The MAP Manual for Training Facilitators

by

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Contents

Introduction

The "Method for Active Participation Research and Development Project" (MAP) was initiated by the Swedish Cooperative Centre (SCC) with funding from the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) to conduct research in Kenya, Tanzania, and Zambia from 1988 to 1991. It had four objectives: 1) to develop methodologies for promoting participation of members in local co-ops, 2) to assist national cooperative institutions in applying these methods, especially in the training of facilitators, 3) to develop new techniques for monitoring and evaluating the promotion of participation, and 4) to make adaptations of participatory methodology for use in other development contexts outside of the cooperative sector.

This training manual is one of three volumes comprising the final report of the MAP project. "The MAP Facilitators Handbook" is a direct companion to this manual and is general reference book for new facilitators. The third volume, "Methods for Active Participation," is a comprehensive review of findings from the MAP project.

The training sessions have emerged from the collaborative work of the MAP project with several groups and organisations. The Kenya National Federation of Cooperatives (KNFC), the Cooperative Union of Tanzania (CUT), and the Cooperative College of Zambia (CCZ) provided the primary field laboratories as MAP assisted in the development of the "Cooperative Members' Participation Programme" (CMPP).

The "Land Management Programme" (LAMP) in Babati District, Tanzania, and the "Integrated Rural Development Programme" (IRDP/EP) in the Eastern Province of Zambia provided additional opportunities for further experimentation with MAP methodologies and the training of facilitators.

Since its inception, the MAP project has built upon the extensive research activities of The Institute of Cultural Affairs (ICA) and its international network of practitioners. The pioneering work of the ICA in participatory methods "concerned with the human factor" in development continues to be an inspiration to many public, private, and voluntary organisations around the world.

The manual is divided into five chapters. The first reviews some of the personal challenges experienced by the author in training rural facilitators. The second, third, and fourth chapters describe approaches to training facilitators in three phases: orientation training, on-the-job training, and advance training.

The final chapter is not directly related to training. It shares some ideas for working with programme personnel in designing participation programmes.

The manual shares many practical ideas for training facilitators. These are suggestions only and are put forward as a resource for trainers. Every trainer, however, will find it necessary to tailor particular training events according to the needs of the people being trained. It is hoped that enough material is provided here to stimulate the creation of many future training programmes for facilitators involved in crucial work of promoting grass-roots participation in rural development activities.

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Terry D. Bergdall
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Chapter One

The Challenge of Training Facilitators

Facilitators play an indispensable role in any participation promotion programme. After all is said and done, they are the ones who finally represent the programme and carry out the work with local people. Yet many of those who are asked to play a facilitation role are unfamiliar with their new responsibilities. This underscores the need for effective facilitator training if the aims and objectives of participation programmes are to be realised.

This chapter sets a general context for the particular training exercises found in the remainder of the manual. It begins with a look at the journey of becoming a facilitator and the various phases of a trainee's development. It then examines some of the major challenges confronting facilitators as they carry out their programmes. These challenges are illustrated through several actual experiences accumulated through training work with facilitators. The challenges are examined in three areas: enabling high levels of participant involvement, ensuring high quality thinking on the part of participants, and maintaining an effective sense of flexibility in follow-up work. The final section considers training issues related to a facilitator's self-understanding.

1.1 The Journey of Becoming a Facilitator

Facilitating participation stands in sharp contrast to many other roles typically played in rural development work. Being a good facilitator requires a breaking of conventional molds. Teachers are often trapped by a schooling system which is over-dependent on lecturing techniques while extension officers are regularly expected to become salesmen who pitch predetermined plans originating from central development offices. Neither serve as good models for a facilitator.

Many rural people see themselves as passive recipients of projects rather than active players in the development process. These passive attitudes are rooted in self-perceptions that have grown over a lifetime of reinforcing messages. MAP aggressively challenges these and aims to convey one central message in all that it does: rural people can be agents of their own development.

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Unlike the traditional roles of teachers and extension officers, facilitators enable participants to draw conclusions based on their own experiences rather than propagate ready made answers. In programmes using MAP methods, facilitators guide the planning of projects by asking questions and refraining from stating their own opinions or instructing participants about the "right" way to do things.

An established structure for each workshop in a MAP seminar is usually described in a detailed procedures manual. Facilitators, however, cannot effectively lead discussions by merely following an instructions book. A facilitator must have the sensitivity to ask the right question at the right time to illuminate the issue under discussion. The degree to which MAP facilitators can do this job determines the success of a MAP seminar.

The training of facilitators involves the development of practical skills in participatory techniques. But in addition to acquiring objective skills for leading workshops and discussions, becoming a facilitators often requires a shift in self-perception among trainees themselves. Facilitators are just as vulnerable to the crippling "images" commonly found in rural areas as are others: "rural people cannot really do much on their own; as an outsider, I am expected to be an expert and do things to help people." Replacing these with new images in one of the trainers biggest challenges.

There are three stages through which people pass on their journey to becoming capable MAP facilitators. First, novice facilitators learn the basics of MAP and are oriented to a participatory approach to group planning. They become acquainted with the intent, format, and logistics of the programme and become familiar enough to explain the purpose and design of MAP to others. At this stage they learn basic principles and observe MAP seminars being conducted by experienced facilitators.

In the second stage of the journey, facilitators begin to put their theoretical ideas about MAP into practice. They actually stand before groups and lead seminar discussions. In the beginning they usually rely heavily upon the facilitator's guide which serves as a blueprint for the seminars. Very quickly, however, they find themselves no longer dependent upon the printed procedures and lead discussions from memory. Gradually, they do less of the talking in seminars and encourage participants to speak more. It is during this period that new facilitators begin to realise that their job is to ask questions and to refrain from supplying the answers.

These first two stages occur primarily by watching and conducting seminars. The longer they are involved in doing this, the more confident they become as they grow familiar with the MAP routine: they follow the blueprint, ask the questions, and record the answers. But a typical problem often develops during this period. Facilitators encourage participants to contribute ideas but then accept all answers without challenge regardless of how shallow or unthoughtful.

The third stage of a facilitator's development is concerned with the issue of quality in seminar results. It involves a deeper understanding about the underlying intentions of MAP and a strengthening of practical skills for leading discussions. Facilitators learn to push for genuine insights among MAP participants. This is a phase of finesse and sensitivity and is a difficult one to realise.

MAP training activities found in this manual are designed to correspond to these three stages. They are organised according to an orientation period, on-the-job-training in the field, and advanced MAP facilitator training.

The purpose of the "MAP orientation" is to introduce prospective facilitators to a whole new approach in the learning process. Traditional roles are turned upside-down in MAP so that participants are considered "experts" rather than uninformed students. MAP utilises sophisticated techniques for enabling groups to draw upon their own latent knowledge. Some programmes have demonstrate MAP techniques in a classroom setting while others introduce MAP through observation of an actual MAP seminar.

After becoming familiar with the participatory approaches of MAP, novice facilitators begin developing their skills by actually standing before groups and leading workshops. For this experience to be most valuable, new facilitators need to lead these seminars while being observed and critiqued by experienced facilitators. This constitutes "on-the-job-training."

The number of seminars for effective on-the-job-training is indefinite. The more, however, the better. Initially, novice facilitators are preoccupied with their own performance and are primarily concerned with doing the right thing at the right time. Most novices need to lead workshops in seminars for at least four or five times before they become familiar enough with the process to redirect their attention away from what they are doing to what participants are really saying and experiencing. On-the-job-training should, therefore, last long enough for facilitators to be involved in at least half a dozen field seminars.

A small number of experienced facilitators is a major constraint to the rapid expansion of a programme through on-the-job-training. But if a national programme is to ultimately be an effective one, this step in the training process cannot be rushed.

After novice facilitators have gained some practical experience through on-the-job- training, they are in a position to sharpen their skills and deepen their understanding about the MAP approach. This usually occurs by bringing together experienced people for an "advanced facilitator training seminar." Though topics of advanced training can be introduced at an earlier stage, it is done so with limited results. It is difficult for novice facilitators to fully grasp advanced concepts until they have gained a breadth of experience with which to refer.

For an advanced facilitators training seminar to be effective, it must involve a significant commitment of time. Many programmes using MAP methods have found that two full weeks are often required for this to happen. Some topics and activities typically included in an advanced training seminar for facilitators are:

- up-dating of current field activities;
- extensive examination of underlying theoretical assumptions of the participatory approach of MAP;
- numerous exercises for becoming more familiar with these theoretical foundations;
- study from other sources on the role of "animators;"

- development of techniques for ensuring high levels of active participation by seminar participants, especially by those less inclined to contribute their ideas in a public forum, e.g. women, less prosperous farmers, etc;
- development of techniques for ensuring high quality of thinking when participants create local self-help plans;
- collection and use of baseline data;
- adjustments to seminar procedures for holding more powerful seminars;
- testing the lessons gained in the training seminar by having facilitators conduct an actual two day MAP seminar in the field;
- extensive reflections on the necessary monitoring activities which are required to sustain grassroots initiatives catalysed by MAP activities;
- review of up-coming programme activities and confirmation of all logistical arrangements for the coming months.

The training of facilitators takes place over an extended period of time. In a sense, there is no end to becoming a facilitator because it is a continual learning process. The structure of formal training suggested in this manual include a mix of background theory combined with the actual field practice of leading MAP planning seminars.

1.2 High Levels of Participant Involvement

In carrying-out MAP programmes, facilitators can utilise many techniques for encouraging high levels of participation. These are usually systematised in a facilitator's guide, or manual, which provides a blueprint of procedural steps for conducting seminars. Yet good facilitators need a very clear understanding about WHY they ask the questions they do and LISTEN to the answers they receive from the participants. Stale questions parroted mindlessly from a "blueprint" will not realise the aims of MAP. Neither will short-cuts.

The facilitator's guide is usually presented and elaborated upon extensively during orientation training seminars. But practical skills develop slowly. Self-evaluation critiques after on-the-job training experiences are often the first time that many procedural steps found in the facilitators guide are truly grasped by new trainees. This is readily illustrated by some examples of new facilitators at work.

During a team discussion in one MAP seminar, a novice facilitator relinquished all responsibility for facilitating the team by appointing one of the participants to be a "team chairman" who led the discussion. This resulted in very long speeches by a very small number of vocal participants while the vast majority of other people in the team merely sat and listened. The facilitator likewise sat in silence while the team went through a very chaotic, aimless conversation. The facilitator mistakenly thought this abdication of responsibility was treating participants as "experts."

In the discussions of another team, participants were asked to propose self-help projects. One person in the team made a suggestion and the facilitator immediately asked if the group agreed. They said they did, so the suggestion was listed as one of their agreed upon projects even though no discussion took place concerning its merits or feasibility.

