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Non-Formal Education: A Manual on Organizing Workshops for Training Rural Facilitators

M. Kalim Qamar

A MANUAL ON

ORGANIZING WORKSHOPS FOR TRAINING

RURAL FACILITATORS

M. Kalim Qamar (Editor)

NONFORMAL EDUCATION

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RURAL FACILITATORS

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FOREWORD

The objective of this manual is to provide guidance for those persons involved in the Nonformal Education Project who will be organizing training workshops for rural facilitators for nonformal education purposes. Since this document is a by-product of a workshop organized for those members of the Center for International Education who were leaving for different West African sites during summer in order to conduct rural facilitator training workshops, it is limited in its scope. This is not a workshop report, however.

The usefulness of this manual mainly lies in treating it as a possible way of organizing a workshop for facilitator training. Hence it should be comprehended as a process. Details regarding the subject-matter, content, timing, etc. should be looked at as something which demands necessary revisions, additions and deletions. Such adjustments will be determined by several situational factors such as geographical location, audience, human and material resources available, etc. This manual presents just one "case study."

Various sections and subsections included in this manual are the result of discussions among a large number of participants during various sessions of the workshop but the sections in publishable form were contributed by the following:

-Alternate Models for Workshop Design . . . George E. Urch
and Richard O. Ulin

-Data Gathering . . . . Carol M. Martin

-Methods and Techniques Within a Workshop . . Vasudevan Nair
-Rural Facilitators . . . . M. Kalim Qamar
-Assessing the Village Situation . . . . . Vasudevan Nair
-Steps in Needs Identification . . . . . . Carol M. Martin
-Problem Solving . . . . George E. Urch
-Hypothesis Generation . . . . M. Kalim Qamar
-Ongoing and End Evaluation of the Workshop . David C. Kinsey and
                                              Robin Massee

There are no specific section(s) devoted to bibliography. This is because
necessary references have been integrated within the text. For all those
interested in the format of the workshop out of which this manual emerged,
an appendix on the tentative schedule of the workshop has been included
at the end of the manual.

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ALTERNATE MODELS FOR WORKSHOP DESIGN

Workshop and Workshop Model

Just as there are schools and schools, there are workshops and workshops.
In fact, the term has become at once so fashionable and so commonplace that
"workshop" organizers now use the term to cover a multitude of educational
enterprises. This variety is both natural and healthy. But, however
variegated these enterprises are, they have at least one common denominator:
a group of people come together to improve their skills and produce a product.
In some cases the exercise in product production is employed to effect the
major end, the improvement of participant skills. In other workshops the
honing of participant skills is only a by-product of the major goal, the
creation of a tangible end-product or products. In still other situations
the two goals bear equal weight. Whatever the relative importance, these
goals, limited and precisely defined, are what make a workshop a workshop
and distinguish it, in degree if not in kind, from a seminar, a colloquium
or a course.

Simply stated, then, to create a workshop what we must do is set up a
"shop" where participants can "work." This is a given. Whom the participants
are to be, what they are to do, under what circumstances they are to operate
and how the workshop is to be evaluated are all still open questions, the
answers to which will determine the workshop's character and style. Just
as there is no ideal number of participants for a workshop nor an ideal
length of time one should take, there are a variety of workshop models,
any one of which or combination of which may be appropriate for the parti-
cular participants and situation for which one is set up.

Different Designs of Workshop

The following is the product of a brainstorming session on the subject in the concerned workshop. The output obviously has a philosophical flavor:

Horizontal Model	Vertical Model
Learner-centered	Objective-centered
Self-structured	Structured by others
Teacher as resource	Teacher as director of process

Skill Exchange - Peer Matching
Interest Groups
Knowledge/Skill Transmission
Self-Directed - Self-Initiated
Participant Centered
Medical Model - Diagnostic, Prescriptive
Information Gathering
Mutual Learning
Laboratory-Based - Field-Based
Object-Based (limited resources)
Organized Chaos
Abstract - Reality-Based
Use of Local Resources
Use of Participant Skills
Group Dynamic Skills/Techniques
Self-Awareness Techniques
Critical Consciousness
Awareness and Readiness
Case-Study Critique
Material Analysis
Building Material
Convergent-Divergent
Deductive-Inductive

The spectrum of models includes, at one pole, the workshop for which participants nominate themselves and take part under no duress, are self-initiated, self-directed and self-structured, exchange skills among themselves and with staff, rely on mutual learning experiences, center activities on individual participants' currently felt needs, work in local field settings, as well as in a laboratory situation, deal with concrete rather than abstract concerns, are interested in group process and developing self-awareness and critical consciousness, operate inductively rather than deductively, encourage divergent thinking, and use staff as facilitators and resources rather than

as instructors.

In models at the other pole, staff themselves choose participants, formulate the workshop's goals, marshall available resources, control their use as well as the expenditure of participants' time in the interest of group goals, whether product production or skill enhancement, and evaluate the workshop's successes and failures.

Structuring a Workshop

There is no design of workshops which could be universally ideal since situational variables determine the suitability of a design. There are, however, certain guidelines which may help in reaching decisions regarding the workshop format. For example, the following things must be considered while structuring a workshop:

1. Objectives
2. Activities
3. Evaluation
4. Plans for physical arrangements
5. Plans for human resources arrangement
6. Plans for communication arrangements
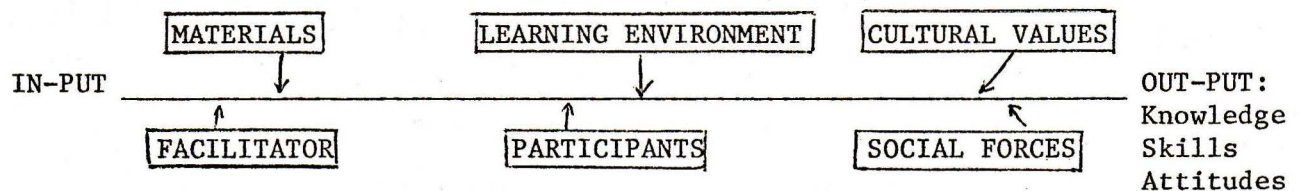
Concluding Remarks

Most workshops find their appropriate modus operandi somewhere between the horizontal and vertical extremes. Those who organize and then operate them first size up the situation, themselves and potential participants, and then, either explicitly or intuitively, subscribe to the philosophic tenets which undergird one particular model within the spectrum of possible models. Having reached this position, they then devise procedures and activities which they feel are consonant with that model.

II

MAIN CONSIDERATIONS DURING WORKSHOP PLANNING

Planning involves decision making. The decisions concerning setting of general and specific objectives demand certain information or data. The things to be included in the data checklist may be almost endless; but the situational factors, nature and constraints of the workshop will indicate what information is most relevant.

Tied with the issue of data-gathering is the question of methods and techniques to be used within a workshop. Again, methodologies will differ from case to case, depending on several factors.

The purpose of this section is to alert the workshop organizer against blind application of one or more methods and techniques and to express the importance of relevant information gathering in order to reach reasonable decisions. Accordingly, it contains two sub-sections; the first related to data gathering and the second focusing on the methods and techniques that can be thought of for a workshop.

It must be clarified that the intention behind presenting a long list of data dimensions and various methodologies is not to demand that a workshop organizer must obtain or use all this information. Some of the information may not be needed because of its irrelevancy with the workshop and so may be ignored. Moreover, the data checklist is not exhausted by any means since the situation might require some information not pointed out in the list. In any case, besides other things to be considered during planning of a workshop for facilitators training, two main things, namely, data gathering and methodologies within a workshop, deserve serious attention. Careful consideration of these dimensions will help in establishing more realistic objectives, thus enhancing the effectiveness of training.

i. DATA GATHERING

The following will help in deciding what kind of data is needed, how it can be obtained and what problems may be faced during data collection:

Data

    about what?
    for whom?
    for what purpose?
    how obtained? method...
    reliability?
    validity?
    from what sources

Decide what data is to be collected on the basis of

    degree of literacy
    biodata - sex, marital status, religion, language, etc.
    profession - present and desired
    objectivity

Conventional methods of data collection

    observation - participatory, focused (no interacting)
    participation in community affairs
    interview
    questionnaire
    schedules
    census materials
    local histories
    newspaper files
    self-survey
    selection of informants/assistants
    collecting case histories

Nonformal educational methods recommended

    informal discussions with community
    brainstorming in groups
    peer matched interviews (to avoid class distinctions)
    self-survey - information gathered by and for homogeneous group:
                farmers
                health personnel
                etc.

