpreting the message we receive. We can also become more conscious of the signals we are transmitting, and ensure that our non-verbal expressions match our verbal pronouncements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMUNICATION IN THE NON VERBAL MODE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We communicate non-verbally through a fascinating variety of ways to convey a range of meanings—</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Using our bodies - through gestures, posture, nodding, facial expressions, eye movements</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Using our voices - to laugh, yawn, groan, scream, whisper and so forth</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Using our skin - to touch, to pat, to push, to caress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using distance - sitting close, standing very far apart, sitting on a higher seat, standing behind a table and so on to indicate intimacy or distance</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Using clothes, hairstyles, perfume, jewellery, accessories and so forth to make a certain statement about ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using silence - very effectively sometimes, to convey a range of emotions like shock, disapproval, hurt, great joy, togetherness and so on</td>
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C. Reception in communication

Drawing from the aspects of communication described above, it becomes clear that 'reception' involves both picking up non-verbal cues and listening to verbal messages. We need to sharpen skills in these for accurate understanding of what others are trying to express.

Most of us are so busy thinking up and putting across our own ideas and points of view, that we seldom listen carefully to others, until of course we consider them experts or perceive some direct benefit from what is being said. Listening involves much more than passive hearing, and the mere fact that two
people are talking to each other does not automatically mean that listening is also taking place. Listening is based on hearing and understanding what others say to us. It is only possible when we pay attention to what is being said. We must remember that **listening is the true indicator of respect**. When we are in a great hurry to react to what others say or make ourselves heard, we need to re-examine ourselves.

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**Guidelines for Effective Listening**

1. Concentrate on **hearing** - we think about 4 times faster than the other person can speak, so our thoughts tend to stray.

2. We must listen with an **open mind** - we often stop listening when we hear some key words - "red flags" - which touch our personal biases or preferences.

3. Pay attention and try to **understand what is being said** - listen beyond the words, try to understand the feelings, the emotions, what is being implied. Be alert to the various non-verbal messages.

4. **Do not predict** what the speaker is trying to say - do not jump to conclusions and stop listening, find out for sure whether what you think is true or not.

5. **Do not pretend to have understood** when you have not - clarify your doubts, request the speaker to re-explain, ask relevant questions.

6. **Do not become defensive** and do not argue or interrupt - when the speaker challenges some of our favourite ideas our immediate reaction is to either stop listening or to interrupt and argue.

7. To ensure that we are listening attentively we should from time to time **restate, repeat and summarise** what we think is being said.

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*Adapted from 'Training for Transformation'*

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**SOME BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION**

**PERSONAL**

1. Our values, opinions, prejudices and attitudes

2. The tendency to see one and only one way of doing things - our way

3. The tendency to speak or react before thinking

4. Stereotyping people - making quick generalisations

5. Words and phrases have specific personalised meanings, we assume the same meanings when they are used by others

6. Lack of trust
SITUATIONAL
1. Physical well-being and mood of the individual
2. Differences in backgrounds and context between the parties
3. Differences in language

CHECKLIST FOR OBSERVING COMMUNICATION

Who talks? For how long? How often?

— How are silent people treated?

— Who talks to whom? To the group as a whole or to some people in the group?

— Who talks after whom? Is it for encouraging or for challenging?

— Who interrupts whom? Are some people interrupted all the time?

— Do the members listen to each other?

— What non-verbal messages are being transmitted?

HELPFUL HINTS FOR EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. Have a circular seating arrangement so that everyone can see and interact with everyone else
2. If there are two facilitators, they should sit apart so that communication flow is not in one direction
3. Respect individuals - let everyone call everyone else by name or if people prefer to address each other respectfully by using sir or ji, let its use be universal
4. Encourage and support the quiet members to voice their opinions
5. Try to persuade the people who speak too much, to give the others a chance
6. Ensure that only one person speaks at a time or else no one will be heard
7. Discourage sub-groups from indulging in side talk

Decision-Making

Decision-Making within a group takes place in one or more of the following manners:

The plop: A decision is suggested by one individual to which there is no
response, and the decision is adopted. 'Plopping' occurs in a new group, in a
group where a number of members have equal status, or when one member is
overly aggressive.

**Self-authorised:** A decision is made by the individual who assumes authority.
The others find it easier/convenient to accept the decision than to reject it. The
essential difference between this and the 'plop' is that the 'plop' is not tendered
with authority but gets adopted by default, whereas in this case the decision
is tendered with the assumption that it will be adopted.

**Pairing:** A decision is made by two individuals joining forces, one floats the
idea, the other seconds it and the decision is made on behalf of the group.

**Minority group:** The decision is made by the clique and the rest accept it.

**Vote:** The decision depends upon the number of people adhering to it. Vote
may be taken by a show of hands or even by ballot.

**Consensus:** This is essentially a minimum consent by all. It is important to
differentiate between a true and a false consensus. When faced with the
question 'Does anyone disagree?' many who do not agree show apparent
support. True consensus, where everyone has contributed to the discussion, all
angles have been considered and everyone is in full agreement, though desir-
able is not always possible. What can be aimed at is that everyone feels

(i) they have had the opportunity to put forth their views and influence the
decision;

(ii) it was a good and open discussion;

(iii) they are prepared to act on the decision taken.

### Checklist for Observing Decision-Making Process

1. Does anyone make any contributions which do not receive any kind of response or
   recognition? What effect does this have on the member?

2. Does anyone make a decision and carry it out without checking with other group
   members? For example, he decides on the topic to be discussed and immediately
   begins to talk about it. What effect does this have on other group members?

3. Who supports other member's suggestions or decisions? Does this support result in
   the two members deciding the topic or activity for the group? How does this affect
   other group members?

4. Is there any evidence of a majority pushing a decision through over other members' 
   objections? Do they call for a vote?

5. Is there any attempt to get all members participating in a decision? What effect
   does this seem to have on the group?

6. Is the decision made by consensus? Are differences fully explored? Is there
   unanimity or full agreement?
Most groups find themselves unable to solve problems because they address the problem at a superficial level. After that they find themselves blocked because they cannot figure out why the problem occurred and how they can tackle it. Therefore an effective problem-solving procedure would be to:

(i) Clearly define the problem: is it what appears on the surface or are there deeper hidden aspects.

(ii) Try to thoroughly explore and understand the causes behind the problem.

(iii) Collect additional information, from elsewhere if necessary, and analyse it to understand the problem further.

(iv) Think of solutions or look for solutions: in this it is useful to stop thinking according to the usual logic and normal sequence, and deliberately think of ‘wild ideas’ which are apparently not relevant. Creativity and imagination are needed to spot new patterns within the same set of facts. The group should suspend criticism and judgement for a while and try to combine each other’s ideas or add on improvements. The objective should be to generate as many ideas and suggestions as possible. This is called ‘brainstorming’ in a group, when individuals try lateral thinking.

(v) Choose the appropriate alternative. There will be some conflict to be resolved there. Collaborative and consensus based resolution is preferable to forcing a choice. Considerable discussion is needed to evaluate the various alternative solutions on the basis of constraints and available resources.

(vi) Implementing the solution through a plan, and evaluating how the problem is solved.

Leadership involves focussing the efforts of the people towards a common goal and to enable them to work together as one. In general we designate one individual as the leader. This individual may be chosen from within or appointed from outside. In a small group the leadership function (unlike the leader) is not static, but is performed by different members at different times. Thus one member may provide leadership with respect to achieving the goal while a different individual may be providing leadership in maintaining the
group as a group. These roles can also switch and change.

It is interesting to note how leadership is assumed, challenged, and changed in the course of a small group's life. The reactions, behaviour and role of the designated leader is also noteworthy.

**Leadership Styles**

One way of classifying Leadership styles is based on the behaviour of the leader. This way we have:

(i) The Autocratic Leader: who imposes with very little concern for the members needs, opinions and preferences. Such a leader has great concern for accomplishing the task but little or no concern for the members.

(ii) The Lassiez-faire Leader: who has little or no concern for the task at hand, but is concerned about the people, letting them act according to their own wishes.

(iii) The Democratic Leader: who is equally concerned with the task and the people. In the ultimate democratic tradition the leadership function is shared between members of the group

The same individual in different circumstances and/or with different groups behaves differently. In order to understand this we can consider the following factors affecting leadership behaviour.

**FACTORS AFFECTING LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

- Within the leader: Is the leader convinced about sharing authority? Does s/he have confidence and trust in the rest of the group? - a sense of security? What is her/his value system? This will affect the leadership style chosen.

- Within the group: Are members willing to take responsibility? - mature? interested? How cohesive is the group? Can they act together? What is the degree and level of involvement? Is there a sense of autonomy or of dependence? These will influence the leadership pattern in the group.

- Within the situation: How much time pressure is there? Is there a crisis? What is the nature of the problem the group is working on? What is the intrinsic nature of the organisation within which the group exists? What is the overall environment? These factors decide what is an appropriate style of leadership.

**LIBERATING LEADERSHIP**

In almost all real life situations, groups have a designated leader. In a participatory model, the ideal is to reach a state of democratic leadership; but then to practice such a leadership style from the very beginning of group life can have negative results. Trust needs to be built, the members need to become
serious, mature, and committed. These conditions cannot be assumed.

Thus, the leader must assume greater responsibility to be open, equal and accountable; humble, sensitive and committed. S/he must enable the group to identify and analyse issues of vital concern to the group, and as the group grows, share his/her leadership with other members.

The leader has to help:

(i) raise the members awareness and motivation
(ii) increase the readiness of members to accept responsibility
(iii) develop group work and group morale
(iv) convince the group that they can affect change
(v) further individual members' needs for growth and development

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<th>CHECKLIST FOR OBSERVING LEADERSHIP PROCESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Which members are high on influence? That is, when they talk, do others listen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Which members are low on influence?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do you see any rivalry in the group? Is there a struggle for leadership?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Who are the members trying to assume leadership? Do they rely on coercion, expertise, formal authority, personal qualities?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. How is the designated leader behaving? Is the style autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How are people reacting to the leadership?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conflict Resolution

Conflict is inevitable in the life of a group. When members with different experiences, attitudes and expectations come together in a group, differences are bound to arise. These differences are sometimes suppressed and not openly discussed. Sometimes, the emotions behind the differences in the two parties make the expression of conflict quite intense and visible. The important thing to remember is that conflicts exist in all small groups.

Why do conflicts arise? There are a series of reasons. We all face conflicts within ourselves - shall I do this or that (intra-personal conflict). Conflicts between two persons (inter-personal conflicts) are visible in a group. Members bring different perceptions, values and knowledge. The greater the differences among members of a group, the more will be the conflicts. For example, we can expect women and men in a group to differ on certain issues.

The differences arising out of information, facts and knowledge are easy to resolve. Confusions about roles, coordination and responsibilities can also be sorted out in the group. The most difficult conflicts to resolve (they perhaps never get resolved) are those arising out of value-differences. Values are the core of ourselves - things we believe in. If you and I believe in different sets of things, it is rather difficult to resolve our differences.

The most important thing that can be done in these situations is to understand the real causes for differences.

Why is conflict resolution seen as a process? Because conflicts do not go away: each conflict resolution also feeds into the next conflict in a group. It is, therefore, useful to see conflicts as a series of differences in a group, each having some link to the next. How the group deals with conflicts affects the manner of its functioning.

The following common ways are used to deal with conflicts in a group:

Avoiding: Withdraw from conflict situation, leaving it to chance.

Smoothing: Generally cover up the differences and claim that things are fine.

Bargaining: Negotiate to arrive at a compromise, bargain for gains by both parties.
Forcing : Push a party to accept the decision made by some leader.

Problem-Solving : Confront the differences and resolve them on a collaborative basis
THE UNCONSCIOUSNESS PROCESSES

The various processes mentioned earlier describe what takes place when decisions are made or how communication takes place, but they do not provide information as to why things happen the way they do. In order to understand why things happen the way they do, one needs to consider some unconscious processes that occur within groups, some emotional undercurrents that produce interfering or destructive behaviours.

(i) **Response to authority** - From the moment we enter a group we unconsciously try to relate to the authority figure in the group. Depending upon our individual experiences and reactions to authority in the past the first response is either one of dependency, or of counterdependency.

**Dependency** - Members look to the authority to tell them what to do. They are lost without the authority figure and seek security from it.

**Counterdependency** - Members resent authority, their behaviour reflects hostility towards authority.

Emerging from these stages what has to be achieved is a state of interdependence where members can relate with each other reciprocally.

(ii) **Fight, flight and pairing** - Working cohesively in a group is not a natural function. The unconscious response to being in a group is either to fight, to flee, or to pair up. Various behaviours within the group provide clues to these unconscious processes:

**Fight** - Disagreeing, asserting dominance, attacking whatever is believed to be responsible for stress, trying to get one's own way.

**Flight** - Staying out of discussion, day-dreaming, changing the topic of discussion, making irrelevant remarks, cracking jokes continuously.

**Pairing** - Forming dyads, triads or subgroups which are not task-oriented, in which members protect and support one another.

In order to function cohesively and work towards the goal these unconscious processes must be resolved. They have to be recognized, not ignored or denied. Once these processes are identified, the group needs to work with them so that emotional energies are channelled towards the group's effort.
ROLES OF GROUP MEMBERS

An infinite variety of behaviours may be seen in groups. Some group members may tend to be "all business"; they try to set task objectives, they process information necessary for the task and they push for completion of the group assignment. Behaviour of this type is often referred to as task-oriented role behaviour. Some behaviour is directed more toward maintaining group harmony and cohesiveness; encouragement is given, communications are fostered and conflicts are mediated. This is referred to as maintenance role behaviour. This behaviour is directed toward maintaining the vitality and functioning of the group, whereas task-orientation behaviour is focused on the solution of the problem or achievement of the task established for the group. Finally, another type of individual behaviour is observed which is not oriented toward any group function but rather is directed toward the resolution of a person's own needs. This is different from the others in that it is not relevant to the functioning of the group, while the others are relevant. We should not assume, however, that individual need for satisfaction is not important or that it does not affect the performance of the group.

The three roles just described - task, maintenance and individual - are seen in most groups. Furthermore, some members tend to emphasise, or specialise in, one role; in other words, a person may concentrate on the task function to the exclusion of maintenance activity. Other members may assume a variety of roles. However, for the group to develop its maximum potential and to function effectively, both task and maintenance roles must be performed and they must be performed at the appropriate time. Thus, there is a time when humour is important to the group, for example, as a means for reducing tension or conflict, and there is a time to call the members' attention to the objective, such as when they begin to lose sight of their purpose. Finally, the emotional aspects of individual role behaviour cannot be wished away or ignored. They must be confronted and resolved if those members are to be effective contributors to the group.

Actually, the three roles described are general and contain numerous specific roles. Some of these roles are:

1. Task role behaviour:

   a. Initiator: S/He leads in making suggestions about new goals and procedures of operation. S/He defines the constraints of the problem and is instrumental in seeing that the group makes progress on accomplishing its task.

   b. Information processor: This individual seeks and gives information and checks for the accuracy of the information available. S/He attempts to bring out the opinions and values of group members so that they may be incorporated into the task processes.

   c. Summariser: S/He helps the group in its task by processing information into more complex forms. S/He accomplishes this by restating and
summarising the group’s information into forms which may be more meaningful to the group. S/He helps by clarifying and elaborating on the thoughts of the groups. He helps to orient the group with respect to its goals.

d. **Evaluator:** S/He subjects the output of the group to tests such as practicality, logic and morality. S/He tests to ensure that it meets the objectives and purpose of the group.

2. **Maintenance role behaviour:**

   a. **Encourager:** He acts to elicit the contributions of others by agreeing with others and accepting their ideas. He tries to promote group involvement through praise of their work and acceptance of others’ ideas.

   b. **Harmoniser:** He leads in the efforts to reconcile differences of opinions and to settle conflicts. He acts to relieve tensions when conflicts arise.

   c. **Compromiser:** When involved in a conflict he often offers compromises by yielding on his position in order to maintain group harmony.

   d. **Gatekeeper-expediter:** He acts to facilitate communication. His behaviour is designed to elicit or deny participation to members. He helps to reduce tension and conflict by directing communications into safe channels.

In summary, the ability to accurately observe and understand the character or tone of a group activity is a valuable asset. This knowledge is useful in determining the causes of conflict, the probable support for group decisions, and the strategies that might be employed to influence group members. Knowledge of process factors such as leadership styles, communication practices, decision procedures and functional roles will provide information to assist in improving group performance.

3. **Individual Behaviours**

Gross differences between individuals in a group or individuals not identifying with the task can often lead to a pattern of individual behaviour which is detrimental to group work. The differences could be on the basis of temperament, attributes, values, background and so on and the behaviour exhibited includes:

a) **The aggressor** - deflates the status of others and expresses disapproval, attacks the group;

b) **The blocker** - tends to be negativistic and stubbornly resistant;

c) **Recognition seeker** - calls attention to him/herself, through boasting, acting in unusual ways;

d) **The dominator** - tries to assert authority and superiority by manipulating
the group members;

e) **Help seeker** - attempts to gather sympathy from other group members;

f) **Self confessor** - uses the group opportunity to express personal, non-group oriented feelings and ideas;

g) **Playboy** - displays lack of involvement in the group processes by being cynical, nonchalant;

h) **Self interest pleader** - speaks for 'grassroots', 'marginalised' to cloak his/her own prejudices in the stereotypes which best fits his/her present needs.

Groups are first of all, collections of individuals. These individuals cannot be assumed to be homogenous. While it is true that a good group allows individuals to transcend their limits of knowledge, ability and performance, before this happens the individuals must first transcend their individual needs and self-interest. But for this to happen the individual must possess some basic trust and sense of security in dealing with other people.

Side by side the group cannot assume that individuals will sacrifice their self interest automatically as they become members of the group. There must be specific provisions within the group to accommodate individual needs, especially the need for individual growth and expression. But we must remember that an overemphasis on the individual can be as harmful to effective group work as an over-emphasis on the group.
Chapter 7

DEVELOPMENT OF GROUPS

The developmental process of small groups can be viewed in several ways. Firstly, it is useful to know the persons who compose a particular small group. People bring their past experiences (in general as well as past experience, in particular of working in small groups); people come with their personalities (their perceptions, attitudes and values); people come to a small group also with a particular set of expectations of the group or the goals of the group they are about to join. Thus the a priori experiences and expectations of persons comprising a group can influence the manner in which the group develops over a period of time.

Still, there are some common developmental characteristics of all small groups. These characteristics take two forms. Firstly, all small groups face certain issues in their developmental process. Secondly, all small groups go through certain stages in their developmental sequence. These issues and stages are visible in the case of almost all small groups, though to varying degrees and in varying manifestations. It is, therefore, useful to understand what these issues and stages are.

ISSUES

Three central issues are faced by all small groups in their developmental process. These are: inclusion, influence, intimacy.

(a) Inclusion: Members in a small group begin to face the issue of inclusion as soon as they join the group. Questions uppermost in their minds are: Am I a part of this group? Am I accepted as a full member? How much am I included in the life of the group? These questions are largely relevant in the early stages of the life of a group, though they may reappear at a later stage also. When members enter a group, they leave behind their membership in other groups. Thus the tension of membership is the underlying reason for the issue of inclusion. The issue gets resolved, at least temporarily, if all the members feel accepted and included. Full inclusion of all members of a small group may not occur, but even a partial acceptance creates the possibility of moving ahead.

(b) Influence: The next issue members of a small group face is influence. Each member wants to have influence in the group, and so there is a fair degree of tussle around establishing superiority of influence and control in the group. Key questions facing the group are: Who has influence in the group? Do I have influence? How can I have more influence? The resolution of the issue of influence can take several forms. One or two members establish de facto superiority; a small clique controls the group; or, almost all members actively attempt to influence each other. This issue is a very difficult issue for a group to resolve and it keeps coming up again and again. However, ineffective resolution of the issue of influence can cause considerable obstacles to the goal accomplishment of the group, and can even lead to the splitting of the group.
(c) **Intimacy:** One of the issues facing a small group is the degree of closeness that members feel for each other. Members meet their needs for affection and warmth by establishing intimate relationships. Key questions facing the members are: Do I feel close to others? How can I come closer? What can be done so that all feel close? How can we be an intimate group? In essence, members are concerned about an important aspect of group life which may remain hidden. In reality, however, differences may exist in the degree of intimacy faced by different persons in the group. Close relationships between some may become a *source of jealousy* and tension in others. Therefore, resolution of the intimacy issue can release energy in members for utilisation in task accomplishment.

It is important to recognise that these issues emerge in the proposed sequence: inclusion, influence, intimacy. But an issue once resolved can reappear in the life of a group. The manner in which these issues surface and get resolved will vary from group to group. But the important thing is to be aware of them and to be prepared to deal with them.

**STAGES**

Viewing the group as a whole we observe definite patterns of behaviour occurring within the group. These can be conveniently grouped into stages and phases. One convenient way to describe these changing patterns of group behaviour is as follows:

**First Stage -**

The initial stage in the life of a group is concerned with forming a group. This stage is characterised by members seeking safety and protection, tentativeness of response, seeking superficial contact with others, demonstrating dependency on existing authority figures (trainers or facilitators), complaining about physical and trivial matters (light, sleeping and food arrangements, seating etc.), certain degree of show-off to the authority to gain his/her approval. Members at this stage either engage in 'busy' type of activity or show apathy.

**Second Stage -**

The second stage in the group is marked by the formation of dyads and triads. Members seek out familiar or similar individuals and begin a deeper sharing of self. Continued attention to the subgroup creates a differentiation in the group and tensions across dyads/triads may appear. The members feel comfort and support in their dyads/triads and feel strong enough to challenge the authority figure. Strong dyads attempt to show defiance against authority. Focus on task performance is beginning to emerge, but energy is mostly spent within a subgroup. Pairing is a common phenomenon.
Third Stage -

The third developmental stage is marked by a more serious concern about task performance. The dyads/triads begin to open up and seek out other members in the group. Efforts are made to establish various norms for task performance. Members begin to take greater responsibility for their own group and relationship while the authority figure becomes relaxed. Dissimilar members in the group are accepted and interaction among dissimilar people takes place around the task.

Fourth Stage -

This is the stage of a fully functioning group where members see themselves as a group and get involved in the task. Each person makes a contribution and the authority figure is also seen as part of the group. Group norms are followed and collective pressure is exerted to ensure the effectiveness of the group. The group redefines its goals in the light of information from the outside environment and shows an autonomous will to pursue those goals. The long term viability of the group is established and nurtured.

These stages too take place sequentially and the possibility exists for the group to slip back on the basis of certain events or experiences within the group.

Tuckman (1965) has labelled these consecutive stages as Forming, Storming, Norming and Performing.
Chapter 8

FACILITATING A GROUP

A group cannot automatically function effectively, it needs to be facilitated. Facilitation can be described as a conscious process of assisting a group to successfully achieve its task while functioning as a group. Facilitation can be performed by members themselves, or with the help of an outsider.

In order to facilitate, it is important to understand what is it that needs to be facilitated. We need to facilitate:
- the effective performance of task and maintenance functions
- the processes like participation, communication, decision making and leadership
- the effective resolution of issues like inclusion, influence and intimacy
- the smooth transition of the group from one stage to another
- the accomplishment of the task

To facilitate effectively the facilitator needs to (i) understand what is happening within the group
(ii) be aware of his/her own personality and how s/he comes across
(iii) and know how to facilitate.

DIAGNOSING A GROUP

The process of finding out what is going on in a group may be called diagnosing. It is an essential skill of a facilitator. He can only proceed further to help remove the problem once s/he is able to diagnose what it is that is going wrong. Diagnosis involves understanding the causes after looking for clues within the group (e.g. communication pattern, unconscious acts) and outside the group (e.g. history of past relationship between members). Some examples follow to illustrate the point.

**Problem:** Everyone does not participate or show interest and a few remain silent.

**Possible causes:**
- the goal or task is not relevant for everyone
- some members are insecure
- some members are dominating on the basis of caste, class, education or sex.

**Problem:** Subgroups occur within the group and they get involved in their own conflicts

**Possible causes:**
- members of the subgroup are loyal to some outside group of conflicting interests
- existence of hidden agenda

**Problem:** People stick their conflicting points of view, stalling progress or decision-making

**Possible causes:**
- existence of differing value systems which are more important than the task of the group
- existence of differences/conflicts between individuals which were there before the existence of the group

**Problem:** Some members ignore or disregard contributions from other members
Possible causes:
- members are insensitive to others, needs
- members are too full of their own self importance

Problem:
The group is not able to make a decision, or even if a
decision is made members are not willing to implement it

Possible causes:
- group lacks adequate information, skills and know how to
  solve the problem
- the decision is threatening to members
- fear of failure

(Note: The list of possible causes is by no means complete and is given to provoke
further thought)

AN APPROPRIATE INTERVENTION

Having diagnosed the possible causes of the problem, the facilitator needs
to decide upon how s/he will help the group go forward. This conscious act is
called facilitating.

Simple means of facilitating include:
- encouraging
- bringing the conversation to the point
- mediating and peace keeping
- maintaining order
- requesting

But then in some cases, these alone are not enough. It is then that the
facilitator needs to look deeper and understand clearly the unconscious proc-
esses and the levels of awareness within the members of the group, and the
group as a whole. Depending upon the facilitator's grasp of the situation,
different styles of facilitation can be used.

SOME SKILLS OF A FACILITATOR

Listening:
- the ability to listen carefully and creatively; picking
  out both positive aspects and problems, difficulties and tensions

Observation:
- the ability to see what is happening; to understand
  non-verbal clues, to monitor the group's work
  objectively

Sensitivity/empathy:
- the ability to pick up implicit messages; to see
  problems through the eyes of the members; to
  understand their feelings, ideas and values, to
  focus on structures and roles rather than personal-
  ities or competence

Diagnosing:
- the ability to define the problem to synthesise
  diverse data and form a working hypothesis to
  choose intervention and action
Supporting/encouraging: the ability to provide verbal and nonverbal indicators of encouragement, affirmation, appreciation and caring - to assist in a joint search for solutions.

Challenging: the ability to confront, to disagree, to stop a process without being rude.

Openness: the ability to invite dialogue, to receive feedback, and to be prepared to examine one's own attitudes, values and ideas and to change them, if necessary.

Modelling: the ability to include oneself as a model in the group, responding spontaneously, without being idealistic, or posing as an expert.

FACILITATION STYLES

Groups vary in the nature of their tasks, their composition and in the problems that crop up. The facilitator chooses his/her style of facilitation depending upon his/her understanding of the situation, the objective of the change, i.e., in the action or the awareness; and focus of the change, i.e. the level of the group or the level of the individual. Four different styles of facilitation have been described taking into consideration these variables - task or awareness and individual or group.

Interactive Mode: Here the facilitator diagnoses the problem as being at the individual level and the facilitation is thus individual-centered. This mode focuses on action/behaviour. It is benign and educative, and change in behaviour of the individual is sought to be brought about by providing support and encouragement.

Inclusive Mode: This mode is used when the facilitator diagnoses the problem to be at the level of the group and focus is change in action. The facilitator deliberately includes him/herself as a member of the group and provides model behaviour that the group could adopt. The facilitator needs to be careful that s/he does not present an ideal infallible model but one which includes his/her feelings, values, needs, opinions and weaknesses as an ordinary human being.

Interpretive Mode: Having diagnosed that the problem is at the level of awareness of the group, the facilitator deliberately chooses to be an outsider. S/he analyses the problem objectively and presents his/her interpretation impersonally to the entire group.

Intrusive Mode: Here the facilitator diagnoses the problem to be with the individual and the focus of the change is at the level of awareness. With the assumption that the individual is interested in learning about becoming aware of his/her true self, the facilitator presents to the individual what he/she has observed and what that could possibly indicate about that particular individual. This presentation is deliberate and impersonal and may be likened to an intrusion into the individuals life space.

(A word of caution: Using these various styles of facilitation consciously requires practice, more so with the interpretive and intrusive styles. The facilitator must remember that the style depends upon the focus of change. It must also be remembered that the facilitator must be very conscious of his/her own self and avoid taking an authoritarian or moral stand during facilitation.)

(For further reading on the topics covered in this part, refer to the Resource Section at the end of the book.)
DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING A TRAINING PROGRAMME

DESIGNING
LEARNING-TRAINING METHODS
EVALUATION
MANAGEMENT, REPORTING AND FOLLOW-UP

PART - 3
Chapter 9

DESIGNING

Meaning and Importance

The word 'design' in the context of training may appear strange if we are used to terms like course, syllabus, time-table, schedule and so forth. A 'design' of a training programme is a sort of 'blueprint' to show the entire programme at a glance, and helps us in thorough preparation.

In the traditional approach to training, designing is considered an unimportant job, not needing much skill or time. It is equivalent to fixing up the course content or syllabus and scheduling who teaches what and when. Another approach makes it even simpler, the course content is charted out in readymade 'modules' and one only needs to mechanically select a module and identify appropriate resource persons. These approaches display no concern for the specific needs or expectations of a group of learners.

In Participatory Training however, designing is a crucial part of the training programme and an important skill required in the trainer. Here the trainer is working from a definite starting point: learners' needs and problems are the basis of the entire training intervention, and the programme has to be specially designed to meet the unique needs of each group of learners. Moreover, the intention is not to merely transmit a body of information, but the liberation of critical faculties, a process of self-actualisation. It is imperative that trainers go through intense and rigorous preparation, rather than casually assume that sessions can be carried off if one has enough specialised knowledge to give lectures. In Participatory Training, the overriding concern is what sort of learning will take place; therefore a great deal of attention has to be paid to objectives, contents, sequencing, methods and timing, so that the programme is most conducive for the learning of a particular group.

BEGINNING THE PROCESS

Deriving from our understanding of Participatory Training principles, designing can be done through a series of steps. At first we need to have a clear understanding of the strategic role of training. For instance, if we are conducting a programme for members of a community, we need to consider what is our overall development strategy with the community, and what place does training have in it? It may be that we are trying to set up income generation units run by rural women. Training might be a means to enhance entrepreneurship skills and improve product design. If on the other hand, participants of the programme are coming from a number of different voluntary organisations, we have to take into account the overall development strategy of each organisation and where training comes into their strategy. For instance, a number of organisation may be interested in running schools for pavement children, and here training may be required to orient workers to non-formal education, to the myriad problems of pavement-dwellers and their
survival tactics. It is important to be clear about the strategic role of training so that learned competencies can be utilised by the participants in order to effectively contribute to their organisation's (or community's) progress.

Once we have defined the strategic role of training, we need to select participants carefully on the basis of relevant background and present/future roles. While a large crowd of participants give an appearance of a 'successful' training, the investment of time and resources will be fruitless if most of those participants do not go back and use their learning, or if the objectives of the training have no relation to the strategy of their organisation.