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When a second project was proposed, the facilitator immediately offered strong support for the idea by making a long speech on how the project could be implemented through a bank loan. After listening to this long speech, one participant in the team simply said "we support your idea," at which time the facilitator wrote the proposed project on large paper for the plenary presentation. With that the team discussion came to an end. Only two ideas were proposed and virtually no discussion had taken place by the participants. These short-cuts violate the procedures found in the facilitator's guide and undermined the intent of the seminar.

Because participants in many team discussions are not given time to do an individual brainstorm before sharing ideas, conversations sometimes degenerate into a stale repetitious series of comments, "I support the previous idea." In one on-the-job evaluation, it was said that if a facilitator had stopped to ask participants to explain the "previous idea," they would likely have been unable to do so.

Procedure manuals are specific in their instructions. First, the facilitator explains that time will be given for the group to think in silence to brainstorm their own ideas as individuals. Second, the facilitator says that it is important that everyone say their idea even if it has already been stated: simply saying that their idea has already been shared without stating it is unacceptable. Third, the facilitator urges participants not to change their mind about what to say on the basis of what others before them contributed because it important to know what everyone thinks.

Many problems can be avoided when basic guidelines in the facilitator's manual are understood and followed. By reflecting on their "mistakes" during the self-evaluation exercise (a crucial step without which on-the-job-training does not take place), the facilitators are usually able to appreciate the value of these printed guidelines and further expand upon them.

Training facilitators in the participatory techniques described in procedure manuals is very time consuming. Classroom orientation is, of course, necessary but such lessons are usually learned best through on-the-job training and the careful review and evaluation of performances by new facilitators.

1.3 High Quality Thinking by Participants

Enabling rural participants to think deeply about problems and solutions is one of the primary responsibilities of a facilitator. An occurrence in a follow-up meeting serves as a reminder of the delicate responsibility facilitators have for enabling participants to plan good, realistic projects.

A youth group reported that they had started a carpentry project and that they had been able to make progress by borrowing some tools from within the village. A facilitator then made a strong speech about the availability of a "revolving loan fund" for obtaining tools in industrial projects. When the youth went back to their team to plan the next steps for their carpentry work, they decided to pursue a loan from this revolving fund.

It was only much later as the follow-up meeting came to an end that a villager asked a question about requirements for qualifying for a loan from the fund. It immediately became obvious that the youth did not qualify, yet their entire plan was

to seek the loan. In a sense, the youth had been misled because they thought it would be a simple matter for them to obtain the loan. The question which revealed the complexity involved needed to have been asked when the youth first began to consider the loan. It is the responsibility of a facilitator to ask such questions early and to steer the discussion in a different direction if the prospects are clearly deemed to be unrealistic.

When a piece of information like that of the "revolving loan fund" is shared in a MAP seminar, it is almost always perceived by villagers to be a strong recommendation--coming from an authority figure--about what they "ought" to do. Facilitators need to be extremely careful in what they say during seminars. If facilitators are to avoid misleading participants, they must communicate, if not overstate, the difficulties involved when sharing any information about "opportunities." Better yet, proposals for future action should primarily be left to the participants themselves to make on their own. Participants do not need a lot of partial information, even when given with the best of intentions, coming from outsiders who will be uninvolved in project implementation.

Reflections from another seminar clearly illustrates the subtle skills required of a facilitator. One participant at a co-op CMPP planning meeting kept bringing up questions about the failure of the society to pay a bonus to its members. Though it was explained that no bonus could be paid because no profit had been made, the member continued to bring up his complaint. Finally, a facilitator told the man that any further questions on the matter should be taken up outside of the seminar but that now it was merely distracting the participants from other more pressing matters.

In self-evaluation, many facilitators thought that this was too abrupt of a dismissal to an important issue: if CMPP seminars are to allow for the growth of "new awareness" by participants, such issues have to be discussed thoroughly until everyone is clear on the issues. Other facilitators said that this issue had been thoroughly discussed in earlier seminars. They thought the man did understand the bonus issue but refused to acknowledge it because he was merely angry about it. His persistent questions were his way of registering his protest. These two view points caused the facilitators to have an energetic conversation about what was really going on in the demonstration and on the most appropriate response that a facilitator could have made in such a situation.

The conversation ended with the observation that no facilitator is ever totally sure about what to do when confronted with a problem like this. In such situations, facilitators have to use their best judgement and sensitivity and then decide instantaneously on the best way to proceed. No "right" answer can ever be found in a manual. Only through careful reflection and discussion with other facilitators after each CMPP seminar can such sensitivity be truly developed. The discussions highlighted the need to continually reflect upon facilitation issues.

Ensuring quality in participatory planning events surely is one of the most elusive skills for a facilitator to acquire. Trainers face a formidable task in trying to provide guidance.

1.4 Facilitator Flexibility in Follow-up Work

Because MAP is an open-ended process, facilitators are constantly confronting unanticipated situations. Facilitators are required to respond to a host of surprises when conducting follow-up monitoring visits. Unexpected problems are always lurking as the following case study illustrates.

Many objectives of MAP coincide with those of government extension officers: community development officers are trying to encourage self-help; cooperative extension officers are trying to encourage better management of co-op societies; agricultural extension officers are trying to encourage modern practices in agriculture. These are the very types of activities that participants often plan in the MAP seminars.

Extension services are intended to provide a basic human infrastructure of expertise and support to the rural population. It is only logical, therefore, to try to bring extension officers and local people together as project planning takes place during MAP seminars. Accordingly, extension officers are invited to attend all planning seminars conducted by one programme using MAP methods. They are also one of the most important audiences for the "Leadership Seminars" that subsequently follow village planning events.

The involvement of extension officers was a big concern for one programme. Though extension officers usually appreciated the results that came from the MAP seminars, most did not seem to understand that by building on the emergent excitement and interest catalysed by the MAP activities they could actually enhance their own work. Since "follow-up to self-help projects planned during MAP seminars" did not specifically appear in their job descriptions (even though something like "encouragement of self-reliance within villages and general support of local initiatives" undoubtedly did), they seldom bothered with local activities planned in MAP seminars.

This kind of passive involvement of extension officers with MAP activities was the norm with this programme. In one location, however, there was a spectacular example of one extension officer interpreting MAP as a threatening competitor instead of a helpful complement. Her involvement was not passive; it became actively hostile.

The circumstances of this particular situation are both interesting and informative. During a MAP seminar, the youth in the village planned to make and sell charcoal as an income project. As usual, the community development officer was present at this MAP seminar when the project was planned. Once the youth began to implement their project, they decided they needed a simple shed to securely store their charcoal and to protect it from the rain. They did not have money, however, for purchasing necessary materials in order to build it. When they discussed this problem with the community development officer, she put them in touch with an international NGO (CUSO) which was operating in the area. This NGO in turn agreed to provide a small capital grant so that the youth could purchase materials.

Though this MAP programme did not provide this type of external support to self-help projects, it was quite happy to see people go out and promote assistance elsewhere. One could say that this extension officer's involvement with the youth after the seminar was a great example of what this programme would like to see happen. The problem came when the MAP facilitators returned to do the scheduled "follow-up" meeting three months later.

The youth told the facilitators that they could not attend the follow-up meeting because the community development officer insisted that they were no longer a "MAP project" but were now a "CUSO project!" It seems that this was an important distinction to her because she was receiving "incentives" from CUSO (a bicycle and a small daily allowance to visit villages) and she wanted to show them some results of her work.

Understandably, this infuriated the MAP facilitators. The essential issue was project identification. Charcoal making and selling was, of course, neither a "MAP project" nor a "CUSO project" nor a "community development officer project." Charcoal making was the youth's project! The MAP programme, CUSO, and the community development officer merely played supporting roles. MAP provided a structured process whereby the youth conceived of their project, planned how to do it, and reflected upon their progress in the follow-up meeting; CUSO provided important capital input; the extension officer became an enabling linkage with CUSO. These are complementary roles. The problem arose because people placed too much importance on their own particular role and forgot that the object of all their effort was to enable the youth.

There is an old saying about working together: "we can accomplish anything as long as we don't worry about who receives the credit." The facilitators were quite correct in solving the problem of the youth's hesitation to attend the follow-up meeting through the mediation of the village chairman. That, however, was only an immediate solution to the particular problem at hand. The MAP facilitators continued to search for practical ways of working effectively with extension officers as a complement of supporting agents.

In responding to unexpected problems in monitoring and follow-up, facilitators need to have a firm understanding of their purpose and aim in doing MAP. Because such problems are unpredictable, formal training cannot directly prepare facilitators to confront such unknown challenges. MAP training can only set the context. The effectiveness of the training is then put to the test, for it is facilitators themselves who must then draw upon their critical intelligence to observe, judge, weigh-up, decide, and act when confronted by unexpected and uncomfortable complications.

1.5 The Self-Images of Facilitators

Facilitators work in a development atmosphere that usually expects outside agencies to provide financial or material resources as a complement to community self-help activities. In contrast to this prevailing pattern, MAP is often employed by programmes that do not offer financial assistance. These programmes see that the premature introduction of external resources does little to break patterns of rural passivity. Novice facilitators, however, are often personally embarrassed by this

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policy. Other programme officers are a conduit for grants and they wish they, too, could receive the adulation given those agents who "deliver the goods."

Experience, again, is the best teacher in training facilitators and in altering prevailing images. Events in one MAP programme show why.

A Tanzanian village, after years of little self-help activity, took part in a MAP planning seminar. Several years earlier an international development organisation had started to construct a small clinic in the village but failed to complete it. During the MAP planning villagers decided that they could finish the clinic themselves. Within two weeks they made bricks and organised workdays to construct the building. After waiting for so long for someone else to do this project for them, they were very proud of their accomplishment. Their plan for a roof called for stripping old iron sheets from a dilapidated storehouse and transferring them to the clinic.

A couple of days before moving the iron sheets, they were visited by a newly arrived "technical assistant" from Europe who began working with the MAP programme. He was very excited to see the initiative taken by the villagers in building their clinic and was so impressed that he decided to assist the villagers through an "incentive" for further self-help work. He suggested that instead of stripping the old store, his organisation would purchase brand new sheets for the roof. The villagers were so happy that they cancelled their communal work day and began to wait for the delivery of the new roofing material.

When this failed to arrive after several months, the villagers went to visit the aid organisation and check on progress. When they went, they took with them a long list of other materials they needed: paint, nails, locks, hinges, etc. Their strategy had changed from building the clinic with their own resources to seeking it from external sources. Months after canceling their scheduled work day, the clinic remained unfinished and villagers sat around waiting for the arrival of their gift.

An unintentional message had been sent by this MAP programme which undermined its real aim of encouraging rural people to be agents of their own development. A dependency mindset is a hard one to change.

Training facilitators inevitably calls for addressing the self-images that facilitators have of themselves and their work. Though this experience did a lot to shift the facilitators' own view of their role, they still had a lingering desire to provide villagers with something. The facilitators argued that the programme should provide MAP participants with lunch. The following experience shows the problem with an inconsistent message regardless of how small.