Barriers/problems in gathering data

    refusal of citizens to answer questions
    suspicion towards leaders
    class distinctions and inhibitions - a lower class vs. higher class
                'truthfulness' of information
    inhibitions of group process
    lack of task orientations in data collection
    biases of interviewer
    attitudes of information gatherer

Closely relevant references

Two articles: Stycos, Mayone J. "Sample Surveys for Social Science in Underdeveloped Areas", pp. 375-388, and

Strauss, Anselm and Leonard Schatzman. "Cross-Class Interviewing: An Analysis of Interaction and Communicative Styles", pp. 205-213, in Adams, R.N. and J.J. Preiss (eds.), Human Organization Research. Homewood, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, Inc., 1960.

Checklist for Data Gathering

The following checklist should serve as a guide in selecting the most relevant information while planning the workshop. It is a product of a brainstorming session on the specific topic during the workshop.

Geographical Data

Productivity setting - what grown/raised (animal, crop)
Distances to other resources/major trade centers
Climate
Natural resources
    minerals
    water
    oil, etc.
Population
Special problems

Economic Data

Occupations of the area
    lawyers, business, peddler, farmers, health, etc.
Economy crops (cash vs. subsistant) - how obtained
Main imports/exports
Transportation
Local trade/business
Roles of wo/men/children in economic development
Physical infrastructure
    communication
Products (man-made) - crafts, factory, etc.
Organizations
    marketing
    cooperatives
    financial institutions
Income distribution
Industries
Land distribution
Systems
    socialist
    capitalist
    mixed
Special problems

Educational Tools at Hand

     Schools - kinds and populations
     Extension agents
     Adult literacy/rural learning centers
     Mass media - radio/TV
     Church education - rural/community training
     Indigenous learning styles
     Out-of-school youth issue
     Learning resources in community, i.e., library, etc.
     Apprenticeship systems
     Learning/listening clubs
     Language
     Formal school curriculum
     Output into professions
         drop-outs
         vocational school products
     Formal education system
         profile of teacher proficiencies
         physical facilities
         literacy levels
     Learning resources - expatriates, newspapers, etc.
     Voluntary educational organizations
     Women/men education
     Special problems
         placement of university/high school graduates
         lack of learning materials
         disease of children

Social Life Data

     Indigenous societies/customs/taboos
     Local social habits, i.e., church activities, bars, etc.
     Religious affiliations
     Family structure
     Foreign influences - sports, movies, etc.
     Games, play
     Decision making/socialization practices
     Institutions
         social status due to age/sex
         societies
         marriage system
         organizations within
            women groups, art, etc.
     Medicine
     Social services
     Traditional leadership pattern, i.e., chieftainship

Political Consciousness

     Attitudes toward state political systems
     Issues/employment concerns
     Village/rural leadership patterns
     Political power relations towards
         employment
         physical infrastructure construction
     Political system

        planning
        ideology
        traditional vs. constitutional (State)
Women involvement
Political organizations/parties
Special problems
        stability or lack of

Data About/From Leaders

Major developmental issues/problems/achievements of area
Types of leadership
        church
        educational
        business, etc.
How leaders are selected/maintained
Attitudes/value assumptions of leaders toward issues
How leaders perceive their effectiveness
Identification of potential facilitators
Previous experience in village life
Issues re confidence/legitimacy of leaders
Relations of contact persons with village leaders
Special cultural factors be kept in mind - from contact persons
Legitimacy of proposed programs in terms of leader/village needs
Who is audience? (for workshop design)
        literacy level

Behavioral/Attitudinal Variables

Migration influences
Ethnic pressures influencing behaviors
Urban vs. rural pressures

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ii. METHODS AND TECHNIQUES WITHIN A WORKSHOP*

The beginning part of this sub-section covers various points raised

during the concerned facilitator workshop, while the rest of the section stresses

three aspects: use of groups, role of leader, and discussion techniques.

Selection and Organization of Methods

Pre-assess: participants, characteristics, objectives, feasibility of
            methods and materials

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*Since the session on this topic during the concerned workshop mainly
made use of: Joseph Levine and Nancy Carlson, A Guide for Conducting Effective
Workshops (East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1974) as a reference, this
sub-section draws heavily from the particular booklet. Another useful and relevant
book is: Earl C. Kelley, The Workshop Way of Learning (New York: Harper Brothers, 1951)

Clarify Objectives
Consistency of message and medium
Participation (active participation means involvement and activity)
Sequence (start with involvement first or first principles or simultaneous
    strands)
Variations of Methods and Timing
Use of Groups (mini, small and large)
Role of Leader/Facilitator

General Techniques

A. Experience Techniques: Games (instructional)
                            Role Play (more effective)
                            Simulation
                            Actual Practicum

B. Information Techniques: Audio-visual
                            Panel
                            Lecture

C. Discussion: The Examined Experience - Identify (what was
                                            learned?)
                                        Analyze (why was some-
                                            thing learned?)
                                        Generalize (so what?)

D. Actual Application: Reaction Sheets
                            Participation Feedback Cards
                            Q sorts and Problems and Hints

Role of Leader/Facilitator: Some Points to Consider

Model: Participants look to the leader of the workshop for
                    a model of what a 'facilitator' should be.

Planning: Each step of the process should be well thought out.
                    Setting goals, sharing them with the participants,
                    involving them in subsequent goal-setting are important.

Clear Directions: Avoid 'off-the-cuff' directions. Have clear and concise
                    written directions. Check what you have written for
                    clarity.

Timing: Carefully think through the activities that will be
                    conducted at the workshop and accurately assess the
                    amount of time needed for each. If you are in doubt,
                    add some time but never provide too little time.

Participation: Design the activities so that participants can receive
                    the message through the activity and not be entirely
                    dependent upon you and your personality for receiving
                    the message (an active learning situation).

Variety: Different types of activities related to your objectives
                    will keep participants active and alert, e.g., games,
                    role play, movie, lecture, etc.

Decision-making: Immediate decision-making for plotting an appro-
priate course in the face of observed new needs,
interest, resistance, etc. will be faced by the leader
and sensitivity has to be combined with need for
such decisions as moving to the next item, etc.

Use of Groups

The leader should keep these in mind in using group processes: S/he
must be open to ideas, solutions, strategies or problems presented by the
group members. The group leader must also facilitate the attainment of the
more complex of Bloom's learning behaviors (analysis, synthesis, evaluation).
Since group dynamics affect intended outcomes, three group sizes, i.e.,
mini group, small group, and large group, will be discussed in the following
paragraphs:

1. Mini Groups: (groups of 2-4 participants)

Advantages

    investigative reporting tasks are more easily accomplished
    practice for skill development
    cross-checking, validation, and consensus are more easily
       accomplished
    group can function without a leader
    interpersonal barriers are more easily broken down
    does not subvert individuality

Disadvantages

    diversity of opinion, values, knowledge is not available
    group can become 'social' more easily - members may be side-tracked
       from task

Suitable Strategies

    Role Playing
    Case Studies
    Competitive tasks (tasks involving competition with other mini groups)

2. Small Groups: (groups of 5-8 participants)

    The effective functioning of small groups is about 30-35 minutes,
unless closure is provided on first task and second task is begun. Further,
communication is facilitated when members are seated around a table.

Advantages

> diversity of opinions, values, knowledge, etc.
> ideas, opinions, etc. 'feed-off' others
> when group hits two problems at once, two sub-groups can be formed
>   to deal with issues and report back to the main group
> small group pressure keeps individual members on target - not
>   easy to 'cop-out'.

Disadvantages

> small group colleagiality may inhibit large group reporting/discussing
> a small group leader will emerge
> individuality may be lost in the small group
> may become ineffective or inefficient unless structured outcomes
>   are designed
> 'cliques' may form within small groups

Appropriate Strategies

> Problem-solving through brainstorming
> Issue clarification through Socratic Analysis

3. __Large Groups__: (9 or more participants)

Typically, the large group consists of 20-35 people. Group involvement can only come from strong structure and a powerful message.

Advantages

> If information is presented only once in a large group, one can
>   be sure that all participants get exactly the same information.
> A group awareness of diversity of opinion, background, roles, values
>   can be brought to a conscious level.
> A common and positive shared experience can create an atmosphere
>   of common involvement and commitment.

Disadvantages

> Difficult to predict instructional outcomes
> Fails to get people involved
> Participants can decide not to participate and there is little
>   group pressure to perform.

Group Reporting

When small groups are formed to perform tasks related to problem solving, it is useful to have them report back to the large group. Individual involvement is recommended especially to preceed large group involvement if there was no small or mini group activity.