**SOME CONSIDERATIONS WHILE SELECTING LEARNERS**

- Have the learners voluntarily applied for the programme? Or have they been sent?
- Do they see the programme as suitable for themselves? Does it relate to their work/roles?
- If learners have been chosen by their organisation, on what basis have they been chosen?
- If learners are coming from a community, who selected them for the programme? On what basis?
- Do the learners have a suitable background?
- Is the timing right? Will learners have other preoccupations?

**PROCEDURE**

Having defined the strategic role of training and having selected learners, we can proceed through the following steps to clearly formulate our plan for the training programme:

a. Assessing learning needs
b. Defining learning objectives for the programme
c. Deciding on content area
d. Sequencing contents
e. Selecting appropriate methods
f. Putting the whole in a time frame.

Effective design is learnt through constant practice, that is, actually trying out to see what works better and what does not, how timing keeps up with the learners' pace, and so forth. What follows is a set of guidelines which need to be kept in mind.

**A. Assessing Learning Needs**

**IMPORTANCE:**

This crucial step is generally ignored as trainers tend to assume learning needs because of their vast experience in training or past familiarity with a type of
learner group. However, this step of finding out what learners need to learn has
to be undertaken carefully and seriously. Participatory Training is participant-
centred. It is aimed at helping participants become more effective in dealing
with their problems, in changing their reality. Therefore, the future aspirations
and present issues facing the learner are central in determining the direction
of the training intervention. If we neglect this step, there is a possibility the
entire training may be misdirected and fail to achieve any useful impact. It can
also lead to a disastrously belated realisation midway through the programme
that learners are not at all interested in the training.

**WHAT ARE LEARNING NEEDS?**

The first question that arises is, what are learning needs? Learning needs are
those set of things which a person or a group of persons needs to learn in
order to perform their role effectively and meet some specific requirements of
the work s/he is involved in. Thus, needs assessment must establish—

- what is required of the role of persons in the community or organisation
- what are the existing competencies, skills, knowledge already available
  with the person
- what is expected of the person by herself/himself, the community or the
  organisation

**SCOPE**

To be able to evolve a holistic framework of learning needs, from which the
training objectives will be outlined, it becomes necessary to look at the
following canvas:

1. **Learners**
   : Who are they? Socio-cultural contexts? What is their work
   in the field? What has been their experiences/problems?
   What are their abilities and strengths? What are their
   aspirations? What do they want to learn?

2. **Community**
   : Which community is the learner going to work with? What
   are the people's common problems? Causes of main
   problems? Physical or social? From inside or outside the com-
   munity? What are people's attitudes, traditions, concerns?
   What are their resources-human, physical, economic, from
   within or outside the area? What role is the learner going
to play in the community? How does the community view
the learner? What expectations do they have from the
learner?

3. **Organisations**
   : History and background of the learners organisation? What
   is the work, strategy and focus? What structures exist?
   How has it grown? What changes does it want to bring
   about? Why does it do training and what does it expect
from training? What competencies does it require in the learner? Is training really needed for implementing desired changes, or can change be brought about through detailed operational planning and plan implementation? Is the organisation ready to use the new competencies and attitudes the learner will develop?

WHEN

However, not all learning needs can be assessed before a training programme. Learners who are illiterate or poor, or unused to articulating what they need, or those who have no previous exposure to the possibilities of such an educational intervention will in all probability be unable to articulate what they need to learn. They might only be able to focus on problems. Later during the programme they may be able to define more clearly what they want to learn. We need to have a provision for incorporating the emergent redefined needs into our overall training strategy.

HOW

Useful methods for gathering this data include meetings, discussions in groups, interviews and field observation. When direct interaction is not possible, a well-thought out questionnaire can be sent to participants or their organisations to elicit learning needs.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOURCES OF INFORMATION</th>
<th>METHODS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Learners themselves—individually and collectively</td>
<td>• Individual and Group Meetings</td>
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<td>• Others who know the learners, like observant persons in the community, colleagues, organisational head</td>
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<td>• Job requirements—individuals job definitions as well as organisational or community roles</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Records, including documents, past training reports, annual reports</td>
<td>• Interviews</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Questionnaires</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Field observations in learners’ context of work</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Study</td>
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B. Defining Learning Objectives

MEANING

Learning entails change, and before we start the learning intervention, we need to define the change required so that we have specific criteria to measure progress. Learning objectives are those concrete and relevant changes or outcomes that we expect in the learners by the end of the training programme. They can be stated in terms of specific knowledge, awareness and skills learnt.
IMPORTANCE

It is necessary to define objectives before we design the training because they will direct the entire designing and influence our selection of content areas and methods. Moreover, objectives become our indicators of learning achievement: progress and pace can be monitored with their help, and they provide the measure of accountability during evaluation. Thus the objectives of a training programme need to be shared with learners at the very outset. It is important that learners understand the proposed directions of the process and relate it to their learning requirements so that they can be actively involved right from the start. Flexibility also needs to be built in to accommodate possible refining or re-defining.

PROCEDURE

How are objectives formulated? One helpful way is to collate the entire learning needs of the group and categorise similar or related needs together to arrive at broader sets of needs. Where learning needs have been expressed in the form of problems faced, trainers have to use their experience and insight to extract learning needs. Sometimes those designing a training programme would also need to use their own understanding of what competencies are required to perform the desired task well. For example, a traditional birth attendant’s learning needs may emerge as more information on hygiene during delivery and more tips on what to do when something goes wrong. To this a trainer might add awareness about the need for healthcare during pregnancy, and a working knowledge of reproductive processes and anatomy.

COMMON ERROR

Objectives are quite distinct from content area. A common error is to list out a number of desired content areas and consider them synonymous with training objectives. Content areas are derived from objectives, not the other way round. Objectives as desired changes or expected learning outcomes provide overall directions for the entire training intervention. As compared to content areas, objectives are broader and more comprehensive.

CAUTION

A word of caution is necessary at this point. Objectives have to be realistic in their projection of expected learning outcomes. It is no use making an ambitious statement which cannot possibly be fulfilled during a single training programme with a particular group of learners. The context of the learners is also an important practical consideration in deciding on objectives. Can they attend longer residential courses, or are they able to only attend half-day programmes? Will they need a lot of breaks?

STRATEGY

It is usually unfeasible for a single training programme to fulfil all learning needs. A longer training strategy may be tried instead, with a series of training
programmes, punctuated by regular gaps (a week, a month, a quarter). Different sets of learning needs can be separated for these smaller modules. Our strategic use of training compels us to adopt a more **sustained long-term approach**. What we are trying to change, through Participatory Training, has been around for generations. It cannot be transformed by a brief single-shot training intervention.

**LIMITATIONS**

Finally, there are certain problems or needs that can never be tackled through training. The problems that involve basic structural changes in a family, in society, in an organisation—cannot be addressed while formulating training objectives. Training can certainly prepare participants for change, help them to create a vision, to build a strategy of change, and to understand consequences of not changing. But **training cannot bring about social change**. Setting up such an objective would be futile.

---

**FOCUS OF LEARNING**

Each objective needs to be seen clearly in terms of desired knowledge, skills, or awareness. In order to define the precise focus of learning in this way, we can ask ourselves the following questions about each desired learning outcome:

- Do participants need to have plenty of information on this? Should they know more facts about this? Do they require a detailed breakdown of these points? Do they need to clarify concepts about this?
  
  - If the answer is yes, then the focus of learning is **KNOWLEDGE**

- Do participants need to gain a deeper understanding about this? Do they need to become sensitive to the various aspects of this which they had not been aware of earlier? Do they need to feel so strongly about this that it will move them towards change? Do they need to realize this at the emotional level?
  
  - If the answer is yes, then the focus of learning is **AWARENESS**

- Do participants need to improve their competence to perform this? Do they need to become better at doing this? Do they need to develop an ability for this? Should they be able to carry out this task more effectively?
  
  - If the answer is yes, then the focus of learning is **SKILL**

Objectives may therefore be stated simply and succintly as—

- To develop awareness of oppression of tribals', or 
- To increase knowledge about women’s legal rights', or
- To sharpen skills in community organisation.
HOW OBJECTIVES CAN BE DERIVED
FROM LEARNING NEEDS

EXAMPLE ONE: Training of NGO Activists

1. STRATEGIC USE OF TRAINING: To upgrade regional NGO healthcare programmes in the area of women's health

2. LEARNERS SELECTED: NGO activists working with health issues of rural women, but with limited competence. At least a year's experience of work.

3. METHOD OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT:
   (i) Pre Training Questionnaire
   (ii) Discussion [in pairs] at the outset of the programme
   (iii) Relevance of programme monitored daily by steering committee.

4. LEARNING NEEDS THAT EMERGED:
   - To know more about women's health problems
   - To learn first aid and treatment of symptoms
   - To learn more about reproductive health
   - How can we take health messages to illiterate women?
   - To understand how oppression by other women affects the health of women.
   - How can we ensure that government health care facilities reach rural women?
   - Reasons behind continuous ill health of poor rural women
   - Causes and incidence of anaemia, leukorrhoea, dental problems, etc. How can they be cured?
   - How can we work effectively for women's health care?
   - To understand social causes behind women's ill health

5. OBJECTIVES: Training strategy of two programmes
   (A) Initial 5 day Programme with objectives as follows:
   (i) To increase knowledge about common health problems of rural women in the region
   (ii) To deepen understanding of socio-economic causes affecting the health of rural women
   (iii) To improve skills in planning effectively for women's health care.
Followed by a 15 day programme after 6 months with following objectives:

(i) To increase knowledge of women's common health problems and reproductive health

(ii) To build skills in health data generation, preventive health care, simple first aid and herbal treatment of symptoms.

**EXAMPLE TWO : Training of Village Youth**

1. **STRATEGIC USE OF TRAINING** : To develop local people's interest in women's literacy by creating a cultural troupe composed of village youth.

2. **LEARNERS SELECTED** : Young men and school-students interested in theatre/music/dance who were also volunteer-teachers of illiterate women.

3. **METHODS OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT:**
   (i) Discussion with youth groups of six villages
   (ii) Meeting among staff of local NGO conducting the training
   (iii) Discussion at the outset of the programme.

4. **LEARNING NEEDS THAT EMERGED :**

   *(From participants)*
   
   — To overcome shyness in public
   — Why aren't rural women interested in literacy?
   — To learn acting
   — To learn how to make a play and perform it
   — How can we persuade women to attend literacy classes?
   — Why are men so reluctant to make their women folk literate? How can we win them over to our side?

   *(From NGO)*

   — Social reasons behind illiteracy of women
   — Why is it imperative to increase literacy
   — Learn street theatre, songs, dance etc.

5. **OBJECTIVES** : Training strategy of one intensive 5 day programme

   (i) To deepen understanding of causes and effects of illiteracy in the present social structure

   (ii) To build awareness of the importance of literacy for poor rural women

   (iii) To develop skills in singing, street theatre and dance.
C. Deciding on Content Areas

MEANING
What will be the actual topics, ideas and subject matter to be covered during the training? What are the specific areas in which learners will have gained knowledge, awareness or skills? These are the content areas of the training. They include all the units of learning that derive directly from the training objective. Each objective may require a whole set of contents.

PROCEDURE
How do we decide on content areas?

1. Content areas are largely determined by the trainers’ frame of reference or ideology. For example, content areas of such an objective: “To increase awareness on family planning” can be derived quite differently by two trainers, one of whom is a government doctor and the other an activist working with poor women. The doctor might have:

   - Importance of family planning-benefits to poor people
   - Advantages of various methods of family planning
   - How to convince people to adopt family planning.

   The activist on the other hand might have:

   - Economic necessity of larger families among poor people
   - Women’s lack of control over their bodies, sexuality and reproductive functions
   - Advantages and disadvantages of various family planning methods, especially hidden or long term side effects
   - Importance of creating informed options on family planning.

2. Content areas can be effectively delineated only after we are very clear about the learner’s present level of understanding, present knowledge base and competencies. The extent of the topic or ideas to be covered, and the depth or detail, can be determined on the basis of the current level and background of the learners. The scope of the content is also dictated by the size and relative homogeneity of the learner group. For example, a citizens’ training programme on consumer rights awareness would have different content areas for slum dwellers, for housewives in lower-bracket government flats, and for highly educated double income couples. The depth of coverage would differ if the size of the participant group was 30 or 100. It is also affected by the composition of the learner group. In a training for effective organisation of women’s groups where learners may have some years of working experience at the grassroots level through NGO’s, the content may be covered in great depth. But if the same training programme had some experienced NGO activists, some raw recruits, and some village women who are leaders of women’s groups, the scope of the content area would be considerably different for such a heterogenous composition.
3. To draw up a list of content areas, we can start off by thinking of every possible topic that relates to each training objective, and then enumerate every sub topic or separate aspect of all the topics. But from this exhaustive list, we need realistically assess the following, keeping our ideology and strategic use of training in mind:

- What is essential to be included?
- What is useful enough to be included?
- What would be nice if included?

Learners come for a limited time, and cannot possibly absorb everything in minute detail like a sponge. Adults do learn volitionally and selectively, only what is of use. It is a waste of time and resources to overwhelm them with a barrage of learning. The idea is to whet their appetite, stimulate their curiosity and encourage them to seek further, to set into motion processes of continuous inquiry, experimentation and practice. We have to **cull out content areas that are not essential** and carry some over to successive phases of training. Of course, we could always deal with all the content areas at a superficial level, but that might not contribute to the strategic goal at all.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CROSS-CHECK CONTENTS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do they all derive from and relate directly to the training objectives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will each of these areas of learning lead the learner towards the desired change? Do they need all these?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any complex content areas that can be broken up into simpler sub-topics?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will learners of this level be either in need of more detail or unable to take in all this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are we trying to achieve something in one go that needs a number of programmes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the contents being manipulated by my preference and dictated by my personal convenience?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**D. Sequencing Content Areas**

**NECESSITY**

It is not enough to decide on content areas and slot them for one session after another. Some content areas seem to naturally lead on or 'flow' from one to the next, but some have no linkages at all. In the latter case, the learner is jerked out of one train of thought and suddenly confronted with something quite unrelated. Some training programmes actually slot content areas on the basis
of when the necessary resource person is available. Thus, any topic could be
made to come after any other topic in a purely ad-hoc manner. This would
obviously hamper learning. Another problem that sometimes crops up is that
learners resist a certain topic strongly and appear to be emotionally unprepared
to deal with it. It is therefore important to sequence content areas carefully and
ensure linkages within the order into which they have been put. This helps to
minimize blocks to learning and permits the process to move ahead smoothly.

PROCEDURE

The main principles to keep in mind while ordering content areas into a suitable
sequence are:

To create emotional and intellectual readiness for each succeeding content area

To avoid monotony, boredom, stress.

1. Creating Readiness

To create readiness in learners, we have to discard the random approach and
first of all develop a logical framework: which idea logically leads to the next?
Should we talk first of how to organise tribal youth, or should that come after
an analysis of the exploitation of tribals? Should we first talk about opportuni-
ties for women in the Panchayati Raj Amendment, or should we first analyse
why women are not adequately represented on Panchayats despite being half
the population? Should we demonstrate benefits of organic farming first or
demonstrate havoc caused by 'Green Revolution Technology' first? What is the
logical order? What sequence will make the learner mentally receptive to each
successive learning content? This is what we have to reason out first.

Moreover, some content areas, if positioned earlier, can effectively 'set the
stage' for what follows. For example, we may have two content areas: 'Self
Development' and 'Understanding of Groups'. If we put 'Self' first and 'Groups
next, learners may become so preoccupied with the 'Self' that they show no
disposition to start looking at 'Groups'. But if we deal with 'Groups' first in
which participants examine closely their own behaviour in groups, it leads to
a reflective mood in which they are emotionally prepared to deal with questions
of self-development, which can appropriately be the next topic.

Another way to enhance readiness is to use an appropriate model of
training to sequence the content area. In this we need to first determine which
content areas are extremely personal and potentially threatening, and which
ones deal with broader issues of society at large. Depending on two variables,
the type of learner group and the main purpose of learning, there are three
possible models of sequencing these topics: macro issues to micro issues, micro
issues to macro issues, and macro-micro-macro.

(i) Macro to Micro: When we have a new group of learners, in which members
are unfamiliar to each other, and the purpose is self development, it is
difficult to start out at once with personal issues. Here it helps to sequence
content areas in such a way that more abstract and general issues are handled first and deeply subjective questions come afterwards. This gives the learners time to 'unfreeze' and feel comfortable with each other during the painful process of developing self-awareness.

(ii) Micro to Macro: When the group is not new and the members know each other well, we can start off the programme with personal questions. If the purpose is to prepare them for social action, we can sequence content areas so that topics at a very subjective level are followed by increased objectivity, proceeding to analysis of group, then community/work organisation, and finally society at large.

(iii) Macro-Micro-Macro: If we have a new group, and the purpose is to develop personal awareness as well as deal with social issues, we can start off with generalised discussions of society, carry on to look at group, and then issues of self, then lead gradually back to broader questions. This would ensure that learners do not leave the training too deeply preoccupied or even disturbed about themselves.

2. To avoid monotony, boredom and stress

In sequencing the contents, it is important to remember that too many sessions of the same type can easily lead to boredom or stress. Variation is necessary. For example, content areas that deal with highly abstract theoretical inputs need to be alternated with contents that require learning at a more emotional level, or some hands-on practice. Then again, intensive training events using deeply personal experiences ought to be interspersed with sessions
which would offer a conceptual, analytical understanding of such experience; otherwise learners may become so preoccupied with their own emotions that they would fail to understand these emotions, or listen to other learners' reactions.

Some trainings which require the development of skills need to sequence practice sessions in an effective way to avoid monotony and maximise retention. If the skill to be learnt is very simple, a certain amount of concentrated practice is sufficient. But if the skill is quite complex and difficult, it helps to follow some amount of sustained practice with a break, and then have short periods of practice with frequent rest intervals. This kind of sequencing will lead to better learning.

**BASIC GUIDELINES IN SEQUENCING**

- Introduction of the programme and learners has to be FIRST

- Monitoring and review should be ON GOING. MID-TERM review is useful. A brief evaluation may come at the END.

- Planning for follow-up should come towards the END

- Action planning (to transfer learning from the training to the real life situation) should come AFTER all other content areas

- We can estimate what goes better after what by CONSTANTLY referring to our experience
One way to consider the entire training programme is as a brief spiral in the life cycle. Passing through the spiral, the learner reflects on shared experience, draws insights, experiments with these in a protected environment and then plans to go back and apply the learning in the real life situation. This model provides broad guidelines for the sequencing of content areas. It clearly indicates that generation of fresh experiences at the end of the programme, with no time for processing, can be disastrous for learning.

Adopted from FMD Consultants BV, Apeldoorn
HOW CONTENT AREAS CAN BE DERIVED FROM OBJECTIVES AND SEQUENCED

Example: Orientation Programme for Women Panchayat Members

Objectives
1. To develop a critical awareness of the present socio-economic reality in the State, and to understand the situation of women (particularly poor rural women) in the context of this reality.
2. To understand the role and functioning of Panchayats in our political system.
3. To gain a better understanding of the scope and functioning of existing programmes for rural development and poverty alleviation, and to critically analyse their strengths and weaknesses.
4. To explore the ways in which women panchayat members can facilitate change processes through increased involvement of women in development.

The overall thrust of the course will be
- To equip learners to function effectively as panchayat members.
- To help learners become aware of their possible role as agents of social change through facilitating women's participation in development and democracy.

Learner group.
- 25/30 newly elected women panchayat members.
- Heterogenous in age, socio-economic background, political affiliation and education

Day First.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Methods/Time duration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introductions. Ice breakers.</td>
<td>(30 mins.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Background</td>
<td>Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-context of the course</td>
<td>Charts. (30 mins.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-objectives of the course</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Sharing the design.</td>
<td>Simulation (Part I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Present socio-economic reality</td>
<td>(1 hour)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-situational analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[ 54 ]
5. Debriefing of simulation  
   - root causes of poverty  
   (Lunch break)
6. Film: “Ashani Sanket”  
7. Present socio-economic reality  
   - how are things different today  
   from the situation in the film?  
   - how is West Bengal different  
   from other States?

Note: The programme on Day 1 is designed to build an environment where the emotional impact of the film will bring the group closer together, and set the stage for a more intense and introspective process on Day 2.

**Day Second**

1. Situational analysis (contd.)  
   - situation of women
2. Debriefing of simulation  
   (Lunch break)
3. Situation of women  
   - sharing of personal experiences  
   and life situations.
4. Consolidation  
   - consequences of gender oppression.  
   - web of causation  
   (Dinner break)

Cultural programme.

Note: The second part of the simulation will focus more clearly on women’s issues in the context of the background established on Day 1. Linkages will be made and forces for and against change will be identified in a personal context. The Cultural programme will provide space for the expression of emotions generated during the process of reflection and analysis. The process will facilitate the learners in developing a perspective of themselves as part of a broader social context, rather than as ‘someone special’.

**Day Third.**

1. The Panchayat system  
   History in India and West Bengal.  

**Methods/Time duration**

Simulation (Part II)  
(1 hour)
(2 hours)
(In small groups,  
(2 hours)
(1 hour)

Slide presentation  
(30 mins.)
2. Present structure and functioning of Panchayats. Roles and responsibilities of members.

3. Presentation by groups.

4. Consolidation
   
   (Lunch break)

5. Development in W. Bengal
   - various approaches (individual, family, community-based, area-based).
   - existing Government schemes

Lecture/presentation
(2 hours)
Time for reading handouts and material on Panchayats in W. Bengal.
(1 hour 30 mins)

Note: A commonality of understanding about their roles and responsibilities as Panchayat members will be built on learners’ perceptions based on the earlier experience in their own situations.

Day Fourth

1. Scope and functioning of Government programmes
   - structural strengths and weaknesses.
   - strengths and weaknesses in implementation
   - alternative designs.
   (Lunch break)

2. Presentations by groups.

3. Consolidation
   - how socio-economic situation affects implementation of government programmes.
   - inherent strengths and weaknesses of various approaches to rural development.

Note: Sessions on Day 4 are designed to build on information and knowledge about government schemes (discussed on the previous day), with the focus on acquiring analytical and critical skills, and articulating alternatives.

Methods/Time duration
Case studies on video or in writing, to be discussed in small groups
(3 hours)
Chart/poster displays.
By the trainers.
**Day Fifth**

1. Impact of development programmes on status of women  
   **Methods/Time duration**  
   Discussion in small groups  
   (1 hour)
2. Presentations by groups  
   (1 hour)
3. Consolidation  
   (Lunch break)  
   (1 hour)
4. Identifying and mobilising resources for change  
   Exercise in small groups  
   (1 hour)
5. Presentations  
   (1 hour)
6. Consolidation  
   -resources for change including government programmes, people's organisations and people's action.  
   -holistic approach to identifying alternatives.  
   By trainers  
   (1 hour)

**Note:** The process on Day 5 will return the focus from a general appraisal of the impact of development programmes, to the actual reality at the grassroots level, with learners analysing their own experiences in the light of their understanding about their own roles as representatives of the power structure. Exercises will present small groups of learners with typical village level situations which highlight women's issues in the context of development activities, and ask the question "As a Panchayat member, what would you do?"

**Day Sixth**

1. Action planning for the next year. groups from the same panchayat. (2 hours)  
   **Methods/Time duration**  
   Individuals, or small  
   (1 hour)
2. Presentation of action plans.  
   (Lunch break)  
   By the group (1 hour)
3. Evaluation of this course.  
   (1 hour)
4. Planning for follow-up  
   Using non-written forms of expression.
5. Feedback.

**Note:** Since unrealistic expectations and theoretical planning in a mood of euphoria would defeat the objectives of the course, the emphasis on the final day will be on effective interventions at the local level, with action plans being prepared using the knowledge, awareness and skills incorporated in the design of the earlier days.
E. Selecting Appropriate Methods

Refer to next sub-section on Learning-Training Methods

F. Putting the whole into a Time Frame

TIME ASSESSMENT

Once we have formulated objectives on the basis of learning needs, derived content areas from objectives, sequenced the learning units with proper linkages, and selected appropriate learning training methods for each content area, we can finalise the training design and put the entire thing in a time frame. A realistic calculation needs to be made of how long each topic will take to cover. Some considerations while assessing time needed are

- the depth of the topic to be covered
- what are the special learning styles of this group
- what is the choice of method
- what are the limitations of the programme

We have to spare adequate time for breaks, both short and long. It is important to structure time separately for participants to—

- go through given reading material, perhaps even discuss it with others to gain clarity
- be adequately briefed about norms or procedures before exercises, games, field trips, practice sessions
- seek if individual clarification are needed or counselling from trainers
- increase energy levels through short games, exercises, dance and so forth.
- be relaxed with each other and overcome shyness in the group through cultural programmes, especially at the beginning when participants are unsure and tense.

FLEXIBILITY

Designs can be very detailed and explicit, accounting for every minute of the training programme, or they can be rough approximations of what area of learning will be covered every half-day or every day. While it is useful to be well organised, a very rigidly delineated ‘time-table’ has its disadvantages. It makes no allowance for the learner’s pace, which might very well be quite slow in the beginning and warm up only after some time. It leaves no provision for the unexpected: some accident that may be beyond the trainer’s control. When every minute is stretched to the limit, even a slightly longer break than planned could throw the whole design out of gear.
Flexibility is also very necessary in Participatory Training so that there is space within the design to accommodate emerging learning needs and preferred learning styles which might not have been anticipated before the training. Ongoing monitoring might even throw up the need for a total revision of the design. If we hold that a design once made is sanctified for ever, we may seriously hamper the flow of learning. The trainer has to be prepared to modify the design in order to ensure that effective learning takes place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>A USEFUL FORMAT FOR DESIGNING</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>* Context of the training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strategic Role of this programme in overall context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Participant group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Main Learning needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Duration of programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Training objectives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Content Area</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Approx Time</th>
<th>Resources, Materials</th>
<th>Other Preparations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Includes Resource Persons to be contacted well in advance)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Refer to Page 60 for a summary of steps in Designing a Training Programme)
STEPS IN DESIGNING A TRAINING PROGRAMME
### HOW THE DESIGN CAN BE PUT IN A TIME FRAME

**EXAMPLE: SCHEDULE OF TRAINING PROCESS FOR WOMEN'S CADRE-BUILDING IN A RURAL AREA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAY 1</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.45 to 12.10</td>
<td>Introduction - Group building games - Sip - Sap - Advocate</td>
<td>Pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.10 to 1.30</td>
<td>Training aims and needs assessment</td>
<td>Exercises</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.30 to 2.00</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.00 to 2.30</td>
<td>Present status of women</td>
<td>Dialogue and</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>2.30 to 3.30</td>
<td>Identification of Women's problems</td>
<td>Chart Presentation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.00 to 4.00</td>
<td>Analysis of the existing problems</td>
<td>Group Discussion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4.00 to 4.30</td>
<td>Committees formation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4.30 to 4.45</td>
<td>Break</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.45 to 5.00</td>
<td>Sangam Strategy to overcome problems faced by women</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.00 to 6.30</td>
<td>Problem solving strategies</td>
<td>Lecture and Dialogue</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.30 to 8.00</td>
<td>Dinner</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8.00 to 8.30</td>
<td>Organising</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8.30 to 8.45</td>
<td>Sangam meetings</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.45 to 9.30</td>
<td>Cultural Programmes</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAY 2</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.30 to 8.45</td>
<td>Review session</td>
<td>Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8.45 to 9.30</td>
<td>Input session of Government Schemes and departments</td>
<td>(Lecture)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.30 to 11.00</td>
<td>Sharing of activities and experiences of Pakampalli Women's Association</td>
<td>Lecture and Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.00 to 12.00</td>
<td>Field Visit</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.30 to 1.00</td>
<td>Dunkumana Palli</td>
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<td>Lunch</td>
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<td>1.30 to 3.00</td>
<td>Preventive care for mother and child</td>
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<td>3.00 to 4.00</td>
<td>Existing health Problems among women and preventive steps</td>
<td>Lecture and role Play</td>
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<td>Re-entry Plan and evaluation</td>
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WOMEN’S LEARNING

In the process of designing training programmes for women, especially for poor women, it is essential to examine whether we have casually included them in the category of ‘all learners’, which is to say, male learners. Have we considered the women’s issues, women’s concerns, women’s perspectives and special learning processes? Is the programme designed to empower women, or will it actually lead up making them more convinced that they are unable to learn? Keeping in mind the social context of Participatory Training, we need to analyse whether we are also perpetuating myths and reinforcing distorted stereotypes about women that actually accept, rather than challenge, the present situation.

While designing training programmes for poor women, we need to keep some characteristics of women’s learning process in mind.

**Characteristics of Women’s Learning Process**

1. **Survival Learning Processes**

Poor women’s struggle for sheer survival coupled with the continual denial of opportunities of being a human being worth anything, makes them ‘learners’ of a different kind. Being doubly oppressed (class and gender) taking on multiple responsibilities (wage earning and life enhancement, familial, social, etc.) increases the repertoire of skills that women possess in relating to themselves, their families and the environment at large. Survival needs place a very high responsibility on women through her girl-child phase, and her experiences teach her things which necessarily make her a ‘precocious learner’—teach her to think and be independent, become self-reliant, take risks, deal with several kinds of people in the environment, become an entrepreneur in order to gain work, become adaptive, confrontative and thereby grow strong in the process. However, these early experiences also make her vulnerable, prone to victimization and violence. Her powerlessness and reinforcement of the image of her being a burden makes her feel a worthless human being a burden on her parents.

Therefore, on one hand she acquires a set of competencies far ahead of her times, on the other she is dispossessed of competencies that are required to lead a life of human dignity and worth. A keen understanding of her multiple strengths and weaknesses will indicate to us how to structure learning situations which will capitalise on her strengths and build upon her new areas.

A few additional features characterise her learning. One is that women begin to take interest in learning, when they feel it will relate to their daily reality. They learn from the concreteness of issues to begin with and gradually move on to newer issues. We must be always aware that we should not perpetuate stereotype roles and processes in our learning situations with them.
The affective dimension of women's learning is also best situated in this context. Women are constantly dealing with "emotions", "nurturance" largely of others. Their ability to handle and deal with emotional content is high and they therefore are able to work easily with "process" issues in learning, be it group-building, interpersonal issues, collectivising efforts etc.

Another feature to be highlighted is that women tend to think in a "cylical process" ... a process that incorporates the wholeness of life as it is for them, a process that includes the concerns of their children, homes, workplaces, neighbours, community, village etc. in learning situations. At times it may seem that they tend to go tangential in direction and in the midst of discussions punctuate it with personal experiences, stories, anecdotes etc. It seems like they are here now, as well as there, at the same time. To us, it may look like that their concentration is shifting, attention span is low, they are becoming unfocussed, distracted, but it is not so. We have to cue into their lives and learn to distinguish between their concentrated thinking and their distraction processes and accept that it is different from ours.