A MAP seminar took place in the midst of ramadan when participants, who were Muslim, were fasting during the day. Therefore, instead of providing a lunch, the facilitators simply divided the money from the lunch budget and distributed the amount of Tsh 400 to each participant. Though less than two US dollars, this is a considerable amount: a bag of charcoal is regularly produced in the village, then transported via a two hour bicycle ride to the district centre where it is finally sold for the very same amount that was given to the participants in lieu of lunch. Four hundred shillings represents a lot of hard work.

Because money was being distributed, the facilitators had to set a ceiling of 45 villagers who would be allowed to attend the seminar. Since the number of people who showed up exceeded 45, many prospective participants were arbitrarily asked to leave. This had the perverse effect of convincing villagers (both those who remained and those who were asked to leave) that people were being paid to attend. One can well imagine the response of a villager when asked to participate in a future project planned during the planning seminar: "You were the one who was paid to attend that meeting, I wasn't; you work on the project yourself! It doesn't have anything to do with me."

Though not so blatantly obvious, the very same logic remains when lunch is provided to participants. Enabling facilitators to become self-conscious about the subtle impact of all their actions in conducting MAP is one of the biggest challenges in designing a good facilitator training programme. Coming to terms with the uncomfortable embarrassment of only being able to offer the bitter truth of "self-reliance" is an important step in the journey of becoming a mature facilitator.

Effective programmes of facilitation training need to address the self-perceptions of facilitators as well as the development of practical skills in participatory techniques. The following chapters present a number of ideas for creating a good training programme.

Chapter Two

The Orientation of New Facilitators

New trainees begin their journey toward becoming a facilitator by attending a orientation seminar. Though trainees may well come with differing past experiences concerning participation activities, the purpose of the seminar is to introduce everyone to the basics of the methodology.

Training designs will differ according to the time available, logistical arrangements, and the particular requirements of the trainees attending the seminar. On the following pages is a two week design that hold many general values. The first week begins with a demonstration of MAP planning methods in a classroom setting followed by an introduction to and practice with the methods.

During the second week trainees are introduced to the specific programme with which they are working. This includes the design and intent of the programme as well as an introduction to administrative issues involved in programme implementation. More significantly, it also includes the conducting of an actual practice seminar in the field whereby trainees put their newly acquired skills to the ultimate test in front of rural participants.

This design establishes a broad pattern for orienting new facilitators to MAP methods. Particular programmes, of course, will always cause it to be altered to meet the specific needs at hand. The design that follows is for three sessions a day with each session lasting about two hours. This allows for two sessions in the morning (one before tea and one after) and a third in the afternoon.

The following sections presents possible training sessions for three different topics: the programme in practice, an introduction to participatory methodology, and the responsibilities of facilitators.

2.1 The Programme in Practice

Because many trainees may well be totally unfamiliar with participatory methodologies, it is important for an orientation seminar to begin with a practical demonstration of MAP methods.

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Direct and major introductions to MAP methods are usually done in two ways. One is a classroom demonstration. In this approach the trainees take on the role of being a participant and begin experiencing the methodologies just as a villager does. Rather than having MAP explained to them in a theoretical manner, they encounter it first hand and form their own conclusions based on their experience.

A second way of demonstrating the methods is by trainees is via a field trip. In this approach, trainees observe an actual MAP seminar take place in a village setting as local farmers make plans for the future of their community. This type of demonstration has the advantage of immediately allowing trainees to observe precisely the activity that will soon be expected of them. It does not, however, allow them to experience the reality of being a participant in all of its wonder and confusion.

Another approach for introducing MAP, though even more indirect, is through the use of a video. Though this is better than an introductory lecture about MAP, it obviously lacks the power of first hand experience.

Perhaps the best approach for orienting new trainees to MAP methods, if time will allow, is to use all of these approaches interwoven together. Unfortunately, the luxury of time is not always readily available so a trainer must pick and choose according to limitations surrounding the training programme.

The following training sessions provide some helpful guidelines for orienting new trainees to the participatory methodologies of MAP.

Session: "Introduction Conversation"

Objectives: For trainees to become acquainted with one another; to learn each others names; to demonstrate immediately the participatory nature of the training seminar.

Materials: None.

Time: Approximately 45 minutes.

Procedures: Welcome everyone to the seminar. Introduce the session by saying that since we will be spending a lot of time together during the next few days it is important to get to know one another.

Lead a conversation by asking the following questions:
- give your name, where you work and your position, and give us an example of a time you participated with a group in preparing a plan of action to do something (go around the table from one participant to the next until everyone has answered).
- anyone, how did the planning exercise you mentioned occur? (how did it get organised, was there a leader, was there a system to the planning? get four or five examples from different people);
- were there any unique aspects to planning that haven't been mentioned yet?
- to what degree was everyone in your group able to contribute ideas to the plan?
- when the planning session was over, how well did everyone know what to do?
- how well was the plan implemented?
- what would you say were the reason for success or failure?
- what did you learn about group planning from that experience?

Bring the discussion to a conclusion by informing the group that the purpose of this seminar is to train each of them in practical skills of facilitating group planning exercises.

Session: "CMPP Video"

Objectives: To introduce trainees to the participatory approach of MAP by
              watching a video presentation on the methods.

Materials: VHS equipment; a copy of the video cassette, "The Cooperative
              Members Participation Programme in Tanzania" (CMPP) produced by
              Helen Thorfinn and Carolyn Haux for the Swedish Cooperative Centre,
              1988.

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: Introduce the session by explaining that the video was made in
              Tanzania during a CMPP seminar in the Morogoro Region. It was
              made to acquaint general audiences, many who may have a limited
              understanding about rural development in Africa, to CMPP.
              (5 minutes)

              Show the video.
              (20 minutes)

              Following the video, lead a reflective conversation with the group:
              - what pictures in the video do you remember? (have everyone give
                at least one example);
              - what were some comments from the narration that you remember?
              - where do you think the video did a good job in conveying the real
                issues and problems that rural people have to deal with in doing
                development work?
              - if you had been involved in making this video, what other problems
                would you have tried to covey?
              - if you had a chance to talk to some to of the people you saw in this
                video, what questions would you like to ask them?
              - what did you learn from this video about methodologies for
                promoting participation in rural development?
              - after seeing this video, to what questions about MAP will you be
                seeking some answers during these next few days of facilitator
                training? (30 minutes)

              Conclude by pointing out that these questions are a good starting point
              for learning more about techniques for facilitating MAP.
              (5 minutes)

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Session:	"Classroom Demonstration of MAP Planning"
Objectives:	To demonstrate the participatory planning approach of MAP by having trainees consider a topic of particular relevance to their work.
Materials:	4" x 6" cards, masking tape, and large marking pens.
Time:	Approximately two hours for each workshop topic, i.e. vision, obstacles, and proposals.
Procedures:	Introduce the topic and focus question. (5 minutes)
	Everyone brainstorm a list of ideas individually. (10 minutes)
	Divide into small teams where individuals share their ideas with each other. They select an assigned number of ideas and write one per card in large letters using their marking pens and return to the group. (30 minutes)
	Organise the cards into categories. (45 minutes)
	Name the categories. (20 minutes)
	Briefly reflect on the workshop. (10 minutes)
Notes:	This focus question of the workshop can vary but it is always one that is of legitimate concern to the group. For example, a group working with co-ops might consider "what is our vision for a genuinely active membership in the primary societies?"
	The procedures described here are only a brief sketch. In detail, this demonstration needs to follow the procedural steps found in the "MAP Facilitators Handbook" since this book will be the primary resource for future reference by the trainees.

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Session: "Reflections on the Demonstration MAP Seminar"

Objectives: To have trainees review the implementation of the methods and
               consider impact of the seminar among participants.

Materials: None.

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: Introduce the conversation by saying that no event is ever really
               complete until one takes time to reflect upon it. A demonstration of a
               MAP seminar has just taken place and now for the next hour or so we
               want to reflect on what we saw.
               (5 minutes)

               Start with a discussion using the following questions; have everyone
               answer the first question or two and then open the discussion to
               voluntary contributions:
               - what was something you remember a participant saying that you
                 thought was interesting?
               - where did participants become excited about something that
                 happened in the seminar?
               - where in the discussions did you think that the participants truly
                 gained a new insight about something or another?
               - where do you feel confident about the plan? (i.e. you sense that
                 they can succeed?)
               - where do you think a few problems might be encountered as the
                 plan is implemented?
               (25 minutes)

               Shift the emphasis away from the participants and to the planning
               methodology by making a little transition comment and then ask the
               following questions:
               - when we watched the video on CMPP a few days ago, you were
                 asked what questions you had about the methodology; what
                 answers came to you about any of those questions as you watched
                 the demonstration seminar?
               - if you had to explain to a stranger what MAP is all about, what
                 would you now say?
               - after watching this demonstration, where do you feel you will have
                 to work the hardest to develop your facilitation skills?
               (25 minutes)

               Bring the discussion to a conclusion by pointing out that the orientation
               training will soon shift to examining the participatory techniques
               observed in the demonstration. Soon everyone will have a chance to
               practice these skills in classroom practice and field experimentation.
               (5 minutes)

Session: "Facilitator Appraisal after the Demonstration Seminar"

Objectives: To introduce the concept of facilitator self-evaluation by examining the performance of experienced facilitators; to show that there is nothing to be embarrassed by or defensive about because appraisal is a learning experience for everyone involved; to impress upon trainees that there are a lot of things to think about when facilitating.

Materials: Facilitator appraisal forms.

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: Introduce the session by explaining that it is important discuss each others performances as facilitators after each seminar so that everyone can learn from the experience. Self-evaluations can take place in many different ways; one of the most common is to do an evaluation conversation. Later in this orientation seminar we will use such a conversation approach. Today we will use a more formal approach with an appraisal form. Pass out the forms.
(5 minutes)

Number off by the number of facilitators who are to be appraised. Those with a particular number will appraise one of the facilitators. Individually, each trainee appraises the performances by marking the form for all twenty categories: 1 for poor, 2 for acceptable, 3 for fair, 4 for good.
(15 minutes)

After the forms have been marked, have a discussion for each facilitator who is being appraised by asking the following questions:
- what were some of the categories you marked with a four?
- why did you give a four in the categories you did?
- what were some of the categories you marked with a one? why?
Repeat the same questions with the other facilitators who are being appraised. (maximum of 30 minutes on these discussions regardless of the number of facilitators who are being appraised)

After considering each of the facilitators from the demonstration, have a general conversation:
- which appraisal categories did you find a little confusing?
- which categories would you say are more essential for a successful MAP seminar than others?
- are there other categories that you think would be helpful to add to this list?
- which categories are ones that you fear will not come easy for you, ones where you will have to give some extra effort in order to receive good marks? (15 minutes)

Conclude by pointing out that there are a lot of details to remember when facilitating a MAP seminar.