Paper and pencil activity

Examples are taking notes, writing down questions, jotting down
other ideas. The leader can then ask someone to say what s/he wrote
down.

4.   Other Group Strategies

Problem solving through brainstorming is a free-thinking, non-critical
activity. This atmosphere may generate a lot of new ideas. The creative
problem solving session can last about 20-25 minutes. The important
thing is what you do after the ideas are generated (closure).

Issue clarification through Socratic Analysis

The aim here is to discuss germane issues as part of the group
involvement process. The leader's role in this is to find out individual
and small group reactions to particular issues. This is useful for:
group involvement/participant response, issues to emerge, subjecting
controversial issues to analysis based on background of group members.
It must be recognized that there can be no real closure on issues. The
process of reaching agreement or consensus can be a very important learning
experience of the workshop.

Conducting Group Discussion

Here we examine possible strategies for providing an effective experience
leading to group discussion. The purpose is to prepare the participants for
the experience and let them know what they will be doing and what to look for.

Sharing of a planned event with the group by the leader is done through
simulation, small group task, film, panel discussion, etc. Other techniques
include:

Planned Recording: The experience is recorded. If the workshop has
been well planned, the leader can move around as an unobstrusive observer.

Worksheets may be handed out for use in small groups.

Participant recorders may be used, especially those who have been through

the experience before.

Mediated Systems, such as audio-taping or video-taping, can be used to record.

The examined experience model consists of three stages:

Identify (what was learned?)
Analyze (why was something learned?)
Generalize (so what?)

Identify

In this component of the discussion process the leader helps the participants to identify, clarify, and isolate the various pieces of the previous experience, primarily cognitive and affective.

Once the experience is completed, the leader should help the group move to a discussion mode. Here, the leader can use a break pattern, i.e., coffee-break, a rearranging-chairs break, a turn-in-worksheets break, etc.

For identifying, two strategies may be used: brainstorming and taba-based strategies. We are familiar with brainstorming. In taba-based strategies the leader uses the brainstorming process but keeps the responses to the specific question. The leader can identify the component by acting as a recorder. To identify sufficient components and record them, s/he may also clarify, probe, restate, or actively listen.

Analyze

In analysis, it is important to ask critical questions (why?). The aim is to move towards some resolution of the experience. Examples of critical questions: "Why do you think that happened?" "Why do you think you felt that way?"

Two dimensions of analysis are: interpersonal (individual feelings)

and societal (cognitively oriented - societal values, mores, teachings). Hence, in analysis, the group consciously looks at the process and examines the affective or cognitive or both aspects of the experience. In other words, it answers the question "Why was something learned?"

Generalize

In this component, the leader should help participants make the transfer from the just-completed experience to the everyday realities of the home, school or community. From the WHAT and WHY, the leader helps move the workshop to the SO WHAT.

III

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIFIC NONFORMAL EDUCATION SKILLS

There may be a large number of skills related to the area of nonformal education; but for the purpose of a workshop which is limited in terms of time, human and material resources, important basic skills have to be selected out of the lot. The following pages contain four sub-sections related to any facilitator-oriented workshop. They are:

i.	Rural facilitators --	Concepts, principles, characteristics, content, methods, bibliography, etc.
ii.	Situation assessment --	Needs identification and analysis
iii.	Problem solving --	Methodology
iv.	Hypothesis generation --	Methodologies for establishing mutual relationships among different concepts and events.

The subject matter presented in the above-mentioned four sub-sections is by no means one hundred percent complete and perfect. It should be rather treated as guide material.

i. RURAL FACILITATORS

Running a workshop for rural facilitators brings the concerned villagers and their social, cultural and political issues into focus. The main purpose of this sub-section is to expose some relevant aspects of rural facilitators to the persons who would be organizing workshops on the specific subject. This exposure is bi-dimensional, i.e., first, pointing out some conceptual concerns, and second, drawing attention toward relevant content subject matter.

The following subject matter does not by any means exhaust the subject of rural facilitators. The persons who would be later using this as a guide in organizing workshops should feel free to make certain conceptual and/or content material additions or eliminations as necessitated by the specific situation in which a workshop would be held.

Acquaintance with the Subject Matter

It is of great benefit for the individuals going to run the concerned workshop to get acquainted with at least some basic subject matter on rural facilitators. With this purpose in mind, the workshop participants were passed on "supporting material."

The selection of the topics to be included in the supporting material was made with a constant question in mind: If some Center members are going to organize a workshop on rural facilitators in which the participants would be villagers of a Third World country, then what basic subject matter should they know and what should they try to pass on to the participants so that they could function as nonformal education facilitators in their communities?

All material on rural facilitators being distributed to the workshop organizers several days before the workshop must contain objective(s) behind selection of the particular subject matter. This kind of objective-identification was found to be very useful during the workshop.

The supporting material is a kind of "package" on rural facilitators related issues. As a matter of fact, this may be used for future workshops also. Some articles reflecting concerned geographical areas may be changed if the workshop is to be conducted in an area other than Africa.

Specific Content Areas*

1. **Content:**   Main theories of leadership

   Objectives: i. To strengthen theoretical background
   ii. To identify situational specifications.

   Source: Chapter I of : Murray G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957).

2. **Content:**   Advantages and disadvantages of authoritarian and democratic leadership

   Objectives: i. In most of the developing countries, authoritarian leadership has been the rule for long periods. The facilitators model obviously advocates a democratic

approach. See how much sacrifice of our ideology (e.g., learner-centered approach) is necessary to fit the reality.
ii. To strengthen theoretical background

Source: Pp. 88-91 of Burton W. Kreitlow, E.W. Aiton, and Andrew P. Torrence, Leadership for Action in Rural Communities (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate, Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1960).

3. Content: Why facilitators need training.

Objective: The relevant reasons should be kept in mind by the trainer and s/he should pass these on to the trainees who are supposed to train their fellow villagers to become facilitators. This will cause motivation, confidence, ethical understanding and specific subject-matter competency among the trainees.

4. Content: Various characters in a group discussion situation.

Objective: The workshop organizer should look for these characters during the process of a workshop. Since these characters reflect positive as well as negative personalities, the workshop organizer should see which persons would be the most fit for implementation of facilitator's model.

Source: Pp. 325-332 of George M. Beal, Joe M. Bohlen, and J. Neil Raudabaugh, Leadership and Dynamic Group Action (Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1962).

5. Content: Some qualifications of leaders.

Objective: Knowledge of qualifications which facilitators should possess to work successfully in his/her community will not only help a trainer in identifying potential suitable persons but will also serve as a guide to facilitators preparation.

Source: P. 99 of Burton W. Kreitlow, E.W. Aiton, and Andrew P. Torrence, Leadership for Action in Rural Communities (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate, Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1960).

6. Content: Some issues related to rural facilitators model.

Objective: The workshop organizer should be vigilant to issues such as legitimization, age, existing power pattern in the community, etc., as they are related to the facilitator's approach, since they may affect the project--positively as well as negatively.

Source: Brainstorming and analysis.

7.   Content: Steps in making rational decisions and planning.

     Objective: The trainer should be acquainted with the basic steps him/herself and should pass these on to the trainees.

     Source: Brainstorming; literature on program planning and decision making.

8.   Content: Case-studies, articles, unpublished papers, etc. focusing on facilitators concept/application in the concerned geographical area.

     Objective: The trainer as well as the trainees should be familiar with real cases and issues related to facilitators model in the specific geographical location.

     Source: Since geographical focus will differ in the case of each workshop, relevant literature should be searched for specific information. Since the preparation workshop focused on Africa, the following articles, etc. were provided to the participants:

1. R.W. Wyllie. "Pastors and Prophets in Winneba, Ghana: Their Social Background and Career Development." Journal of International African Institute, London, Vol. XLIV, No. 2 (April, 1974), pp. 186-192.

2. Olivier Le Brun. "In Fissell (Senegal) the Farmers are Taking Over the Training of Youths", reprint.

3. Current reports on various rural development projects in African countries published in the Newsletter of the Economic Commission for Africa.

4. P.G. Batchelor. "Faith and Farm: Community Oriented Rural Training in Nigeria." Community Development Journal, Vol. 5, No. 2 (April 1970), pp. 79-84.