2. I am Nobody to I am the Body:

In further carrying out the point made previously, a girl-child grows to be a woman without an identity of a 'self'. Her identity lies in the several roles she plays - that of a mother, wife, sister, daughter, daughter-in-law etc. Her identity as a "worker", a woman, a person in her-own right is not established. Her feelings of being useless and worthless continue to expand and negate her identity of the self and she sinks into this whirlpool of low self-esteem and low self-worth. This negative self-esteem impacts her learning process, whereby she feels that as an adult today, she can learn nothing new and builds a wall of resistance around her. We do know that adult-learning principles claim that enhancement of the self esteem of learners is the first step in creating conducive conditions for learning.

This implies that in any learning process we must enable women to recapture, rearticulate, regain and be themselves by being valued, respected and validated as women. We must initiate a process which would enable them to move from feelings of worthlessness to self-defined feelings of worth and not "my defined feelings of worth". It also indicates to us that no matter what the agenda of a meeting, discussion, training be - the starting point must be the validation of the woman herself and all related anxieties, issues, be dealt with legitimately in the learning process. Such a process not only builds individual identity, but helps a group build a collective identity.

3. Collective Learning Processes:

Learning has been always seen as an individualistic pursuit. Our schools, our work situations are constantly forcing us to learn in an individualized mode. If we want to move ahead in life, it forces us to be competitive, so that we can edge on forwards at the cost of others.
But our development paradigms believe in collective action and collective struggles. This to us is based on the recognition of the collective mode of learning. It is our experience that women possess the capacity to work and learn in collectives since their realities and life experiences have demanded that they think primarily of others and not of themselves.

To elaborate further, being and learning in a collective does not imply a submergence of the identity of the (self) - as a woman - her identity as an individual learner, person and a member of the collective are prerequisites for learning in and through the collective. Thus the simultaneity of individual learning and learning in the collective must be understood as a philosophical tenet. The collective provides the psychological, emotional and physical support that is so essential for any learner, especially for women. It provides challenge, it provides acceptance, it provides interaction of a different kind and ensures that control lies in the hands of women. As educators, it seeks of us to nurture, support and "build the collective" through every part of our intervention.

We have witnessed that women flower as persons, given the environment, the clear goals of development and the vision of the morrow. However, their transformational processes create problems for them in the community they live in. "Oh, she thinks she has become a doctor; She feels she is going to become a "sahib"... and several such derogatory remarks, adverse attitudes, will accompany her growth process. There are several powerful forces in the environment, which include other women as well, that will try to negate and overpower the new found self of the woman, alienate her and pull her back to their starting point. Herein, we can visualise the role of the collective as a much needed supportive one which will provide her the challenge and the motivation to move ahead.

4. Denial of an experiential knowledge base:

The monopoly over systematised, organised knowledge production has been the domain of the elite men. Even the popular knowledge production vests with men. Despite the fact that the popular knowledge of the oppressed and marginalised groups has been denied and unrecognised, that of ordinary women has been even more de-recognised and de-legitimated. Wherever knowledge of women did exist and began to serve a larger social purpose, it has been immediately hijacked and appropriated by other dominant forces. Examples of natural resource management, agricultural production, indigenous health practices, herbal medicines being appropriated by the so called professionals, stand testimony to this dispossession.

Women's popular knowledge is presently in a fragmented scattered form, comprising of both myths and distortions and is alive in an oral form—essentially handed down from one generation to another. The fact that poor women have "no sense of ownership"—having owned nothing in life, not even herself, makes the appropriation and repackaging of her knowledge back to
her a very simple and straight-forward process. There are no copyrights nor patents, nor so-called scientific empiricisms.

The process of alternative educational interventions is to create women's own means of producing, analysing and validating popular, experiential knowledge which is consistent with a woman's perspective. It should allow women to articulate reality as they see it, allow them to start from where they are, allow them to say things which are important to their lives and we must all recognise and understand their popular forms of expression — be it through folklore, tales, songs, drama, drawings etc.

This creation of an alternative knowledge base is not to create an isolated body of knowledge removed from the whole but to facilitate the interconnectedness of the whole, through the eyes and experiences of the women. Educational interventions would necessarily need to build women's capacities to articulate, analyse and systematise their knowledge. New knowledge can only be built on an analysis of existing knowledge - where whatever is relevant to their lives is retained by the women and the rest thrown away. The sense of heightened awareness in the process must be sustained and nurtured so that women grow from one process to another and not relapse as a consequence.

KEY ISSUES TO EXPLORE FURTHER

The above are just initial articulations. However, further collation of experiences and analysis needs to be done:

1. **An appropriate pedagogy**:

We need to relook and review our existing pedagogical framework and examine whether it is gender sensitive. Is it incorporating women's issues and concerns? Is it setting up democratic and collective processes that empower women, facilitate their participation and control over their process of learning? Does it allow for the creation of new knowledge which becomes a part of every woman? Does it strengthen the individual and collective identity of a woman? Does it build her capacities - cognitive, affective and practical skills? Are the learning-training methods used during a training-workshop promote an exploration and analysis of the nature of her oppression? Does it allow her to express her feelings and thoughts in the way she wants to? What about the learning environment? Does it give her the much needed space? We need to explore these issues further.

2. **Roles of Educators and Facilitators**

In this context, it is important for us to articulate and understand what our roles as educators and facilitators should be. How do we create structures and opportunities to initiate a process of reflection and systematise the learning of women and our own learning in the process? In perspective-building processes where do we start from - our perspective or women's own
perspective? Should women paint their own dreams and vision of an alternative society? We must reflect on these issues, otherwise we may end up subtly imposing our own needs, our agendas, our value-systems and perspectives onto women’s agendas. Our behaviour, attitudes, value systems too need relooking at. Are we willing to share and analyse our experiences, our dilemmas, our anxieties, our contradictions with them or do we expect them to talk about their lives alone? What about processes of conscientising and sensitizing our male colleagues? Are there multiple roles that we need to play to keep the pedagogy alive; what are our stands on issues and so on and so forth?

3. Support systems for women’s learning

Often we are faced with issues like a woman can’t get away for meetings, workshops since her work and family demands are so high. How do we begin to think of investing into appropriate support systems that would not only address her daily wage issue: take care of her children, but take care of a continuous pedagogy - one that will provide her space to explore, be with others? Are we prepared to conscientize the family members of the women learners, so that they not only begin to provide the much needed back-up support but also begin to understand the purpose and meaning of her new roles and responsibilities and begin to relate to her on a new plane? Are we prepared to support the woman learner should she face any crisis at her home or the community and protect her from being victimised because of her involvement to move out of the doldrums of the routine and challenge the hegemony of forces?

We are told that a fundamental tenet of learning is that adults learn in an environment where they can move away and deal with their immediate anxieties. Are we willing to allow woman to address her daily anxieties and consider it a legitimate part of her learning? What about follow up? How and what interventions do we identify that will support her ongoing learning?

(Prepared by Suneeta Dhar) As a Key note address at the National seminar on Tenets of Women’s Learning (Bhubaneswar, Mar. 1991.)
TRAINING WITH A GROUP OF HETEROGENEOUS LEARNERS

Heterogeneity connotes a mixed group. We have chosen to look at heterogeneity in terms of differences and differentials that exist within a group.

Differences: Differences in age, gender, socio-economic background, caste, religion, experiences, language, nature of work etc.

Differentials: Varying capacities of individuals, modes and styles of learning, needs and expectations, personalities, perspectives, kinds of experiences, etc.

Recognition of the composition of heterogeneity of learners becomes an important first step in understanding some of the issues that would arise in learning-training processes and how does one deal with it to maximize the learning potential of both the individuals and the group as a whole.

Some issues that do arise in training due to heterogeneity are:

* different pace of learning: too wide a gap creates difficulties in the learning process of the group as a whole and for individual learners in particular;
* diverse socio-cultural-linguistic backgrounds that may create a certain amount of tension between various caste groups, language groups, etc.
* polarisation in the group due to geographical cluster identities: North vs South, North-East vs Centre etc.
* tensions arising due to gender mix of the groups: male vs female relationships.
* individual learning needs and objectives not matching group needs and objectives;
* fluctuating participation and decreasing involvement of some learners in the group which affects groups' mood, morale etc.
* power and leadership struggles in the group especially if there is a mix of hierarchies;

Some of the advantages of having a heterogeneous group of learners are:

* exposure to diversity of experiences, realities and people;
* helping people develop tolerance and capacities to relate to dissimilar others and learn to respect each other;
* pose challenges and excitement to the learning group and the trainers;
* help find out links and draw out commonality of experiences;
* help learners and trainers develop and grow as individuals and as a group to become more sensitive to people and issues and help develop solidarity.
prepared to modify the design in order to ensure that effective learning takes place.

It must be mentioned here that as a trainer one cannot do away with the differences that will exist among a group of learners, but one can structure the differential levels that exist in the group to maximise learning.

How does one address the issue of heterogeneity during the training

Pre-training stage:

* Selection of participants: It is very critical to select the right kind of participants (wherever possible) depending upon what the learning objective is. This is obviously possible only where the control over the selection of the participants rests with the trainer. The trainer can also exercise his/her discretion to form a group that would facilitate learning.

* Preparation of Participants: Participants may be chosen or deputed. It is important to set-off a process of learning orientation prior to a training event. Sharing the objectives of the training with the participants, soliciting learning needs and agenda, seeking information about his/her work, preparation of the family/spouse, if a woman learner (especially for a residential training programme); preparation of key people in the organisation to facilitate and support the involvement of the participants, etc.

* Design of the Training: Much has already been said about designing; it must take into consideration needs of various learners: what would be the basis on which groups are formed, what sets of experiences are common to all learners, what experiences are unique, what is the gender-mix and how will group learning be structured to facilitate maximum interaction and involvement? For introduction session, methods should be chosen that are culturally appropriate, help the group members mix with each other, especially with dissimilar others, and generate interest in each others experiences and also maintain individual identity.

* Content of Training: The depth and scope of the content covered should address itself to the median level of the group, though at times, there are bound to be variations in the same which gets pushed by the individual or small groups needs and expectations. However, individual and small group aspirations in the learning content should also be structured through forming small 'learning groups' informally.

During Training

* Introductions should start with respecting, accepting, recognising individuals and helping facilitate group formation. The trainers should be sensitive to pick up additional cues of heterogeneity that will enhance learning and that which will hinder learning for e.g., commonality and
diversity of experiences, age matching etc.

- Structuring time so that trainers spend time informally with participants individually and collectively. Trainers could also use meal-breaks and tea-breaks for interacting and developing relationships across the diversity of participants and not just with ones that speak the same language and/or work in similar settings. These occasions could also be used to help link different participants with each other especially in the initial days of training.

- In the formation of small groups, careful considerations should be given to the membership of each group depending upon the objective of the session. "Will the diversity of experiences at this stage facilitate learning or hinder learning?" Sensitivity to gender differences and perceptions of a situation are also important. Should women form separate groups and a joint session be taken together later? What kinds of prior preparation and information are needed for the participants to facilitate their involvement and contribution?

- Ensuring a high involvement of the different participants in the planning, facilitating, review and evaluation sessions. This will stimulate participants, provide them with opportunities to try out new behaviour and skills in the group to an advantage and will lead to enhancing their self-esteem. Structures need to be set up to meet these specific sets of needs and talents.

The trainer must be very sensitive to the fact that a certain set of learners are not being pushed beyond their limits to match the other set of learners and/or become guinea-pigs to meet needs of another set of learners.

**Preparation of trainers**: At the outset trainer preparation in this context would be to be sensitive and recognize the nuances of heterogeneity in the group and accept it. Or else other learning issues and situation would be glossed over and construed as arising out of the heterogeneity factor. For example, different learning styles and experiences of men and women may be looked upon as male vs female relationship issue. Training must be sensitive of their own biases, attitudes, preferences that would be a deterrent or a hindrance for a certain set of learners. A trainer team certainly helps at this stage. Trainers' responses and interactions with different learners should be different and not uniform. Trainers must provide the space for differences to emerge and facilitate handling of the differences and differentials and not tend to create conformity in the group to meet one's own needs and simplify the process for oneself.

Heterogeneity exists in the world around us. Training is but a micro of the reality outside and building in heterogeneity in the group can be a stimulating, challenging and learning experience for all.
Chapter 10

LEARNING TRAINING METHODS

Having gone through the various steps and key considerations of designing in the last chapter, we are left with the question: how do we select appropriate learning training methods that will best convey the content areas of the training programme?

In the traditional view of training, lectures are a favoured method for conveying any subject matter.

With more ‘progressive’ modes of training we have group discussions. Some programmes list slide shows and video films as ‘methods’.

In Participatory Training, a wide range of methods exist to suit the basic criteria of effective learning, learner involvement and sustained interest. We can briefly look at the methods, reflect upon the principles of method selection, and then study each method in depth, noting the procedure, advantages and possible problems.

At this point it would be helpful to point out the differences between the terms method, tools/aids and techniques for they are often used interchangeably. The term method refers to how the subject matter is going to be dealt with in a broad sense. Thus one could use a discussion, a lecture a demonstration etc. Tools or aids refer to the various supporting materials that are used in the course of using a method eg. slides or posters in the course of a lecture, a film clip or a model during a demonstration and so on. Techniques refer to variations in the use of the method, thus techniques under the broad heading group discussion method could be plenary, brain-storming session, fish-bowl groups etc.

A. METHODS USED IN PARTICIPATORY TRAINING: AN OVERVIEW.

The methods used in Participatory Training include not merely lectures and group discussions, but also role play, simulations, structured exercises and instruments, case studies in a variety of forms, and so on. Several other experiences are also used in Participatory Training, such as field visits, practice sessions, games, self-study, video review and others, which enhance the impact of learning.

A useful framework to understand this wide variety would be to see which ones are best suited for increasing knowledge, which ones for awareness and which ones for skill.

1. Methods useful for increasing knowledge:

In this category we have lectures, either purely verbal, or accompanied by
visual aids such as slides, posters, models and so on. Then we can use field visits and demonstrations for clearer understanding of the subject. Self-study of given reading material is also useful, especially with a highly literate learner group. Educational slide shows, filmstrips or videofilms can also be used for enhancing knowledge on a particular topic.

2. Methods useful for increasing skill:

   The best way to learn how to do something is to try it out oneself. Thus practice sessions are essential for skill development in any area. It may help to precede these with demonstrations by a more skilled person. If circumstances permit, actual apprenticeship under an experienced and skilled person can sharpen the learner's competence.

3. Methods useful for generating awareness:

   There are a number of methods by which learners are engaged in learning at the emotional level, and most of these are based on experiences - past or present experiences. Among these methods are role plays, where past experiences are spontaneously re-enacted. Small group discussions also enable learners to pool experiences and ideas and collectively analyse them. Simulations and structured exercises generate 'here-and-now' feelings which are then processed to derive broader insights. Case studies, either written, oral, pictorial or through song, provide opportunities to look at the experiences of others and learn from them through analysis. Other ways to create awareness include instruments which are useful for learning about oneself, and games, like trust games, boardgames, and so forth.

**EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING.**

Participatory Training draws largely from the tenets of adult learning which hold that adults learn best from and through experience. One's own experiences - both past and present, - and other's experiences, form a fundamental source of learning. But merely undergoing an experience, feeling some emotions and getting some vague impressions, does not lead to a productive learning impact. We need to reflect on the experience, analyse it - its structure its dynamics, our reactions - and gain insights, derive more broadly applicable principles. Based on these, we prepare to go through similar experiences in life with a transformed vision that expresses itself through changed behaviour.

Often during the continuous learning of our lives we go through all these steps instinctively, rapidly. For instance, when faced with unpleasant experiences we automatically withdraw, we decide to try something else next time. But in Participatory Training the crucial step is the deep reflection, the systematic examination, the analysis of what is behind the experience, and what is behind our reaction to it. The entire experiential learning cycle is deliberately used to equip learners with the strength to confront experiences and derive conscious learning from them.
B. PRINCIPLES OF METHOD SELECTION

Given the long list of learning-training methods, on what basis do we choose? There are a number of key considerations to be kept in mind.

1. What is the focus of learning?

Do we want learning to occur only at the intellectual level, or do we want learners to be moved at a more emotional level? Is the subject matter a collection of facts to be known, or is it imperative that skills in using these facts must be developed? We have to critically assess our content area and depending on whether the focus of learning is knowledge, skill or awareness, we have to select an appropriate method.

2. Who are the learners?

Is the group entirely heterogenous or are they similar to each other in age and experience? If the group is entirely illiterate, methods have to be carefully chosen so as to ensure everyone’s involvement. If all the learners are women, they will learn better through their emotions. Moreover, when learners are unfamiliar with each other and the trainers, we need to use non-threatening methods which will enable them to interact with others. For learners who have
not been to formal school, sitting through long lectures will be difficult.

3. Have we recognized learner's knowledge and experience base?

A basic tenet of Participatory Training is the acknowledgement and validation of the adult learner's rich experience base and practical real-life knowledge. If we use methods which project the trainer or books or academic experts as the source of all knowledge, we fail to demonstrate our respect for the learners. The training programme should provide constant opportunity for learners to share experiences, to validate what they have achieved in their past, to discuss common problems and synthesize new information with past concepts.

4. Is a conducive learning environment being created?

Participatory Training entails total involvement and interest of the learners. Methods have to be chosen that are highly interactive, preferably 'hands-on' (learning through doing) and challenge the creativity of learners. The learning process should be exciting and evocative, in which learners feel all their capacities are being used, feel alert and stimulated. The choice of method and the subsequent designing of the activity are crucial elements in creating this vital learning atmosphere.

5. Does it foster both individual and collective learning?

The choice of methods has to be such that it enables all learners to move at their own pace, without being pushed or left behind. Moreover it has to promote co-operative learning in which individuals learn from each other, and perceivable learning occurs at the level of the group as a whole. If the learners do not already know each other, methods have to be specially chosen to help build norms of trust and a climate of openness in the group. Some content areas need more individual realization, for example understanding self. There the individual learners need to be provided with the space to learn, as well as challenged to do so.

6. What are the trainer's capacities and competence?

All trainers to begin with are not skilled in using all the methods. Lack of experience or confidence may reduce the learning impact of the method. Meticulous preparation while designing the method, and constant upgradation of trainer skills through practice with feedback (or apprenticeship) is necessary for effective learning to occur.

C. DESCRIPTION OF LEARNING TRAINING METHODS

Some important learning training methods commonly used in Participatory Training are described below. Apart from the actual procedure involved in using the method effectively, its advantages and disadvantages have also been mentioned. The methods described include:

- Lecture
- Practice
- Small Group Discussion
- Case Study
- Role Play
- Simulation
- Use of Video

Some other useful training activities have also been described, like the use of reading material, demonstrations, field visits, slide shows/films, pictures, posters, games and ice-breakers. Additional information has also been given on designing and debriefing of structured experiences.

[The Resource Section at the end of the book provides examples of some of the methods.]

LECTURE

The lecture method is an effective way to introduce new information or concepts to a group of learners. A concise, stimulating and well-delivered lecture is always appreciated by the learners. Unfortunately few lectures are well-prepared or learner-oriented. Besides it is often used in such a manner that it is one-way, monotonous, directive, and encourages passivity. But it need not always be so for lecture is a valid method in the participatory training framework also. The point is how to make it interesting and participatory.

How then should the lecture method be used?

The lecture method is primarily used to build upon the learners' existing base of knowledge. Thus while beginning a lecture it is essential to site the lecture at the learners' level. This can be done by asking some relevant and elicitive questions, and not starting straight away. Thereafter, the trainer will have to make constant efforts to situate the new information in the context of the learner by continuously providing examples and illustrations to relate it to the learners' context.

USES:
- for conveying new information and concepts to the learners
- when learners' experiences need to be situated and related within a theoretical framework
- for stimulating and motivating learners for further enquiry
- for presenting a specialised body of external information through expert resource persons

GIVING AN EFFECTIVE LECTURE

- prepare for the lecture, become very familiar with the subject matter
- identify and prepare supporting aids to illustrate the points made
- keep chalk and blackboard or flip chart and marker pen ready for noting key points
- provide examples to link the subject matter to the lives of the learners
- Sequence the contents logically, sequentially and systematically, building upon previous content areas.
- ask questions to check whether the learners are following
- provoke the learners to ask questions
- Maintain eye contact with the learners to assess whether they are following or not, whether they are interested or bored
- maintain time stipulations, don't get carried away, but at the same time don't sacrifice essential material for the sake of time
- have a seating arrangement in which all can see the aids equally well and hear the lecture. A circular seating arrangement, or if there are too many people, a double circle is useful
- be aware of your own body movements, and facial expressions
- speak clearly, loudly, and use simple language
- avoid being prescriptive, try to be provocative
- if there are more than one trainer, then the others can supplement, as well as monitor the process of learning.

ADVANTAGES:
- allows the presentation of facts, information and concepts in a relatively short span of time
- multiple resource persons, knowledgeable and with different points of view can interact with the learners
- can be used with illiterate learners
- a diverse range of supportive materials can be used to support the content areas eg. slides, charts, posters, etc.
- a large number of learners can be accommodated at one time.

DISADVANTAGES:
- the world view of the speaker dominates
- it does not promote interaction in most cases
- participants can get carried away by the charisma and personality of the speaker instead of focusing on and analysing what s/he is saying
- the pace is trainer-controlled
Reading Material

Reading material is very commonly used in the course of a training in the form of books and handouts. There are a few points that must be kept in mind to use reading material effectively.

Reading material can be broadly classified as essential and additional. One has to be very careful in classifying because a common error is to distribute a whole bunch of reading material which the learners never read for the lack of interest or time.

Reading material which is considered essential should be distributed at the appropriate point in the training, i.e., when the subject matter in question is being dealt with. It should be precise, to the point and presented in easily understandable language. While we may have been moved by articles and passages in books we should try to present the same information in concise and simple form because original articles often tend to be complicated. Try to avoid giving exhaustive reading material because it can be exhausting to read.

Always allocate time for reading. We often do not leave structured time for reading and assume that the learners will read it outside the sessions. If the matter is essential, time for reading must be incorporated into the training timetable.

Do not assume that the learners will have understood the reading material just because they have read it. If possible, keep some time for the learners to discuss what they have read, for them to clarify their doubts.

Reading material which is considered additional can be given at the end. If it is given together with the essential reading matter then the learners might waste valuable time trying to figure out the non-essential pieces.

PRACTICE/APPRENTICESHIP

Practice and apprenticeship are methods which are of paramount importance for skill training. The difference between the two lies in that practice is done in controlled situations while apprenticeship is done in real life situations and is usually of longer duration. It is essential in both methods that the learner be supervised by the trainer and given feedback. These two methods can be used for any skill. In the course of a training it is easier to incorporate practice, while apprenticeship can be an entire training in itself.
Demonstrations

Demonstration refers to that method in which the learners are provided with an opportunity to observe for themselves the object or processes that they wish to learn. It can be real-life or through make believe or models. This method is useful in conveying complex information simply, as seeing and understanding is considerably easier than hearing and understanding. The learner is encouraged to ask questions about what s/he sees. Demonstrations are made in controlled situations like a laboratory, training hall, demonstration farm etc. Examples include - demonstrating what a biogas plant or a sanitary latrine is through a model, demonstrating how to conduct an interview-by the trainer, demonstrating how to conduct safe deliveries to dais (TBA)-through models etc.

Field Visits

Field visits refer to demonstrations in situ, i.e. where the subject matter actually occurs or happens in real life. Some examples of field visits are as follows-taking the learners to a hospital in the course of a health training or taking learners to villages in the course of a PRA training, or taking community level workers to the block office for a training on local government etc. The emphasis again is on observing, asking questions and understanding. The learners are not encouraged to participate in activity during a field visit. The trainers must remember to prepare the field adequately before taking the learners to the field. Conversely the learners must be carefully briefed about what they should observe, and about decorum and norms that need to be respected.

Slide Shows/Films

Slide shows and films are widely used in training. They are also used to convey knowledge or information, but differ from a lecture using slides or films, in the sense that in the lecture they are used as supporting material. They may also be used as the main medium for conveying the subject matter. One must remember that before using the slides or films, the learners must be thoroughly briefed as to what they are going to see and they must be careful to note. In the course of a slide show it may be necessary to provide a commentary linking up the slides if no taped commentary is available.

A major advantage of using films and slides is they allow the trainer to bring inaccessible real life situations into the training. A major disadvantage is that slides and films tend to be highly directive and do not allow any scope for learner’s interaction. One possible way of making films and slides interactive is to frequently pause, ask the learners what they have understood or observed, encourage them to ask questions and so on. Unfortunately this is seldom done and trainers tend to leave learners alone once a film or slide show is on.

Films and slides may also be used in skill training when the slides or films show the actual practice of the skill in a step-by-step fashion.
Structured Experiences

As mentioned earlier, structured experiences refer to those learning-training methods where the trainer deliberately uses an experience for the purpose of learning and the experiential learning cycle is followed. A number of learning-training methods using structured experiences will be described followed by some general considerations that have to be kept in mind when using these methods.

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION

This is the most commonly used method under this category, because a small group discussion uses learners' own past experiences in a very deliberate manner. In this method the learners are divided into groups of 5 - 13 and given a real life or relevant subject matter or question to discuss. This discussion is carried on by the learners on the basis of their own past experiences, attitudes and values, on the basis of which they arrive at new knowledge, new insights. Discussion cannot be hypothetical or speculative if this method is to qualify as a structured experience. It is important to realise that the discussion is not an end in itself and the entire cycle needs to be completed, i.e. each small group should then present its discussions to the large group and on the basis of their presentations, working principles should be evolved. It is a common mistake to have the discussions without subsequent presentation and summarisation.

STEPS:

- Instruct the group clearly about the task, specify time and the form of presentation.
- divide the large group into small groups
- different groups may be given different tasks; in this case the groups should be divided first
- let the groups discuss (through sharing and analysis) the matter under consideration for the stipulated time
- let all the groups reassemble into a large group
- let one or two individuals from each group present their discussion to the large group
- add any relevant points that you feel have been left out and use the group presentations to arrive at a theoretical framework

USES:

- this method can be used for sharing information and experiences

ADVANTAGES:

- it allows the learners to be in control, in respect of pace, content and focus
- it provides opportunities for the learners to express themselves
- it allows the learners to validate their knowledge and skills
- it allows learners to clarify, reflect and reconfigure their experiences
- it helps in promoting a sense of belonging in a group
- it can be empowering once the learners realise their own ability for critical thinking and change through this medium

DISADVANTAGES:

- It is time consuming
- it requires facilitation, if facilitation is poor then the process is vitiated
- there is a possibility that dominant or aggressive members may hijack the process
- members might not be serious and that affects the quality of the discussion
- requires more space than a lecture
- in mixed gender groups, women can be ignored
- it is difficult to monitor the progress of many different small groups
- trainer needs special skills to facilitate, debrief and summarise the discussions

Some special forms of small group discussions are as follows:

Buzz Groups: Very few members who are given a very short while to discuss the matter

Fish Bowl: A small group which is being observed by others from outside (who later may form the fish bowl group while the first group reverses its role and observes)
Some ideas on creative presentation

The purpose of presentation of the results of small group work to the members of other subgroups is that those others get to know and really understand what the findings in your subgroup are. This pooling and sharing of findings enriches the discussion if the presentations of subgroup result are lively and attractive, focused on the main findings, and easy to understand.

For this reason your presentation should be such that the other participants get a good picture ("I see what you mean") of your views on the topic so that these can be compared with their own points of view.

For this purpose we will give you some examples of expressive techniques that your group may use. It is up to you to select the most appropriate one, or better: to create your own technique of presentation.

a) a graphical form can be chosen for example, mural, posters, cartoon strip, collage.

b) a corporal presentation, for example, mimics, socio dramas, songs and other types of theatre.

c) a written form can be chosen, for example, stories, different kinds of poems, histories or other narrations.

d) auditory ways of presentation, an interview, a radio report or comment and other types of broadcasting programs, a story teller.

We can really use all kinds of creative forms of presentation that we can imagine, as long as the presentation form does not interfere with the content itself.

Source: FMD Consultants BV, Apeldoorn

CASE STUDY

In this method, other’s experiences are provided to the group in the form of a case study. These experiences are reflected upon and analysed by the learners to then extract or arrive upon new principles. The learners own experiences, values, feelings form the basis for analysing others’ experiences. Case studies (and stories) may be presented in written or verbal forms or even through the medium of film or song, depending upon cultural appropriateness.

STEPS :

- present the case study
- divide the group into smaller groups and give them the task (question)
- allow individuals to reflect
- let them discuss
- debrief and consolidate

USES:
- Can be used to convey complex theoretical concepts in a simple way
- Allows the group to reflect on its appropriateness in their milieu/life
- Allows discussions/sharing on potentially threatening situations on which the learners will not be willing to share if asked directly
- Sharpens learners' analytical and diagnostic skills
- Exposes learners to situations they might not ordinarily experience in their own lives.
- Exposes learners to similar experiences elsewhere to enable them feel a sense of solidarity and validation
- Helps in creating new knowledge through a collective reflection, analysis and synthesis.

ADVANTAGES:
- simple
- can be used with illiterates and relatively unsophisticated people
- can be used for cognitive learning too
- low cost, culturally appropriate

DISADVANTAGES
- may be difficult to find an appropriate case study
- the case study may be too general to focus on a specific issue
- case studies written by some one else contains within it the writers' perceptions, feelings and ideologies which may lead to distortion of the objective reality
- Hypothetical or prepared items may be too idealistic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pictures/Posters</th>
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<tr>
<td>With pictures and posters the steps, uses, advantages and disadvantages are almost the same as the above. The only reason for treating it separately is that it is a very important medium when dealing with illiterates. It can also be used in a variety of ways. It can be used singly, or a number of pictures sequentially, or a number of pictures, without any sequence. A story can be substituted with a sequence of pictures, or else learners can be asked to make a story with unserialised posters. The various modes of use depend upon the purpose.</td>
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ROLE PLAY

One of the most common training methods in use is called Role Play. Role Play is used in a variety of ways:

a) A small group enacts role play about a situation where other learners observe the role play. A discussion follows that enactment. In this use of role play, it is similar to a demonstration where learning occurs through observation. Such a role play can be enacted by the trainers themselves, or a few outsiders or a handful of learners, with or without trainers.

b) In other way, role play is used to stimulate discussion on complex issues. A brief enactment by trainers or learners or both can be used to stimulate further group discussion on similar issues and experiences that learners share. This method of learning is essentially group discussion where role play merely acts as a stimulant or catalyst for the discussion that follows. In this use, it is similar to an aid like charts, video clipping, etc.

c) In certain situations, a role play is also used to practice some skills. For example, the adult education instructors can be trained to practice how to motivate adult learners by enacting different roles. The prime method of learning here is by practicing and receiving feedback from learners and trainers after that practice.

d) In the fourth way, a role play is a re-enactment of past experiences. In this sense, all learners are involved to enact an issue or a situation about which they are familiar in their past. For example, a group of 25 illiterate women learners can be divided into 5 sub-groups to prepare and re-enact the experience of being a wife in the family. Since all the learners share this experience and all of them are involved in re-enactment, learning occurs here through the twin steps of preparation and re-enactment.