FACILITATOR APPRAISAL FORM

Category	Impressions	Comments
Content		
1. Introduction	1 2 3 4	_____
2. Context	1 2 3 4	_____
3. Preparation of notes	1 2 3 4	_____
4. Complete messages	1 2 3 4	_____
5. Clear messages	1 2 3 4	_____
6. Workshop explanations	1 2 3 4	_____
7. Workshop guidance	1 2 3 4	_____
8. Team reports & discussion	1 2 3 4	_____
Materials		
9. Content	1 2 3 4	_____
10. Appearance	1 2 3 4	_____
11. Effective Use	1 2 3 4	_____
12. Use of the front wall	1 2 3 4	_____
Methodology		
13. Movement and activity	1 2 3 4	_____
14. Style of presentation	1 2 3 4	_____
15. Dividing attention	1 2 3 4	_____
16. Participant engagement	1 2 3 4	_____
17. Assistance during questions	1 2 3 4	_____
18. Effectiveness of questions	1 2 3 4	_____
19. Interaction	1 2 3 4	_____
20. Time management	1 2 3 4	_____

Date: Facilitator:

Session: Observer:

FACILITATOR APPRAISAL: Categories and criteria

Content

1. Introduction -
   is the overview and explanation the facilitator gives about what will happen in the session clear and complete?

2. Context -
   is the explanation the facilitator gives about objectives and importance of the session clear and are they relevant?

3. Preparation of notes -
   does the facilitator rely on a printed manual or use personal notes prepared for this particular workshop?

4. Complete messages -
   does the facilitator cover all of the essential elements in the session or are many things left out? are the elements presented correctly or are there many mistakes?

5. Clear messages -
   are comments from the facilitator clear and precise or are they confusing and not making sense?

6. Workshop explanation -
   are the purpose and steps in the workshop explained clearly?

7. Workshop guidance -
   how well does the facilitator enable the teams discussions to keep on track and make good progress?

8. Team reports and discussion -
   how well does the facilitator orchestrate the presentation of results from the team and questions and answers from other participants?

Materials

9. Material content -
   is the content of charts and wall displays relevant, correct, and complete?

10. Material appearance -
    do the materials look good (readable, straight lines, etc.)?

11. Material use -
    does the way the facilitator use the materials improve the clarity and attractiveness of the session?

12. Use of the front wall -
    are items displayed on the front wall during the session organised, readable, do they improve clarity?

Methodology

13. Movement and activity -
   is the facilitator properly active during the session or is she/he too passive (a tree) or too nervous (a bird)?

14. Style of the presentation -
   is the style of the facilitator lively and interesting or monotone and boring? is humour used appropriately?

15. Dividing attention -
   does the facilitator spread his/her attention well across the different (groups of) people or is there too much concentration on just a few participants?

16. Participant engagement -
   does the facilitator involve all the people in the session and seriously honour all contributions?

17. Assistance during questions -
   does the facilitator give enough context and guidance to encourage participants to ask questions of each another?

18. Effective questions -
   are the questions asked by the facilitator pushing the group to think deeply about the topic of the session?

19. Interaction -
   does the facilitator give appropriate and useful feedback to participants about their questions and comments?

20. Time management -
   does the facilitator divide time well between context, instructions, team discussions, reports, and evaluation? are unexpected changes in time (starting time, unclarities among participants, etc) handled well?

For each category mark 1 for poor, 2 for acceptable, 3 for fair, 4 for good.

This is an impression marking, so don't think too much about your responses. Use criteria on this page combined with your observations and intuitions.

Note: these facilitator appraisal forms are adapted from training material developed by Oscar Damen of "Community Organisation Consultants" in Nairobi.

2.2 Introduction to Participatory Methodology

After trainees have observed a demonstration of MAP methodology and have reflected upon it, they are ready to learn the practical techniques of a facilitator. These techniques are described in detail in the "MAP Facilitators Handbook."

The procedures for introducing trainees to MAP methods usually include three aspects: presentation of the method, trainee discussion groups to examine the method among themselves, and a practice session the method in front of the whole group.

The first step is a short presentation on the particular method under consideration. Remember, the trainer is demonstrating the presentation method as well as imparting information so each one of the presentations needs to be very carefully prepared. Each needs to be short and imaginative with a lot of examples from one's own personal experiences. Every presentation also needs to have at least one basic visual teaching image that is drawn on the blackboard or displayed on a flip chart. The presentation should complement the content found in the related sections of the MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Second, trainees need to become familiar with the specific guidelines associated with the respective method being taught. This can be done by having participants meet in small teams to read the particular sections from the Handbook and then discuss the suggestions and guidelines found in each section.

Third, trainees need to practice each of the new methods and then reflect upon the process. This practice and application can often flow immediately from the small team discussions: trainees use the discussion to clarify the method and then prepare a practice session. They then practice the method in front of the whole group after the small team discussions. In some instances it is also possible to create solitary exercises for practicing the methods. This is particularly true of the workshop method.

On the following pages are suggested sessions for enabling trainees to become familiar with discussion methods, workshop methods, and presentation methods. These are the basic building blocks of participatory approaches. Role plays are often a good way for trainees to review the lessons they have learned in an entertaining way. A session is included for allowing trainees to have some fun by demonstrating "the wrong way to it!"

Session: "Presentation of Discussion Method & Team Review"

Objectives: To introduce the trainees to the discussion method and to have them
prepare to lead a practice discussion through a review of the
Handbook.

Material: MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Introduce the session by explaining its purpose. Explain that
discussions and conversations are used at every level of MAP
activities, both formally and informally, so it is important for the
discussion method to become second nature to a facilitator.

Briefly present the discussion method as described in the Facilitators
Handbook. One way to do this is to lead a discussion on a particular
topic and then reflect upon on it using the four levels of the thought
process. After doing this, present the methods by pointing back to the
preceding conversations. Provide other examples of the different
levels and illustrate how a discussion is disrupted if the order of
questions is not followed. Teaching image for the presentation are
below. (45 minutes)

Objective
Reflective
Interpretive
Decisional
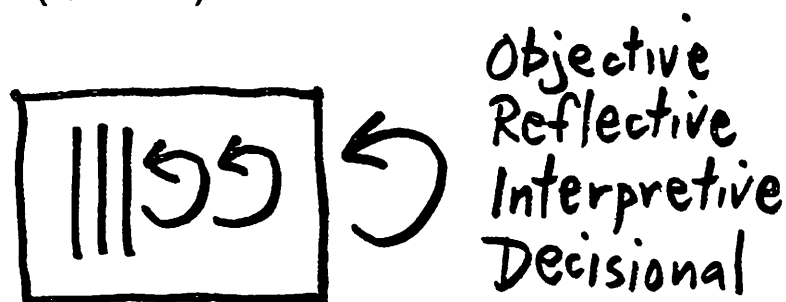
Have either the participants brainstorm a series of discussion topics or
present a possible list. These might include areas like: recent news .
events, new developments within the organisation, common problems
experienced in their job, etc. Choose three or four for the following
practice exercises. (15 minutes)

Divide the group into three or four small teams and assign each team
one of the discussion topics. In the teams, participants read the
section in the Facilitators Handbook on the discussion method and
then prepare a series of questions for their assigned topic. They
select one member to lead the discussion for when they return to the
whole group after the tea break. (60 minutes)

While the trainees are working in teams, circulate among them to
answer any questions that they might have. Also ensure that they are
keeping on schedule.

Session:	"Practice of the Discussion Method"
Objective:	To become more familiar with the Discussion Method by the practice of several discussions.
Materials:	None.
Time:	Approximately two hours.
Procedures:	Reconvene as a whole group after a break for lunch or tea. A representative from each team leads their discussion with the group. (20 minutes for each team)

After each discussion, reflect on the performance by asking a series of questions like:
- what questions do you remember being asked?
- which questions were impressionistic? reflective? interpretive? decisional?
- how might a questions have been rephrased for more clarity?
- what other questions could have been asked?
- in what other ways could this discussion have been improved?

After this brief reflective conversation on the demonstration discussion, call for the second team and so on until each team has had an opportunity to present its discussion.
(10 minutes for each team)

After all of the (three or four) teams have presented their discussion and each has been reflected upon, conclude by asking how they might use this discussion method in their work and family.
(5 minutes)

Session:	"Presentation of The Workshop Method"
Objectives:	To introduce trainees to the workshop method and to have them practice the methods they learn.
Materials:	MAP Facilitators Handbook.
Time:	Approximately half an hour.
Procedures:	The workshop method is about enabling everyone in a group to contribute ideas to the planning process. When people participate in building a plan and see how their ideas are incorporated, they are more likely to be committed to implementing the plan.

The workshop method consists of an opening context, a concluding reflection and three major movements: brainstorming, ordering of information, and reaching a consensus through a collective analysis and naming. Examples from personal experience should be offered to illustrate all of these points. Other points from the Handbook can be elaborated on in the presentation.

Two teaching images for the presentation can be:

(30 minutes)

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Session:	"Individual Practice of the Workshop Method"

Objectives: To practice brainstorming, organising, and naming of information on a topic of personal interest.

Materials: Small cuts of paper (1" x 2"), 20 pieces per person.

Time: Approximately half an hour.

Procedures: Introduce the exercise by saying that this a chance to apply the workshop method in regards to their own particular concerns. Practice will take place in this same manner for the next few days as a way to end the day. As the "facilitator," explain that you will give them instructions and keep them moving on schedule. (5 minutes)

Take a piece of note paper and brainstorm a list of personal ambitions that you hope to realise in the next five years. Write down as many ideas as you can think of, both big and small.
(5-10 minutes)

When the list has been completed, write each idea on the little pieces of paper that have been provided, one item per piece of paper. Then put similar ideas together arranging them in columns in front of you on the table.
(5 minutes)

Give a name to each column that states the major accomplishments that you hope to realise in the next five years.
(5 minutes)

End with a brief reflective conversation:
- what were some of your clearer ambitions statements? give some examples.
- did you have any that were general and a little vague? what were they? anyone, how might they have been stated more concretely?
- what considerations did you have as you put various ideas together?
- what did you learn in the exercise about making good vision statements?
- how might any of these insights be applied in an actual MAP seminar? (10 minutes)

Conclude by asking participants to keep this information for further use during the next day.

Notes: This exercise can be repeated by having participants brainstorm obstacles to their vision on the second day and proposals for solving obstacles on the third day.

Session: "Team Review of the Workshop Method"

Objectives: To become familiar with the workshop method as described in the
              Facilitators Handbook, especially with the practical hints of leading
              workshops, and to prepare for a practice workshop in the afternoon.