5. Procedural plans for Senegal and Ghana (Prepared by CIE members).

Additional Subject Matter

The workshop organizers should seek additional information through published material and personal contacts in order to strengthen their own as well as the participants' competency. For example, the following additional information was provided to the participants in the workshop, focusing on various aspects of facilitators and training:

1. Lists of facilitators' characteristics: Pp. 259-288 of Arlen Etling's Ed.D. dissertation: "Characteristics of Nonformal Educators: A Delphi Study of the University of Massachusetts-- Ecuador Project's Facilitators Project."

2.   George E. Urch.   "The Facilitator Model in an Ecuador Setting."
      (mimeographed).

3.   Linton C. Freeman, Thomas J. Fararo, Warner Bloomberg, Jr., and
      Morris H. Sunshine.   "Locating Leaders in Local Communities:
      A Comparison of Some Alternative Approaches," American Sociological
      Review, Vol. 28, No. 5 (October 1963), pp. 791-798.

4.   John T. Woeste. "Misuse of Group Discussion." Journal of Coopera-
      tive Extension, Vol, V, No. 2 (Summer 1967), pp. 110-116.

5.   E.R. Watts. "The Selection and Training of Agricultural Extension
      Staff in Developing Countries". Community Development Journal,
      Vol. 5, No. 1 (January 1970), pp. 37-43.

6.   Carlton R. Sollie. "A Comparison of Reputational Techniques for
      Identifying Community Leaders," Rural Sociology, Vol. 31, No. 3
      (September 1966), pp. 301-309.

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ii.   SITUATION ASSESSMENT THROUGH NEEDS
IDENTIFICATION AND ANALYSIS

In almost all facilitator training, we adopt the 'responsive' approach,

i.e., the facilitator responds to the 'needs' of the learners. In other words,

the agenda is that of the audience, and the facilitator becomes an effective

resource person rather than a director of process. Hence, a workshop for rural

facilitators needs deal with methods and issues in assessing a field situation

and identifying the needs of potential learners.

Most Relevant Concerns:

The concerned workshop immediately focused on certain issues that arise

from the above-mentioned statement:

1.   How to prioritize needs?
2.   Definition of needs - what are the attributes of needs?
3.   Does there exist a "list of needs"? If so, what is the difference
      between perceived as opposed to unperceived or potential needs?
4.   What instruments are available to identify and prioritize needs?
5.   There are different needs dominant at different times. Which
      perceived need is relevant for an educational program aimed at
      the rural masses? This also led the workshop to consider short
      range, long range and immediate needs.
6.   Who defines the needs? Needs for what?
      This brought up the question of 'ascribed' and 'felt' needs.
      The issues here was the developmental priorities of the government

or agency for the rural areas and the relevance of these as seen by the villagers themselves. Mention was made of 'MICRO' 'MACRO' levels of needs analysis.

Needs Analysis Methodology for Whom?

The members dealt with the question of whether the UMass contingent would do a needs analysis to frame a workshop for facilitators based on the needs of the area or whether it is a method/instrument for facilitators working with rural people. It was felt that an instrument was called for and participants in Ghana could revise, adapt or alter it.

There were two issues faced by the group: (1) the facilitator's practical need for a way of intervening educationally with the villagers, based on the participatory model, and (2) the need to assess/understand what is 'on-going' in these villages in terms of meeting these educational needs. This meant the study/survey of existing institutions such as the People's Education Society that conducted programs and how far they met the needs.

A further component was the limitation of human and material resources. All programs must operate within natural constraints imposed by resources and institutional capabilities.

Because there were personal needs of learners as well as institutional needs of the government or other agencies, the Hutchinson methodology* was found to be particularly helpful. This methodology stipulates the definition: Needs for _____ as defined by _____.

The following pages present some ideas on the use of the Hutchinson approach and the care that needs to be exercised by foreign participants because of differences in cognitive styles, perception and culture. Some dynamics of village interaction are at best difficult to grasp and the need is to avoid getting into bottle-necks and avoid unintended consequences.

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*Detailed material on this methodology is available in the Resource Center of the Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

Assessing the Village Situation

An assessment of the village situation should help us avoid bottle-necks and minimize unintended negative consequences. One who intervenes in another culture or country on behalf of educational or development projects needs to ask some important questions. S/he goes to observe, understand, and act on a problem situation. How does s/he observe? What is seen/unseen? What makes meaning and what is incomprehensible (and, therefore, leads to impatience, frustration and even failure)? How does one act for effectiveness (there is a difference between effect and effectiveness)?

The reasons for such questions are clear if we see how removed one is from the ultimate target audience, the villager in this case. The foreigner is alien to the country and its customs. Within the country are regional variations (linguistic, tribal, sub-cultures, etc.) and the social unit of the village. And within the complex social arrangement of his community lives the villager who is the target of our efforts. S/he is the sole reason and justification for the project.

Obviously, we need the assistance of the native, and who is s/he? S/he may be as removed from the reality and confidence of the peasant as the foreign visitor. The differences of social class, education. culture and needs apply to everyone. There are "foreign natives" -- those who have internalized the values of Western or other cultures through education or by living in the metropolis. It becomes crucial, then, to know through whose eyes we are viewing the village situation, and how close that person is, or removed from, the ultimate audience.

One difficulty usually encountered in the villages is the distrust of outsiders, be they foreigners or extension agents. The hospitality displayed to visitors is no indication of 'openness.' Additionally, it is well for those coming from another culture to remember that 'culture'shock' is a

two-way process. Not only does the visitor, but the villagers themselves experience the culture shock of being exposed to people so different from him. While visiting villages, one should be careful about the norms and beliefs of the particular villages.

The distance that separates program personnel from their clientele includes the cultural lens through which one perceives the priorities that are accorded in life and the orientations to people, time and materials. Such perceptual or "cognitive styles" or world view is readily understood in terms of different experience in differing social and environmental settings. Further, there are significant variations in the reality and experience of the intervenor and the target audience. Some of these, such as follows, are identified when we relate them to the problems of perception between an American development agent and people from a less developed country.

Significant Variations

U.S.A.	Less developed country	Remarks
Resource is no problem	Lacks resources	
Optimism	Limited aspirations	
Improving quality of life	Survival levels	
Individualism	Kinship/community	
Non-age status/mobility	Authoritarian/Status oriented	
Local Government & Decentralization	Government has resources Centralization	
Planning: "Make the right decisions"	Planning for what, with what and for whom? No options seen.	'If only decision-making can solve all problems !

With these possible variations in mind, the following questions are suggested for consideration:

Who defines the goals?
Who defines the target population?
What are the means?
Who assesses the consequences of the intervention and how?

It becomes important to know who defines the goals because it answers the question 'for whose benefit?' It is no secret that the privileged members of the society try to corner the benefits coming from outside. The ideal for defining target population is that this be done by those affected by the program. The means used need to be critically thought out. For example, is it a one-shot approach, which has no promise of continuing after the project phase is over or something different? Are the ingredients of expertise, material and other resources likely to be locally available at the end of the project? The whole point of social development/education program is that the target population will be able to assess the program and make decisions that will upgrade the quality of life and provide for more options for improving their lives. Hence, the last question "Who assesses the consequences" is of utmost importance.

A word must be said here about factions and groups in village life. The village is a complex community with established ways, status groups, factions and other dynamics that do not, at first glance, meet the eye. It is important that we know positions and roles in the community so that inadvertantly no offense is given. Factional groups lend or withhold support depending on who sponsors the program. Animosities, rivalries or status questions often divide the community. Program personnel are best advised to be aware of this kind of dynamic and take care not to be identified with any one block.

The following are some of the techniques to find information on the village situation:

1. Pure observation -- use of eyes, ears and mouth
2. Active participation -- e.g., going to coffee houses, playing games, participating in dances, feasts and other activities of communities, using special skills to establish rapport, etc.
3. Use of key informants -- e.g., mayor, religious leaders, teachers, people, outcastes, formal change agents, etc.
4. Content analysis -- e.g., examining local records, reports of government agencies, etc.
5. Surveys and interview techniques.

The questions such as follows will guide us in collecting the focal information:

A. The target population as learners
   1. Who are they?
   2. Where are they?
   3. Which of them are being reached (by educational services)?
   4. Which of them have needs that are not being met?
   5. What are their needs?

B. The Service Programs
   1. What are the species of service programs actually available/ potentially available for this population?
   2. What agencies have currently responsibility for each of these services?
   3. What articulation exists among the programs and institutions?
   4. What changes (enlargements, reassignments, etc.) have taken place in the past decade, and what has been the rationale for each?