This approach is particularly useful where learners share a somewhat similar
experience and that experience or issue is difficult to recall because of its emotional valence. It can also be used where the possibility of recall of past experience is likely to be uneven among the learners. This use of re-enactment as role play is particularly apt for issues dealing with complex emotional and attitudinal aspects of learning.

This is the meaning of role play as a method of structured experience. The previous three meanings do not classify as a structured experience.

Obviously, the choice of a particularly use of role play depends on the learning agenda, group of learners and trainer's capacity. But it is important to remember that the fourth type of use mentioned above - role play as a structured experience - implies learning from re-enactment of past experience which can be a powerful method if the focus of learning is awareness.

Of course, in which ever way role play is used, a discussion must follow to process the experience of either observation or re-enactment. This processing should follow the experiential learning cycle of debriefing explained earlier.

It must be remembered that real consolidation of learning through role play occurs through the steps of preparation, re-enactment, discussion, processing and analysis with generalisation to real life situation.

ADVANTAGES:

- it is energising
- it helps the suppressed and illiterate to express their feelings
- it is simple and low cost
- it focuses on problems which are very real in nature
- it presents complex issues simply and in a short while
- it does not need material or advance preparation
DISADVANTAGES:

- there is a possibility of it becoming entertainment which vitiates learning
- participants can get too involved in their roles and later loose objectivity during analysis
- acting can become an end in itself and participants can overact or distort the roles
- that the observers need to observe must be explained clearly or else the discussion which occurs later on the basis of this observation will be inadequate

SIMULATION

When learners need to become aware of something that they have not been very conscious of, when the situation involves complex interacting dynamics which can only be understood through an immediate 'hands on' experience, we use simulations. Simulation is a method based on 'here and now' experience shared by all the learners. It is done by assigning very definite roles to each participant and having them act out a situation according to the roles they have been given. It is carried on long enough to generate responses and reactions based on real feelings-participants need to genuinely 'get into their role’. However, learning takes place without any serious risk because the situation is after all 'makebelieve'.

The original meaning of the method derives from the situation used to train aircraft pilots. Since real life training is too risky: any error during learning would prove total, conditions of real-life air and pressure are created inside a 'simulator’ cockpit, and the pilot learns how to fly.

While use of simulations can result in very effective learning, it needs elaborate preparation and considerable trainer competence. The selection of simulations has to be done with great care keeping the level and background of the learners in mind. It should not deal with something that is too close to their real life, otherwise they may not be able to deal with their feelings afterwards.
Steps:

Pre-Simulation

- decide upon the objectives and design or select the appropriate simulation. Plan the debriefing in detail. Have a conceptual framework ready.

- delineate the roles carefully and prepare role briefs and a list of rules/instructions. Decide who will assume which roles. Try to include all learners as simulations should not have observers.

- define the situations and events in which the characters will interact. There may be more than one situation/event.

- decide upon where to have the simulation. The site/s chosen should parallel the real life sites of the situations chosen.

- keep necessary props which may be used for the different roles ready at hand.

Conducting A Simulation

- assign roles, give each person the appropriate role brief. This role brief should include what type of person s/he is, including some details of personal history. Ask the participants to study their roles and try to ‘become’ the role.

- do not let different roles study each other’s brief.

- have some appropriate means of identifying the different roles like name tags.

- brief the participants about the situation and let them start acting according to their interpretation of the roles.

- stop the simulation when appropriate, or the essential part is over, or if it is getting out of hand.

After the Simulation

- give the participants time to get out of their roles.

- ask the participants to share their feelings, keep your questions directed and not vague; questions like - what happened to you during the simulation, how did you feel etc. can be asked.

- note their responses (on a chart).

- try to draw parallels with real life while analysing the patterns in the data.

- collate these feelings, give necessary inputs and draw up a summary.
**Advantages:**

- allows for an explorations of very real life situations, social process and behaviours in a relatively non threatening way
- it allows for the study of very complex social processes
- it is entirely controlled by the learners' pace
- it involves activity and universal participation

**Disadvantages:**

- it requires that participants cooperate and internalise the roles
- it is a difficult method and requires an experienced and skilled trainer to conduct it

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Instruments</th>
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<tr>
<td>'Instruments' are a kind of structured experience in which learners are given a particular printed format containing clear instructions and a series of questions, usually with multiple choices, or requiring brief replies. The questionnaire is filled in by participants either individually for themselves, or in twos/threes for each other. At the end, instructions explain how to examine answers, assign scores and tally scores. The meanings of various different scores are also explained.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The purpose is to generate data about herself or himself for each learner. However it is left to the learners to decide how to use this information about themselves. Thus, in terms of the experiential learning cycle, the steps of publishing, processing, generalising and applying are done individually by each participant and not collectively by the whole group.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some examples of Instruments are the Interpersonal Perception form, T-P Questionnaire for Leadership, FIRO-B, etc.</td>
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**Advantages:** 1 Can be a very effective method for learning more about one's own self through systematic self-examination, reflection, and in cases, feedback.  
2. The learner does not feel external pressure or compulsion. Learning takes place at the individual's own pace according to his or her interest and inclination.  

**Disadvantages:** 1 Can only be used with a group which is highly literate.  
2. Needs a certain amount of honesty and genuine interest in the learner to generate meaningful data.  
3. Works better with people who can learn intellectually at the level of abstractions  
4. Very difficult to design instruments
Games

Games are those methods which are fun, involve some activity on the part of all participants and may seem trivial at first. It has a set of rules and regulations and may or may not include a competitive element. Games are usually employed to convey feelings and processes which are everyday in nature and are implied within the game being played, e.g. Trust games, Leadership games and so on. After the game is played, it is essential that the feelings of the participants be debriefed and consolidated.

USES:
- to explain group processes
- to explain issues like trust, social relationships and so on

ADVANTAGES:
- it is lively, fun and involves everyone's participation
- complex issues can be explained in a simple manner
- it allows the participants to experience the matter under consideration right there within the course of the training itself, (also called 'here-and-now' experience)

DISADVANTAGES:
- Finding or designing appropriate games is not very easy
- Games must be interactive, option providing and not directive (like simple dice games with messages on the designated squares)
- the focus of the game must be clear to the trainer or debriefing will be confused
- entertainment without learning is not the objective.

Ice Breakers

Ice breakers, activators or energisers are not true learning methods, but serve the purpose their names suggest. They are non-threatening, fun activities, sometimes using physical movement to create an appropriate learning environment, help individuals to interact with each other, create a group feeling and so on. Games, songs physical exercises can be used for this purpose. They help in introducing participants to each other, set the tone of the training, break monotony, shift from one content area to another and so on.
ROLE OF THE TRAINER IN STRUCTURED EXPERIENCES

The trainer has a number of roles and responsibilities when conducting a session which uses structured experiences as the basis of the learning cycle.

1. **Choosing the appropriate method** - When there are possibilities that the learner group will have adequate experiences within itself on the particular subject, and will not feel hesitant to share, it is best to use their own experiences. When the possibilities of the learner group having adequate experiences or feeling adequately secure in sharing those experiences are not assured, it is best to use others' experiences, in the most appropriate code. If the experiences or feeling that needs to be generated is inherent in a complex social situation then a simulation could be used; or if it is one which is simpler, games may be used, and so on.

2. **Preparation** - Having chosen the appropriate method viz case study, role-play etc. the trainer has to keep the material prepared and ready to use. In the case of pictures it might mean choosing or getting the appropriate pictures painted; for a role play it might mean identifying story/theme for the script; for a case study it might mean identifying the proper case and getting copies made. and so on.

3. **Briefing about the task** - The task at hand, i.e., what the group has to share, notice, discuss and deliberate and analyse is made clear to the group. If the group is literate, this can be clarified by writing on the chart or board. Necessary procedures for recording and reporting are also made clear and time limits set.

4. **Dividing into groups** - It may be necessary to divide the larger group into smaller groups for more effective sharing and analysis. Even if the trainer is not directly responsible for dividing the learners into groups, it is his/her responsibility to see that such groupings are made.

5. **Maintaining Control** - Though this might sound authoritarian the trainer needs to maintain some degree of control over processes like simulations, role plays and games, in order that effective learning can take place.

6. **Monitoring the discussion** - While the small groups are engaged in discussion the trainers should keep a constant watch over the group for such mundane matters like whether order is maintained and for more important things like whether the task is clear, whether the discussions are on the track etc.

7. **Debriefing** - Debriefing is the process of getting out from the groups or individuals the sum and substance of what they discussed or felt. (Details are given later.)

8. **Consolidating summarising** - The various reports and debriefs should be summarised before the group and various patterns and strands drawn out to put the information into an intelligible framework. Often it may be necessary for the trainer to contribute something on his/her own.

9. **Providing inputs** - Participatory training does not preclude the trainer from being a subject matter specialist. It is not mandatory to summarise only on the basis of the inputs received from the learners themselves. It is the trainers duty to provide necessary information which the learners might not be knowing, or not be aware of.
DEVELOPING AND DESIGNING STRUCTURED EXPERIENCES

There are a variety of structured experiences available for training. They can either be adapted easily to the particular needs of the group, the requirements of the learning agenda or to the special competencies of the trainer. A "good" structured experience is one which is "semi-structured" not "rigid" but intended towards specified learning goals, intended behavioural processes and ability to predict outcomes.

Before creating a new structured experience, the trainer must decide if it is necessary in the light of adaptation/adopter of available exercises.

Considerations

- What is the purpose of the structured experiences? Focus must not be on the activity per se, but the learnings and feelings that will emerge from it.

- Time available: How much time is available; is the structured experience a part of a larger module; is there a lecture/group discussion preceding it? Where will the slotting of the structured experience be most critical? The steps of the entire experiential cycle should be considered while planning time.

- Are the physical facilities adequate to support the activity? Is enough room and space available? Are chairs/tables movable?

- How familiar are the participants with each other. One set of activity would match a group of new participants, another would match a group known to each other.

- Are the participants familiar with the concept of experiential learning? Are there certain conflicts, disintegrating issues in the group that have not been resolved and will surface during the exercise? Are the participants "ready" to enter this intense phase of learning? Has enough group and individual processing been done in the earlier training methods? Is the stage set for the next objective? What is the stage of group development? Are they ready to play their roles?

- Is the trainer ready to enter this intensity of processes too? Can she/he deal with the emotions, feelings, and questions that will emerge?

- Availability of materials too determine choice of structured experience. Supplementary materials in the form of handouts as well as instruction forms, questionnaires, pens, markers, paper, etc. need to be prepared ahead.

- Follow-up activities, in the form of lectures, group discussion, individual counselling be planned.

Elements of the Design of Structured Experience

- Specific Learning Objectives: Is it
  - Cognitive a concept or hypothesis
  - Affective a feeling state, creating awareness or insight about such a state awareness of personal and interpersonal process.
  - Skill development, practice, implementation of interpersonal skills, techniques such as listening, empathising, problem-solving etc.

- How large is the group. Is it possible to involve all or some?
Creating a set of materials that will evoke the specific learning objective. Choose the method (role-play, case-study, etc.)

- Content Issues: Relevant to life history and experiences of learners. Materials of the same can be generated from group discussions and interviews; data elicited in the earlier trainings should also be used. Content must neither be oversimplified nor made too abstract.

- Clarity and simplicity of the design of the exercise. Keeping it simple and not making it so complicated such that both the content and process get lost. Clarity in instructions, briefs, notes to participants etc. of the exercise is essential.

- Involvement: every participant must have something to do through the structured experience either as actions or observations or else they will not be involved.

- Sequence: Each component of the design be built on the previous if reflection is to be done. Participants should not unnecessarily be over-stimulated prior to it. Breaks should be planned according to sequence.

- Data Collection: Note taking, video-taping, observation are to be considered.

There are a series of steps in designing a structured experience. These are listed in a chronological order, they need not be strictly adhered to as in the process of designing an exercise. One needs to go back and forth, re-defining issues, developing further clarity, refining concepts, and understanding the interrelationships among various aspects of the issues.

1. Define learning objectives of that particular session very precisely, keeping in mind the overall learning objective, level and heterogeneity of learners, their past experiences, depth to which the topic/content is to be explored, and has been covered so far.

2. Detail out the theoretical framework and contents of the said learning objective. For example, if it is how to build teams, then the key issues in team-building should be highlighted and the interrelationships between the various facets of the issues (inter-team dynamics, intra-team dynamics, relationships with authority, task etc.)

3. Choose an appropriate structured experience based on whether past experience or here and now need to be used (role play or case-study or simulations or exercise)

   - Relevance of experience: What is the present experience of learners (range and depth) on the subject-matter, and therefore what kinds of experiences would need to be generated to enhance their learning. Will this new experience be of relevance to them?

   - Depth of experience-how much in depth of the issue should one go for this group of learners? Would this group have the ability to deal with the issue in its varied complexities?

   - Proximity of reality of the experience to the participants: will the exercise generate experiences that would be too close or too distant to the realities of the participants. The purpose is to design an exercise that will not threaten them (if it is identical to back-home) or distance them (if it is too far-fetched from reality). Closeness to reality that will help them examine it and is useful for learning.

   - How should the events in the exercise be structured: The complexity will demand either one event or multiple events. The events will be structured so as to do justice to the scope and depth of content to be covered.
• What is the available time for the exercise. Is 2 hours or 4 hours available? On the other hand time needs to be structured to match the learning objective.

4. List out the content of the structured experience into various categories and phases, determining the flow and sequence of contents.

5. Detail the Modalities of the Structured Experience:
   • The activities need to be planned in details. What will happen first? What activity will follow next, in how much time-frame? The script needs to be written.
   • The entire process needs to be outlined. Event 1. Character, Time. What will the activity be? Event 2: Entry of new characters, activity etc. The rules and instructions should be noted down.
   • The various briefs of roles need to be written.
   • Breaks in the exercise and closure of exercise: How and when will the breaks be announced or change in activity be announced?
   • How will closure of the exercise be indicated to all participants? Will it be announced, written or would a bell ring?

6. Clarifying and working out Trainer’s Responsibilities:

   A manager of the event is essential. Others should assist in the process. Everyone should be on top of the exercise and know what role he/she has to play, what processes to observe etc.

7. Preparation of learning materials required for the exercise: Whatever additional materials in the form of name-tags, charts, necessary accessories are required must be prepared ahead of time.

8. Outlining debriefing format:

   The debriefing framework for processing and analysing data needs to be formulated, so that data is not lost.
DEBRIEFING AND CONSOLIDATION

An experiential learning situation must necessarily be followed by debriefing and consolidation.

If the learners have gone through a moderate to intense emotional experience, it is necessary to allow them some time to get out of that emotional framework otherwise they can get too involved and carried away.

Debriefing consists of getting from the learner or learner group their feelings, emotions, experiences and whatever else the trainer might feel is necessary.

The debriefed information must be noted down publicly (published)

The debriefed information needs to be put into a real life context, so that people can relate to it in a broader framework.

The trainer must provoke analysis on the information presented, enabling the derivation of broad principles.

Wherever necessary the trainer must provide additional information for the learners to arrive at the broad principles.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework is the broad theoretical framework that the trainer follows when choosing the content area. The conceptual framework relates to the learning objectives and the content area. It forms the basis for the debriefing and the analysis. Without suggesting manipulation, the objective of the trainer is to put the debriefed information into this theoretical framework after analysis and additional information. It is essential that it be situated in/related to real life.

A SCHEME FOR QUESTIONING

1. What did you see? How did you feel? What did you say during discussions?

These questions help in bring out the participant's perceptions and experiences. The information gathered is noted down on a board or chart paper.

2. Why did you feel the way you did? Why did you say what you did during the discussions?

These questions enable participants to analyse the reasons and causes behind their behaviour, perceptions, experiences.

3. Do such situations occur in real life. when? Has it happened to you?

Questions like these try to situate the experience in reality and tries to draw parallels with life.

4. Why do you think this happens?

This is an attempt to analyse and draw principles and conclusions which form the core of the new learning. It may be necessary at this point to provide additional information.
VIDEO REVIEW

Video may be used in a training in a number of ways. The commonest way is to show a film on the video for the purpose of giving new information to the learners. A different way of using the video is using it for reviewing practice or behaviour. For purposes of reviewing it is essential to have both the camera and the player units.

USES:- for conveying knowledge about something
- for purposes of awareness raising about self and group
- for enhancing skills by reviewing practice

STEPS:
- make a contract with the learners explaining that video is going to be used and their behaviour is going to be recorded. It must be made clear that it is only going to be used for learning and is going to be treated confidentially. It will not be shown to any one outside the group and will not be used against them.
- record on video the elements that you would like to focus their interest on, eg. communication patterns, non-verbal messages, aspects of behaviour etc.
- be as unobtrusive as possible when recording so that learners do not become self conscious and alter their spontaneous behaviour.
- show the learners the recording at the appropriate time, drawing attention to the points you would like to highlight.
- during the show do not criticise subjectively or evaluatively.
- ask the learners to focus on their own behaviour according to the guide lines you have provided and not on how they or their friends appear on the screen
- when showing the video make sure that no outsiders are present
- respect the contract

ADVANTAGES:
- it is a very powerful tool for learning about oneself and about a group because it is factual and objective and confronts the learners with hard evidence
- it uses experiences, behaviour, and situations generated in the course of the training, which are real and cannot be dismissed as contrived

DISADVANTAGES:
- it may not be possible to apply this tool universally because of unavailability of video cameras
- learners might tend to focus on their looks and appearances because of its novelty and the popular use for video as cinema
- learners can become very threatened or affected and withdraw into shells, or break down
- skill needs to be acquired by trainers in operating video cameras.
- it requires meticulous planning and preparation
- designing a simulation is difficult
Chapter 11
EVALUATION

MEANING AND IMPORTANCE

Evaluation of training programmes is a much neglected area. It is either not done at all, or done perfunctorily, or used to strengthen trainer authority over learners. By and large it is a sort of a concluding ceremony and helps no one.

Why is evaluation so important in Participatory Training? To understand this, we need to go back to our basic understanding, our principles and conviction. We do not conduct Participatory Training Programmes to justify our existence as trainers, serving up a menu of important sounding programmes year after year. We conduct these programmes with a clear goal in mind; to encourage people that they can change and bring about change, and to free them from stereotyped modes of thinking and behaving, towards a willingness for transformative action. Training has a certain specific role in our overall strategy. Our commitment to change impels us to constantly check and assess how far we are proceeding and what scale of change are we able to bring about. Evaluation therefore is crucial in Participatory Training.

Evaluation in this context means the systematic eliciting and analysis of feedback information about the relevance and impact of the training in order to assess whether learning or change has been effectively brought about. It is not aimed at being judgemental, rather, it brings out strengths and weaknesses. It helps to reflect on and consolidate present learning for participants. It also helps trainers modify and revise the programme, and strengthen future programmes.

Traditional evaluation practices seek passive involvement of learners, who are usually the objects of evaluation. The evaluation is often one sided, by the trainers, who may not even share results of the evaluation with learners. Sometimes only the learner’s ability to ‘cram’ facts about the content areas is tested to assess effectiveness of the training!

Characteristics of Participatory Evaluation

Shared Control: Both the learners and the trainers maintain shared control over the process of evaluation.

Developmental: It helps in strengthening the training programme by working out the difficulties faced by learners and trainers; it is intended as a developmental intervention.

Awareness Raising: It leads to a process of collective awareness-raising. All the learners and the trainers are aware of what is happening to them at a given moment of time.
**Empowering:** Because information is shared with the group, and the learners maintain control over the process of evaluation and is outcome, it becomes an empowering experience.

**Mobilisation:** Learners are motivated towards contributing to the effectiveness of the training programme through such an evaluation process.

**WHAT DO WE EVALUATE?**

In evaluation of Participatory Training we assess changes in the learners, and overall effectiveness of the programme including the trainers. The assessment is not only within the programme but also after the programme is over.

1. **IN THE LEARNERS**

   a. **Attitudinal Changes**

   Has the training brought about any changes in the attitudes and values of the learner? Does the learner perceive certain significant changes in his/her orientation to people, work, self etc.? Is there a feeling of personal growth?

   b. **Behavioural Changes**

   Have the learners shown any behavioural changes during the training programme? Have they noticed any behavioural changes back home after the programme?

   c. **Conceptual Development**

   Has knowledge about relevant topics increased? Has that knowledge been useful during transactions at work? Has there been exposure to things/processes that the learner knew nothing about before the training?

   d. **Performance Changes**

   Has the training contributed to any improved performance? Have there been any distinct changes in the functioning of the individual learner in the field of work?

2. **TRAINING PROGRAMME**

   a. **Training Objectives**

   Are the objectives realistic, simple and relevant? Have they been achieved? If so, to what extent?

   b. **Contents and Training Methods**

   Is the content covered adequate and meaningful? Are the training methods appropriate? Are they facilitating or hampering learning?
c. Group Process

Are the groups functioning effectively? Is the group process contributing to learning, or hampering it?

d. Trainers

Are the trainers keeping pace with the learners? Are they too slow or too fast? Are they sensitive to the learners' needs? Are they competent?

e. Learning Materials

Are they well organised? Are the learners finding them relevant? Are materials appropriate to the contents?

f. Physical Equipment

Is the training facility comfortable? Are the living arrangements all right? Are the food arrangements satisfactory? Does the physical environment facilitate learning, or hamper it?

**HOW TO EVALUATE?**

It is important to obtain valid and authentic information for evaluation. Individual learners have their own indicators and standards for evaluating. Therefore, for evaluation, feedback can be sought from different sources; these may be primary and secondary sources.

**Primary Sources**

There are three primary sources of information-gathering for evaluation purposes. These are:

The learner himself/herself (first and major source)

Colleagues (people around the learner-at work and elsewhere)

Trainers (have seen learners closely)

**Secondary Sources**

There are three secondary sources as follows:

Diary (maintained by the learners and others during and after training)

Records [of training and related activities]

Reports of organisations [performance and progress reports]

**WHEN TO EVALUATE**

Evaluation can be done daily, mid-term or immediately after the training and
at specified intervals after the training.

1. Daily Evaluation

For identifying and resolving problems as they arise, daily evaluations are very helpful. One method to carry this out is in the form of a steering committee. Members either volunteer to be on the committee or are chosen by the group members. Membership could also be on rotational basis, new members joining everyday.

The committee members seek information, reactions, feelings and suggestions from other members of the group throughout the day. They also keep track of what is happening during the session. At the end of the day, a meeting of the committee is held. Based on the concerns shared, solutions can be developed jointly and appropriate responsibilities can be taken to effect these changes.

The implications of such a process of evaluation are:

- both the trainers and learners take the learning process seriously
- learners may initially 'test' the trainers to find out if they are genuinely interested and concerned about them
- 'dialogue' between the trainers and learners is carried out daily
- different issues that would have otherwise interfered with the process of learning get 'aired' and resolved
- problems get solved as they arise
- both learners and trainers assume joint responsibility for the management of the training
- daily course correction can take place to keep the learning process on track

Sometimes, less structured ways of daily monitoring can also be used. For example, spending some time (say, half an hour) in the morning on such concerns could also be done to facilitate daily evaluation.

2. Mid-Term Evaluation

In the middle of a training programme, a quick evaluation can be held. This is a vital stage for consolidating the present learning, giving opportunity for catharsis to take place and ensuring relevant direction for the remaining period of training.

In a group, individual learners can share their feelings, what they feel concerned about, anything that they have learned, their reactions to the content and process of the training, anything new they would like to learn, etc. A sense of where the group is can also be gauged in this way.

Mid-term review can be done orally, through a questionnaire and/or individual
interviews. The results of this evaluation can be used both at the individual and group levels. If some individual learners are feeling low and disconnected, they can be supported and encouraged by co-learners and the trainers. Modifications can also be brought about in the topics, pace of the training programme, re-orientation of sessions, etc. for the entire group of learners.

3. Immediately After the Training

As soon as the training is completed, an evaluation is held to assess the impact of the training impressions when experiences are fresh in the minds of the learners and this information must be elicited, or else it will get lost.

This evaluation can be done through oral sharing process in groups, questionnaires, small group meetings and individual meetings. Suggestions for future training programmes can also be sought at this stage.

4. At Specified Intervals After the Training Programme

Back home, after the training programme, the learner through his/her practice can draw some additional insights into the training programme.

To strengthen future training programme, such insights are very essential. The method of sharing this feedback can be decided upon by the learners and the trainers. It could be through a questionnaire or face-to-face dialogue, or both.

Many a time, evaluation conducted after three or six months after the training programme can provide a realistic assessment of learning. Learners' assessment immediately after the training programme may be euphoric or rejecting (depending upon the immediacy of experience); post-training evaluation (several months later) provides a distance from that training experience, and hence a little more realistic and balanced assessment is possible.

In any case, it is possible, and sometimes desirable, to conduct these evaluations at all the four stages mentioned above.

TECHNIQUES OF ASSESSMENT

1. Oral sharing

This is a method where participants evaluate the training in pairs, threes, or groups. They may have a set of parameters or a questionnaire given to them. Each pair or small group can have a rapporteur, or they can present one another's reactions. In a large group, the trainer may take notes.

Advantages of oral sharing

It is appropriate for any sort of learner group, especially illiterate learners. It can be used at any time. It reinforces the learners' sense of ownership and participation. Smaller groups might help shy learners to express their views. It does not need a lot of resources.

Disadvantages of oral sharing

It is time consuming. Some learners may share at great length without giving
others a chance. The data might be too superficial or too generalized because learners are not secure enough to publicly disclose their real feelings. If there are no parameters or clear set of questions given, the feedback can become impressionistic and non-specific. Learners can influence each other’s expressions.

2. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a series of written questions on a given topic. These questions are either open-ended or close-ended. Open-ended questions have not categorised the answers into specific scales. Close-ended questions provide a scale (for example, good, satisfactory, poor).

Advantages of a questionnaire

Questionnaires are helpful if we are seeking data at multiple points of time. They are easy to administer and can include a number of questions. Cross-checking is possible, by the use of multiple questions on the same topic in different forms. They can be easily analysed at one time, as well as at several points of time.

Disadvantages of a questionnaire

It is not an interactive process of evaluation. In the mass of data, emotional responses sometimes do not come through. It cannot be used with illiterate learners. The anonymous nature of a questionnaire can reduce the motivation of the respondent in providing useful information.

3. Interview

Interview are a face-to-face method of collecting information. Specific and concrete data can be generated through this process. This technique can also be used in a field setting to cross-validate information obtained through other sources.

Advantages

Since interviews are conducted face-to-face, certain non-verbal cues can be easily picked up and some ‘leads’ can be followed through. It provides the opportunity to further explore and probe certain issues in detail.

This method is more flexible than the questionnaire method. It is a good method to use with illiterate people.

Disadvantages

The Interview method is a time-consuming process and hence can be very costly. A competent interviewer who can build up a good rapport with the learner is essential, or else the interview may not provide the desired information. The learner may hesitate to provide critical information in an interview if s/he is unsure about its confidentiality.
4. Observation

Observation techniques are useful methods of collecting data unobtrusively in a natural setting. Data about individual performance, group interactions and organisational culture can be collected by observation. A person observes and notes information needed.

Advantages

The data about real-life situations can be easily collected. Learners are not subjected to any active interference. Detailed recording is possible. Phenomena and processes which are complex in nature can be understood better through direct observation. The tendency of respondents to give socially desirable answers ("I learnt a lot", "It was a good programme", etc.) is not a problem in this method.

Disadvantages

An inherent disadvantage of the observational method is that it is subject to the biases on the part of the observer. Therefore, data collected are coloured by the perceptions of the observer and may not be reliable.

Also, the gathering of data is limited by the observational skills of the evaluator. Sometimes, opportunity to observe may not exist (like an event that occurred in the past).

5. Records

Organisations maintain numerous records that reflect the various stages of their performance and growth. Records are, by definition, information obtained second hand. However, records are still valuable sources of information for an evaluator. They provide the background information with which the evaluator can compare the results of the post-training phase.

Advantages

Organisational records are easily accessible and cost very little to obtain. Since records have been maintained over a period of time, it is possible to follow the changes that have taken place over a period.

Disadvantages

Interpretation of records should be done with caution, since these records contain 'selected' information and may not be reliable. Statistical lies may, therefore, be present; for example, an organisation may look very healthy on paper, when it is not in reality. Observer bias may also contribute to misinterpretation of records by the evaluator. Records may not contain all the information needed for evaluation.

It must be recognised that no one single method of data collection is complete unto itself. In combination with different methods, valuable information can be
obtained.

The important thing is to obtain valid and authentic information from a variety of sources and methods. This provides the opportunity for cross-checking the information so obtained. Also the cost of obtaining information should be borne in mind when choosing methods. A trade-off may be necessary between the extent of information needed and cost of obtaining that information.

**SOME BLOCKS TO EFFECTIVE EVALUATION**

There are, broadly speaking, three major blocks to effective evaluation, the learner, the trainer and the methods.

1. **Learner as a block to evaluation**: It often happens that learners, who are the major primary source for evaluation, fail to provide authentic feedback.

   This may be for cultural reasons: in some cultures it is considered highly inappropriate to criticise. The learners may refuse to assess the trainer, the design and the arrangements, and insist on saying that everything was perfect.

   There could also be a contextual reason: learners who are poor, illiterate or exploited in their daily life may have become deeply conditioned to withhold spontaneous reactions. They may hesitate to express their real feelings and appear non-committal. They may be unable to overcome deep-rooted fears of repercussion, and refuse to articulate their thoughts.

   It is also possible that a first exposure to a Participatory Training programme may be an exhilarating experience. Learners may feel so carried away by emotions of gratitude and sadness (in the end) that they are unable to evaluate the programme objectively.

   Despite the various reasons possible, learners' inability to provide authentic feedback raises some important questions for trainers:

   - Have learners really become empowered through the training process? Or are they still ensnared by webs of oppressive conditioning?
   - Have we been able to actually build up learners' self esteem?
   - Have we truly liberated the critical faculties of learners? Or have we used personalized relationships and trainer charisma to prop up an illusion of participatory processes?
   - Have we ended up with power over the minds of learners?