Materials: MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Introduce the purpose of the session and explain its results:
              preparation of a practice workshop with a particular "focus question"
              e.g. "what are the roles and responsibilities of a facilitator?"
              (5 minutes)

              Divide into three groups. One team is assigned to "disciplined
              brainstorms," one to "organising information," and one to "group
              consensus." Read the entire section on the workshop method. Then
              go back and spend most of the time on the assigned topic. Discuss
              each of the "hints" and try to think of realistic examples of the
              problems and suggestions that are being described in the Handbook.
              Then prepare practical details and written notes on how to lead the
              assigned section in the afternoon practice workshop. Assign a
              member of the team to be the facilitator in the practice. (60 minutes)

              "Pre-practice" the workshop in the small teams by brainstorming data,
              organising categories, and naming the categories. This will help
              prepare for the formal practice in the following session. Clarify with
              the teams that come before or go after on the transitional points. (30-
              50 minutes)

Session: "Practice of the Workshop Method"

Objectives: To have trainees practice leading a workshop.

Materials: 4" x 6" cards, masking tape, marking pens.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: The first trainee facilitates the brainstorming aspect of the workshop as prepared in the earlier session. (25-30 minutes)

The second trainee facilitates the organising aspect of the workshop. (25-30 minutes)

The third trainee facilitates the naming and consensus building section of the workshop. (25-30 minutes)

After the practice of all three groups, reflect on each section one at a time with the following questions:
- what were some comments you remember from this section?
- where did the facilitator seem to be especially in command and seemed to know exactly what to do?
- where did confusion seem to momentarily intrude into the workshop?
- what practical details (with materials, etc) were well prepared for?
- where did minor problems pop up because details were not prepared for?
- (directed to the facilitator) because of your experience this time, what will you be sure to anticipate the next time you lead this workshop?
Repeat for each section (10 minutes each, total of 30 minutes)

As a few final questions to conclude the session:
- what were some of the finer points of leading a workshop that you became aware of while watching this practice session?
- what will you be watching for the next time you observe someone facilitating a workshop so that you can learn from their experience?
(10 minutes)

Session: "Creating a Participatory Environment"

Objectives: To become familiar with considerations of space, time, eventfulness,
              product, and style that indirectly support participatory activities.

Materials: MAP Facilitators Handbook

Time: Approximately one and a half hours.

Procedures: Introduce the session. Teams will discuss assigned sections of the
              Handbook pertaining to creating a participatory environment. This will
              be followed by reports and discussions by the entire group. (5 minutes)

              Divide into five teams with each one assigned to one of the five
              sections in the chapter. Each team reads its section and discusses it.
              In preparation for a report back to the group, they identify three points:
                  1) which comment in their section do they consider most important
                  for this particular programme and why;
                  ·2) which point in their section do they suspect will be the most
                  difficult one to regularly accomplish and why;
                  3) what is one other insight related to their section that was not
                  mentioned in the Handbook but which they think nevertheless is a
                  valuable way to realise the section's topic.
              (30 minutes)

              Each team reports on the three points. Questions of clarity are asked
              after each. (10 minutes for each report, 50 in total)

              Bring the session to a conclusion by asking:
              - where has this orientation seminar been strong in its use of space?
              - where has it been weak?
              - what could be done to improve its use?
              Quickly repeat for time, eventfulness, product, and style. Point out
              that it is important to always be conscious about such details and that
              like all things, the practiced eye will see more and more each time.
   (15 minutes)

Session: "The Presentation Method and Team Discussion"

Objectives: To expose trainees to a creative way of preparing imaginative presentations.

Materials: Blackboard or flip chart; MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Prepare a presentation on the "presentation method" using the Handbook as a resource. Be sure to practice what you preach! A possible teaching image is below. (20 minutes)

EXAMPLES OF LIFE EXPERIENCE

GOOD
PRESENTATIONS   VISUAL
IMAGES

4X4
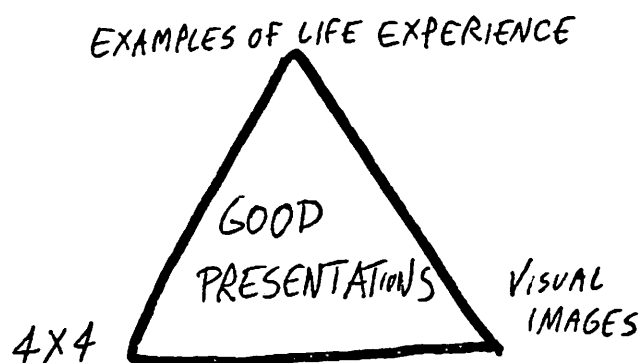
Brainstorm information that would be included in a presentation on a pertinent topic (e.g. what an audience of influential people need to know about "grassroots participation" in rural development). List brainstorm on the wall and organise into four categories with a name for each. (30 minutes)

Divide into four teams with each being assigned one of the categories. The team reads the Handbook on the presentation method and discusses. Then taking the information from the group's brainstorm, the team decides four sub-points for their category and prepares a 15 minute presentation with examples and visual illustrations. A team member is assigned to make the presentation. (60 minutes)

Session: "Practice of the Presentation Method"

Objectives: To practice making interesting presentations.

Materials: Backboard or flip chart.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: A representative of each team makes its presentation. (15 minutes)

After each presentation, have a brief discussion:
- what were some stories that were told in this presentation?
- what points were the visual images making?
- what might have been some other visual images that would have been helpful?
- what do you think would have been the most dominate message that an "influential audience" would remember from this presentation?
- what were this facilitator's strengths as a "presenter?"
- how might he/she improve his/her presentation skills?
(10-15 minutes each)

In conclusion, reflect on a few final questions:
- how is this approach different from traditional lecturing?
- what is the key to successfully using these methods?
- where can you apply these presentation methods?
(10 minutes)

Session: "Role Plays on Facilitator Mistakes"

Objectives: To review principles of good facilitation by directing attention in a humourous way on their violation.

Materials: List of role play situations.

Time: Approximately an hour and a half.

Procedures: Have the role play situations written on sheets of paper. These situations might include combinations of the following:

1) a few dominating personalities are making all of the comments and the facilitator continues to engage them in the discussion;

2) dishonouring of contributions by participants saying they are wrong, childish, etc;

3) facilitator speaks too softly and faces the blackboard instead of the participants;

4) a fellow facilitator sits on the side reading a newspaper--when called on to assist in the discussions by the facilitator up front, his inattention is exposed but he remains unembarrassed and goes back to reading the newspaper;

5) the facilitator picks up on suggestions from the participants but makes an over-enthusiastic speech telling them in detail exactly what they should do, thereby showing off as a "know-it-all;"

6) participants get in an argument and the facilitator takes the side of one of them;

7) the facilitator write illegibly on the wall;

8) the facilitator persists in annoying personal habits (picking nose, etc) in front of the group;

9) the facilitator accepts very shallow contributions and goes "overboard" in saying how good they are while everyone recognises them as not very thoughtful.

Four teams take their (secret) sheets of paper with role play assignments and prepare their acts. They are free to add "mistakes" of their own to complement their assignment.
(30 minutes)

Presentation of each act followed by a brief conversation:
- what mistakes did you see the facilitator make?
- how do these mistakes discourage participation?
- to the presentation group, were you trying to make any additional points beyond what has already been discussed?
(15 minutes for each)

Conclude with a comment about how most mistakes are unintentional; self-evaluation discussions with fellow facilitators are very important for reflecting on performances and correcting unintentional mistakes.

2.3 The Responsibilities of Facilitators

The first two dimensions of the orientation trained acquainted the trainees with the programme and introduced them to participatory methods. This third dimension has them turn their attention to what they will actually be doing.

The major focus of this is on facilitating a practice seminar in the field in a nearby village. This is practice, of course, only for the facilitator trainees. For the villagers participating in the seminar it is a real opportunity to meet with their neighbours and plan for the future of their community. Nothing is "practice" about it!

In addition to putting their newly acquired skills in participatory methods to the test, trainees also need to become familiar with the administrative and bureaucratic requirements of their job. This is important for any job and becoming a facilitator is no exception.

The following procedures are suggested ways to go about training new facilitators in their responsibilities and duties.

Session: "Familiarisation with the Specific Programme"

Objectives: To acquaint the trainees with particular aspects of the programme for
             which they are being trained: aims and objectives, programme design
             and operations, organisational chart, reporting channels, and
             responsibilities of the facilitators, etc.

Materials: Any published materials concerning the programme.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: These are indefinite and depend upon the particular programme. The
             essential issue is enabling the trainees to become familiar with the
             most critical aspects of the programme which will effect their work.
             The session might be divided into sections - first, a presentation on the
             programme; second, an examination of programme documents that
             describe programme operations; and third, questions and answers
             from the trainees with authorised personnel of the programme.

Session: "Review of Programme Procedures Manual"

Objectives: To have trainees become familiar with the specific operational
                procedures of conducting participation seminars with their particular
                programme.

Materials: Copies of the "procedures manual" for field activities as prepared by
                the specific programme.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Introduction of the session. The MAP Facilitators Handbook is a
                general resource on participatory methodology. Though it is widely
                applicable to many situations, every participation programme must
                make specific decisions about its strategic objectives and operational
                design. These will effect the ways in which the programme is actually
                carried out in the field.

                The programme "procedures manual" describes in detail the precise
                way field activities are to be conducted in a programme. This session
                is an opportunity to examine the procedures manual and can be
                orchestrated by dividing into small discussion teams. Each team is
                given a specific assignment. For example, a team might look at a sub-
                section of the manual or they might examine it in its entirety.
                Whatever the assignment, its focus is to enable the trainees to become
                familiar with their approaching field activities.

                Following small team discussions, a large reflective conversation with
                the reconvened group can consider questions like these:
                - what questions of clarity do you have (i.e. you are not sure exactly
                  what the manual expects a facilitator to do at some point)?
                - who has an insight into that issue or think they know what the
                  manual meant? discuss.
                - how did the procedures manual differ from the MAP Facilitators
                  Handbook we studied earlier?
                - what might be the reasons for these differences?
                - even though there are differences, how is the "spirit" of the
                  methods the same in both?

                Conclude with the observation that a classroom review of procedures
                for field work are always a little confusing on first reading. Real
                familiarisation occurs in doing the work in the field. That is what will
                be experienced in the next few days.