C. The evident concept (the actualized concept) of education for the target population. The formal views and the informal views expressed through practices and policies are often highly divergent.
   1. What, in practice, constitutes being a member of the target population?
   2. What do they need? (How do they see their needs?)
   3. What can be done for them? (What do they want done?)
   4. What do we think we are able to do for them?
   5. How do we know when they are ready for progress from one service to another?
   6. What constitutes being an educated person?

Steps in Needs Identification

According to Hutchinson's methodology, there are three major steps involved in needs identification:

A. <u>Whose</u> needs?   <u>What</u> needs?

A beginning question in identifying needs is <u>whose</u> needs and what needs. Whose needs are being analyzed, whose needs are being fulfilled by an agency or other group of people, whose needs are being neglected? The issues and needs of the marketeurs in a community could be analyzed, fulfilled, or neglected by the unions operating in the area.

Who needs <u>what</u>? states the problem need at hand. For example, marketeurs need less taxation on their goods <u>or</u> they may need a new road to transport their goods (and customers) to market.

was really an <u>unperceived</u> need to the farmer; rather, it was perceived as a need not by the farmer but by his government administration.

Hence, the marketeurs know and have stated that they need a <u>new</u> <u>road</u> and <u>less taxation</u> because they have problems in getting their produce to market and profiting. Their needs are felt and perceived by them. No one from the outside has necessarily persuaded or declared that those are needed by and for farmers.

B.   Needs Defined <u>by Whom?</u>

A second step in needs analysis may be presented with the question: needs defined by whom?

The facilitator model in nonformal education seeks to promote sharing of participants in the problem-solving, decision-making tasks ahead of all peoples, societies and communities. A main question which arises is: to what extent can needers be their own definers and what process can best lead to this development? Village agencies and government departments may designate needs which <u>they</u> see fit to tackle, i.e., malaria eradication or inoculation campaigns, in order to protect the wider community.

Other needs are defined at the grass-roots level through committees, private interest groups or by individuals themselves. Through a conscious effort to become sensitive and aware of issues affecting their neighbors, these groups may be able to discover, define and justify their needs accordingly.

The marketeurs, in the above case, have apparently defined their own needs both perhaps individually and then as a group after much discussion. The discussions may have taken place with or been facilitated by market union representatives from that community.

The farmer's needs can be defined outside of the farmer's expressed

Problem: What the need is implies that a problem exists to the neeeder and that a need has arisen out of the problem. The marketeur needs a new road built because his problem is that....

Identify who is the needer and what does s/he need.
List the needs.

Levels and Types of Needs

All people need fulfillments in their physical, social and occupational lives. The farmer and his son need rain to fall on crops whereas the Western tourist needs the tropical sunshine, not rain, in order to enjoy his/her holiday. The farmer believes he needs to visit and pray at Church or Mosque more often in order to get better rains; the government Water Works Department plans to build a dam on the farmer's land enabling more water resource for all...at the expense of the farmer loosing his otherwise fertile and productive land.

Level: The level of these needs differs. The farmer needing rain is at a personal and individual level with the farmer identifying this need by himself and for himself and his neighbor (micro-level). The Government's plan and action towards villagers' needs for water is made at another level--that of administrating to a wider set of the needs of more people (macro-level). Nor does the farmer know this might be a need.

Type: The type of need (rain)--identified by the farmer--was a felt need, experienced by the farmer after long involvement for his survival with climate changes and droughts. The Government's assessment of the need is an ascribed need, that is, proposed and identified by someone outside the needer.

The need for more water by praying also was a perceived need of the farmer; the farmer knew in his mind that praying for rain was a common need and practice of farmers. The need for a dam instead

awareness, i.e., the farmer may have been unaware that a dam, as defined by government as the need, was a feasible solution to his need for water. Rather, he defined his need in terms of the behavioral responsibility he felt was custom in order to fulfill his need for water.

Likewise, a fisherman has expressed his need for a new net. He He may be content with repairing the old net so that he then has more time to spend on land discussing and socializing with friends in his cooperative (a 'hidden' agenda), than spend time on the high seas catching fish. Nevertheless, his cooperative has influenced him to agree that a new net is needed. He is a definer from a _descriptive_ point of view: he knows intellectually and reiterates the cooperative's need for a new net which would serve better in manpower and catch terms than a repaired old net which succumbs to repeated reappraisal after each fishing trip. The latter need as defined by the cooperative but articulated by that fisherman may be know as a _prescriptive_ need.

C. Needs Defined _for Whom?_

The third step in needs analysis leads us to the question: needs defined for whom?

The marketeur's union may have helped to define a need for less taxation for political pressure purposes. The union's representative may be a parliamentarian who wishes to influence his government through a campaign to vote for lower taxation on marketeurs' property.

The Government Water Works Department perceives the need of farmers to have a dam built for conservation. The Government's definition may be made for purposes of justifying to foreign assistance donors the need for such a dam. Or the need definition is made to placate industrialists who wish to build and operate in the area and request the dam—without immediate respect to the demands of farmers.

The users of such information about existing needs are, in the above examples, not the needers but personnel who have indirect contact with needers and, to say the least, have needs of their own to be identified. The tree of needs drops its seeds, then starts a new identification process of needs....

Selection of Proper Tools

The types of needs as outlined above denote variations of intent upon identifying needs and indicate that the instruments needed to discover such needs require careful selection and usage by definers. From a facilitator leadership point of view, the instruments or means of identification would preferably want to be self-generating and promote a continuity of usage eventually without facilitator direction.

Also, the relationships between the needer, definer, and information user would attempt to be narrowed into one focus or individual, the needer. The instrument then could direct all arrows back to the needer.

Hence, the ultimate goal in needs analysis is to enable the needer to identify and define his/her needs, presumably with an internalized awareness and self-sustained motive to actively express those needs to others as an initial step to problem-solving.

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iii. THE PROBLEM SOLVING APPROACH

The problem solving approach is a "student-centered" mode of learning in which the student assumes the central role in the learning process and becomes an active inquirer in his/her own education. The approach especially lends itself to the use of facilitators for the learner must be encouraged to enter into dialogue with his/her peers. The success of the approach ultimately lies in the degree to which the facilitator becomes unnecessary as a guide.

The approach requires the learner to seek, probe and process data from his/her own environment and move toward a variety of self or group-selected destinations. From personal identification with the problem, the learner develops a frame of reference in which s/he pursues meanings and understandings that are real and important to him/her.

Essential Steps in Problem Solving

Although there are a variety of problem solving approaches, the process usually requires an individual or a group to (1) consciously define a problem and its terms; (2) marshal data; (3) test and verify hunches; (4) judge the evidence; (5) systematize the knowledge obtained; and (6) make decisions based on the knowledge.

Transaction Between Problem-Solver and Data

To be successful, there normally must be an active transaction between the individual and/or group and the data collected. Various methods which could be included in this process are defining, observing, classifying, interpreting, comparing, contrasting, hypothesizing, generalizing, predicting, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating, inferring, and communicating.

Basic Principles

Listed below are some principles which might be considered when utilizing the problem solving approach:

1. Be careful of making the problem too personal.

2. Do not lead the participants to believe that all problems have a quick solution.

3. Help the participants to realize that there is a hierarchy of problems which might range from your next meal to bringing peace to the world.

4. Help make the participants aware that they have been solving their own problems for a long time -- some as individuals, some as a group. Ask them how.

5. Help make the participants realize that by resolving an identifiable problem. It helps give the community a sense of belonging, a sense of power.

6. Give the participants an opportunity to apply at least one of the problem solving techniques to which they are exposed.

iv. HYPOTHESIS GENERATION

The purpose of including this brief section in the manual is not to throw the trainer or trainees in the depths of sophisticated theory building, a complex task which they are not supposed to undertake during a facilitator-training workshop. The need for this section was felt because of the assumption that it will be useful for the workshop-organizer as well as for the participants to have at least basic orientation to some simple methodologies which help in forming mutual relationships among various past and present events and objects so that on their basis some predictions (or simple expectations) might be made. Such competency helps a participant in three major ways. First to understand and analyze a community's structure and behavior; second, to set more factual objectives during planning of nonformal education programs, and third, to establish mutual relevance among various subject matter and skills sessions essentially included in the workshop.

There is a great deal of literature on the complex phenomenon of hypothesis formation but for the sake of much-needed simplicity in the real situations and because of comprehensiveness of the specific article, McGuire's article* was chosen as the only required reading for the workshop participants.

The above-mentioned article is self-explanatory and has been written in simple language. It points out as many as eight different methodologies for hypothesis building. They are as follows:

1. Through intensive case study
2. By accounting for a paradoxical incident
3. By the use of analogy
4. Hypothetico-deductive method
5. Functional or adaptive approach
6. By analyzing the practitioner's rule of thumb
7. By accounting for conflicting results
8. By accounting for exceptions to general findings.