2. **Trainer as a block to evaluation**: It cannot be denied that evaluation is a difficult process for trainers. After having put in so much pre-training effort, so much hard work during the training and gone through so many emotions in the process, the trainer might become very possessive of the programme. So he might find it extremely painful to step back and view it objectively. This may distort analysis and use of feedback. The trainer might be unable to assess the effectiveness of the programme and impact on learners.

   Feedback about how a particular session was conducted might be difficult to give or accept. It may lead to a rather artificial relationship between co-trainers.

   Issues of trainer possessiveness and trainer anxiety must be brought up and openly discussed. If we truly want to evaluate a programme, it is no point sweeping them under the carpet in the fear that they might raise questions about the degree of commitment. To some extent all trainers, despite any degree of commitment to principles of Participatory Training, feel or act this way. The point is to deal with it, not deny it.

   Co-trainer support is a crucial element. A silent co-trainer suppressing feedback may be as unhelpful as one who makes bawdy comments or laughs at the anxious trainer. What would really help is a warm caring atmosphere within the trainer team. A willingness to openly admit and discuss this issue as applicable to every member, and the ability to laugh at it together. Only then will it be possible for trainers to honestly evaluate themselves and the programme.

3. **Methods as a block to evaluation**: Disadvantages of various methods have already been enumerated. It is an important responsibility of the trainer to design a method that will reduce biases and elicit accurate and relevant feedback from a particular group. Using pre-designed/standardized formats may not be appropriate all the time.
SOME EXAMPLES OF 
EVALUATION FORMATS

Example One: Concluding Workshop Evaluation

Background: You have just received a letter from your very best friend and colleague saying that s/he has not seen you for over a month, but has heard that you are taking part in a training programme in .................

Your friend requests that you write at once to explain what you have been doing and what you have learned during these few days. You decide to reply

Dear ________________________

You had a good guess! Yes, I was in __________________________

attending a training programme on __________________________

As a whole, I found these ________________________ days ......................

and I learned ......................................................................................

What I found really interesting was ..................................................

But let me explain how we worked over these ________________________

days

In the first ________________________ days, we ........................................

After that in the remaining ___________ days, we ..................................

At the end of these ________________________ days, our main conclusions

are ..........................................................................................

I am sorry this letter is so short but we will certainly meet after I return. Then I will explain in greater detail, but I can assure you that these few days were ........................................................................

.................................................... for my own work, and I am sure they could also be..............................

.................................................... to you when I tell you everything.

By the way, the trainers were ..............................................................

I found the place ................................................................................

That’s all for now

With regards,

Source: FMD Consultants, BV Apeldoorn
Example Two: **Concluding Quantitative Evaluation**

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<td></td>
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<tr>
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[ 103 ]
Example Three A Post-Training Evaluation

Overall Evaluation of Training of Trainers Programme.

As discussed with you during Phase III of the Training of Trainers Programme, we would like to seek your help in critically evaluating the entire programme. This evaluation is crucial to consolidate our collective insights in conducting the programme in this first round, and to provide an informed basis to plan and design the next round.

Therefore, we hope you would take the necessary time to reflect on your experience of the entire module, refer to your notes and reports and then respond to the enclosed questions. Please be candid and open about your response.

As you will notice, most of the questions are open ended, and therefore, require long answers. Please explain your answers as far as possible.

Thanks very much.

1. The overall objective of Training of Trainers Programme was to build internal training capabilities within field-based organisations. Do you now feel that this objective has been accomplished with respect to your organisation? Specifically, have the concept of training, skills related to that and practice of training improved in your organisation? Please explain.

2. Obviously, building the training skills of some staff members of field-based organisations is the first step in this direction. Several aspects of your own development as a trainer are important considerations. Please comment if the following aspects have been met, and how:
   a) Understanding of Participatory Training Methodology
   b) Your self-development
   c) Any changes in your attitudes
   d) Your skills in training methodology
   e) Your confidence in yourself as a trainer
   f) Changes in your opinions on issues discussed
   g) Changes in your relationships with others
   h) Your commitment to training
   i) Any other

3. If there have been some of the above changes in you; have you been able to use them in practice? Can you describe two-three examples?

4. We had conducted the programme on several assumptions. We would like your comments on whether these assumptions now appear valid to your or not.
a) The process of Participatory Training should be participatory. Was it?

b) The relationship among participants as a group should be built early on to facilitate learning. Was group building effective? And, did it improve learning?

c) The trainer-trainee relationship affects learning. This relationship should be positive and strong. What qualities of trainer-trainee relationship did you experience? Were these qualities useful in facilitating your learning?

d) Practice is important for consolidating learning. Did it help?

5. The entire TOT programme was structured in three phases. The contents were spread over these. Was this useful? Why? How?

6. Did the physical setting, changing locations and residential nature of the three phases help in learning? Any problems or obstacles you met? Are there suggestions?

7. The composition of participants varied considerably. Some were young, some old; some worked in urban settings; some in rural; some spoke English and some Hindi only; some were women, and many were men; some were working on problems of health, and some others on adult education; some came from a small (3 person) organisation, and some from a large (more than 100 person) organisation. Did these variations help or hinder learning? Which of these specifically? In the next round, what type of composition of participants we should aspire for?

8. Can you make some additional overall suggestions to improve the programme in the second round?
Chapter 12

MANAGEMENT, REPORTING AND FOLLOW-UP

A key component of designing and conducting a training programme which has not been mentioned so far is what we might technically call the ‘non-training aspect’. This component includes three main trainer responsibilities apart from the actual conducting of sessions. These are management or administrative aspects, report-writing and follow-up.

ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF TRAINING

In any training situation, besides being aware and taking care of the content, methods to be used, process, trainers need to involve themselves in looking into the administrative aspects of the training. It would be most appropriate if one of the trainers from the training team took responsibility of taking care of the administrative aspects of the training. This is one of the roles the trainers need to play if a proper learning environment needs to be created and if the training has to run smoothly. In case some one from outside the training team takes this responsibility then it is very essential that proper co-ordination and linkages are established between this person and one person from the training team. These linkages need to be there throughout i.e. before, during and after the training. Administrative aspects need to be viewed as a part of the training and not something separate. Administrative aspects need to be considered at all times i.e. before, during and after the training.

Although taking care of the administrative aspects of a training is not the primary objective of any training yet it is a very important and crucial element in any training.

Before the training starts:

1. An important aspect is to arrange for financial, material and human resources that would be required for the training.

2. It is essential to choose an appropriate venue for the training, such a place where there is not too much noise and other distractions which could affect the learning. In deciding the venue, another factor that needs to be considered is what are the other facilities and support systems that are available and making arrangements accordingly.

3. The timing of the training needs to be decided keeping in mind the suitability of the participants in terms of seasonality of work, cultural, religious events etc.

4. Participants need to know well in advance the dates, venue of the training and need to be informed at regular intervals about the programme. This will help them to make their other plans accordingly. Participants also need to know how exactly to reach the training venue, what mode of transport to
use. If arrangements of travel are being made by the training team then the participants should be informed accordingly.

5. Sometimes it may be necessary to distribute the learning materials prior to a training. This would help participants to prepare themselves for the training. This situation occurs mainly when a training is organised in phases.

6. While planning for the training it is necessary to plan exactly when resource persons are to be called. This will help in informing the resource persons in advance and assuring their participants to some extent. In case transportation needs to be arranged for the resource persons this could be done and resource persons could be informed accordingly. Different members of training team should also know when they will be taking sessions as this would give them time to prepare for their sessions.

During the training when the administrative aspects are handled properly they help in creating a positive learning environment. Once the basic needs of the trainees are taken care of, this helps them to be involved fully in the learning process.

Some of the aspects that need to be considered during the training are:

1. Accommodation of the trainees and trainers, while deciding this the gender aspect needs to be kept in mind. Generally it would be preferable if the trainers had a separate room from the trainees as this would give them the space to plan and prepare for the sessions.

2. The training room should be large enough to have trainees sit comfortably. It is a part of the trainer's responsibility to see that the room is clean and has enough stock of stationery and other materials required during the training. Posters could be put up in the room to help create a learning environment.

3. While planning the sessions, advance planning of when resource persons are needed could be done. This would help to prepare both the resource persons and the trainees. Another factor to be considered could be the timings of each sessions, the breaks etc.

4. It may necessary to plan time and space boundaries i.e. people joining the training session according to the plan and at a time when they can contribute the maximum. People coming into the training and going out could be very disturbing to the trainees. Representatives of host organisations must not be allowed to walk in at any time they wish; their participation can be solicited and their role as 'supporters of the learning process' would need to be clarified.

5. Arrangements about food, water etc. need to be done before the training, yet it is important to check this at regular intervals during the training. If the group of trainees belong to different parts of the country and have diverse
eating habits, while deciding the menu, these need to be kept in mind and the menu could be a balance between the different cultures. This is an important aspect to be considered as dissatisfaction at this level could affect the learning of the trainees. Constant contact with the person who is in charge of the kitchen needs to be maintained to assure food, tea etc. being ready on time, and the sessions should not needlessly be disturbed if it is not ready.

6. As Trainers we need to have information about services like doctors, hospital etc. In case of any illness or emergency during the training.

7. Enough copies of the learning materials need to be prepared to be taken and used whenever necessary during the training. In case some learning materials need to be duplicated or prepared, knowledge about where this could be done is also required.

8. Arrangements for reimbursement and return travel is another aspect that needs to be taken care of. Disbursement of payments could be done outside the main training room and at a time when the training session is not in progress, so as not to disturb the training process.

9. In case we are going to utilize any audio-visual equipment during the training, these need to be tested and set up before the session begins so that time is not lost during the sessions.

10. If field visits are a part of the training then arrangements for this in terms of transport, informing the organisation, the people where the visit is going to be made, preparing the trainees for the visit etc. are some of the things that need to be kept in mind.

11. In case some of the trainees are accompanied by small children, arrangements to take care of these children need to be made. A small play room with toys etc. could be set up and some assistance to take care of them during the training process.

The administrative aspects that need to be taken care of after the training are:

1. A report needs to be prepared and sent to all the trainees. The type of report the trainees would like to receive could be discussed during the training and a report could be prepared and sent to the trainees, and other people who would be interested in this like funders, government etc.

2. Along with the report, a list of participants who have attended the training should also sent to all the trainees.

3. If any plans/commitment for follow-up has been made by the trainer team these need to be fulfilled within the time frame that was agreed upon during the training.

4. Submission of accounts to the concerned body and later sending a financial report to the funder is another important aspect that needs to be taken care of.
WHILE USING EXTERNAL RESOURCE PERSONS....

- Have the resource persons been selected carefully? Do we need big names or the ability to communicate the specialised subject matter?
- Have resource persons been given adequate notice?
- Have they confirmed? Do we have a back-up arrangement in case they don't come?
- Have resource persons been briefed in advance on the context, strategy and objectives of the programme? Have they been sent a copy of the design? Do they know what sessions will precede and follow their sessions? Have we asked for/ incorporated their suggestions?
- Has the resource person any idea of the composition of the learner group? Has s/he any past experience of training/working/familiarity with the same sort of people?
- Are learners sufficiently briefed about the resource person and ready for the session? Do they have a prepared list of questions? These can be handed over before the session begins.
- If the resource person has sent/recommended/brought any material, has it been distributed to all learners?
- Learners and resource persons may both feel awkward with each other initially, especially if s/he arrives after the programme is under way. A round of somewhat detailed introductions, if time permits, might help. Try to free the resource person to interact with the learners during breaks, rather than monopolizing her or him.
- Have we taken care of travel, food accommodation and any other needs adequately?
- Don't forget the letter of thanks and a copy of the report.

REPORT-WRITING

We spend all our creative energies in conducting a training programme; we leave very little of it for documenting the programme.

Why should one document a training in detail? Why should one prepare different reports for learners, funders, government officials, organisation etc.?

The answer to the first question is that experience gets to be widely shared. Others learn from my experience (the wheel need not always be reinvented). I as a learner use the report as a reference material for my future programmes. The answer to the second, is that different kinds of audiences have different requirements of a training event and I as a trainer am committed to meeting those requirements.

A report serves the following purposes:

- adds to an existing data base and can become learning material for others
- helps in reformulation and refinement of concepts.
- clarifies training methodology
- is a tool for reflection and analysis for the trainers/learners

The process of writing a report takes primarily into account who the reader is and to what end he/she will use the information. This then influences the style, the content, presentation and the language of the report.

In the following, we shall outline the various types of reports, the structure of a report and points to keep in mind while writing a report.

**Types of report**

Essentially, reports are of three types:

- Date-base reports: what of training
- Process reports: how of training
- Analytical reports: why of training

**Data-base Report**

The what, when, where, who of the event is faithfully recorded in a data-base report. Essentially the report presents an overview of the entire event: What the objectives are, what contents were covered, what methods were used, how many learners from which organisations attended, information about trainers, follow-up plans made etc. Written in a brief form this report is useful for donors, government officials, interested readers and administrative purposes. Many a times they are also useful for participants as a reminder of the training programme.

**Process-base Report**

A detailed, continuous flow of the processes as they unfolded in the training is the main focus of this report. The emphasis is on how the training took place, how the content evolved in relation to training methodology, participants responses, interactions, outcomes etc.

The report is in a narrative form and elaborates the principles on which the training has been based, the sequence of contents held on each particular day, the issues arising out of each content in the group, the methods used for each session, the detailed processes that got generated, trainer responses, the changes made in the design and why etc.

The report is mainly useful for learners for reflection and learning purposes, as also for trainers who do similar trainings in the field. Often such reports are written in the language of the training and can become effective case-study material for others.
Analytical Report

Essentially this report highlights the why and how of training—it is evaluative in nature and pools together analytic data to make links; focus on issues and trends and highlight what worked, what did not work and what could be the possible reasons for the same.

The presentation of the report is in an action-reflection mode. It is useful for the trainers conducting the training to find out what they learnt; action-researchers in the field of training, as well as for other trainers to learn about innovative thinking and experiments, and use it in their own work.

Often, reports end up being a combination of several types, depending on who we are writing it for, towards what purposes, we are writing.

Format of a Training Report:

Every report should contain information on the following aspects (the details varying according to type of report). The context of the training, the objectives, the participant profile, information about trainers and resource persons, the approach, main themes and subjects, materials and methods used, elements of the process and evaluation.

Points to keep in mind while writing a report

A. Note-taking/Recording

Firstly detailed note-taking while sessions are on is essential: process notes and content notes.

Interesting anecdotes can also be recorded for use in the report-highlights, individuals’ subjective experiences etc. can make interesting reading. Sometimes groups prepare a daily report and this can be collated later. Other times, if support structures permit, group-reports can be cyclostyled or photocopied during the training itself and distributed to the learners.

B Organising the Materials

The flip charts that have been used during the training need to be carefully preserved and used while writing the report. All the group presentations of written on the blackboard should be noted down during the training itself and used in the report. Similarly transcriptions of audio and video tapes need to be done for incorporation into the report.

C. Outlining Format:

The purpose of the report, the style of the report, the language it needs to be prepared in, should be discussed with co-trainers (obviously, some discussion on the type of report for learners has already been discussed during the training), and a brief outline of the report made, (what to include and what not to include; should pictures be included etc.)
D. Analysing the Data

The next step is to analyse key data based on the kind of report we are preparing: relating issues to learners, trainers, methodology, finding if any new links are emerging in the process, collating findings of the evaluation, feedback etc.

Writing

- It helps to write a report soon after a training is completed. Memories are fresh and the momentum of the process still lingers.

- The language used in the report needs to be clear, concise and simple. One needs to be very careful about the use of words, depending upon the readership.

- Meticulousness is an essential characteristic for writing a report ensuring that all the data is adequately covered with equal emphasis or all aspects of the training.

- Since the report is for wider dissemination an openness in sharing data is very essential. Very often we write about the achievements, the successes of the report and ignore the failures, the difficulties faced in the process. Sharing all of it helps others to see the picture as it is. Feedback data from evaluations should also be included in the report.

On completion of the report a through reading ensures there is a smooth flow in reading. Proof-reading of the report is very essential to eliminate errors, a task many of us would like to do away with!
AN EXAMPLE OF A PROCESS REPORT

From "TAKING CONTROL OF OUR HEALTH:"
(Some Experiences of Community Health Workers Training)
-Mira Chatterjee, SEWA - Pallavi Naik and CHETNA team

The Measles Epidemic And After

The topic for our first training was decided by the outbreak of a measles epidemic in Shankarbhuvan. At least four children died before we could act. Our intervention was difficult because of a whole host of beliefs and rituals that we did not even understand at that time. We felt helpless and somewhat confused about what we could do. We arranged for measles vaccine from the local municipal dispensary, and government health workers immunized the children. Meanwhile, we closely observed and suggested treatment for children who developed complications as a result of measles. We also fixed the dates of our first health training with women. Although a sad event in Shankarbhuvan had prompted our training programmes, we were enthusiastic about starting.

All of us had a lot to learn about measles and health beliefs in general. Our training began with a discussion of how measles is viewed in a traditional community like Shankarbhuvan, and what is done to cure it. We learned about its diagnosis by a ‘bhuta’ (local-healer), of how the ‘Mata’ (Mother Goddess associated with the disease) had to be appeased and the child’s death had to be accepted because the ‘Mata’ ordained that it be so. Then, others of us shared our modern knowledge about measles, its transmission and how and why it is a killer of children in poor communities.

From our measles training, several points emerged which we incorporated in our subsequent sessions. For example, we made up rhymes and ‘garbas’ to help us remember immunization doses, the use of chloroquine and other issues. We also tried to learn in pairs; one of us would ask the other about something we had just learned, and then the roles could be reversed to check whether both had understood and absorbed the material.

Further, rather than viewing a disease in isolation, we always discussed its socio-economic implications. Why is it that poor children do not survive a measles attack, whereas others do? How is malnutrition related to our status as women? How does insufficient and intermittent water supply affect our health? We felt that not only were such issues close to our hearts but also that we must begin to confront and analyse these, if our work was eventually to have some impact on our health and our lives.

Another thing we learned quickly was that our trainings rarely proceeded as planned. Often some of us were tired because we had been up all right with a sick relative, or were unwell ourselves or had been dancing at a wedding till the wee hours. Consequently, we sometimes found it hard to concentrate or just felt very sleepy. On the spot, changes in our training became a common practice, based on everyone’s mood, energy level and requests.

By experimenting, we found topics, methods and materials that were particularly appropriate, and some that were useless. Even the pace of discussions and presentations had to be altered frequently because of our moods, knowledge and absorption levels. Sometimes we felt that reviewing materials presented was essential as some could not take notes and we could not always rely on memory. On such occasions, a few women who could read and write felt restless and bored.

There were also times when we felt that the subject matter to be presented was conceptually difficult to grasp, but were surprised at the ease with which this actually occurred. One such example was a session on what the heart and lungs look like and how they work. As most of the women had seen these organs in sheep and goats, understanding the human anatomy was no problem at all! Further, knowing about lung and heart structure, made understanding their functioning quite simple.
FOLLOW-UP

Follow-up to the training programme is essentially meant to continue the process of learning initiated during the training programme. Each training programme creates a set of understanding and ideas which learners try to implement when they return from a training programme. This activity may require further support—this is follow-up.

SIGNIFICANCE

Everything that is done by learners and trainers after the training programme does not constitute follow-up. Follow-up needs to be defined precisely and over a limited time frame.

Follow-up is any process of intervention and support provided to an individual and/or group, to further enhance their learning process, for a specified period of time, following the training programme.

Thus follow-up implies activities carried out to support the learning process after the training programme within a given time frame.

Essentially, follow-up extends and renews the learning contract that learners developed during the training programme. This learning contract can be with himself, with co-learners as well as with trainers. However, it is to be seen as a limited contract for a definite duration, and not an unlimited one.

Follow-up to a training programme can be used for several purposes:

1. Most importantly, follow-up provides support and encouragement, knowledge and resources needed to implement the learning the learner acquires during the training programme.

2. It can also help to define additional learning needs during the period immediately after the training programme. To that extent, it helps to continue the learning process by bringing out new learning needs.

3. Follow-up is also used to assess the training programme and its impact on the learners and their work and their organisations. It is in the period following the training programme that such an assessment can be effectively made. This helps the trainers in redesigning future training programmes.

4. Follow-up provides an opportunity for the learners to consolidate their own experiences acquired during the training programme. It provides the much needed distance from the immediate experiences of the training.

5. In a broad sense, follow-up can also be used strategically. If training has larger objectives of social change, follow-up can be used in a strategic way to:
   a. foster a feeling of solidarity among like-minded activists and organisation,
   b. sustain the process and effort of cadre-building and formation of networks.
c. strengthen formation of small groups and facilitate a process of building a larger and stronger organisation.

**METHODS OF FOLLOW-UP**

Follow-up can be conducted in different ways. It can be planned differently for each learner; it can also be done for the entire group of learners; it can be done for a selected sub-group as well. Methods of follow-up depend on its purpose and group of learners. Several possible methods are:

1. **Direct Methods**

   These methods entail face-to-face interaction among learners themselves and between learners and trainers. Examples are field visits by other learners or trainers to the site of a particular learner, meetings of learners together as well as along with trainers, meetings of all learners or a sub-group.

2. **Indirect Methods**

   Indirect methods do not entail face-to-face contact. These include correspondence on a regular or periodic basis, initiated by learners as well as trainers; one can also include in it a form of a newsletter or periodical; it can include questions posed by learners depending on their field problems and experiences and answers provided by other learners and trainers; it can also include exchange of learning materials developed by different people, etc.

   Direct methods of follow-up are generally more stimulating and supportive. But they require much greater time and resources. Indirect methods are relatively inexpensive, and can cover a larger set of learners. For example, a trainer may be able to visit only a few learners in a year; but a newsletter can reach all several times during a year.

   The choice of the method should depend on the needs of the learners and availability of resources. Illiterate, rural and urban poor learners may require greater use of direct methods; project holders may be satisfied with indirect methods only. A combination of direct and indirect methods can be generally very effective.

**PLANNING FOR FOLLOW-UP**

It is important to plan for follow-up deliberately and consciously. It does not happen automatically. The planning for follow-up should be tentatively done along with the design of the programme. Follow-up should be considered right at the time of developing this design. Details of the follow-up can be again worked out at the end of the programme itself, along with the learners.

Depending on the group of learners and the type of learning objectives, considerable time and resources may be necessary to carry out an effective follow-up. For example, extensive follow-up is much more important for tribals, rural women and labourers as learners, even though the number of days their
training programmes lasts may be small (2-4 days). This consideration needs to
be made at the very beginning of the planning of the training programme so
that follow-up does not get curtailed due to lack of resources needed for it. The
effectiveness of the total training effort depends on a well-conceived and
effective follow-up.

[For further reading on the topics covered in this part, refer to the Resource
Section at the end of the book.]
BECOMING A
MORE EFFECTIVE
TRAINER

RESPONSIBILITIES, COMPETENCIES AND ROLES
IMPORTANCE OF SELF DEVELOPMENT
UNDERSTANDING SELF
SELF DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINERS

PART - 4
Chapter 13

RESPONSIBILITIES, COMPETENCIES AND ROLES

In order to become a more effective trainer in Participants Training, we need to understand clearly the responsibilities and related competencies required of the trainer. We also need to realize that a trainer has to play a number of roles, usually more than one at a time. A complete understanding of all that a trainer has to do will help us to assess our own readiness and present skills.

THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF A TRAINER

In the traditional training mode the major competence that the trainer needs is a thorough knowledge of the subject matter. Sometimes it does not even matter whether the trainer can convey this lucidly, where s/he can it is an added boon. In participatory training on the other hand the trainer has a number of roles and responsibilities to fulfil.

The difference between roles and responsibility can be understood on the basis of the questions 'how' and 'what'. The answer to 'What all the trainer has to get done' defines his/her responsibilities while the answer to the question 'How the trainer is expected to behave' defines the roles s/he has to assume.

The major responsibilities of the trainer can be summed up as follows:

1. Identifying learning needs
2. Preparing the training design
3. Preparing oneself
4. Making arrangements
5. Conducting the training
6. Evaluating the training and following up.

TRAINER COMPETENCIES

In order to form these responsibilities the trainer must be competent. The competencies of an effective trainer are outlined below.

In Identifying Learning needs:

The trainer needs to possess knowledge regarding the potential learners, their job descriptions, the organisation or community to which they belong and about the theoretical framework of Participatory Training
Besides this the trainer needs to be aware of the strategic role of training, of the socio-cultural context and gender implications, the learners backgrounds, the backgrounds of their organisation or community, the need to prepare the learners’, their organisation/community, and the limits and potentials of training.

Skills in collecting, analysing, compiling, categorising and synthesising information and learner selection are of paramount importance.

**In Preparing the Training Design:**

In order to prepare the training design the trainer needs knowledge about the subject matter/content areas and of course about the various methods, materials and resources which will help him/her in preparing the design.

Awareness of the ideological framework of Participatory Training, the learners’ possible physical, psychological and emotional needs, the limits and potentials of each method is also of utmost importance.

The ability to identify the appropriate method and arrange an effective sequence, besides the skill to devise innovative and suitable learning/training methods contribute to effective design.

**In Preparing Oneself:**

Knowledge about the various content areas and about self development are essential for the trainer’s own preparation.

Besides this the trainer must also be aware of one’s own self, one’s own attitudes, beliefs, value systems, and behaviour, one’s own limitations and shortcomings as well as one’s own potentials and abilities, and of course the need to change oneself.

It is essential that the trainer be skilled in directing his/her own learning process.

**In Making Arrangements:**

Though this might not be an essential responsibility for all trainers, many trainers are faced with the responsibility for making most arrangements for their trainings as well. In order to do so efficiently, the trainer needs a thorough knowledge of all available resources and facilities and the approximate costs. The trainer needs to be aware of potential learners’ needs, peculiarities of the particular venue/training and the limits and potentials of the available resources.

Skills essential for making good arrangements is the ability to anticipate requirements, to take decisions, and coordinate between the various other people and institutions involved.
In Conducting the Training:

In order to conduct the training effectively, the trainers need a working knowledge of adult learning theory, group dynamics, human psychology, besides of course other content areas that may be included.

While conducting the training, the trainer needs to be constantly aware of what is going on in the learner group, viz-a-viz individual anxieties, needs and expectations, group dynamics and, of course, the learning process. S/he must necessarily be aware of his/her own behaviour and attitudes too.

Skills of a good trainer include the ability to listen, observe, communicate, empathise, support and encourage, diagnose/analyse/critique challenge and model.

In Evaluating the training and Following-up:

The trainer must possess knowledge of methods/techniques of evaluation and follow up, of the possible roles and responsibilities of the trained participants, emerging needs and concerns etc.,

S/he must be aware of the limits and potentials of training and follow-up the type of follow-up that the learner might need after returning to the real life situation, of his/her own anxiety, feelings of possessiveness and reluctance to be objective.

Skills in gathering and analysing information, using this to adjust the course of the training, in maintaining contact and providing continued support and, of course, in writing reports are essential.

Collating all this information a formidable list of desired knowledge, awareness and skills can be drawn up, and as trainers we can contemplate where we stand.

Knowledge of

- Learner's backgrounds, their job descriptions
- their organisation/community, its background
- methods, materials, resources and facilities
- various content areas/subject-matter
- adult learning theories
- principles of Participatory Training
- group dynamics
- human psychology
- self development
Awareness about - the ideology of Participatory Training
- socio-cultural context and gender implications
- limits and potentials of training
- physical, psychological and emotional needs of learners
- oneself - one's own values, attitudes, beliefs and behaviour
- one's shortcomings/limitations, abilities and the need to change
- anxieties, needs and expectations of the learners and one's own anxieties and needs
- what is going on in the learner group and the training
- possible types of support the trainees may need in the future

Skills in
- collecting, analysing and synthesising information
- directing one's own learning
- preparing innovative learning methods/materials
- designing a training
- anticipating possible problems and needs of participants
- taking decisions
- coordinating
- using gathered information for making adjustments
- report-writing
- listening - to verbal and non-verbal messages.
- observing
- communicating
- empathising
- supporting and encouraging
- diagnosing/analysing/critiquing
- challenging
- modelling
THE TRAINER: A MASTER OF MANY ROLES

As we have seen earlier, the responsibilities of a trainer include not only being a subject matter specialist, but also designing and conducting the training programme and its evaluation, rigorously preparing oneself, and possibly, looking after physical arrangements too. In order to meet the needs of these responsibilities, the trainer in Participatory Training must be able to perform several roles.

The major roles that a trainer has to play include those of a facilitator, a behavioural scientist-psychologist, a leader of the group and a subject matter specialist. The trainer also needs to be an evaluator, a documentor, and in some cases, a manager.

The trainer has to sometimes assume multiple roles, and continuously switch roles. Ideally a composite team with different trainers handling various roles can reduce the burden on one person. But trainers have to often be very versatile in taking on a number of roles.

This in turn raises the question of where we stand with respect to each role we have to handle. How skilled are we in role transition? Taking on a number of roles inevitably induces stress and anxiety. Can we deal with these?

TRAINER TEAM

Considering the number of responsibilities that a trainer has to shoulder and the variety of roles s/he has to perform, it is difficult to function as a lone trainer. Having a team of trainers to take on various responsibilities ensures better logistics and reduces strain on the individual trainer.

However, logistics apart, a trainer team provides multiple viewpoints on the entire process, which is extremely important for unbiased and sensitive conducting of the training programme. Many-sided assessment by more than one person is crucial for feeling the pulse of the group, monitoring the learning, continuously reflecting on and fine tuning the design and arrangements, and most important, for providing feedback to each trainer. Humour and camaraderie in the “green-room” always lightens the stress on the individual trainer.

Of course, this has certain implications; that the individual trainers concerned have learnt how to work in a team, and there is high mutual trust and co-ordination. In the absence of this, ego clashes and interpersonal dynamics among the trainers can seriously disturb the learning environment and have disastrous consequences for the process. It would be ideal to have a trainer team where all are totally committed to the learning process, have rich diversity of experiences and abilities and are able to share and laugh together with deep mutual respect. In reality, however, this is often not the case, and many of us simply have no choice in the matter. Our co-trainers may be colleagues with whom we are not quite at ease, juniors or ‘superiors’...
or they may be subject matter specialists with whom we do not have much in common, or they may be external facilitators whom we hardly know.

The question is, how do we handle the situation so that we are able to work effectively together? Harmonious team functioning can be enhanced by keeping the following in mind:

1. Building a climate of mutual respect, where everyone's viewpoint is valued and all are given equal opportunity to contribute.