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Session:	"Preparations for a Practice Seminar in the Field"
Objectives:	To prepare the trainees for conducting an actual planning seminar in a rural village.
Materials:	The programme's "procedures manual."
Time:	Approximately two hours.
Procedures:	Explain that the purpose of this session is to assign facilitation responsibilities for the field practice and to prepare for carrying out the programme. (10 minutes)

Review the agenda for the village seminar and present assignments for every dimension of the field work. Divide into small teams. These teams are composed of a trainee who will be facilitating a particular session and other trainees who will not. Together they review the procedures for the session and discuss until they are clear on what to do. They all prepare personal notes for leading the session. As time allows, the facilitator practices the session as other trainees in the team play the role of village participants. (90 minutes)

Reconvene as a whole group at the end of the session. Give time for the facilitators to ask questions of each other where necessary so that everyone is clear about transitional points, etc. End by asking if there are any other details that need consideration before moving to the village in the morning. Acknowledge the group's gratitude to the facilitators who will be playing the role of a "guinea pig" on behalf of everyone else. (20 minutes)

Session: "Reflection on Practice Seminar in the Village"

Objectives: To examine effects of the seminar with village participants and to
             briefly review the performances of the facilitators.

Materials: None.

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: Explain that review of the practice seminar will be the focus of the
             entire day. Later in the morning and in the afternoon the review will
             take place according to the three chapters of the MAP Facilitators
             Handbook concerning environment, participation, and quality of
             conducting a field planning event. Just now, the focus of discussion
             will be on the happening with participants and a quick review of the
             facilitator's performances.

             First, begin with a discussion on the seminar and its impact with
             participants. Many of the questions can be the same as those asked
             earlier after the initial demonstration of a MAP seminar.
             - what was something you remember a participant saying that you
               thought was interesting?
             - where did participants become excited about something that
               happened in the seminar?
             - where in the discussions did you think that the participants truly
               gained a new insight about something or another?
             - where do you feel confident about their plan? (i.e. you sense that
               they can succeed?)
             - where do you feel that they might encounter a few problems as
               they try to implement their plan? (40 minutes)

             Second, review the work of the facilitators. This is impressionistic.
             Later discussions will focus in detail on ways to improve a seminar as
             the Handbook is reviewed. Consider one facilitator at a time.
             - what section of the village seminar did this facilitator lead?
             - what are some of this facilitator's strong points?
             - in what areas does this facilitator need to improve?
             Repeat for all of the facilitators.
             (20 minutes)

             Next, we turn to further reflection on the practice seminar by reviewing
             categories in the MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Session: "Reflections on Practice Seminar and 'Environment'"

Objectives: To reflect on the practice seminar in regards to the use of space, time, eventfulness, product, and style.

Materials: MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: Number the group by fives. With no one leaving the room, have the ones re-read the section on space, the twos time, threes eventfulness, fours product, and fives style. Each person should make notes as they read concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the practice seminar in regards to the category they are reviewing. (10 minutes)

For each of the five categories, conduct a brief ten minute conversation by calling for trainees comments on their written notes.
- what were strong points from the practice seminar in regards to this category?
- what were weak points?
- any other reflections on strengths and weaknesses from other trainees who read another section?
- what could be done next time to improve on the weaknesses?
(50 minutes)

Conclude by mentioning the following sessions where examination will be done in greater detail on the subjects of "encouraging participation" and "ensuring quality" in planning.

Session:	"Reflection on Practice Seminar and 'Participation'"
Objectives:	To review the practice seminar in regards to the use of participatory techniques for encouraging participation.
Materials:	MAP Facilitators Handbook.
Time:	Approximately two hours.
Procedures:	Explain the flow of the session: discussions in teams to reflect on the various techniques and then reports and reflections with the whole group. (5 minutes)

Divide into four teams. Each will be assigned to one of four sections from the Handbook: discussion method, disciplined brainstorms, organising data, and reaching a group consensus. Each team will re-read their section giving particular emphasis to the "hints." For each of these "hints," the team will review the practice seminar and identify one example where the "hint" was done well and another example of where minor problems arose because the "hint" was not followed so well. A team member is chosen to serve as the spokesperson to report on the discussion to the whole group.
(45 minutes)

Each team reports by reviewing in a sentence or two the content of each "hint" followed by their good and poor examples. After this report, ask if anyone from another team can think of an example that particularly illustrated good or poor use of a "hint" from this section.
(15 minutes for each, a total of 60 minutes)

Conclude with a final question and a response from three or four trainees: where personally do you feel you need to work in order to develop your skills in encouraging active involvement and participation of villagers in a planning seminar.
(10 minutes)

Session: "Reflection on Practice Seminar and 'Quality'"

Objectives: To review the practice seminar in regards to the ensuring high quality thinking in the making of village plans.

Materials: MAP Facilitators Handbook.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Explain the flow of the session (which will be very similar to the previous one): discussions in teams to reflect on the content of the different workshops followed with reports and reflections with the whole group. (5 minutes)

Divide into five teams. Each will be assigned to one of five sections from the Handbook: vision, obstacles, proposals, self-help project selection, and implementation planning. Each team will re-read their section giving particular emphasis to the "hints" for ensuring high quality in the planning. For each of these "hints," the team will review the practice seminar and identify one example where the "hint" was effectively followed and another example of where the content of the workshop was rather shallow because the "hint" was not followed so well. A team member is chosen to serve as the spokesperson to report on the discussion to the whole group.
(40 minutes)

Each team reports by reviewing in a sentence or two the content of each "hint" followed by their good and poor examples. After this report, ask if anyone from another team can think of an example that particularly illustrated good or poor use of a "hint" from this section.
(15 minutes for each, a total of 75 minutes)

Conclude with a final question and a response from three or four trainees: where personally do you feel you need to work in order to develop your skills in ensuring high quality planning and deep thinking on the part of village participants.
(5 minutes)

Session: "Set-up Visits and Base-line Data Collection"

Objectives: To review and prepare the trainees for doing set-up visits and collecting base-line data according to the guidelines of their programme.

Materials: Related programme documents.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: These will depend upon the particularities of the programme. Presentations and discussions concerning set-up visits need to focus on all of the details that will allow for successful seminars in the field. In leading this session, the trainer should consider all of the possible things that could go WRONG. This will highlight the subjects that should be covered. Possible topics (though not exhaustive) are:
- who should be invited to participate;
- specific emphasis on the need for women's participation;
- who should NOT be invited to participate;
- the importance of time (when to begin and end the sessions, how to ensure the prompt arrival of participants);
- precise review of what the programme will and will not provide in terms of financial resources for the seminar (be very clear and straightforward on this point or pay extreme consequences later!);
- review of needs for meeting space (rooms, tables and chairs, etc); if at all possible, facilitators should go to view the meeting space during the set-up meeting to ensure that it will be adequate or so they can make special arrangements to compensate for any problem (e.g. bring an easel if the meeting is to be held under a tree, etc). (45 minutes)

Most programmes will have produced forms for collecting base-line data prior to the initiation of promotional activities in a village. The collection of this information often occurs during set-up visits. Depending upon these forms, the trainees need to review the questions being asked and discuss possible areas of misinterpretation. The trainer along with senior programme staff need to provide clear illustrations of appropriate information needed for each category. They also need to illustrate examples of data collection.
(75 minutes)

Session: "Administrative Issues"

Objectives: To clarify the administrative requirements of conducting the
              programme.

Materials: Related programme documents.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: This session will also depend upon the particular requirements of the
              programme. It is best if this presentation is made by the
              organisational officials who will be managing the facilitators so there is
              a direct face to face conversation on the required paperwork.

              The session might begin by having the trainees brainstorm a list of
              administrative concerns that they would like to discuss. This then
              might provide the agenda for the presentation and discussions.

              Record-keeping and reporting forms as well as financial accountability
              forms need to passed out to participants and thoroughly discussed so
              that all potential problems are highlighted.

The logical outcome of such *conscientization* is the initiation of organized actions by the people, such as the setting up of collective funds, experiments in collective production and demands for access to public resources.

• Problemization may be applied to a situation in which landowners — sometimes aided by bureaucracy — block land reform programmes. Animation here may require bringing to the poor's attention the existence of reform legislation, leading to conscientization and organized actions.

• People may probe such issues as deprivations in labour relations, such as low wages, violation of minimum wage laws and delayed payments. In this case, conscientization might lead to wage struggles, which increase both income and self-reliance. Moreover, these struggles can be viewed as an assertion of the poor's humanity. Where people express major concern over the lack of employment opportunities, inquiries often focus on ways of acquiring resources and skills needed to create self-employment. Creation of collective funds is often a first step.

• Social analysis may be applied to a wide range of social deprivations, such as the denial of basic civil rights, whether by élite groups or state officials, prompting self-mobilization by the poor to assert their humanity. Animation on health and literary issues can play a vital role in increasing people's

| PRACTICE participation that transcends community barriers | For UNV, "participatory development" is not limited to certain groups or communities. It transcends cultural and religious barriers, bringing together people of different beliefs and castes, youth and village elders, rich and poor, who would not usually come into contact. In promoting rural development activities, UNV-sponsored NGO field workers strive "to draw the widest possible cross-section of the village population into the decision-making process". This is to ensure that all development plans enjoy the participation and support of the community.

"Field workers live and work directly with villagers and develop their work plans in conformity with the priorities of the villagers themselves," UNV says. "The workers collaborate with community level groups in initiating projects in such fields as construction of health centres and schools, food production, safe drinking-water and micro-projects based on local initiatives. These are carried out on a self-help voluntary labour basis which are the typical models of how self-reliance and participatory development can be promoted in the villages."

"Some field workers' first contact with a village women's organization elicits little interest in any systematic, planned development activity. However, by helping to introduce income-generating self-employment with the members responsible, the women's organization comes to life and a series of development tasks that enhance the confidence and self-reliance of village women can be initiated." |
| PRACTICE a collective encounter with reality | More than 100 people from the Nicaraguan community of El Regadío attended a meeting to review the results of a socio-economic survey conducted by their own representatives. "This was the first collective encounter with their reality," ILO reports. "It was the first time that the community had observed itself, collected and interpreted information which would enable it to *know* systematically, and subsequently to plan and manage its own development."

"This collective inquiry into the concrete reality also enabled an evaluation of the process of inquiry itself. It permitted them to face and analyse the difficulties such as some erroneous data, the limitations of the instruments adopted for the survey, and the lack of trust of the interviewees in giving information." The people then produced a pamphlet with the following objectives: to present the results of the survey, to analyse and reflect upon the reality embodied in the data, and to discuss and seek solutions to the problems they identified. One villager quoted observed: "What has happened to us is that seldom do we go to meetings, and we do not say what we think, hoping that others will tell us what to do or what tasks to perform." |

"The group process toward cooperation, unity and solidarity of members depends above all on the undertaking of concrete activities with visible results."
— an FAO evaluation

consciousness about wider social contexts, exposing the underlying causes of their ill-health and illiteracy.

Conscientization is not, however, a once-only exercise. As people advance their understanding of the reality they seek to transform, they use this understanding as the basis for further action. The quality of each successive action is improved on the basis of the lessons drawn from a critical analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of previous actions.