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*William J. McGuire. The Yin and Yang of Progress in Social Psychology: Seven Koan. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 26, No. 3 (1973), pp. 446-456. A summary of the relevant portions of the article is included at the end of this section.

The workshop organizer should pass the purposes of formation of mutual relationships among various events and objectives to the participants. If the situation (educational status, experience, comprehending competency, etc., of the participants) allows, some of the above-mentioned methods should also be exposed to the participants.

If the situation is too premature for this kind of activity, this section should only be used by the trainers for themselves and participants should not be confused with this.

Koan 1: The Sound of One Hand Clapping...and the Wrong Hand
by
William J. McGuire

One drastic change that is called for in our teaching of research methodology is that we should empahsize the creative, hypothesis-formation stage relative to the critical, hypothesis-testing stage of research. It is my guess that at least 90% of the time in our current courses on methodology is devoted to presenting ways of testing hypotheses and that little time is spent on the prior and more important process of how one creates these hypotheses in the first place. Both the creation and testing of hypotheses are important parts of the scientific method, but the creative phase is the more important of the two. If our hypotheses are trivial, it is hardly worth amassing a great methodological arsenal to test them; to paraphrase Maslow, what is not worth doing, is not worth doing well. Surely, we all recognize that the creation of hypotheses is an essential part of the scientific process. The neglect of the creative phase in our methodology courses probably comes neither from a failure to recognize its importance nor a belief that it is trivially simple. Rather, the neglect is probably due to the suspicion that so complex a creative process as hypothesis formation is something that cannot be taught.

I admit that creative hypothesis formation cannot be reduced to teachable rules, and that there are individual differences among us in ultimate capacity for creative hypothesis generation. Still, it seems to me that we have to give increased time in our own thinking and teaching about methodology to the hypothesis-generating phase of research, even at the expense of reducing the time spent discussing hypothesis testing. In my own methodology courses, I make a point of stressing the importance of the hypothesis-generating phase of our work by describing and illustrating at least a dozen or so different approaches to hypothesis formation which have been used in psychological research, some of which I can briefly describe here, including case study, paradoxical incident, analogy, hypothetico-deductive method, functional analysis, rules of thumb, conflicting results, accounting for exceptions, and straightening out complex relationships.

1. For example, there is the intensive case study, such as Piaget's of his children's cognitive development or Freud's mulling over and over of the Dora or the Wolf Man case or his own dreams or memory difficulties. Often

the case is hardly an exceptional one - for example, Dora strikes me as a rather mild and uninteresting case of hysteria - so that it almost seems as if any case studied intensively might serve as a Rorschach card to provoke interesting hypotheses.

2.   Perhaps an even surer method of arriving at an interesting hypothesis is to try to account for a paradoxical incident. For example, in a study of rumors circulating in Bihar, India, after a devastating earthquake, Prasad found that the rumors tended to predict further catastrophes. It seemed paradoxical that the victims of the disaster did not seek some gratification in fantasy, when reality was so harsh, by generating rumors that would be gratifying rather than further disturbing. I believe that attempting to explain this paradox played a more than trivial role in Festinger's formulation of dissonance theory and Schachter's development of a cognitive theory of emotion.

3.   A third creative method for generating hypothesis is the use of analogy, as in my own work on deriving hypotheses about techniques for inducing resistance to persuasion, where I formulated hypotheses by analogy with the biological process of inoculating the person in advance with a weakened form of the threatening material, an idea suggested in earlier work by Janis and Lumsdaine.

4.   A fourth creative procedure is the hypothetico-deductive method, where one puts together a number of commonsensical principles and derives from their conjunction some interesting predictions, as in the Hull and Hovland mathematico-deductive theory of rote learning, or the owrk by Simon and his colleagues on logical reasoning. The possibility of computer simulation has made this hypothesis-generating procedure increasingly possible and popular.

5.   A fifth way of deriving hypotheses might be called the functional or adaptive approach, as ehen Hull generated the principles on which we would have to operate if we were to be able to learn from experience to repeat successful actions, and yet eventually be able to learn an alternative shorter path to a goal even though we have already mastered a longer path which does successfully lead us to that goal.

6.   A sixth approach involves analyzing the practitioner's rule of thumb. Here when one observes that practitioners or craftsmen generally follow some procedural rule of thumb, we assume that it probably works, and one tries to think of theoretical implications of its effectiveness. One does not have to be a Maoist to admit that the basic researcher can learn can learn something by talking to a practitioner. For example, one's programmed simulation of chess playing is improved by accepting the good player's heuristic of keeping control of the center of the board. Or one's attitude change theorization can be helped by noting the politician's and advertiser's rule taht when dealing with public opinion, it is better to ignore your opposition than to refute it. These examples also serve to remind us that the practitioner's rule of thumb is as suggestive by its failures as by its successes.

IV

ONGOING AND END EVALUATION
OF THE WORKSHOP

This section will deal with some of the evaluation that was done
during the concerned nonformal education workshop. It will outline some
techniques for gathering data about how a workshop is going and a short analysis
of the items that were generated during the evaluation session at the
workshop. It should be clear that this section will not deal with evaluation
as a subject matter, but will try and give some effective tools for those
persons who will be running some workshops of the specific kind. The techniques
described will be techniques that can be used during a workshop, by the
participants themselves and techniques that would generate feedback concerning
the workshop, so as to be able to improve some aspects of that workshop.

There are two parts to this section. First, a description of some of the
techniques that can be used, and secondly, a case study of the evaluation
done for the concerned workshop.

Some Evaluation Techniques to Get Feedback During a Workshop

Evaluation Based on Workshop Objectives (General Approach)

Traditionally, evaluation involves an assessment of outcomes in relation
to specified objectives. A formative evaluation of this type has several
developmental advantages. Since it requires defined and observable objectives
as a starting point, it encourages workshop organizers (and participants) to
be clear about objectives and expectations. This in itself improves the
planning and operational focus of the workshop. An assessment done during
the workshop of the achievement or non-achievement of specified objectives,
which can use informal or formal methods, provides an immediate basis
for revising the process or content of the workshop. Possible problems have
to do with time required or difficulties encountered in getting agreement

on objectives that are specific enough to be useful, and the time and competence required for more sophisticated measures if they are used.

Steps Involved

A number of steps can be involved in this process.

A. Agreement on specified objectives. This can, for instance, be done by helping organizers to translate fuzzy objectives into more specific terms on which there is a consensus, or to have organizers and participants identify specific objectives and come to an agreement as to which will be the guiding ones for the workshop.

B. Determination of whether extant objectives are being met or not. This may be done by informal observations on the part of organizers and/or participants, or by more formal and systematic measures on the part of an evaluator. (Here, and later, it may be decided to modify to workshop objectives, which then would become the new reference points for evaluation.)

C. Judgment as to why objectives are, or are not, being met. It can also be done by informal or formal means, depending on how much importance is placed on accuracy and the estimated usefulness of such observations.

D. Identification of alternative ways of remedying discrepencies, taking into account the apparent causes of the discrepency.

E. Selection of a remedy and implementing it.

In deciding if and how to use such an approach, a number of things should be considered. How much accuracy is needed? Should only some or all of the steps be undertaken? At what point(s) or how often should this be done in the workshop? These should be considered in the context of the probable utility, available human resources, and opportunity costs in terms of time taken away from other workshop activities.

Examples of Possible Uses

A.   Clarification and specification of workshop objectives. Whether this is done before the workshop, collaboratively with the participants in the initial session, or by a combination of both, it is an essential first step in this type of evaluation regardless of which follow-up alternative is used.

B.   At the end of each session, or day, the progress or problems in meeting objectives can be assessed, and if desired, suggestions for remedies can also be sought. This could be done through an oral discussion with participants, their written observations, and/or an assessment-planning session on the part of the organizer. Or an evaluation team of selected organizers and participants could meet after the session or day, and report their observations and recommendations for discussion the next day. The same could be done by an appointed and trained evaluator.

C.   One, or a combination, of these assessment/recommendation techniques can be used once in the middle of the workshop.

D.   The same as point C but done at the end of the workshop with a report to participants and future organizers.

Evaluation Based on an "Itemized Response" (General Approach)

An alternative approach, that does not presuppose a prior agreement on specified objectives, can be derived from the "itemized response" technique developed in Synectics for the purpose of organizing responses to a given idea or solution in problem solving. In Synectics the respondent is first asked to list the reasons s/he likes an idea, and only after a number of these are identified s/he lists concerns with the idea in terms of "problems to be solved" if the solution is to be viable.