2. Involving everyone right from the preparatory stage of planning or designing. (If the design has already been made, suggestions for improvement can be invited).

3. Thorough planning for each session so that roles are clear, backup support ensured, and no one treads on another's toes.

4. Systematic review and analysis of each session or the entire day in an objective and non-threatening manner by every team member. This provides a forum for constructive and non-derogatory feedback.

5. Expressing confidence in the less experienced or hesitant members of the team, encouraging them to overcome uneasiness, supporting them when necessary, openly talking about trainer anxiety and sharing tensions.

6. Opportunities for creative work, like making up a song or play together, thinking up an interesting learning activity and so on.

7. Adequate time for relaxation, social interaction and plenty of humour.
Chapter 14

IMPORTANCE OF SELF DEVELOPMENT

Having looked at the long list of roles, responsibilities and associated capacities of a trainer in Participatory Training, it may appear to be a formidable standard to measure up to. The list is in great contrast to the traditional criteria of trainer competence, which was subject matter expertise. In that context, development of the trainer meant acquiring more specialised knowledge, that is, 'cognitive' or intellectual development.

But when we deal with Participatory Training, the development of the self, of the person of the trainer is of paramount importance. We need to constantly grow in our capacities, our concepts and our sensitivity, to ensure that we are truly able to facilitate the learning process. This self development starts with a deep sensitive and full understanding of oneself. But before discussing steps towards understanding and developing the self, it is important to realize why it is so crucial to focus on the self development of the trainer.

The first and foremost reason is to develop congruence, that is, to ensure that we do not contradict in our actions what we speak of and believe. The second reason is to develop sensitivity towards and understanding of the learner's process of self development. The third reason is to develop ourselves as finely calibrated instruments that can sense each undercurrent during the training process and facilitate accordingly. These three major reasons can be examined in greater detail.

1. CONGRUENCE: As trainers in Participatory Training, we uphold a certain philosophy. We believe that we can work against the forces of mind control that have infused ordinary people with a sense of resignation, worthlessness and consequent apathy. Participatory Training is setting out to achieve transformation at the individual level and the level of group, preparing them to act towards social change. As such, this implies certain imperatives which we need to bring out through our behaviour as trainers. However, a close look at what we actually do in practice reveals that we often say one thing and do another. Our prejudices, unconscious assumptions, reactions and oversight could very well destroy the base of what we are trying to achieve through our training.

EXAMINING THE IMPERATIVES OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

A. Faith in ordinary people's capacity to learn, to grow and change; constant felt and demonstrated respect

How soon do we lose faith in people who seem slower, less articulate, more ignorant? What sort of people do we dismiss as 'hopeless'? Do we show respect towards people who are somehow 'out-of-place' in our world view? In our behaviour do we take their submissiveness for granted? When we are careless in our preparations a training programme may reflect our lack of respect for the learners.
B. Building up the low self-esteem of the learners into a realistic and positive self-concept:

Yet our behaviour with learners often verges on the paternalistic, that is, in a parent to child mode, rather than adult-to-adult. Do we ever give the impression that only some answers are 'right' and indicate that other answers would be 'wrong'? Thus we discourage diversity of opinion and promote feelings of dependence and inferiority.

C. Liberating the critical faculties of learners, so that they question everything they had taken for granted: all assumptions about themselves and their capacities, about others and about relationships:

Yet often during sessions we prefer delivering our analysis in the form of a lecture and do not encourage too many questions on what we have said. Do we usually expect learners to accept whatever we have said? At other times, we may be so over-friendly with learners that their objectivity about us is lost. Thus we control what they can critique and what they cannot: what is 'above questioning'.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRAINER AUTHORITY : A DILEMMA</th>
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<tr>
<td>What really is the position of the trainers vis a vis the learners? We are constantly grappling with this question. On the one side is the belief that the trainer is a non-authoritarian partner in the process of enquiry and change, yet we generally come from backgrounds where authoritarian 'parent-to-child' relationships are predominant. During the training programmes, learners may habitually look up to us, and expect us to tell them what is right. It is very easy to take on the role of a mentor.</td>
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<tr>
<td>On the other hand, it is undeniable that as trainers, we do have a certain authority that we can use to discipline the learning process, to structure the thinking effectively. Certain challenging learning activities need considerable trainer preparation and trainer control.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The final dilemma is: how much is too much? How do we assess whether we have crossed the boundary between use and misuse of trainer authority? It would be helpful to check whether:</td>
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- Learners are constantly looking at you and talking to you during a general discussion.
- Learners expect all their questions to be answered by you.
- Learners appear eager to win your approval.
- Learners expect you to make choices for them.
- Learners seem hesitant to critique and display low initiative.

In order to check our overuse of trainer authority, we can enlist the help of our co-trainers. Bringing up the dilemma, discussing it honestly and being mutually alert can go a long way. Careful monitoring and evaluation of the learning process and learning environment are also helpful. However, in the final analysis, it is up to us: to be aware of the possibility, to be alert when it really happens, and to check ourselves.
2. SENSITIVITY: As trainers in Participatory Training, we are engaged in the task of helping people to regain and strengthen their self-concept, go through the whole process of self-development and change. Adult learners who come for the training may come with hope, fears and anxieties; further emotions will be generated during the learning process. In order to assist learners in their self-development, we need to be very sensitive to what they are going through. We are best equipped to help them if we ourselves have gone through the same turmoil and struggle. For example, if I understand how my own self-concept has been formed, under what conditions it got undermined and weakened, what helps it become strong and realistic, only then can I work towards helping others regain their sense of self-worth. If I understand the pain and the joy that I have undergone in the process of learning about and changing myself, then I can perceive what learners experience in a similar pursuit. My understanding of my own self can become the basis for my understanding others. If we are insensitive towards learners’ feelings, we may undo the entire effect of the training intervention.

3. FINELY CALIBRATED INSTRUMENT: No matter how well we have designed the training, no matter how great our previous experience with a similar learner group, once the session starts, I, as trainer, am on my own. There is no other prop, no other technique of feeling the pulse of the group. Our self is the only instrument to monitor the process, to keep track of what is happening. If we are caught up in our own preoccupation and confusions, we become oblivious to what is going on and miss out on small warning signals. We are thus unable to make the necessary adjustments to ensure that learning occurs effectively. It is like a wrongly calibrated instrument that gives a false reading. But if we are finely attuned to our own feelings and reactions, if we recognize subtle variations in our own energy and performance, we will also register these changes as they occur in the learner group. It is only then that we are equipped to facilitate the learning process. We need to go through a process of self-development in order to prepare ourselves as finely calibrated instruments that can pick up the faintest signals from the learner group.

Apart from the three major reasons for the importance of self-development in trainers, two other considerations raise the need for a very well-adjusted personality in the trainer.

Building a conducive learning environment where there is emotional support, acceptance, openness and trust is only possible where the trainer is open, trusting and supportive. It is important for the trainer to have the ability to share and disclose herself or himself, to invite and provide feedback. Further, respecting others is truly possible only when we respect ourselves.

Finally, the trainer in Participatory Training needs to use the self directly and explicitly as a model, and demonstrate behaviour expected of an ideal participant. This in itself is an important form of facilitation.
Having examined why exactly it is so crucial for the trainer to understand and develop his or her own self. We can move on to see what aspects of our self need to be understood. We are faced with several questions about our self:

- Why is there a lack of congruence between our words and our acts?
- Why are we insensitive to others?
- How can we recognize our identity?
- How can we get "more in touch with ourselves"?
- How did we become what we are today? And, most important
- Is it possible for us to change at this stage in our lives? Can an adult ever transform his or her personality?

These questions have a deep significance for us. It is only when we personally experience a transformation of the self and a sense of personal growth that we, as trainers in Participatory Training, are convinced that others can also achieve the same. This conviction forms the basis of our Articles of Faith.

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**TRAINER ANXIETY**

Designing and conducting a Participatory Training programme requires intensive preparation and hard work. The number of roles a trainer has to play definitely creates stress on the person. We feel anxious about the 'success' of the programme. No matter whether we are novices or experts, we all go through anxiety. Sometimes we even lose objectivity and constantly seek affirmation from learners and co-trainers that everything is going well. This hampers evaluation.

The question is, how do we deal with anxiety? The best way to cope would probably be to acknowledge it. When we admit that all of us are anxious, and sometimes even nervous, we go a long way towards managing this emotion. But trying to hide or deny anxiety, or being ashamed of it, can lead to an actual increase of the feeling.

Some ways to overcome anxiety and nervousness are:

- Be as well prepared as you possibly can. Have lecture notes handy, prepare carefully before conducting structured experiences
- Share your feelings, accept them, laugh about them
- Each training is a learning experience for the trainer, so use evaluative feedback to increase your awareness
- Confidence increases with skill, try apprenticeship to hone your skills.
Chapter 15

UNDERSTANDING SELF

What is the 'self'? We can call the combination of our knowledge, intellect, values and attitudes, the conscious and the unconscious, all that is within us, the 'self'. There are a number of frameworks for understanding the self. In India our 'rishis' and 'munis' have been in quest of understanding the human self from time immemorial, and the West has had its celebrated philosophers. Over the last hundred years or so a process of scientific enquiry into the 'self' has begun, but even then our knowledge is far from complete. Since our action or behaviour is the only observable part of our self, scientists have focussed largely on this, and on personality, as manifestations of self.

Participatory Training is concerned with relationships, with the way people behave with one another, with the motive forces behind behaviour, and with the means of bringing about fundamental changes in behaviour. As such we will be looking at several frameworks that attempt to explain behaviour, and personality theories. They include the following:

- Three Aspects of self
- Our Unconscious Processes
- Western theories of Personality Development: Freudian, Eriksonian
- Indian Psyche
- Behaviourism: Conditioning of Behaviour
- Humanist Psychology: Hope for Change.

A. ASPECTS OF SELF:

It is generally agreed that the self has three broad aspects. These three constantly interact with each other causing confusion or congruence depending whether they are in harmony or not.

The Cognitive Self: This refers to our mental or intellectual capacities. Our ability to store and process information, our memory and logical abilities. In some individuals this aspect is highly developed and in others it is not. A culture with its emphasis on formal schooling encourages the development of the cognitive aspects.

The Affective Self: This refers to our emotional side, our capacity to feel and express emotions. The development of our affective self has its roots in our childhood experiences of being loved, held or hugged. The immediate family
people who lay more emphasis on their cognitive self tend to look down upon those who are more impulsive, emotional and possess artistic talent. Our dominant culture dictates that a good memory for facts is more important than creativity.

Another common assumption is that knowing intellectually about something will automatically lead to appropriate changes in behaviour. For example, it is assumed that a vivid lecture on the importance of eating more during pregnancy will automatically lead to increased food intake by all pregnant women. The important factor of local beliefs is disregarded because beliefs are 'irrational' and emotional. Yet in reality, most of our behaviour is moulded by our emotions and beliefs. Learning which occurs on the cognitive level is not as effective in changing behaviour as learning which occurs on the emotional or affective level. (All smokers know that smoking is harmful, but that doesn't stop them.)

This is why our behaviour is often not congruent with the ideas we hold or the statements we make. Emotionally we may believe in something quite the opposite. Ultimately the belief dictates our behaviour. As trainers we may lecture on social equality but in action we may be unable to relate to our support staff as equals: deep down we are emotionally convinced that we are definitely superior.

**B. THE UNCONSCIOUS PROCESSES**

In order to understand some of our behaviour that seems otherwise inexplicable, we can look at some theories of Sigmund Freud.

One of the seminal contributions of Sigmund Freud towards understanding of the human psyche was his concept of the 'unconscious'. He postulated that mental life comprised of an unrelenting conflict between the conscious and the unconscious mind. The unconscious was that part of the psyche which we are not aware of, and lies under the conscious layer. Stressful conditions cause aspects within the unconscious to surface and manifest themselves in behaviour.

Freud also held that all humans were born with a natural instinctual drive which he called the libido. The major characteristic of libido was that it sought pleasure and avoided pain.

According to Freud the psychic apparatus had three major subdivisions which he named the id, super ego and the ego. The id referred to that aspect which included all the primitive drives one was born with. the superego was that part which included the sense of right and wrong, the conscience and developed during childhood; the final subdivision was the ego which included the rational, logical aspects as well as an appreciation of reality. Behaviour was the result of the interaction of these three aspects. In a righteous person the superego dominated, in the 'uninhibited' the id, while in the balanced person it was the ego.
DEFENCE MECHANISMS

Individuals develop unconscious responses to anxiety making situations. These responses which are used to reduce or overcome anxiety and insecurity are called Defence Mechanisms. They provide useful insights into human behaviour.

Displacement: When a person is angry or annoyed at his boss he 'takes it out' on his subordinate or his wife

Repressions: a process by which an undesirable or painful experience is pushed out of the conscious mind. These experiences remain within the unconscious and can later surface with strange consequences

Regression: reversion to an earlier mental or behavioural level when rebuked some adults start behaving in a childish manner

Projection: Attributing one's own thoughts and desires to others because it may be risky to assume responsibility for them

Rationalisation: Finding justification or explanations for situations which are unfavourable or unpleasant. People tend to find explanations for how it is good that they failed.

Fixation: To become excessively obsessed, preoccupied or attached to something.

We do not use these defence mechanisms consciously but they do become a part of our personality. While they are useful for protecting us in 'vulnerable' situations, an excessive use of these makes us closed and resistant to change.

C. PERSONALITY THEORIES

As trainers, although we are not psychologists, we have to deal with and understand a wide range of individuals—learners from varying backgrounds, classes, sex, and of course ourselves. Their behaviour ranges from unquestioning acceptance to blatant callousness. During the course of our training we are perplexed because some learners are slow, others are aggressive, still others seem to be fawning and so on. In order to understand our learners' behaviours and our own reactions, in order to help them change and facilitate their learning, we need to get some idea of the various theories concerning personality and its development.

Personality of an individual refers to the sum total of the individuals physical characteristics, intelligence, behaviour, temperament etc. Though it is a very complex thing we tend to simplify matters by categorising individuals into types on the basis of their spontaneous behaviour and reaction to situations. Thus we categorise individuals as having an outgoing personality or a malicious personality or an aggressive personality, and so on. Whenever
these words are used, certain behaviour patterns immediately spring to mind.

While there is general agreement on what personality means, there is a great debate on how it is formed. The two opposing points of view hold that it is either formed by hereditary/genetic factors or environmental factors. But a consensus view holds that both these factors are important, but not exclusively responsible. It also holds that these factors are interdependent, i.e. they can influence each other. Added to this we must remember that a person’s behaviour or personality is not entirely predictable over all possible situations. As trainers we should be aware of the fact that both our own and our learner’s personalities are shaped by these two factors and we cannot deny the importance of our family, our history, our upbringing, our past experiences and so on. On the other hand, we cannot afford to be prejudiced just because someone belongs to a particular class, caste, religion or sex.

1. Personality Development-The Freudian Concept

Sigmund Freud provided a theory as to how past experiences affect personality. He felt that most our adult personality had its roots in childhood experiences. Depending upon how the adults around us had treated us in childhood, many of our personality characteristics develop. As the child grow and develops from infancy to childhood, the child’s primary source of satisfying its biological drive (libido) changes-from the mouth, to the anus and finally to the genitals. Thus the infant derives pleasure from sucking, the slightly older child from passing and retaining fæces, touching and playing with it, and the child between 3 and 6 from being exhibitionistic and voyeuristic. Freud was of the opinion that if the individual was frustrated in his or her pursuit of pleasure in childhood s/he developed certain personality characteristics like anxiety, insecurity, lack of trust and so on. The person whose childhood did not have many such frustrations developed a more wholesome personality.

2. Erikson’s Model of Personality Development

Erik Erikson provides a more holistic concept of personality development. While Freud thought that the formative influences occurred only in childhood, Erikson held that the process continued throughout life. In his scheme, personality developed in a succession of stages, from infancy to old age. In each of these stages the individual is faced with a central issue, or conflict. Depending upon how the issue is resolved, the individual’s personality is formed. Thus in early infancy the issue is trust. The child has to trust the adult world, particularly its mother, in order to survive. If it so happens that the mother does not provide the infant with its needs then the child grows up with a sense of mistrust. In young adults the issue is identity; we see that it is usually teenagers who form or belong to cults, sets, groups and so on. It is their desire to establish their identity. Those who resolve the issue integrate back into the mainstream; those who can’t, go through life with an identity crisis.

One hopeful point that Erikson observed is that if an issue that has not been resolved at the stage it should have been it can be resolved at a later date. The other thing that he found was that the qualities are accumulated into the personality of the individual as he or she grows.
EIGHT STAGES OF PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

Stage I : Basic issue : Trust (vs Mistrust) Age upto about 1 year Depending upon how the child is handled by its parents (mother), the individual grows up to be basically trusting or lacking in trust of others.

Stage II : Basic issue : Autonomy (vs Doubt, Shame) Age between one and half and three years. The child at this age slowly gains control over its limbs/muscles, and wants to run around, touch and hold objects. If the parents are over protective, critical, it is possible the child will grow up into a doubting, "ashamed" personality, otherwise the adult can be autonomous.

Stage III : Basic issue Initiative (vs Guilt). Age - 4 to 6 years Having mastered movement the child is now keen to know, to explore. Depending upon whether the child's curiosity is encouraged or inhibited the individual can grow up to have initiative or a sense of guilt.

Stage IV : Basic issue : Industry (vs Inferiority) Age - 6 to 11 yrs. Children like observing and copying adults, especially the crafts or trades. They like working on models, practical things, develop the power to reason and so on. If these natural inclinations are not encouraged, the individual can grow up with a sense of inferiority, what we commonly call the inferiority complex.

Stage V : Basic Issue : Identity (vs Role Confusion) Age 12—18 years. With time the child can neither identify with younger children nor with the adults. It is a time when teenagers are overwhelmed with the questions like 'Who am I?', 'Where do I belong' and so on. A position resolution of these questions helps the individual develop an identity; or else the person goes forward with a sense of confusion, an identity crisis.

Stage VI : Basic Issue : Intimacy (vs Isolation) Age 18 to 30 years The young adult seeks close relationship based on reciprocity with another - a close friendship with the same sex or the opposite. The ability to build such a relationship depends on how the past issues have been resolved and if the person is unable to resolve this issue, a sense of isolation creeps into the individual's personality.

Stage VII : Basic Issue : Generativity (vs Stagnation) Age 30 to 45 years. Generativity refers to both ones productive life as well as reproductive life. The desire to rear children responsibly is a facet of this stage. This is also a stage where the individual makes productive contribution to his/her field of work.

Stage VIII : Basic Issue : Integrity (vs Despair) Age - above 45 years. Life's major achievements are now a matter of the past. Depending upon how the individual views his/her achievements—as satisfying or not, a sense of integrity or despair envelops the individual's personality.

D. THE INDIAN PSYCHE

While personality theories developed in the West are undeniably useful, they sometimes fail to explain nuances of Indian behaviour, certain attitudes and predispositions that do not fit into the Western framework. It is important to keep in mind that certain basic concepts like Karma and Dharma and so on deeply influence the Indian personality and way of looking at life. In order to
understand our own selves, and help learners to understand the roots of their own behaviour, we need to have a clear idea about these basic concepts. While this involves considerable study, we will here briefly highlight aspects which are considerably different from the western mindset.

1. Idea of Reality:

That which we perceive through sensory experience and rational thought is held to be maya, an incomplete and apparent reality. Even if it is socially shared perception, it is not the 'true' reality. Those who renounce worldly life, like sadhus, are highly respected, because they are thought to have begun transcending the bonds of maya.

(But Western psychotherapy on the other hand aims at the opposite at heightening people's 'reality sense' acceptance of and adaptation to worldly reality)

2. Idea of Dharma:

Each individual has a particular 'life task' with its own definition of 'right action'. For example, while it would be right for a yogi to be indifferent to suffering, it would be wrong for a social worker. Since trying to find out what is right and what is not in this highly relative framework would be extremely difficult the say to least, Indians feel it is safer to follow time-tested traditions, ways of behaving and acting that are followed by one's social group and had been followed by one's ancestors.

Each individual (with his or her own pre-destined life task) has a rightful place and function in society. Social institutions, including familial, political and economic, have all been legitimised by 'eternal law' which prescribes the duties, privileges and restrictions of each member's role. It is believed that social conflict and oppression are not caused by any intrinsic defect in the concerned institution but are due to the individual's lapse from the right path. Thus 'social change' would mean 'changing' the individuals responsible for the problem, not the structure of the institution or system.

3. Idea of Karma:

Each individual is supposed to be born with a definite and highly personal combination of 'gunas' (fundamental qualities) carried over from the last life. Each and every thought, feeling and action during life has some effect on the ratio of these qualities: a life of righteousness reduces negative qualities and strengthens positive qualities, a life of misdeeds has the opposite effect. After death, the existing balance is carried over into the next birth. Thus, through one's karma, one can strive to earn merit, and accumulate it over many births. But the effort needed may be very great if one is born handicapped by an unfavourable combination of gunas from a previous lifetime. Thus there is also a sense of inner limitation, despite which there is hope, given the infinite opportunity of many lifetimes.
4. Feminine identity in India

An Indian woman's identity is traditionally defined wholly by her relationship to others, as daughter, wife and mother. It is a strongly patriarchal society where the birth of sons is longed for. Girls thereby internalize this devaluation into feelings of worthlessness and inferiority. From late childhood they are thoroughly trained to become 'good women': self-sacrificing, self-effacing and self-denying, constantly seeking to perfect themselves in the roles of daughter, wife and mother. Married to a stranger during adolescence, the Indian girl is transplanted into the house of her in-laws, which is supposed to be her 'real' home. Here she has to often meet exacting standards, and exist in comparative isolation, for her relationship with her husband is not given the space to develop. It is only by becoming a mother that she regains some self-esteem and status.

(Source: Sudhir Kakar, The Inner World)

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT - AN INDIAN IN PERSPECTIVE

Like modern theories of personality, the Hindu model of asramadharma conceptualises human development in a succession of stages. It holds that development proceeds not at a steady pace in a smooth continuum, but in discontinuous steps, with marked changes as the individual moves into each new phase of life. Contrasting with Erikson's model, which is clinical and developmental, the Hindu view proposes ideal images. It emphasises the importance of the scrupulous progression from task to task and from stage to stage in the ultimate realisation of moksha. The image of the course of an ideal life-cycle, as described in the stages of the asramadharma is deeply etched on the Hindu psyche and affects the personality of the individual.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Erikson's Scheme</th>
<th>Hindu Scheme</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>Issue</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infancy</td>
<td>Trust vs Mistrust</td>
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<tr>
<td>Early Childhood</td>
<td>Autonomy vs Shame</td>
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<td>Play age</td>
<td>Industry vs Inferiority</td>
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<td>School age</td>
<td>Identity vs Role Confusion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adolescence</td>
<td>Intimacy vs Generativity vs Stagnation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young adult</td>
<td>Integrity vs Despair</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adult</td>
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</table>
E. BEHAVIOURISM: THE CONDITIONING OF BEHAVIOUR

While Freud and Erikson believed that personality was the result of and interaction between the individual and the environment, the behaviourists hold that behaviour is solely determined by whether experiences are rewarded or punished. If we look closely at ourselves we will find that we unconsciously avoid doing things that are associated with painful memories. Children are taught how to behave by repeated punishments. Advertising changes our behaviour by promising rewards of being cheap, effective, better and so on. This kind of reward and punishment is responsible for conditioning a large portion of our behaviour. Behaviourism is the school of thought which believes that human behaviour is exclusively a product of conditioning, reinforcement, rewards and punishment. B.F. Skinner, one of the most influential proponents of this school, experimented with pigeons and humans, to show that any desired behaviour could be achieved by devising the appropriate stimulus and reward or punishment.

F. HUMANIST PSYCHOLOGY - AN OPTIMISTIC HOPE FOR GROWTH AND CHANGE

It would appear that human personality and behaviour is entirely determined by our history, experience of pleasure or pain, reward or punishment. In such a scenario it is difficult to comprehend a scope for change or growth. The humanist psychologists, among them Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers, working with people in distress, and after helping them to successfully overcome their problems, came to the conclusion that change is possible. They found that we become maladjusted because we do not accept ourselves as we are, we tend to disregard our feelings, are judgemental of others, are critical of every thing and so on. In order to change, to achieve our full potential, to develop; to the greatest extent, we should be open, accepting, sensitive, unique; be ourselves, instead of trying to adjust ourselves to suit society.

A plethora of theories and the large number of controversies makes it difficult to form a single unifying set of principles to understand the self. But what is clear is that

* The 'self' is extremely complex and there are a large number of factors that affect it

* There are a number of conflicts that take place within the individual's 'self' all the time

* Our experiences, upbringing and education stifle many of our natural instincts and inclinations

* We take recourse to various forms of defence mechanisms to avoid anxiety and vulnerability

* While our behaviour is to a great extent determined by environmental conditioning it is possible by being open and accepting to change and grow.
Chapter 16
SELF DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINERS

MEANING OF SELF-DEVELOPMENT

Development of self implies several different things. In reality, these different meanings can overlap, but it is useful to understand them distinctively. In this section, some of the main meanings of self-development are elaborated.

(i) The most important meaning of self-development is to develop a realistic self concept. This implies developing a positive and healthy appreciation of myself, my capabilities and my limitations. It implies overcoming my negative self concept in some cases, and excessively unrealistic self concept in others. This is necessary so that each person can deal with the world on the basis of his/her strengths.

(ii) Another important meaning of self-development is to acquire internal control over myself. In many cases, we depend on others to define our self. We need to develop our own definition of ourself and not allow our definition of self concept to be exclusively and totally determined by others. It helps in creating a sense of initiative and self control in each person.

(iii) Another meaning of self-development is to develop the cognitive, affective and the behavioural aspects of ourself. This implies developing and sharpening our cognitive capacity; this also implies becoming sensitive to my own emotions and feelings, developing the ability to articulate and express them and sharpening emotional capacities; the development of the behavioural aspect of self entails developing a wide repertoire of behaviour appropriate to different situations.

(iv) A very crucial aspect of self-development is to create a sense of congruence between different aspect of self. This implies an internal congruence and consistency between cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects. This also implies that our behavioural aspect represents authentically our cognitive and affective aspects-our actions are congruent with our thoughts and feelings. This is one of the major challenges in self-development.

Are you ready for self-development?

- are you open to new information and ideas about yourself?
- are you sensitive to your own needs?
- are you prepared to face the pleasant as well as the ugly aspects of yourself?
- are you willing to acknowledge that you are not perfect?
- are you willing to face some pain in this process?
- are you flexible enough to evolve alternative plans and strategies for yourself?
The process of self development has two aspects, understanding oneself and changing oneself. Understanding oneself can be done through one’s own efforts, but there is a high possibility of missing out on things we do unconsciously, as for example, the way we appear to other people. A more authentic understanding of oneself comes from ‘seeing ourselves as others see us’ combined with self reflection and analysis.

FEEDBACK AND SELF-DISCLOSURE

Feedback from others and self-disclosure are reciprocal activities crucial for self-development. Feedback is a verbal or nonverbal communication to a person or group providing them with information as to how their behaviour affects you or the state of your here and now feelings and perceptions (giving feedback or self-disclosure). Feedback is also a reaction by others usually in terms of their feelings and perceptions, as to how your behaviour is affecting them (receiving feedback). The process of giving and receiving feedback can be illustrated through a model called the Johari Window. The model can be looked upon as a communication window through which you give and receive information about yourself and others.

The Johari Window

The Johari Window is a useful model to understand oneself, one’s behaviour, and openness. In its simple form the Johari Window consists of 4 equal panes of a rectangular window as given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Known to me</th>
<th>Unknown to me</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Known to others</td>
<td>OPEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown to others</td>
<td>HIDDEN</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Open Self - This is that aspect of each person which is known to the person and to others as well.

Blind Self - This is that aspect of each person which the person is not aware of, but others know about it because it gets revealed to them through behaviour.

Hidden Self - There are various aspects about oneself that one chooses not to reveal or disclose to others, this constitutes the hidden self.

Unknown Self - There are aspects of the self which remain unexplored, and as such are unknown and unrevealed to both the person and to others. One may manifest these aspects or become aware of them sometime in the future.

[ 136 ]
Self Development and the Johari Window

As mentioned earlier the Johari Window is a useful model to understand openness and as such can assist in understanding the process of self development too. In practice the four panes of the self are not equal, and different individuals may differ in degrees of openness. Self development, or the process of developing a more open and flexible self consists of gradually enlarging the open self and consequently reducing the hidden and blind selves. This may be done by a process of giving and soliciting feedback.

We have seen that the process of receiving feedback and self disclosure are crucial in self development. The first provides us with valuable data on our behaviour (especially things we are unaware of) and the second helps us to recognize, acknowledge and accept ourselves through the very process of self expression.

However, in order for the process to be effective, we need to develop skills for giving feedback. Too often we think we are giving useful feedback but it leads to a defensive reaction, arguments, even quarrels. Certain principles of feedback need to be scrupulously followed for it to have an effect and lead to change.

**PREREQUISITE FOR FEEDBACK**

Feedback can be effectively given and received only if the following prerequisites are available:

![Diagram of Johari Window with Trust, Openness, Caring, Concern for Others' Needs, and Acceptance]

It is ultimately the personal philosophy of the individuals involved that decides whether feedback is helpful, judgmental or evaluative. If a person feels no responsibility for the effect his behaviour has on others, if he does not care how they feel, feedback will have no effect on changing his behaviour. The receiver has to first realize that other's reactions ultimately do affect him, before he can accept and use feedback.
PRINCIPLES OF FEEDBACK

1. Do think of the needs of the other person and of what will be useful to him. Feedback should be constructive.

2. Don't speak only out of your own need to react or score off the other person. That is irresponsible and destructive.

3. Don't give feedback if the other person has made it clear that he does not want it.

4. Do choose the right time, climate and company to give feedback. Centrally it is most useful immediately after the event concerned, and not in some other situation, with some other group of people.

5. Don't make general statements, such as 'I feel annoyed because you never listen to me'. Unless you can give some specific examples, the receiver may not understand or believe what you are telling him.

6. Do describe your own feelings and reactions. For example, 'I felt hurt'. This is what you actually know.

7. Don't make general evaluative statements about the other person's character. For example, 'you are dominating and inconsiderate'. The person who is told this will probably react defensively.

8. Don't judge the other person's actions. For example, 'You were wrong to shout at me'. Statements like this will only produce a defensive reaction.

9. Don't describe the other person's feelings or motives or intentions. For example, 'you wanted to hurt me'. You do not know this; it is only your guess or interpretation. Such feedback will probably be rejected.

Once we receive feedback, we can analyse it, question ourselves intensely, discuss it with others, and try to understand the new information about ourselves without giving excuses for one's behaviour or denying it. Based on a more comprehensive understanding of ourselves, we can plan for self-development.