Facilitation

Animation is a necessary but not always sufficient condition for collective action by the poor. A host of factors operate to keep the poor passive. Given their deep-rooted dependence and submissiveness, and their lack of experience in initiating and managing collective actions, they may need time to develop confidence in their ability to bring about changes. Thus, the animator must also provide *facilitation*, i.e. assistance to the poor in acquiring practical skills and in improving their access to material resources. He or she may also need to play a protective role.

External intervenors with formal education, wider knowledge, and social contacts and status, are able to act as resource persons to help people's groups overcome practical problems. The manner and extent of facilitation required will vary according to contexts and resources, but in general

| PRACTICE toward collective self-reliance | A non-governmental development organization (NGDO) used a literacy course to develop conscientization among the landless in one district of Bangladesh. Throughout the three-month course, the poor took part in discussions on social reality and proposed ways of transforming it. As a result, they formed their own village-level organizations, launched a savings programme and collaborated with the NGDO on economic and social activities.

"They showed a self-reliance consciousness not commonly seen," a visiting ILO official found. "When asked as to what advice they had for the NGDO, they came out with the unexpected answer that the NGDO should leave them in two or three years, by which time they expected to become fully self-reliant. Stimulated by the quality of their responses, we asked progressively deeper questions. Did they have a position on the land question? Yes, they replied. They had discussed this question for the last five years and had concluded that the land must be collectively owned and tilled. Were they themselves practising this? Yes, wherever they were able to lease land they held and tilled it collectively, and had worked out their own system of collective management, distribution of labour and reward, etc."

"What was their position on the existing political parties?" Answer: no political party represented their interests and only with organizations of the landless like theirs throughout the country would there emerge the relevant political party. |
|---|---|
| PRACTICE building the other wheel | An ILO researcher reports this conversation between a female animator and organized male farmers in a rural district of Bangladesh:

"You realize that you also go to the district headquarters to fight your battles?" *Yes, we do.* "Can you go to the headquarters if your bullock cart has only one wheel?" *No, we cannot.* "Can you go if your cart has two wheels but one is smaller or weaker than the other?" *No, we cannot.* "Then where is the other wheel, strong and equal like yours?"

The men promised to help women form their own organization. |

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facilitation takes the following forms:

Facilitation in the acquisition of basic skills, in particular literacy, management skills (e.g. auditing, accounting, record-keeping) and technical skills (e.g. in agriculture, small industry, health). This does not necessarily mean that the intervenor provides such skills; he or she may facilitate people's access to government services, institutions or competent persons.

Assisting people's groups to develop contacts with formal agencies, institutions and bureaucracies of relevance to their action programmes. People's groups need information about legislation, policies and programmes, formal procedures and channels of communication. In some social contexts, it is very important to facilitate the poor's access to legal resources.

Consultancy to assist the people in the formulation of projects and programmes, i.e. in working out ways of implementing activities conceived by the poor. *Assistance to improve the poor's access to material resources,* but without creating dependency. For example, credit should promote — not hamper — the people's self-reliance.

Creating space for people's actions. In some agrarian structures, the rich may resist change by denying employment and loans, or resorting to force. The animator can provide

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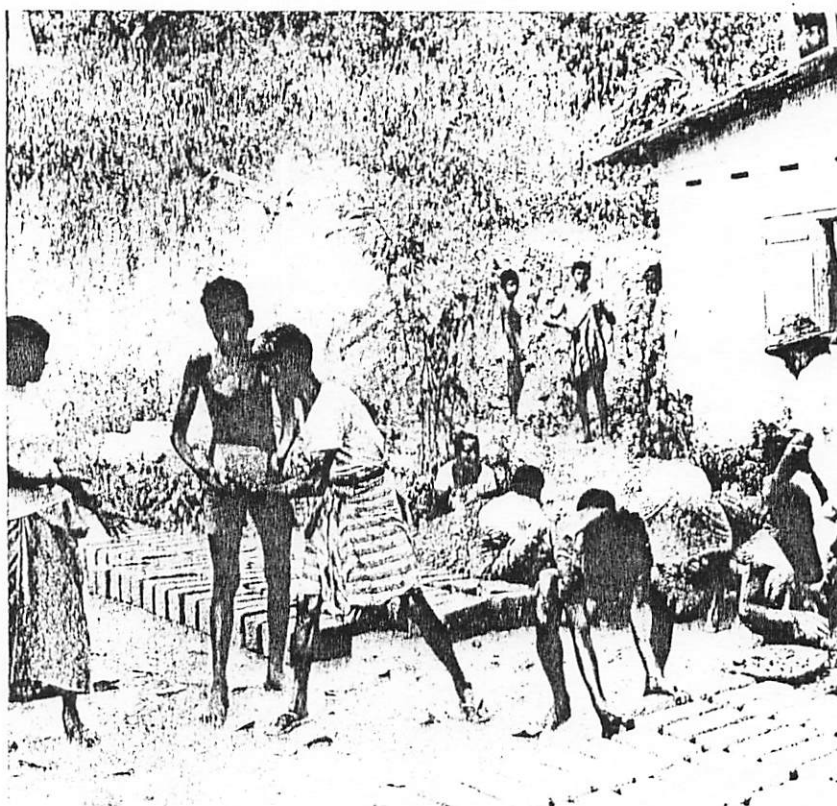
PRACTICE
Animators can also be obstacles

The most difficult challenge facing animators is achieving a subject-to-subject relationship with the poor. An evaluation of one project in the Philippines observed: "It is easy to forget that the rural development animators themselves can become major stumbling blocks for the poor. We sometimes become unaware of our tendency to impose our own biases, values, visions and attitudes."

A study in Bangladesh found that external animators on one project were taking major decisions without consulting the poor. In addition, the poor had developed a material dependency on them. "Material deliveries (principally credit) appear to have created a new dependency among the people, breeding an unequal relationship," the study found. "This was seen in the tendency to look upon the animators as officers and continued need for the animators' assistance in loan supervision." Furthermore, the animators made no serious attempts at self-criticism. The study said training of the external animators had been "basically a one-shot affair", with insufficient attention paid to such crucial issues as reduction of people's dependency on animators and generation of internal animators.

Sometimes, however, the rural poor assert their rights. "I was perspiring all over with fear as they challenged me," an animator told an ILO official. "But I was happy, for this is what we should encourage. They said they loved me even though they were criticizing me."

"We sometimes become aware of our tendency to impose our biases, values, visions and attitudes on the poor."

— a development aid worker, Sri Lanka

protection for people's actions by enlisting support from his social contacts and by building up political backing.

Progressive redundancy
A crucial test of capacitation is the people's ability to reduce and finally eliminate the need for external animation and facilitation. This implies an assertion by the people of their autonomy *vis-à-vis* the external animator. This process requires that the external intervenor reduce his or her role in day-to-day operations of people's groups and concentrate more on assisting the capacitation of

PRACTICE
The risk of a new dependency

"Group organizers" are considered essential to IFAD's Small Farmers' Development Project in Nepal. Now in its second five-year phase, the project aims to provide groups of rural poor with credit for productive activities. IFAD will contribute over the next five years some US$14.5 million in loans, to be disbursed by the Bank of Nepal through local cooperatives. As executing agency, the Bank recruits and trains the group organizers, who are responsible for all activities within the project, including selecting eligible small farmers as project members, assisting in organization of groups and advising members on the choice of activities.

Initially, reports IFAD, the organizer acts as a "catalyst and motivator", playing a central role in the formation of productive groups. Later, as there is a shift to spontaneous group formation, the organizer may advise on investment programmes and make assessments of credit worthiness, serve as a spokesman in dealing with government departments, or act as a conciliator and arbiter. The project, under way in about half of Nepal's 75 districts, has encouraged group cooperation and solidarity. "This experience shows that once people are organized in voluntary, cooperative groups and are given the necessary motivation, they decide on their own to carry through social changes of far-reaching significance," IFAD reports. The Fund acknowledges the risk that group members may exchange one kind of dependence for another. "It was in fact hoped that after a few years, the group organizers could withdraw from the project," IFAD says. "But this has not proved possible as yet."

internal cadres who emerge from the ranks of the poor.

This redundancy is achieved in several stages. Through participatory experiences, people will develop their skills and build up the confidence needed to overcome their deep-seated psychological dependency and submissiveness. The animator must assist by creating opportunities for the people to make decisions and to act without outside interference. There will be a systematic shift in the animator's role: from dealing with individual members of groups to dealing with internal cadres, and from dealing with individual base groups to dealing with federations of groups. The animator's focus shifts from micro-issues (that concern a single group or a few groups) to larger issues that concern a

larger number of groups.

The ultimate redundancy of the external intervenor does not necessarily mean a physical withdrawal. Rather, it represents a stage where the people are no longer dependent on the intervenor to think and act and where they assert their autonomous capacity for decision-making and action. In rural societies where vested interests may pose strong resistance to collective actions by the poor, the need for facilitation may have to continue for a period longer than normal.

Internal animators
Internal animators are members of people's groups who emerge out of people's actions and possess the skills needed to undertake animation and facilitation work within their own

communities. The first opportunity for emergence is created during the phase of self-inquiry. Those with a higher level of understanding and social consciousness will be the first to adopt new ideas and stimulate other members of the community to act.

The emergence of animation skills is a process that unfolds with each successive phase, such as the creation of organizations and the undertaking of specific actions. These skills will tend to become diffused among ever greater numbers of people, rather than being confined to a chosen few. A person becomes an internal animator when others begin to recognize his or her capacity to animate or facilitate their actions. Such animators emerge first among those with previous experiences in social activism as well as some practical skills. But, over time, internal animators tend to be products of the ongoing participatory process.

Given the dynamic nature of the emergence of internal animators, their training cannot be a static, once-only activity. Training must cater to the needs of the increasing numbers of internal animators produced as people's actions advance. For this reason, the external animator must assist in the creation of an endogenous training capability in people's organizations. Training should cover animation (i.e. development of skills needed to initiate self-inquiry and to initiate actions for change) and practical skills (i.e. those needed to improve people's capacities to implement and manage actions).