For our purposes, this technique can be adapted as follows. After a session or series of sessions, two columns are placed on the blackboard or a large sheet of paper on the wall. The left-hand column is headed "Aspects to be reinforced or repeated." Under this, the workshop participants, or a sub-group, list what they personally liked or felt was effective. The right-hand column is headed "Problems to be solved." In this second activity, each problem that a person feels should be solved if the session or workshop were to be more effective is listed in the form of a question that begins with the words "How to..." (e.g., how to increase the active participation of more people?)

The advantages of this approach are several. It can be used even if time and sufficient agreement have not allowed or produced a consensus on a few specific objectives. Evaluative observations are not restricted to a few, previously established criteria, but may appear in a richer range that includes some unanticipated but useful points. The first activity and column emphasizes a positive orientation, is psychologically reinforcing and expands awareness of what is good. "Negative" observations are automatically put into a verbal form that is constructive, and leads one immediately into a remedial or problem-solving frame of mind.

Steps Involved

A number of steps can be considered as an extension of this process:

A.   Identification of a range of positive aspects and problems to be solved.

B.   Grouping of items into related categories (e.g., process and content, with sub-headings).

C.   Mark most important or priority items (according to general workshop objectives, personal views or needs, or other criteria).

D.   Select one priority "How to" problem and identify possible
alternative solutions.

E.   Select an alternative solution that is most feasible and
implement.

F.   Repeat with another priority problem if desired.

Examples of Possible Uses

A.   Itemize the responses, group the items, and identify
priorities among the "problems to be solved." It is desirable to carry
through at least to the prioritizing stage in a single operation,
since the original list in its random form tends to be diffuse and is
apt to get lost if left in this state. Further, the process of selecting
out is educationally useful in itself, brings value into evaluation
and takes a more likely step towards remedial action. This is best done
in the whole group or sub-group, but could also be done in writing by
individuals (or even an evaluator) and reported.

B.   Same as above, but follow through with identifying possible
solutions and selecting one for action. Follow-up could be done in
the whole group in an open session, by breaking down into sub-groups,
by delegating to a single sub-group, or by the organizers of the workshop.

C.   One or both of the above steps can be considered for the end
of a day, at mid-workshop, or at the end. Again, time and opportunity
costs need to be considered in deciding how much and how often to do
this. It should be noted that the technique can also be used for selected
aspects of a workshop or for a single critical session.

Other Alternatives

A number of other techniques can also be considered. As a starter,
these might include: a participant questionnaire given at the outset
and again in mid-course; the use of a process observer who reports periodically

to the group and/or organizers, etc.

Case Study: Use of Itemized Response During the Specific Facilitator Workshop

During the evaluation session of the workshop, the participants identified some <u>positive aspects</u> that could be reinforced in other workshops. Then they identified <u>what problems should be solved</u> to improve future workshops. The product was the following list:

Positive Aspects To Be Reinforced	What Problems Could Be Solved
Design of alternative workshops	H2*be more clear on objectives
Content (over process)	H2 insure reading material early enough
Written material ahead of time	
Process regarding workshop models (brainstorming) plus reinforcement in the workshop	H2 integrate major outside speaker in flow of workshop
Individual responsibility for sessions	H2 be aware that problems/process represent a point of view
Use of current workshop as case study	H2 avoid critiquing presentation too early
Teamwork aspect	
Needs assessment/data gathering sessions	H2 incorporate new ideas into time constraints; assure continuity of issues
Critical element (e.g., needs assessment plus management style allowing this)	H2 provide for individual concerns/ positions
Consistency/focus	H2 better involve talents of participants
Separate location (e.g., Campus Center)	
Group findings reported on blackboard in sharing session	H2 avoid too much material in too little time/condense
Theory/examples on board plus discussion	H2 improve clarity/purpose
Morning hours productivity	H2 conclude/bring session to conclusion with a focus (restatement of what was most important)
Change of rooms (breaks monotony)	
Absence of 'jargon'	
Diagram of issues/things to be aware of and to be handled	H2 bring out major categories/ priorities in materials
Raising central questions/identifying them	H2 get more 'content' (real)
No single/universal answer suggested	H2 identify directions for follow-up activities and/or application
Passing out products of sessions the following day	H2 assure specific reference to need of client.
Providing time for reflection	

A small group of workshop participants then identified those problems from the list of "How to?" problems which were in their minds most important to be dealt with. This led to the following sub-list:

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*H2 = How to...

How to be more clear on objectives?
How to conclude or bring a session to conclusion with a focus?
How to bring out major categories/priorities in materials?
How to identify directions for follow-up activities?
How to get more 'real' content?
How to assure specific reference to the need of client?

This sub-list was then categorized as follows:

Content Items	Process Items	Relevance Items
H2 be more clear on objectives	H2 bring out major categories/priorities	H2 assure specific reference to needs of client
H2 get more 'real' content	H2 bring a session to conclusion with a focus	

For the purpose of this case study, the concerned group of participants decided to pick up one of the "How to" problems from the sub-list and generate some possible alternative solutions to the specific problem: How to be more clear on objectives?

While dealing with this general problem, some other "How to" questions such as follows arose, which would have to be dealt with when trying to answer the above question:

How to get participants more clear on objectives?
How to get organizers more clear on objectives?
How to make objectives more specific?
How to get agreement on the objectives of participants and organizers?

Again for the purpose of this exercise, the group decided to take another problem, this time the last point: How to get agreement between participants and organizers on objectives? They generated the following possible mechanisms to handle the problem:

A.   The organizers and the participants separately prepare lists of objectives. These two lists are discussed during the first session of the workshop, and attempt is made to reach some agreement.

B.   The participants react to a list of objectives prepared by the organizers.

C.   The first session is 'open-ended'; both organizers and participants generate together a list of objectives for the workshop.

Crucial Factors

To choose one of the solutions generated, certain factors such as follows should be taken into consideration:

Time constraints
Give and take on the part of the organizers and participants
How much pre-planning is necessary.

These various factors will help one decide which option is preferable in specific settings. Once a selected "How to" problem has been followed through to the "solution-to-be tried" stage, the process can be repeated with another "How to" problem that has been previously identified.

APPENDIX I

TENTATIVE SCHEDULE OF THE WORKSHOP ON
"ORGANIZING WORKSHOP FOR TRAINING RURAL FACILITATORS"

Tuesday, June 10 - Thursday, June 12, 1975
Room 901, Campus Center

TUESDAY, JUNE 10TH

9:15 - 10:15	Introduction - General issues
10:15 - 10:30	Coffee break
10:30 - 11:30	Session on "Alternate Models of Workshops"
11:30 - 12:30	Two independent simultaneous sessions on "Data Gathering for Situations Assessment and Needs Analysis", and "Methodolgies Within a Workshop".
12:30 - 1:30	Lunch
1:30 - 2:30	Participants sharing earlier sessions' conclusions in a single session
2:30 - 3:30	Session on "Rural Facilitators' Concept, Principles, Characteristics, etc."
3:30 - 3:45	Winding up.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 11TH

9:15 - 9:45	Linking yesterday's activities with today's events
9:45 - 10:15	Critique on "Alternate Models of Workshop"
10:15 - 10:30	Coffee break
10:30 - 11:30	Session on "Needs Identification and Analysis"
11:30 - 12:30	Session on "Assessment of Village Situation"
12:30 - 1:30	Lunch
1:30 - 2:30	Session on "Problem Solving"
2:30 - 3:30	Session on "Hypothesis Generation through Mutual Relationships"
3:30 - 4:00	Winding up

THURSDAY, JUNE 12TH

9:15 - 12:00	Sessions focusing on evaluation, creation of a training manual, and winding up.

APPENDIX II

SUPPORTING MATERIAL ON

RURAL FACILITATORS

VARIOUS CHARACTERS IN A GROUP
DISCUSSION SITUATION

Objective: Look for these characters during the process of workshop.
They obviously include positive as well as negative personalities.
See which persons would be the most fit for implementation of
facilitator's model.

Group Building -

1. Encourager. Praises, agrees with, and accepts the contribution of
others. He/she indicates warmth and solidarity in his/her
attitude toward other group members, offers commendation and
praise and in various ways indicates understanding and acceptance
of other points of view, ideas, and suggestions.

2. Harmonizer. Mediates the differences between other members, attempts
to reconcile disagreements, relieves tension in conflict situa-
tions through jesting or pouring oil on the troubled waters, etc.