HOW TO PLAN FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT

The following steps are generally used in planning for self-development:

(a) Identify developmental areas

One can identify aspects about oneself that one would like to develop; for example, I want to reduce my aggressiveness or I would like to be able to say no without feeling guilty, etc.

[ 138 ]
(b) Prioritise these needs and assess their importance over the next few months

There may be several aspects of oneself that one would like to develop. Accordingly, one should assess what is more important and needs immediate attention. Choose one priority area to begin with.

(c) Identify obstacles in self and in environment

A thorough analysis of what the impeding factors that are likely to block this process of self-development should be identified. This could involve looking inside oneself—behavioural patterns, attitudes, temperaments, etc. One needs to also look into the environment, other people and situations that can create obstacles in the process of self-development.

(d) Planning activities

The next logical step is to decide how to go about improving that aspect of oneself. This entails detailed planning of activities that need to be carried out in order to achieve this goal. A time frame also needs to be developed for this plan.

(e) Seek others’ help

Self-development plans invariably necessitate seeking help from other persons. It is rather impossible to develop oneself in isolation, all by oneself. We need the help of others—our colleagues, family members, friends, etc.—to be able to engage in self-improvement activities. For example, if I want to develop my ability to express my emotions clearly, then I may request one or two persons I regularly interact with to provide me with encouragement and feedback in this regard.

(f) Monitor self-development

Any change process has to be regularly monitored in some form or the other. Self-development process also needs to be closely monitored. A mechanism for such monitoring needs to be evolved at the time of planning itself.

[For further reading on the topics covered in this part, refer to the Resource Section at the end of the book.]
RESOURCE
SECTION

SAMPLE TRAINING DESIGNS
LEARNING EXERCISES
READING AND RESOURCE MATERIAL

PART - 5
RESOURCE SECTION
A. SAMPLE TRAINING DESIGNS

(1) YOUTH TRAINING

Background:

The training programmes conducted by PRAYAS, Rajasthan are to help people more critically aware about their various problems and collectively join in the understanding and resolution process. This would involve sensitising the youth in the development of alternative leadership patterns in the interest of the tribal communities.

Training Objectives

1. To develop critical awareness of some youths about the problems faced by the tribal communities.
2. To expose them to a critical process of socio-political-economic analysis.
3. To concretise their desire for the need for change and discover appropriate alternatives.
4. To help evolve a plan of action and understand their roles in the same.
5. To clarify the role of the staff of PRAYAS in supporting these youth leaders in their work.

Participants:

Youths (male) from the neighbouring village/hamlets, 15-20 in number, between age group 20-30 years.

Duration/place of the Training Programme:

Three to four days residential programme, during the harvest period, at the PRAYAS campus.

Contents and Methods:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Training Method</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Sharing with Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations of the training Programme</td>
<td>Dyad-Sharing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Role, history, ideology, problems of PRAYAS as an organisation | Plenary session  
|                                               | Listing Past members  |
|                                               | Sharing Experiences   |
Problems of their Community

Main forces that have created the social system

Understanding local agents that perpetuate the present exploitative system

Recognising the value of change and examining various alternatives

Role of youth in bringing about the above changes and action-planning

Short lecture on PRAYAS
Small group discussion and Collage making
General Discussion

Role-play, sharing in small group
Plenary session

Role-play
Analysis in Plenary session

Plenary Discussion
Reading
Small Group Discussion
Case study

Exercise for each participant
Grouping on common approaches to the problem.

Evaluation and Follow-up:

Sharing in the general plenary - mid-term evaluation and after-training evaluation. Follow-up plans to be made during the evaluation session.

Remarks:

Use of local songs, folklore, cultural programmes, interspersed in between the programme to depict the various nuances of life of the tribals and their relationships with the power brokers.

Designed by: Preeti Oza, “Prayas” Rajasthan.

Source: Training of Trainers A manual for Participatory Training in Methodology, PRIA, Delhi, India, 1987.

(2) ORIENTATION OF PANCHAYATI RAJ INSTITUTION (PRI) FUNCTIONARIES ON LOCAL SELF GOVERNANCE AND GRASSROOTS DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Objectives

1. To make the Sarpanches understand the potential of 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment towards building a society on principles of Governance (SWARAJ)

2. To develop skill among the Sarpanches on practicing self governance and grass roots development

[ 141 ]
### Day First

**Afternoon**

- Introduction
- Context 73rd and 74th Constitutional amendment
- New roles, opportunities and challenges

**Methods/Time duration**

- Input

**Day Second**

**Morning**

- Local self governance
  - Salient features
  - Participation
  - Civil Power vs State Power
  - Autonomy
  - Dynamic

**Afternoon**

- Awareness Building on Hurdles to self governance

**Methods/Time duration**

- Case analysis
- Simulation
- Analysis

### Day Third

**Morning**

- Bottom up planning (Micro Planning)
  - Need based;
  - Social Justice
  - Sustainable
  - Locally managed and controlled
  - Feasible

**Methods/Time duration**

- Case analysis
- 1. Amodrapal (VIKSAT)
- 2. Urmul Trust
  - Fodder Security system.
- 3. Land Management
  - (AKRSP, Bharuch)
- 4. Rural Poverty programme (ASAG, Bharuch)

**Afternoon**

- Steps in micro planning and methods

**Methods/Time duration**

- Input and exercise

### Day Fourth.

- Data collection for micro planning and how to analyse the data for planning

**Methods/Time duration**

- Input, field exercise,
- Class room exercise

### Day Fifth

**Morning**

- Data collection for micro planning and how to analyse the data for

**Methods/Time duration**

- Input, field exercise,
- Class room exercise
planning

Afternoon  
Skill building on micro planning  
(Preparation of a micro plan)  
Exercise

Day Sixth.

Morning  
Presentation of micro plan and checking it as per the stated principles, Evaluation, follow up  
Exercise

Designed By. UNNATI, Ahmedabad.

Source: In Pursuit of Local Self Governance, PRIA, Delhi, India, 1994.
(3) SUPERVISORS & PROJECT OFFICER'S TRAINING UNDER NATIONAL ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMME.

DAY 1  Introduction
Sharing training objectives
Exercise on independence, interdependence and dependence
Self-study - NAEP Policy Document

DAY 2  Self-study
Experience in India and abroad on adult education
(i) Vietnam campaign
(ii) Purulia - West Bengal
(iii) Guinea-Bissau campaign
Individual reflection
Small group discussion on experience Simulation on Parliament
Subject - National Adult Education Policy
Document Learning from Simulations Evaluation.

DAY 3  Self-study
Article by two philosophers of adult education
Group discussion (Sensitivity exercise)
Developing survey techniques - team work exercise.

DAY 4,5  Field visit in eight subgroups. An area was defined for the survey. The task was to find out relevant information and learning needs of adults, and create an environment for forthcoming projects in the area.

DAY 6  Presenting a report
(Group-wise report presentation and discussion on interview and observation skills) Discussion on different aspects of report writing
Mid-term evaluation.

DAY 7  Self-study
'Re role and Functions of a Supervisor'
Discussion in small groups Developing a practical guideline for roles and functions Lecture on 'How to do Planning' Institution-wise exercise for long range and short range goals Evaluation.

DAY 8  Discussion on literacy
Functionality and consciousness-raising (small group/big group) Session with Director, Industries Discussion on teacher's role Simulation exercise on teacher's role Evaluation.

DAY 9  Lecture/discussion

DAY 10  Review of 10 days of training against objectives
Evaluation of the training (An evaluation sheet was distributed) Follow-up discussion on further learning needs. Closing and departures.

Designed by: SEWA MANDIR,
Rajasthan

Source: Participatory Training for Adult Educators, PRIA, New Delhi, India, 1987.
(4) TRAINING WOMEN VILLAGE HEALTH WORKERS

Background:

Gram Vikas, a rural-based organisation in Orissa has been working in the field of health, with a view to building the concept of self-reliant communities and encouraging use of simple, tribal and herbal curative services.

Health forms but a part of the larger development process taking place. Health training involves building a cadre of health workers from among the community.

Objectives:

1. To expose the participants to a feasible health care system, with a view to encouraging local practices and becoming self-reliant

2. To expose them to the working of the Government’s Primary Health Care Centre.

Participants

Illiterate women, who have had little or no exposure to what’s happening outside their environment

Duration/Time of Workshop:

Two-day residential programme during the pre-harvest period

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day/Timing</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Training Method</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Day 1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6-7 p.m.</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Self-sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8 p.m.</td>
<td>Dinner and songs</td>
<td>Small group discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-9 p.m.</td>
<td>Common health problems in the villages</td>
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<tr>
<td>Day 2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>Collating above problems</td>
<td>Songs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.15-11 a.m.</td>
<td>Concept of health</td>
<td>Pictures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.30-12.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Actions taken for health care</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Herbal medicines and their use</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Analysis of their health centre.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-4 p.m</td>
<td>Who is responsible for our health</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
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<tr>
<td>6-7.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Primary Health Care, functions of P.H.C.</td>
<td>Lecture</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>staff, their role in a village</td>
<td>Posters</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curative, preventive and promotive</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>health care</td>
<td>Health games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Summarisation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8-8.45 p.m.</td>
<td>Reflection on the health game</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.45-10.00 p.m. Their role as health workers Small group discussions
10.15-11 p.m. Summarisation Pictorial symbols
11-12 noon Meeting with concerned government medical officer Question/answer
12-1 p.m. Consolidation of their learning and plan for future

Designed by : Sanju, Gram Vikas, Narasinghpur, P.O. Mohuda,
Via-Berhampur. Orissa-760 002

Source : Training of Trainers, PRIA, Delhi, India. 1987.

(5) TRAINING OF TRAINERS
(A Training Programme with women of U.P. and Bihar)

Day 1 : Introducing Ourselves and Getting to Know each Other

Introducing ourselves, exploring ourselves and each other, connecting with each other as women through a series of games and exercises, using talking, voice, body and play.

Day 2 : Women, Family & Society

Where do we as women belong in family, in society? Who defines our role? What is the relationship between individual, Family and Society.

Day 3' : Women and Health

Common needs of the poor in rural and urban areas. How far do facilities and services exist? Special health problems of women. Our perspective on birth control. Showing of Phad (a health exhibition)

Day 4 : Women and Work

Double burden. Range of work and women’s participation in production process. Work and wages. Action and strategies for income generation by different groups.

Day 5 : Communication/Poster-Making

What forms of communication groups have been using? What is communication? Different media forms. Control of media in whose hands? Dominant images of women. Images that we could create. Developing themes for poster making and poster making in small groups.

Day 6 : Looking at and critiquing our posters. Different forms and the kind of communication relationship that we establish with people.

Afternoon : Women and Law
Laws within the family
Laws outside the family
Laws and people's action

Day 7 : **Theatre Work**


Preparation of 3 plays and one song.

Day 8 : **Evaluation**

Mornings - body exercise, voice training and learning cycling.

Daily :

Evenings - Showing slide shows, films, plays shows etc. Display of material brought by groups.

Designed by: JAGORI & ACTION INDIA

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Source: Participatory Training for Women. PRD, Delhi, India, 1989.

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(6) **PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL TRAINING PROGRAMME DESIGN**

**Objectives**

1. To increase understanding of principles of PRA
2. To develop understanding of the various methods of PRA
3. To increase skills in the methods and principles of PRA

**Day 1**

11.30 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. Welcome of participants and arrangements.
12.30 p.m. to 2.30 p.m. Lunch break
2.30 p.m. to 7.00 p.m. Introduction, expectations and training objectives

**Day 2**

8.45 to 9.00 a.m. Song

[ 147 ]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.00 a.m. to 10.00 a.m.</td>
<td>Share secondary data about the villagers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.00 a.m. to 10.15 a.m.</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.15 to 12.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Concept of PRA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30 p.m. to 2.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.30 p.m. to 3.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Discussion on Village eco-system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.30 p.m. to 3.45 p.m.</td>
<td>Break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.45 p.m. to 5.45 p.m.</td>
<td>Small group discussion on Rapport Building in the village.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.45 p.m. to 8.00 p.m.</td>
<td>Presentation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Consolidation</td>
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<td>Village visit for Rapport Building</td>
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**Day 3**

<table>
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<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.15 a.m. to 10.45 a.m.</td>
<td>Input on Village mapping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.45 a.m. to 1.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Practice with Villagers</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.30 p.m. to 3.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.30 p.m. to 8.00 p.m.</td>
<td>Review of the process</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.00 p.m. to 10.00 p.m.</td>
<td>Report writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.00 p.m. to 11.00 p.m.</td>
<td>Presentation and video review</td>
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**Day 4**

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<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tr>
<td>8.30 a.m. to 9.30 a.m.</td>
<td>Input on transect walk</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.30 a.m. to 1.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Practice in the Village</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.30 p.m. to 3.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.30 p.m. to 4.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Review of the process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.30 p.m. to 5.00 p.m.</td>
<td>Input on semi structured interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.15 p.m. to 8.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Report Writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.30 p.m. to 10.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Presentations</td>
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**Day 5**

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<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.30 a.m. to 3.30 p.m.</td>
<td>Transect walk and practice of semi structured interview in the village.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3.45 p.m. to 4.15 p.m.  Presentations
4.15 p.m. to 5.30 p.m.  Input on Pie diagram, Ven Diagram and Historical profile

**Day 6**

8.30 a.m. to 4.00 p.m.  Practice in the village of historical profile, Pie Diagram, Ven Diagram.
4.00 p.m. to 5.00 p.m.  Report writing
5.00 p.m. to 6.30 p.m.  Presentation and Video review
8.30 p.m.  Local Cultural Programme

**Day 7**

8.30 a.m. to 6.00 p.m.  Practice in the village on Ranking and Scoring seasonal diagram and wealth Grouping
6.00 p.m. to 8.00 p.m.  Report Writing

**Day 8**

8.30 a.m. to 7.00 p.m.  Preparation and presentation of data to Villagers, discussion with Villagers.
7.00 p.m. to 9.00 p.m.  Cultural Programme with Villagers
9.00 p.m. to 10.00 p.m.  Video of Cultural Programme

**Day 9**

8.00 a.m. to 9.00 p.m.  Evaluation of programme through written questionnaire
9.00 a.m.  End of Training

Designed by SAHBHAGI SHISHAN KENDRA - Lucknow, 1993
LEARNING EXERCISES

1. GETTING ACQUAINTED

Purpose

The first part of Meeting 1 helps participants know one another and the facilitators. It also sets the tone of the entire program. In most meetings, participants will sit in a circle and share their ideas. The facilitators will serve as guides for what to do and discuss.

Materials

Music (tape or record), if available

Small "objects," such as flowers, stars, or animals cut from coloured paper Count the number of participants and facilitators in your program and divide by two. This is the number of objects you will need. Cut two of each object, and three of one of the objects if you have an odd number of participants and facilitators.

A box or basket from which the paper cut-outs can be selected

Steps

1. Before this first meeting, think about how the women you’ve contacted feel about coming. Do the women know each other? Have they attended other kinds of meetings before? Will they feel shy or distrustful? It’s natural for the women to feel some hesitation about the meeting.

So, how can you help them feel comfortable? Think about how to make your meeting room friendly and warm. You might have music playing and some decorations, such as posters on the walls or flowers. Refreshments can be a good idea too.

When the participants finally arrive, welcome them warmly. Sit together in a circle. Remember if the women feel comfortable, they will be more likely to come to other meetings.

2. After everyone is seated in the circle, explain that the purpose of the meeting is to get to know something about each other and about the program. Ask if there are any questions. Now, you’re ready to start.

3. Have each participant and facilitator select a paper cut-out from the box or basket. Then, tell everyone to find a partner by matching objects. When all have found their partners, explain that they will have twenty minutes to interview each other. After the interviews, they will introduce their partners to the entire group. In the interviews, the partners should ask each other these questions (or three other questions you choose yourself):

- What would you like to have the participants know about you?
- What did you do yesterday?
• What was an especially happy event in your life?

4. Have the pairs do their interviews (20 minutes).

5. Get the group back together and go around the circle having partners introduce each other. Partners will tend to tell more than if a woman introduced herself.

6. Take a five minute break before the next part of this meeting.


(2) ICE BREAKERS AND GROUP GAMES

(a) Touch Blue

The trainer calls out a word e.g. ‘blue’, ‘floor’, ‘wood’, ‘grass’, ‘glass’ and so on. All the players must rush to touch whatever has been named. As soon as most people have touched it, the trainer calls the next word.

(b) Forming Groups

The players move about freely. The trainer calls out a number, for example, 3 or 7. The players have to immediately join together in groups of that number. Any spare players unable to form a group of the correct size are out of the game. The game continues till only two remain.

(c) Animal Pairs

Slips of paper are prepared, one for each player. The name of one animal is written on two slips, the name of another on two more slips and so on. The animals should be chosen for making commonly known and characteristic sound e.g. lion, hen, dog, cat, donkey, horse, duck etc.

The slips are folded and shuffled, and each player takes one. When the trainer starts the game, all players read the name of the animal on their slip and start to make the appropriate sound. Their objective is to identify the second player who is making the sound of the same animal.

(d) Swamy Says

Players spread out in front of the trainer. The trainer orders the players to do various actions such as touching their toes or raising their arms. Whether or not they must obey his orders depends on how the orders are given. If the trainer begins with the words ‘Swamy says’, the players must obey. If he does not begin with these words, they must not do the action. If a player makes a mistake he is out of the game.

(e) Numbers Game

Consecutively numbered pieces of paper are required, one for each player. Players sit in a circle with a volunteer in the centre. Each player draws a piece of paper with a number and keeps it hidden.
The volunteer in the centre calls out two numbers, for example 6 and 11. The players with these numbers have to now change places, while the player in the centre tries to anticipate them and take one of their places while they are moving. Since no are knows each others’ numbers, they have to establish communication without the player in the centre noticing. But if the player in the centre is successful, the one who loses his/her place must go to the centre.

(f) Mirrors

Players form pairs. The two members stand facing each other. One makes a series of gestures and/or facial expressions while the other copies him, trying to ‘mirror’ him. After a few minutes they exchange turns.

(g) Pushing and Shoving

Partners lock fingers, with arms extended over their heads. They push against each other, trying to drive each other to the wall.

(h) Songs, Vigorous Physical Exercises

(i) Buzzing Out!

This exercise asks the participants to use the number is to play a well-known game called Buzz. This ice-breaker is effective at any time during the learning program

Time Required: Approximately 10 to 15 minutes. Group Size: Best suited for a group of 20 or fewer participants.

Space Required: A room that has the potential for flexible seating

Material Needed: None.

1. The trainer first asks the group members to form a circular seating arrangement.

2. When the participants are seated, the group leader tells them that they are going to play Buzz, a well-known circle game. The group members are then asked to think of the number 4, numbers that contain 4 and numbers that are multiples of 4. For example 4, 8, 12 and 14.

3. The trainer solicits a volunteer to serve as the head of the circle and then explains the rules of the game.

a. The volunteer is to begin the exercise by saying “1”: the player to his or her right counts “2” and so on around the circle.

b. However, when the counting reaches a number that contains a 4, the player whose turn it is must replace the 4 with the word “buzz”. For example: The number 4 is “buzz”, 14 is “buzz” teen, and 24 is “twenty buzz”.

[ 152 ]
c. When the counting reaches a number that contains a multiple of 4, the player whose turn it is must say "buzz" for that multiple. For example: The number 8 becomes "buzz," as do the numbers 12 and 16.

d. After a "buzz," the next group member continues the counting. For example: 3, buzz, 5, 6, 7, buzz, 9, etc.

e. The counting must proceed as quickly as possible.

f. If a player does not insert "buzz" for a number containing 4 or for a number that is a multiple of 4, or if a player inserts a "buzz" which does not belong, he or she must leave the circle.

g. After an error has been made, the next participant starts the counting with the next number. For example: If a player failed to say "thirty buzz" for 34, the next player starts the game with 35.

h. The game continues until only one player, the winner, remains.

4. After explaining the rules, the trainer asks the volunteer to begin the counting.

5. The exercise continues for 10 minutes.

Variations
- The trainer may ask the group members to be some other number, such as 3 or 6; the number 2 is the most difficult.

- The trainer may substitute another word for "buzz." For example: "ding," "pop," or "bong"

(j) Ha

Activity  This exercise asks the participants to pass the word "ha" around a circle. This activity is generally more effective when used during the later stage of the training program or session.
Training Application

Timer Reference: Approximately 5 to 7 minutes.
Group Size: Best suited for a group of 20 or fewer participants.
Space Required: A room that has the potential for flexible seating.
Materials Needed: None.

Trainer Administration

1. The trainer first asks the group members to form a circular seating arrangement.

2. When the participants are seated, the group leader explains that the object of this game is for the participants, without laughing, to pass the word “ha” around the circle.

3. The trainer then designates one participant to be the head of the circle. That participant begins the game by saying “ha”.

4. The person sitting to his or her right must repeat the “ha” and then say another “ha.” The third person must say “ha, ha” and then given an additional “ha.” In this manner the “has” continues around the circle.

5. The game ends when all of the participants, trying not to laugh (a virtual impossibility), have repeated the “ha’s” that preceded them and then added their own “ha.”

(3) HOW ADULTS LEARN

The following three pictures help to raise the problems of motivation of adults and the methods used by adult educators. It helps people examine their role and approach to adults.

Procedure

a. Explain that you are going to put a series of posters on the wall.

b. Put the first one up and ask the group to describe:

i. What they see happening in the picture? (If they are shy, first give them a chance to discuss in 2's or 3's.)

ii. When they have mentioned all the main points, put up the second picture and ask the same question. Ask them to describe the two people who are raising their hands.

iii. Then put up the third picture, and again ask them to describe what is happening? When they have identified that the participants are dropping out of class, ask the following questions.
Discussion questions

1. Why is this happening? (Why are they dropping out?) If they only blame the participants, ask them also to look at the teacher’s behaviour.

2. Does this happen in adult classes you know about here?

3. What causes it to happen?

4. What could the ‘teacher’ do to involve the adults more deeply?

5. What do we need to do, to improve our classes with adults?

Summary

One summary after this discussion can be on Adult Learning Psychology by Malcolm Knowles. Another summary could be on how people learn.

How People Learn

Tests have shown that
People remember 20% of what they Hear,
40% of what they Hear and See,
and 80% of what They Discover For Themselves

Education should Stress Learning more than Teaching.
Where possible animators should create a learning situation where adults can discover answers and solutions for themselves.
People remember the things they have said themselves best, so teachers should not speak too much. They need to give participants a chance to find solutions before adding important points the group has not mentioned.

Time: 1½ hours

Materials: The three posters

(4) EXERCISE ON GENDER

Objectives:

To examine our assumptions about 'Male' and 'Female' behaviour to discover the origin of our Gender related characteristics.

Materials:

Diary or paper, Flip Chart

Time:

About One Hour

Process:

Each person write in their Diary responses to the following sentences.

1) I am glad to be a Woman because ........................................

2) Sometimes I wish I were a man because ....................................

If the group has men then,

1) I am glad to be a Man because ..................................................

2) Sometimes I wish I were a Woman because ..............................

(B) At this point members can share their responses. These can be written in 2 columns as responses and Sex role assumption which are behind the response.

(C) The group can then think of as many words as they can give up with under the headings MALE and FEMALE.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Caring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(D) Let the group see whether there are words which can apply to both lists.

(E) Explain that these are traditional Vs of Categorising Men and Women as where these ideas have come from? What makes it difficult for us to break out of these sex role identifies?

What is convenient about Stereotype Women and Men like this?

[ 157 ]
What is the kind of role in which women usually shows in advertisements, Films and Televisions? What kind of personalities do such women have?

(F) Let the participants write down all the qualities listed under Male and Female.
- Put an X besides this quality you see in yourself.
- Put a Tick Mark besides this quality you see in your closest companion of the opposite sex.
- Put an M besides this qualities you see in your mother.
- Put an F besides this quality you see in your Father.
- Put a D besides this quality which you want to develop in yourself.

(G) Let the participant sit in pairs and share with partners the kind of patterns that are coming out from this activity. Eg. I share the same Female Qualities as my mother.

Note:
This exercise works best when done quickly and lightly. Encouraging the participants to think generally and not personally. Keep it as fun.


(5) TRUST WALK

Objective:
To demonstrate the importance of developing trust among participants and to examine the expression of trust between participants.

Materials:
Chalk out a long path that contains plenty of obstacles and difficulties, e.g. stones, steps, bushes, uneven ground, doors, etc.

Time:
One hour

Process:
1. Form two-partner groups. (Members choose each other)
2. Explain to the participants that they will have to undertake an obstacle walk, with one partner blindfolded. They have to follow the facilitator.
3. One partner is blindfolded.
4. After the walk, reverse roles.
5. De-briefing:
   1. How did you feel during the walk (when blindfolded and when leading
your partner)
i. How did you feel about being totally dependent for your safety on your partner?
ii. Were you confident about your partner? Did you mistrust him/her? Why?
iii. How did you react at various difficult points during the walk?
iv. How did you use other parts of your body?
v. Does this happen in real life?
vi. Discuss elements of trust between people, organisations; dynamics of trust and non-trust positions.
vii. If the session has been video-taped, review the exercise in light of shared experiences.

Source: Training of Trainers PRIA, Delhi, India, 1987.

(6) MICROLAB

A self-contained package of exercises, which helps prepare participants to benefit maximally from a training programme, microlab is essentially a kind of laboratory training. Some highlight features of the microlab are:

- learning through experiencing
- experimenting with one’s behaviour
- mutual help
- openness in sharing feelings, experiences, concerns
- discovering and searching for solutions

Characteristic features of a microlab:

1. It helps unfreeze participants: it helps reduce inhibition and increase participation
2. It encourages participants to discover themselves through their own experiences
3. It enhances participation, through certain activities and exercises, it helps participants unfold and get to know each other
4. It stimulates thinking. The nature of the interesting activities and exercise, arouses considerable enthusiasm and curiosity on behalf of participants

Sample microlab for self-development:

This process helps participants to focus on the self, and go through an
experience of self-disclosure and self-reflection through a process of sharing

Time:
Two and a half hours

Steps:
1. Use a large hall for the purpose, so that participants can walk and sit freely
2. Participants are requested to leave all their papers and bags elsewhere
3. Each activity is timed between one and five minutes; the trainer needs to feel the pulse of the group
4. The participants have an intense emotional experience at the end of the exercise; only a brief sharing is done, if at all

The Trainer first introduces the activity.

Move
- What have you learnt about yourself today?
- Share it with one other person

Move
- Choose a partner, compliment him/her for something he/she has done well in the last two to three days

Move
- Sit in triads with members of both sexes
- Think of a situation where you felt happy
- What made you happy? Share with each other
- What makes you sad? Describe a situation where you felt sad

Move
- Choose a person you feel close to
- Tell him two of his/her strengths and two weakness that you might have noticed so far

Move
- Choose a triad
- Think of situations when you feel lonely. Describe it to each other
- What are you afraid of? When do you feel vulnerable? Share it

Move
- Be in touch with your feelings
- What is happening to you inside?

Move
- Form a triad
- What is one thing that you think others in this training group do not like about you? Share it. Why?
- Show affection for each other
Move
- Choose a new partner
- What kind of other actions irritate you, make you angry? When do not like about you? Share it. Why?

Move
- Choose a dyad (with a member of the opposite sex)
- What kinds of difficulties do you face in working with persons of the opposite sex? Why?
- Have you faced this type of difficulty so far in this programme?

Move
- Be in touch with feelings in yourself
- Inclusion collage
- Why do you feel this way? Share with one other person of your choice
- Stay with yourself!
- With a person depicting the centre of the training, choose to stand deciding whether you feel very close, or distant from the centre.


(7) SELF AWARENESS AND DEVELOPMENT

Objectives:
1. To reflect upon one's past life and experiences
2. To examine key influences that have had an impact on the present self

Time period:
1-1½ hours

Participants:
Group of learners

Process:
1. Introduction of exercise.
2. Participants are asked to choose any place in the room where they could relax in any form they decide.
3. Facilitator slowly gives instructions to participants:
   a. Recall your earliest memory, think about it. Was it pleasant? Was it unhappy? Who were the key people in your life? What were you doing? How do you feel? Note it down.
   b. Go back to your memories when you were five years old. Who was there? What were you doing? How do you feel? Note it down.
   c. Go back to your memories when you were 10 years old.
   d. Do you remember any critical incident before 10 years.
   e. Memories when you were 15 years old.
f. Memories when you were 20 years old.
g. Memories when you were 25 years old.

4. Write down your memories if you like.

5. What were your main concerns?

6. Who were the main persons who influenced you? And how?

7. Who are you? Describe yourself at least in five sentences.

8. What do you want to do in the future? Write it down.

9. What will you plan as your self-development goal for the next six months? Prioritise them.

10. How will you plan for your self-development?

   i. Which is your most important goal?
   ii. Whose help do you need?
   iii. What are the obstacles you will face?
   iv. How will you handle them?
   v. How will you monitor your progress on self-development?

Remarks:
Participants can share these with one other person, if they so desire


(8) SELF-IDENTITY

Objective:
To discover and learn about self

Materials:
Board and chalk

Time:
45 minutes

Process:
1. Ask learners to pick up anything (an object, a flower, etc.) in their environment that they personally identify with.

2. Share and discuss:
   i. Why did you choose it?
   ii. What does it represent to you?
What are the factors in your self and the environment that make you feel this way?

Do you want to change this image of self? How?

Source: Training of Trainers. PRATI, New Delhi, India. 1987.

(9) WHO AM I?

Objectives:

This exercise helps to promote the participants' self-awareness and confidence in expressing themselves. In many of the later meetings, participants will think about knowing themselves better and what's important to them. They identify many different parts of themselves or "roles."

Time:

30 minutes

Materials:

Newsprint and felt tip pens (or blackboard and chalk)

Process:

1. To start, explain to the participants that they will be thinking about themselves and what's important to them. We need to know ourselves before we can solve our problems.

2. Tell the women that they are going to play a game called 'Who Am I?'

3. Divide the women into groups of five or six members. Meet separately with each group and instruct the group to think of all the possible things they "are". Explain that the teams will then compete to see which team thought of the most. Take about five minutes for this step. (Some examples of "Who Am I?" are: mother, wife, sister, teacher, nurse, aunt, member of a certain association, farmer, seller, etc. The responses do not have to be formal "jobs," but "roles" that the women have in their lives.)

4. Now, start with the first member of the first team, and write her answer on the paper. For preliterate groups, draw a stick figure or symbol. (Note: To increase excitement, each item can be on only one list!)