3. Compromiser. Operates from within a conflict in which his/her ideas
or position is involved. He/she may offer compromise by yielding
status, admitting his/her error, disciplining him/herself to main-
tain group harmony, or by "coming halfway" in moving along with
the group.

4. Expediter. Attempts to keep communication channels open by encouraging
or facilitating the participation of others ("we don't yet have
the ideas of Ms. X.") or by proposing regulation of the flow of
communication ("why don't we limit the length of our contributions
so that everyone will have a chance to contribute?")

determine where the group is in its thinking or action process.

12. <u>Orienter</u>. Defines the position of the group with respect to its goals, or raises questions about the direction which the group discussion is taking.

13. <u>Disagreer</u>. Takes a different point of view, argues against, implies error in fact or reasoning. S/he may disagree with opinions, values, sentiments, decisions, or procedures.

14. <u>Energizer</u>. Prods the group to action or decision, attempts to stimulate or arouse the group to "greater" or "higher quality" activity.

Individual

15. <u>Aggressor</u>. May work in many ways -- deflating the status of others, expressing disapproval of the values, acts, or feelings of others, attacking the group or the problem it is working on, joking aggressively, showing envy toward another's contribution by trying to take credit for it, etc.

16. <u>Blocker</u>. Tends to be negativistic and stubbornly resistant, disagreeing and opposing without or beyond reason and attempting to maintain or bring back an issue after the group has rejected or by-passed it.

17. <u>Recognition seeker</u>. Works in various ways to call attention to him/herself, whether through boasting, reporting on personal achievements, acting in unusual ways, struggling to prevent his/her being placed in an "inferior" position, etc.

18. <u>Dominator</u>. Tries to assert authority or superiority in manipulating the group or certain members of the group. This domination may take the form of flattery, of asserting a superior status or right to attention, giving directions authoritatively, interrupting the contributions of others, etc.

Task -

5. <u>Initiator</u>. Suggests or proposes to the group new ideas or a
   changes way of regarding the group problem or goal. The
   proposal may take the form of suggestions of a new group goal or
   a new definition of the problem. It may take the form of a
   suggested solution or some way of handling a difficulty that
   the group has encountered. Or it may take the form of a pro-
   posed new procedure for the group, a new way of organizing the
   group for the task ahead.

6. <u>Information seeker</u>. Asks for clarification of suggestions made in
   terms of their factual adequacy, for authoritative information,
   and facts pertinent to the problem being discussed.

7. <u>Opinion seeker</u>. Asks, not primarily for the facts of the case, but
   for a clarification of the values pertinent to what the group
   is undertaking or of values involved in a suggestion made or
   in alternative suggestions.

8. <u>Information giver</u>. Offers facts or generalizations which are
   "authoritative" or relates his/her own experience pertinently
   to the group problem.

9. <u>Opinion giver</u>. States his/her belief or opinion pertinently to a
   suggestion made or to alternative suggestions. The emphasis
   is on his/her proposal or what should become the group's view
   of pertinent values, not primarily upon relevant facts or information.

10. <u>Elaborator</u>. Spells out suggestions in terms of examples or developed
    meanings, offers a rationale for suggestions previously made,
    and tries to deduce how any idea or suggestion would work out if
    adopted by the group.

11. <u>Summarizer</u>. Pulls together ideas, suggestions, and comments of group
    members and group decisions (decisions of the group) to help

WHY FACILITATORS NEED TRAINING

Objective: Reasons such as mentioned below should be kept in mind by the trainer and s/he should pass these on to the trainees who are supposed to train other persons to become facilitators.

1. S/he must believe in the usefulness and worthiness of the job s/he would be undertaking.

2. S/he must have confidence in his/her ability to do the job.

3. S/he is in need of basic subject-matter which concerns the particular job.

4. S/he must understand how to keep participative relationship with others.

5. S/he must have at least basic knowledge of evaluation of her/his efforts.

SOME QUALIFICATIONS OF LEADERS

Objective: Qualifications such as pointed out below will not only help a trainer in identifying suitable persons but will also serve as a guide to facilitators preparation.

1. Knowledge--must be well informed

2. Pleasing personality--must draw people

3. Tact--must be able to keep from offending

4. Courtesy--must be respectful

5. Initiative--must be able to take the right action at the right time without being told.

6. Impartiality--must have no favorites

7. Flexibility--must be subject to change

8. Fearlessness--must have courage

9. Cheerfulness--must be happy and optimistic

10. Industrious--must be willing to work hard

11. Emotional stability--must have poise

12. Sympathy--must possess a kindred feeling

13. Enthusiasm--must possess a contagious spirit

14. Sincerity--must be genuine

15. Leadership skills-must know how to conduct meetings and guide thinking with ease

16. Loyalty--must be devoted to the cause

17. Perseverance--must not give up easily

18. Versatility--must be able to do more than one thing well

19. Vision--must have imagination

20. Integrity--must be honest and upright

21. Ethics--must have high moral standards

STEPS IN MAKING RATIONAL DECISIONS

1. Definition of the issue on which decision is to be made.

2. Identification of all possible alternate courses of action.

3. Identification of the outcomes of each course of action.

4. Selection of a course of action with the best expected outcomes and the least undesirable outcomes.

MAJOR STEPS IN PLANNING ANY KIND OF PROGRAM

1. Decision on what kind of planning is it going to be--personal, centralized, decentralized, etc.

2. Defining the need for planning.

3. Assessment of resources--(time, material, human)

4. Establishment of short-term and long-term objectives.

5. Evaluation of each step and then overall evaluation.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF
AUTHORITARIAN, AND DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP STYLES

<u>Objective</u>: In most of the developing countries, authoritarian leadership

has been the rule for long periods. The facilitators model

obviously advocates a democratic approach. See how much

sacrifice of our ideology is necessary to fit the reality--

a real challenge!

<u>Advantages of Authoritarian Leadership</u>:

1. Acceleration of business transactions thus saving of time
    and avoiding group conflicts, etc.

2. The group does not have to bother about making decisions.
    Readymade plans are available with instructions to execute
    them.

3. Need for fewer trained leaders.

4. No problem in working with small or large size groups

<u>Advantages of Democratic Leadership</u>:

1. Group-made decisions have better chances of being carried out.

2. Quality of decisions is improved.

3. Leadership is developed among members of the group

4. Improves the group's morale

<u>Disadvantages of Authoritarian Leadership</u>

1. It often leads to dissatisfaction and rebellion

2. It does not provide for the development of the members of the group

3. It does not provide for perpetuation of the group

4. It does not utilize the full resources of the group

5. It often squelches initiative and originality on the part of
    the members.

6. It is costly and sometimes fatal for the leader to err

7. It is not acceptable to highly-trained persons

8. It does not consider the worth and dignity of an individual

9. It does not usually build morale which is essential for loyalty
   to the cause

10. It often selects leaders on the faulty basis of heredity,
    influence, position in the community, etc., who prove incapable
    of meeting the demands of leadership.

Disadvantages of Democratic Leadership

1. It might easily lead to the monopolization of the discussions
   by one or two members of the group

2. It requires more skill on the part of the leader

3. It may allow a very vocal minority to dominate a passive majority

4. It is sometimes difficult for people who are not accustomed to
   group work to accept the ideas of others, even in the light of
   evidence, when these ideas are opposed to their own.

5. It is not easily used when large numbers of people are involved

SOME ISSUES RELATED TO RURAL FACILITATORS MODEL

Objective: Brainstorm and analyze how various issues can support or

harm the project.

Legitimization: Getting green signal from the influential persons

by working through them. How?

Age: Does age play the decisive role in determining facilitators?

Existing Power Pattern: Is the existing power, leadership structure

being threatened by preparing facilitators?

MAIN THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

<u>Objective:</u>   To get acquainted with the basic theories in the field.

Try to distinguish the specific emphasis in various facilitator situations.

1. <u>Leadership as Traits Within the Individual Leader:</u>

   The person who has achieved pre-eminence by unique attainment, who is <u>ahead</u> of his group, a person of the caliber of an Einstein.

2. <u>Leadership as a Function of the Group:</u>

   The person who by designation, for whatever reason, has been given official leadership status involving formal authority, who is <u>the head</u> of his/her group.

3. <u>Leadership as a Function of the Situation:</u>

   The person who emerges in a given situation as capable of helping the group determine and achieve its objectives and/or maintain and strengthen the group itself, who is <u>a head</u> of his/her group.

M. KALIM QAMAR