5. Record the responses of a member of each team in turn. After all have responded, begin again with the first person. When the teams have no more answers, the team with the longest newspaper list is the "winner". But explain that they're all really "winners". They had a good time and found out more about themselves!

6. Your job in the discussion is to guide the participants in examining what they do and how they live. Here are some questions to use:

   - Which of these parts of yourself or "roles" did you choose yourself?
   - Which was in some way given to you?

[ 163 ]
• What are some of the things you do in your different roles?

• Which roles do you like? Why? Which don’t you like? Why not? Could you change these things?

• Are there some things that you would like to do or be that are not on the lists? How could you do or be these things?

**Ideas to take home:**

Participants should end his activity feeling an appreciation for the many things they are and do. Show your appreciation for the women and their different roles too. Also, point out to them the roles they chose themselves. There are some areas in which they have choice in their lives.

Take a five-minute break.


---

**10) INTERPERSONAL PERCEPTION**

**Objectives:**

Self-development cannot take place in isolation. An important aspect of self-development is to check one’s perception of the self with other people—do they see me as I see myself? This exercise helps validate certain perceptions of the self as well as re-look at aspects in the self that are not congruent with other’s perceptions.

**Questionnaire:**

45 items

**Time period:**

90 minutes

**Materials:**

Pen, paper

**Process:**

1. Participants are divided into triads according to their choice.

2. Each participant is given the questionnaire and asked to fill it himself/herself on column A.

3. The other two members of the triad fill the questionnaire for each other on columns B and C.

4. The responses are then shared; similarities and differences identified; reasons for those perceptions are also analysed.

5. Each participant can then prepare a window for himself/herself.
Interpersonal Perception

Remarks:
This exercise can be very useful after the input on Jo-Hari window, and principles of feedback.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you someone who</td>
<td>keeps trying until you succeed</td>
<td>prefers to work by yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>listens carefully to others</td>
<td>takes an active role in a group</td>
<td>wants to do what is fun and does not worry about the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>takes an active role in a group</td>
<td>listens carefully to others</td>
<td>tells jokes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>often interrupts others</td>
<td>tends to decide in haste</td>
<td>would take the blame for a co-worker's failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tends to decide in haste</td>
<td>often interrupts others</td>
<td>has a high commitment to your work group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in work-oriented</td>
<td>in work-oriented</td>
<td>believes that most people can be trusted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tries to make others feel at ease</td>
<td>tries to make others feel at ease</td>
<td>will let people take undue advantage of you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>waits for others to greet first</td>
<td>waits for others to greet first</td>
<td>is relationship-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gets ahead by pushing others in the background</td>
<td>gets ahead by pushing others in the background</td>
<td>is a difficult person to manage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefers to work by yourself</td>
<td>wants to do what is fun and does not worry about the future</td>
<td>asks others for help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tells jokes</td>
<td>would take the blame for a co-worker's failure</td>
<td>is satisfied with yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has a high commitment to your work group</td>
<td>believes that most people can be trusted</td>
<td>is much too independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will let people take undue advantage of you</td>
<td>is relationship-oriented</td>
<td>volunteers to help others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a difficult person to manage</td>
<td>is satisfied with yourself</td>
<td>gets upset under pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asks others for help</td>
<td>is much too independent</td>
<td>tries to get things done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is satisfied with yourself</td>
<td>volunteers to help others</td>
<td>will work for social welfare even if it means considerable sacrifice for you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is much too independent</td>
<td>gets upset under pressure</td>
<td>wants things done your way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volunteers to help others</td>
<td>tries to get things done</td>
<td>makes friends easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gets upset under pressure</td>
<td>will work for social welfare even if it means considerable sacrifice for you</td>
<td>is a thoughtful friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tries to get things done</td>
<td>makes friends easily</td>
<td>has difficulty in saying no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will work for social welfare even if it means considerable sacrifice for you</td>
<td>is a thoughtful friend</td>
<td>is warm and friendly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wants things done your way</td>
<td>has difficulty in saying no</td>
<td>does things on the spur of the moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>makes friends easily</td>
<td>is warm and friendly</td>
<td>does not reveal himself/herself to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a thoughtful friend</td>
<td>has difficulty in saying no</td>
<td>does not reveal himself/herself to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has difficulty in saying no</td>
<td>is warm and friendly</td>
<td>does the minimum necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is warm and friendly</td>
<td>does things on the spur of the moment</td>
<td>prefers to work with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does things on the spur of the moment</td>
<td>does not reveal himself/herself to others</td>
<td>can't keep a secret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>does not reveal himself/herself to others</td>
<td>prefers to work with others</td>
<td>manages difficult situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefers to work with others</td>
<td>can't keep a secret</td>
<td>lacks control of emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can't keep a secret</td>
<td>manages difficult situations</td>
<td>is serious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manages difficult situations</td>
<td>lacks control of emotions</td>
<td>is highly result-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lacks control of emotions</td>
<td>is serious</td>
<td>is willing to consider and accept other's suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is serious</td>
<td>is highly result-oriented</td>
<td>support others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is highly result-oriented</td>
<td>is willing to consider and accept other's suggestions</td>
<td>takes personal responsibility for your own performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is willing to consider and accept other's suggestions</td>
<td>support others</td>
<td>finds it difficult to relax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>support others</td>
<td>takes personal responsibility for your own performance</td>
<td>finds it difficult to relax</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Training of Trainers, PRIA, New Delhi, India, India, 1987
(11) SELF AWARENESS WORKSHEET

Respond to the following questions:
1. Many people don't agree with me about.
2. The happiest day in my life was
3. When I'm alone at home, I
4. My bluest days are
5. My best friend can be counted on to
6. I am best at
7. People can hurt my feelings most by
8. In a group I am
9. People who seldom let me know where they stand
10. People who agree with me make me feel
11. Strong independent people
12. When people depend on me, I
13. I get angry when
14. I have accomplished
15. I get a real pleasure from being part of a group when
16. People who expect a lot from me make me feel
17. The things that amuse me most are
18. I feel warmest toward a person when
19. I feel I can't get across to another person
20. What I want most in life is
21. When someone hurts me, I
22. I often find myself
23. I am

You may wish to share your responses in your group, with family, friends, etc.

(12) ADVANTAGES OF GROUPS

'MEMORY GAME'

Purpose

The first part of this meeting shows the advantages of cooperative group action over individual action. The activity helps participants think about the value of working as a group. A group can often accomplish a task more quickly and effectively than an individual can.

Materials

A bag containing about 20 local objects (such as articles of clothing, utensils, thread, a stone, and so on)

Two posters: A woman visiting an office alone and women visiting an office together/Make your own posters. Time 45 mins.

Steps

1. Begin by saying that you'd like everyone to play a "memory game". Don't tell participants the purpose of the game. Dump all the objects from the bag onto a table. Tell participants that everyone should try to remember all the objects as you put them back in the bag. Put these objects in the bag one at a time. When you put each object in the bag, say what it is. Give participants a chance to look at it. But, don't go too slowly.

2. When all the objects are in the bag, explain that one individual alone will try to remember the objects and the other group members together will try to remember the objects. Explain that this is not a competition. But, it will be interesting to compare the results of individual effort and group effort. Ask for one volunteer who will try to remember the objects on her own.

3. Meet with the volunteer and write down her list. Then, meet with the other group members and write down their list. The volunteer and the group should be far enough apart so they cannot hear each other. For literate groups, write the lists on newsprint so they can be compared.

4. Bring the individual back to the group. Read her list first. For literate groups, post the newsprint. For pre-literate groups, take the objects from the bag as you read the list. Then, read the group list. Make sure to compliment the volunteer for her contribution. In almost all cases, groups will do better than individuals on this task. So she shouldn't feel like she's failed.

5. Discuss the results of the "memory game". The difference between the two lists should be clear, unless the volunteer had a very, very good memory. Encourage the participants to think about why the group list was longer. What does this tell them about the strengths of groups?

- Compare the two lists. Which is longer? (If the individual and group lists
are almost the same, point out how unusual this is and how groups usually tend to remember more.)

- Why was the group able to complete the task better than the individual? What strengths do groups have that individuals don't have?

- Show the two posters. How would you compare the two pictures? Who do you think will be more effective? Why?

- Think about your own life. What could you do better as a member of the group than as an individual?

6. If your group has completed the previous four meetings on “Women and Work”, also ask:

- What ideas did the game give us about cooperative work activities?

**Ideas to take home**

Summarize some of the advantages and strengths of “working as a group” which the participants identified. Note that groups can have disadvantages, too. Sometimes groups are ineffective because members do not know how to work together. However, group activity is important in all our lives. We can use it to accomplish goals and to solve problems. The next activity will help participants improve skills to be effective group members.

(13) BROKEN SQUARES"

OBJECTIVES
To involve participants in an activity in which they can experience dynamics of communication and cooperation.

To help them see the importance of cooperation in order for a group to carry out a task and/or achieve a goal. Time 45 mins

MATERIALS
One set of Broken Squares for each team of five (Bristol board, 5"x5")
Rules of the game on newsprint or chalkboard

METHOD
1. Divide the participants into teams of five players, and assign at least one observer to each team.

2. Introduce the activity by explaining that the game they are about to play is a learning experience that will be discussed later.

3. Mix each set of 15 pieces, and distribute three pieces at random to each of the five players in each team.

4. Say to the teams: "Each member of your team has three pieces of paper. When I say 'begin', the task before the five of you is to form five perfect squares. Your task will not be complete until each of you has in front of you a perfect square of the same size as those of the other four players.

Here are the rules of the game.
- No team member may speak.
- Team members may not signal others to give them a piece.
- Members may, however, give pieces of paper to other team players.
- The observer for each team will watch to be sure that team member observes the rules.

5. Tell the teams to begin. (Allow 20 minutes).

6. At the end of the allotted period show those players who have been unable to complete the task how to form the five squares.

7. Let the observers lead a discussion about the activity:
- Who was willing to give away pieces of the puzzle?
- Did anyone finish his or her puzzle and then separate from the rest of the group?
- Was there anyone who continually struggled with the pieces, but was unwilling to give any or all of them away?
- Was anyone in the group frustrated?
- Was there any critical point when the group began to cooperate?
- Did anyone try to break the rules by talking or pointing?

Source: Getting the community into the Act Pat Ellis WAND, West Indies, 1983.

[ 169 ]
(14) WIN AS MUCH AS YOU CAN—INTERGROUP COMPETITION

Objectives:
To highlight the merits and demerits of both the competitive and collaborative models of intergroup relations

Materials:
A large open space or room, chart paper, pen, black-board and chalk

Time:
1½ hours

Process:
1. Four groups are formed
2. They are seated as shown in the following illustration:
3. The facilitators stand in the centre of these groups and explain the rules:
4. 

i. The purpose of this game is to ‘win as much as you can’.
ii. The game is to be played in 10 rounds.
iii. Each group has to make a choice between two symbols, X or Y.
iv. The pay-off depends upon the choice made by all the groups. It is as follows:
   a. 4X: Every group loses 1 point
   b. 3X: Groups playing X win 1 point each
   c. 2X: Groups playing X win 2 points each
   d. 1X: Groups playing X win 3 points
   e. 4Y: Each group wins 1 point.
5. Groups must not communicate with the other group members during the rounds.
6. In each group, members should agree, upon a single choice for each round.
7. Other groups should not know the choices made by one group alone.
8. Two-three minutes are given to make the choice in each round.
9. After the choice is made, the facilitator asks each group their choice, and announces the overall result (say “two X and two Y”...).
10. Each group notes down their score accordingly, without revealing it to the other group.
11. If any questions are asked, the facilitators’ response should be, the name of the game is ‘win as much as you can’.
12. The game continues for rounds two, three and four.

13. At the end of round 4, a bonus is announced. The scores are to be doubled. Before the groups are to make their choices, the facilitator allows one representative from each group to negotiate with representatives of the other groups for 5 minutes.
14. Rounds 5 and 6 are played.
15. On completion of round 8, participants are all invited into the centre, to negotiate openly.
16. Rounds 9 and 10 are played.

Debriefing:

i. Who has won the game? Why?
ii. Does winning in a small group mean more to you than winning of all the groups together?
iii. How did you feel in the process?
iv. Can you relate it to the outside world?
v. The effects of competition and collaboration can be discussed.


(15) STAR POWER: SIMULATION OF INEQUALITY

Objectives:
To understand and experience the inequality in society.

Time
Three hours

Materials and requirements:
A large room, squares, circles, stars (made on paper), chips—gold, green, red, white and blue, chairs, blackboard, chart paper, pen

Process:
1. Divide the participants into three approximately equal groups—stars, circles and squares. Each person to wear symbol representing his/her group. Each set of participants sits in a circle, away from the other two sets.

2. Each participants is given five chips.
   
   i. Each square is to be given one gold chip, one green chip and the remaining three are randomly selected from red, white and blue.
   
   ii. Each circle is to be given one green chip and the remaining four randomly selected from the other three colours.
   
   iii. The stars are to be given a random assortment of red, white and blue chips.
   
   iv. The only exception is that one star and one circle is to receive the same chips as the square i.e., one gold, one green and three random of red, white and blue.

3. The chips required:
The total number of chips required is:
i  5 x number of participants.

ii Gold chips = number of squares + 2.

iii Green chips = number of squares + number of circles + one.

iv Red, white and blue chips should be about equal in number
   For red = 5 x number of participants minus gold + green chips.
   Similarly for blue and white chips.

v Every gold chip = 50 points; green chip = 30 points; red chip = 15 points;
   white chip = 10 points, blue chip = 5 points.

4. Explaining the rules:

i. Tell the participants that this is a trading and bargaining game and the
   three persons who get the highest score will be the winners. (Do not tell
   them that the winning group is going to be given the right to make the
   rules of the game).

ii Explain the scoring system to the group. (This is written on a chart
   paper). Additional points are given if a person is able to get several chips
   of the same colour. Five chips of the same colour = 30 points.
   Four chips of the same colour = 10 points
   Three chips of the same colour = 5 points
   e.g. A person’s total score if he has five gold chips = 250 + 30 (for five
   of the same colour).

iii Distribute the chips to the participants into three small groups—
   squares, circles and stars.

iv Explain the rules of bargaining (written on chart paper)
   a. Participants will get 10 minutes to improve their score.
   b. The scores can be improved by trading with other squares, circles and
      stars.
   c. Persons should hold hands to effect a trade.
   d. Only one to one trading is legal.
   e. If a participant touches the hand of another participant, a chip of
      unequal value of colour must be exchanged.
   f. If a pair cannot complete a trade, they may have to hold hands for the
      entire 10 minutes of the trading session.
   g. There should be no talking unless they are trading and hands are
      touching.
   h. Persons who do not wish to trade can fold their arms. This indicates
      no further trading.
   i. All chips should be hidden. This is very important
j. Do not reveal to the participants that one group (squares) has been
given higher value chips than the others.

Begin the trading session:

1. Start the trading session. Tell participants it is for 10 minutes.
2. While the trading is going on, the facilitators can put down the initials of
each participant on the black board.
3. After 10 minutes of trading, each group should return to the circle of chairs
4. The scores of each participant should be noted down on the board.
5. Explain the rules for bonus points.
   These rules are:
   i. Explain that there is a bonus point chip.
   ii. Each group would be given three chips—each chip is worth 20 points
   iii. The group members have to decide whom to distribute these bonus chips to
   iv. The chips must be distributed in units of 20 only.
   v. The group has five minutes to distribute the bonus chips, decisions taken should be unanimous. If they are unable to decide at the end of five minutes, the points will be taken back by the facilitator and no one will receive them.
6. Start the bonus chip session.
7. End the bonus chip session five minutes later.
8. Record the bonus points received by the participants on the board.
9. The facilitator announces that a circle or a star has a higher number of
points than a square, they trade and change positions. It is announced to
the group that the circle has become a square, a star, etc.
10. The second round is started.
11. The process is repeated—bonus session, and changing groups.
12. After the second bonus session, announce that the squares have the
authority to make the rules for the game because "they worked so hard". If
the group wants to suggest rules, the squares will decide which once to
implement. Give squares 10 minutes to frame rules. Announce the rules
that the squares want to establish to all the participants and start the third
trading session.
13. From here on, follow the developments. You may want to stop the exercise
if you see that as a result, open or silent hostility has emerged. In any case,
stop the exercise after three full rounds are over. What may happen is that
the rules made by the squares will be to protect their own power. The circles
and stars will either give up, organise, become hostile, or defy the rules.
Stop the game when it is clearly evident that the squares have made rules which others consider oppressive and unjust.

**TAKE A BREAK**

**Debriefing:**

The following questions can be asked.

i. What are you feeling?

ii. What happened to you in the game?

iii. How did you feel being a square, circle or a star?

iv. Are there any parallels between the game and the world outside it?

v. What did you feel during the game as you won or lost?

vi. Would there have been any difference if the people who had been circles were squares?

vii. Were the squares acting with legitimate authority? How did they get this authority?

viii. Were things different when a whole group reacted together against the squares, rather than one individual alone?

ix. Did you at any point feel that you had surrendered your individuality to the group? What happened after you did this?

**Note:**

To highlight the role of the 'Change-agent' in Star Power, one or two articulate members of the squares could be selected to help the poor circles and stars. (This should be done after the squares make the rules). They should then be left free to handle the situation the way they want to.


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**16 THE CASE OF THE NEW DIESEL JEEP**

An Exercise in Organisational Decision Making

**1. General Instruction**

You are incharge of the various rural community centres run by a Rural Development Agency (RDA). You have several sub-centres to supervise, besides making visits to the RDA headquarters in Bhubaneshwar.

Each of you have been allocated a Jeep which, apart from you is also used for general community centre work, of course with your permission. Although the Jeep is allotted primarily for official use, in small places, such as those where you live, most of your work can be said to be official or quasi-official. The Jeep, and its general condition, also spells an element of personal prestige among the
other officials and non-officials in your area of operation. It is, therefore, natural for you to have a possessive feeling about your Jeep. You like to have a new Jeep as and when available not only because it looks nicer, gives you greater social status but also because it is trouble-free.

Here are some facts about the Jeeps that incharges of community centres reporting to Mr. Rehman, Chief Coordinator of RDA, have:

**Mr. Narshingh**: Senior-most among community Centre incharges. He has a diesel Jeep, 2 years old. Location 50 Kms. from Bhubaneswar.

**Mr. Joshi**: Incharge for 5 years. Has a Land-Rover 5 years old. Location 45 Kms. from Bhubaneswar.

**Mr. Chatterjee**: Incharge for 5 years. Has a diesel Jeep, 4 years old. Location 70 Kms. from Bhubaneswar.

**Mr. Srinivasan**: Incharge for 3 years. Has a diesel Jeep, years old. Location 75 Kms. from Bhubaneswar.

**Mr. Mehta**: Incharge for 2 years. Has a petrol Jeep 5 years old. Location 55 Kms. from Bhubaneswar.

Mr. Narsingh and Mr. Joshi, cover somewhat larger areas than the rest. All of you have a standard budget to cover use of the vehicle.

Rehman has just received a attractively coloured new diesel Jeep for replacing one of the existing Jeeps. Mr. Rehman is in the process of taking a decision as to which community centre should be given this Jeep: and what other consequential reallocation of vehicle may be necessary, if at all.

**II. Mr. Rehman’s brief**

You have just received the new diesel Jeep. For the first time you have got this new Jeep to replace an old one. You have been in this organisation only for the last 1½ years.

You have the problem of deciding as to which of the Community Centres should get it. Often there are hard feelings because each community centre Incharge seems to feel that he deserves a new Jeep: so, you have a tough time being fair.

Your confidential data are :

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Task-related competence</th>
<th>Condition of Jeep</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Narasingh</td>
<td>Average Incharge-has a bossing tendency</td>
<td>Good condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Joshi</td>
<td>Average Incharge, but is usually vocal on behalf of his tribe. Is said to have contacts in influential circles.</td>
<td>Below Average Condition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[ 175 ]
Mr. Chatterjee  Above average. His wife works at a location in the neighbouring district. Finds reason to visit that area as often as possible on whatever pretext within rules

Mr. Srinivasan  Below average Incharge

Mr. Mehta  Very competent Incharge

Plan how you are going to act in the matter.

III. Mr. Narsingh's brief  CONFIDENTIAL

You are the Seniormost among Community Centre Incharges. You do expect a more responsible assignment within-RDA in about one year. Seniority to you, is a valid ground for deciding on the allocation of the new Jeep. Your Jeep which is in a good condition can be given to another Community Centre. Your Community Centre is also extensive compared to some others. Plan your strategy in the matter.

IV. Mr. Joshi's brief  CONFIDENTIAL

Your Land-Rover is almost junk. You are the second seniormost Community Centre Incharge in the RDA. You are also respected by other incharges who accept your leadership; and it is unlikely that anyone will grudge if the new jeep is given to you. You have connections in the right places, and the chief coordinator is aware of it. You do not see any reason why the Jeep cannot be given to you. Plan your strategy in the matter.

V. Mr. Chatterjee's brief  CONFIDENTIAL

Quite a large amount of driving that you do is long distance; and you enjoy driving. Quite often you drive the Jeep yourself; and only if you are not travelling does the driver get to use the Jeep. Besides, you have proved to be effective as Incharge of your community centre, and the various programmes are making good progress in your area. You will see allocation of the new Jeep in you as a recognition of your performance. Plan your strategy in the matter.

VI. Mr. Srinivasan's brief  CONFIDENTIAL

Your Jeep was hit sometime ago by a way-ward truck while parked on the road outside the RDA office in Bhubaneshwar, where you were attending a meeting. Since then, the body rattling continues. Your Community Centre is also farther
from the RDA office compared to some others. You would like to get rid of the present ramshackle vehicle. Plan your strategy in the matter.

VII. Mr. Mehta's brief

Although the junior most among the Community Centre Incharge, you have proved to be the most successful of the lot. Figures speak for themselves. Yet, you have a petrol Jeep, that too in a bad shape. Diesel Jeep is the going thing being more economical. Jeep is a functional necessity and the element of seniority should not stand on the way to your claim on the new Jeep. Plan your strategy in the matter.

Source: Management of Voluntary Organization, Training Report, PRJA, Delhi, India

(17) SOCIETY FOR ORGANISING AND UPLIFTMENT OF THE POOR (SOUP)

The exercise is best used for understanding and becoming sensitive to decision-making and conflict-resolution processes that take place in a small group. This exercise has been specially designed to highlight nuances, conflicts and tensions that take place within a group of people wherein there is hierarchy, vested interests, differences in perceptions and perspectives etc.

This exercise can be done with several small groups of 8 or so. It is essential that the members have an experience of working in voluntary agency.

15 minutes for debriefing of the exercise

Time: 45 minutes - 1 hour for the actual exercise
1 hour for debriefing

Process

1. Small groups of nine members each need to be formed. In each group, a specific role (as per the exercise) be allocated to each member of the group. Who plays what roles should be decided by the facilitators earlier on based upon the abilities that the members of the team have in being able to realistically play the role and ensure that learning focus is kept uppermost in their minds. Should there be more than 9 members per group, they may be allocated special roles as observers or invites from other voluntary organisations, etc.

2. a) The facilitator explains the exercise to each group as follows. (One facilitator per group is essential). Each member of the group is given the overall brief to be read. After the clarifications and questions, each member in his/her role is introduced to the members and a name tag given to each member.

b) The facilitator briefs each individual to his/her role separately (by taking him/her out of the room). Other members should not know about the individual briefs of each other.
c) Once everyone has understood their role and the task, the exercise be started.

d) The facilitator, thereafter, is to observe the process only and take notes about how the decision-making process is taking place and conflicts being handled.

e) After 45 minutes-1 hour the exercise be ended.

f) A five minutes break be given.

**Debriefing Process**

1. To be done separately in each group
2. Questions to be asked:
   a) What decisions have you arrived at
      a:
      b:
      c:
   b) How do you feel about each of these decisions and why? (ask each member)
   c) What processes did your group go through in arriving at a particular decision?
   d) Can you draw parallels of this process to your real life situation

This conceptual framework of the debriefing process is to highlight the processes of decision-making and conflict resolution and learn about what factors promote and hinder effective decision-making and role of individuals in the same.

**SECRETARY**

You are one of the persons who set up SOUP and have been its Secretary and the Chief Executive functionary since its inception.

You have convened this emergency meeting of the Executive Board to consider the three agenda items. You should introduce the agenda and ask the permission of the President to discuss them one by one and provide the necessary information.

On the first item, you feel that the project proposal of credit to the Sanghams is a good one and meets the needs of the people but is clearly against the policies of SOUP, since no consultations has been possible with the Sanghams. A decision on this needs to be conveyed to the Government for release of funds within a week. You are in two minds whether SOUP should accept it right away or delay it. The delay will of course, have implications.
You are sympathetic to the need to raise worker's salaries as you believe that they are presently underpaid and somewhat, exploited. You feel that this increase can be budgeted in the next year in future programme and past savings of SOUP can be possibly used during this year.

The budget for the current year of Rs. 40 lakhs has funds available only upto 35 lakhs. About Rs. 1 lakh worth of expenses on administration and overheads are not covered. It is possible to reduce some costs of the programmes according to the available funds, it is rather difficult to reduce the administrative and overhead expenses. You feel that past savings could be possibly used to cover this deficit or SOUP may be forced to retrench about 30 staff members immediately.

The proposal to the Government would entail giving Rs. 10,000 for each credit union of Sanghams as seed money. You are entitled to 20% administrative and operating costs, which will contribute to your staff salaries in the field and office. You essentially raise costs only through such projects. The present salary bill of all SOUP staff has been increasing of late, and has reached 40% of the total budget of SOUP.

TREASURER : 50 years old

You work as an Honorary Treasurer of SOUP for the last 5 years and are associated with a number of voluntary organisations. You feel that the finances of SOUP are not managed tightly and various cost-cutting measures are not implemented. You are particularly concerned about this year's budgetary shortfall because of over commitment to staff and programmes and not enough funds.

This year SOUP's total budget is Rs. 50 lakhs out of which Rs. 20 lakhs is spent on salaries of staff. The total available saving of SOUP in the Fixed Deposit with nationalised banks is Rs. 10 lakhs, bringing in an annual interest of Rs. 1 lakh.

You feel that these savings must be retained and increased so that SOUP gradually becomes self-reliant. If savings are used in salaries or programmes, then SOUP may become financially vulnerable and non-viable.

Should salaries be increased, you strongly feel that staff size should be reduced. There is some overstaffing in the field. About 15% reduction in field staff strength is possible without effecting current quality of field work.

PROJECT COORDINATOR : 28 YEARS OLD

You have been working in SOUP for the last 8 years. You joined as a field worker and have been promoted every two years because of your good performance.

You feel that the project on credit should be accepted by SOUP, since it will benefit the Sangham members in any case. You generally support the Secretary, but feel that upward revision of salary of staff is desirable.
FIELD WORKER -1 : 25 years old

You have been a field worker of SOUP for the last 4 years. You are very hardworking, capable and popular with the sanghams and your colleagues.

However, you feel that the new strategy of SOUP must be implemented and no project should be accepted without the consultation of the sangham at any cost. You feel that SOUP does not take care of its staff properly and its leaders are interested in saving money rather than paying good salaries.

You are also related to the local MLA.

FIELD WORKER -2 : 30 years old

You have been working in SOUP for the last 10 years; first as a sangham leader. You are very committed and serious, though your education is only upto class V.

You strongly feel that SOUP should not accept any project without the consultation of the sanghams. You are also concerned about the increase in salary of field staff.

SOCIAL WORKER: 70 years old

You are a staunch Gandhian. You have worked during the freedom movement and also in many programmes of constructive work afterwards. You feel that the present generation of workers in voluntary organisations like SOUP show less commitment to selfless service and are bothered more about their salaries. However, you try to please everyone as part of your nature and do not like any conflicts in front of you.

WOMAN SOCIAL WORKER : Age 40 years

You are actively involved in the women’s movement. You feel that SOUP is not sensitive to women’s issues and does not focus enough attention on it in its programmes. You feel that the members of the Executive Board pay only ‘lip service’ to women’s issues. Therefore, you make it a point to raise the issue of women in every meeting and every agenda item.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER : 65 years old

You are a retired government official working in SOUP for the last 5 years. You feel that it is a promising organisation but the salary structure is very poor. Unless something is done soon to increase the salary, many good workers may leave the organisation.

Your job is to assist the Secretary in performing his day to day functioning and in keeping minutes of the various meetings.
(18) CASE STUDY

Brief:
In a small village, a body of a woman was discovered in the fields. She had been raped and then murdered. A complaint was made to the local police station. A few days later, a poor farmer was arrested on charges of murder of the woman. He denied any knowledge of the same. He was given no say in the matter.

The women in the village had found out that the moneylender of the village was the culprit. In a small group, they met the Thandesar and put forth their complaints along with the harassment they were being subjected to by the moneylender and his gang. Their voices went unheard.

Days passed. The women’s group got stronger and more vociferous. Small meetings were held at different corners in the village. They sought to gather support from the women in the nearby villages. With this massive display of support, they pressurised the local authorities to take stern action against the culprits. Faced with this onslaught, the authorities had no alternative but to succumb to the pressure and bring the culprits to book. The innocent farmer was also released.

Discussion:

i. What are the salient features of this case study?

ii. What were the significant actions taken and what were the consequences of these actions?

iii. What are the implications of power and authority operating upon poor villagers?

iv. Could the situation be handled any other way?

v. How do we handle similar situations in real life?


(19) ROLE-PLAY

Objective: To demonstrate the evils of alcoholism and its effects on the family

Time: 45 minutes - 1 hour

Process:

1. Eight trainees volunteer to participate
2. Explain to them their roles in the room outside
3. The various roles are:
   i. drunk husband
   ii. harassed wife
   iii. crying children
iv. local liquor vendor
v. neighbour—a woman and her husband (who is non-alcoholic and works in a factory)

3. Explain to them very briefly what they should exhibit in their roles
4. Role-play for 10 to 15 minutes.
5. The other members of the groups would be observers. If they wish they can take down notes

6. De-briefing session

To the Observers:

1. What happened during the role play?
2. What struck you about the relationships that were exhibited?
3. How were the different situations handled?
4. Could it have been done differently?

To the Actors:

1. What did you feel about the role you played?
2. What were your reactions to particular situations? Why?

ADDITIONAL READING
& RESOURCE MATERIAL

SECTION ONE : UNDERSTANDING PARTICIPATORY TRAINING


SECTION TWO : WORKING WITH GROUPS


SECTION THREE: DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING A TRAINING PROGRAMME


2. SRINIYASAN, LYRA (Undated): Options for Educators. Dacca, Bangladesh Pact CDS


SECTION FOUR: BECOMING A MORE EFFECTIVE TRAINER