PRACTICE The "invigorating effect" of internal animators	PRACTICE Why did the Betel Farmers' Association disintegrate?
An FAO-funded project in Sri Lanka trains members of small farmers' groups as "internal animators". A recent evaluation noted: "The better established groups are encouraged to select two members each for in-depth training. The Group Organizers (GOs) aid the groups to select more articulate small farmers who could impart knowledge to their group members and who could assist the GOs to form more groups. Thirty members are trained for three days every two months. The first day of training is devoted to an explanation of the different aspects of the programme, including philosophy, planning, accounting and improving group efficiency. Exchange of experiences takes place the second day. Members are encouraged to speak critically about important issues. Participatory in-depth discussions of issues raised take place on the third day and concrete guidelines for future action are set. The trainees are encouraged to form groups of six to seven members and exchange views during the late evenings, after the formal sessions." "This training seems to have had an invigorating effect on the programme. During the last two months nearly 10-15 new groups were formed by the trained members. In addition, they devote some time each week to educating other members on what they had learned. A 30-page manual on issues discussed at each training session is sent to all past trainees to keep them up to date with new ideas."	An ILO researcher put that question to a group of betel farmers in Sri Lanka. They answered: "The association was instrumental in eliminating a marketing system which had exploited us. But it became an obstacle for further development of the movement it had initiated." *What were the weaknesses of the association?* "A committee of officials ran the association. The members were passive spectators. When the association found it difficult to market the entire production, they blamed the committee. But the members did not remain static. They found new outlets and set up smaller producer groups." *What differences exist between the association and the new producer groups?* "In the new groups, betel marketing is handled by all members working in rotation. A member is no longer a passive spectator waiting for some officials to do the work for him. This gives an opportunity for the members to know the inner workings of the organization. Ours is a small group of about 25 farmers so we do not have to delegate the work to a committee. The power is shared by all." *How are meetings conducted?* "We elect a chairman for our weekly meeting, for that day only. The chairmanship rotates among the members so that all play this role. Traditionally, only people with a certain status could become chairman of a village organization. We have changed this tradition."

from
"The Foundational Understandings of Imaginal Education and Their Relationship
to Theories of Social Psychology"
by George and Keith Packard

A. People Think in Images

An image is a composite of attitudes, opinions, ideas, personality
traits, beliefs and customs. It is the result of social conditioning as
well as information held in the unconscious. In relationship to the
attribution theory, it is a combination of both situational and
dispositional factors. An image is what Leon Festiger in his theory of
cognitive dissonance named a "cognitive element." An image is composed of
both rational and emotional information.

In reference to a major development maneuver from several centuries
back, Christopher Columbus had an image that the world was round. Those
around him held an image for which Columbus's idea was highly
dissonant--that the world was flat. The image that the world was round
birthed an attitude of defiance and a resolve in Columbus to provide
information that would occasion a shift of image in those around him. He
saw that the image held by others was a block to progress and prosperity.
In Festinger's terms, he set out to provide information that would be
"dissonant". In shifting the image of the shape of the world, Columbus
also would be shifting attitudes (people are limited to known trade
routes), beliefs (there is only the Old World), and social patterns
(commerce would be limited to trade between Europe, Africa, and "The
East.")

B. Images Are Created By Messages

It is no mistake that Columbus and the queen of Portugal operated out
of different images, for these images were created by messages. But, the
messages were different, and perhaps Columbus put more stock in his
intuition. In the image-building and image-changing process, some messages
are more powerful than others. Carl Hovland, in his work on attitude
change (the Yale Attitude Approach) elaborates on such factors as
attention, comprehension, acceptance and retention which are necessary in
receiving and accepting messages. Perhaps it was attention that Columbus
failed to capture from the Portuguese Monarch. Maybe Columbus was unable
to explain his concept in an understandable way. Possibly he was without
acceptable credentials; he lacked charisma; or he was considered too much
of an underling to have anything credible to say. For whatever reason,
Columbus' first messages did not penetrate the mindset (system of beliefs,
attitudes, ideas, social patterns) in such a way as to occasion a
dissonance and eventually a shift in cognition---or image.

C. Images Govern Behavior

Images, more than simply individual attitudes or beliefs, opinions or
ideas, are powerful in governing behavior. The monarch might have had an
attitude of openness. She might have held a strong belief in the value of
exploration. She might have been interested in new ideas of navigation,
but as long as she was operating with the image that the world was flat,
she would not dare an investment in an "around the world" expedition.
Columbus, holding the image that the world was round, was willing to risk
his life. Images govern behavior.

D. Images Can Change

This is the good news for those concerned with social development. The theory of Cognitive Dissonance describes how this image shift can happen: (1) If the information or message is considered to be important, it will be received; 2) If there is a greater proportion of received messages that are more dissonant than consonant to the operating image; 3) If there is some option for "cognitive overlap"; ie, the message affirms an aspect of the presently-held image; and 4) According to the Yale Attitude Approach, if the messenger is credible and respected, a message -- or a multiple or repeated message -- has the potential of being received. If received, it has the possibility of creating dissonance that can lead to image change.

The King and Queen of Spain, being people of their times, probably held an image of the world that was similar to that of the Queen of Portugal. Perhaps Columbus had learned from his failure in Portugal to couch his message in understandable terms, to "dress it for success", and to use the monarchs' operating beliefs and attitudes as a point of entry in planting the dissonant message. "Your Majesties, being people of great intelligence who believe in progress, I hope that you will take this opportunity to join me in making history. For a minimum investment -- and you are known for your wise investments -- you can be remembered as the rulers who financed the first 'around-the-world' expedition,' rather than the king of France where my brother is now exploring this same idea in case you still 'say no." By making the message palatable and raising the stakes, Columbus made possible a dialogue between the image "around-the-world" with the dissonant cognitive element, "the world is flat." He injected a "seed of doubt" which initiated the image-change process.

How did that "seed of doubt" gain enough energy to finally occasion the image shift? Perhaps Kurt Lewin, and those who elaborated the theory of Group Dynamics would explain that "Columbus influenced a group that surrounded the monarchs of Spain, convincing them that this was the opportunity for Spain to make history. If the shift were made by the merchants, scholars, advisors, the Queen's hairdresser, and certainly the royal treasurer, who was aware of the French connection and believed in the worth of the investment, then they could influence the rulers to at least consider the idea.

E. When Images Change, Attitudes, Beliefs and Behavior Changes

If you change an image, there is a change in attitudes, beliefs and behavior. When this happens, a person is motivated from within and becomes an initiator of action.

In accordance with those who have elaborated the theory and technique of behavior modification, we can conjecture that King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella "went along with the crowd" in supporting Columbus. They still operated out of the image that the world was flat, but they did not want to dare the criticism of those who thought otherwise. They consciously changed their behavior for the immediate reward of being known as adventursome monarchs.

In decisively "floating Columbus and Company" they opened themselves to receive and consider additional messages. Behavior Modification technique and cognitive dissonance theory would both acknowledge that when there is a reception of messages, that one, in turn, generates with their own behavior. "We did support this expedition, so it probably is true that the world is round!"

It might take a series and a variety of these gestures made "in compliance" with group pressure to plant additional seeds of doubt and reasons for justifying one's actions in the image system. These messages, in combination with others that support the dissonant image -- like Columbus bringing back tobacco, potatoes, slaves as well as maps of the New World -- allowed the idea to be explored before the image shifted.

This image shift would happen, according to Festiger and collegues, when the number of dissonant elements or bits of information out-weigh those consonant with the old image. When the image shift is occasioned, unlike the shift of compliance or group pressure, there is a qualitative shift in outlook, attitudes, beliefs and behavior. This could be called internalization. When this happened to Isabelle and Ferdinand, their inner imagery started generating the idea to support future expeditions. Acknowleging the existence of "a new world", they then began making plans for exploring, conquering and colonizing. Their actions were not dependent upon external advice or coersion, even though the opinions of others did influence them. As a result of the image shift, new energy was released, and the age of exploration was born.

8 How to promote and support self-help: the eight instruments reviewed

In Chapter 3, we defined and discussed eight instruments of self-help promotion. We shall now review how and to what extent these instruments were used by the SHPIs in interaction with the SHOs and their leadership, and we shall consider their factual contribution towards reaching the system's objective, viz. 'the building up of an associative economy which supports the socio-economic emancipation of the rural poor'. Each section will conclude with a series of possible and recommendable changes in self-help promotion policies and practices for the SHPIs concerned.

Instrument 1: Identification of target population and self-help groups

The principal 'raison d'être' of local NGOs is their assumed proximity in spirit and action to the target population, while government or government-controlled development agencies, as well as their programmes and projects, are further removed from the specific interests and aspirations of the poor. In SH promotion the danger of by-passing the poor, however, is always present, irrespective of the juridical status of the promotion agency, and this risk tends to be greater the more the activities centre around economic issues. We are faced here with the practical problem that 'organization is more problematical among those who need organization most – the landless, tenants at will, marginal smallholders... and especially the women in these groups' (Esman and Uphoff, pp. 35-36). The cases discussed in the foregoing are illustrative of the fact that target population involvement should not be taken for granted and that 'economic projects' in particular move away easily from the category of people they are meant to serve. In the Indonesian case it became clear that it was simply not enough to wait for groups to ask Bina Swadaya for assistance, and to rely on 'mouth-to-mouth' publicity for the UB type of organization to spread among the rural poor. NGOs in general, as one MOC researcher observed, still fail to take into account that the 'rural poor' are not a homogeneous group and that sub-categories among them have different interests or priorities. The MOC action-researchers came to the conclusion that the ongoing 'Luta Popular', which they supported in their region, took this aspect insufficiently into account, and that more attention should be given to the specific problems of rural women and rural youth, as well as to the landless families who are under-represented among APAEB membership. A SHPI has a specific duty to raise the level of awareness of self-

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help leadership and their members to the possible existence within their communities of persons in greater need than themselves, people who under present conditions might not benefit in sufficient measure from ongoing self-help activities (MOC 1985).

This policy of raising the leadership's awareness of the contradictions which might exist within their own communities, was practised by staff of the DISAC Chiengmai when in 1982 they started to work and grant assistance to the SHOs in Ban Nua village. Shortly afterwards, it resulted in the creation of rice banks for the landless.

Target population identification is 'extremely important for the design of specific programmes for the rural poor' (ILO, 1984, p. 111) and can be greatly facilitated by the use of appropriate indicators. Indicators are highly contextual and there are no fixed rules on how to develop them. In the Brazilian research area action-researchers identified as an important easy-to-identify indicator the possession by the household of an animal for human or non-human cargo. The poorest have no such animal, the poor have only a donkey, the not-so-poor have a donkey and a mule and relatively well-to-do households have a horse (Brazilian report, p. 95). In the Indonesian research villages, housing in combination with the frequency with which the family ate rice was found a useful indicator of prosperity. (Rice consumption is considered a luxury; the basic staple for the poor in some areas is cassava). Landlessness and/or landholding criteria are another category often applied for identification of the target population and they seem to be of relevance in the situation of all four participant SHPIs.

In none of the cases studied were indicators systematically used by SHPI field workers for purposes of identification, for checking target population participation, or for monitoring changes over time in levels of prosperity. Some important steps in this direction have been made under the present study.

The absence of a well-developed instrumentarium for target population identification does not imply that there is no target-group orientation. According to MOC/APAEB experience, rural households can be divided into five strata. It was decided to concentrate on the middle and second lowest level, viz. family farms with an upper limit of 10 hectares approximately. MOC/APAEB are still searching for ways to increase their serviceability towards the poorest, e.g. the landless and near-landless.

The Indonesian and Thai studies have also shown how important it is to identify the already existing organizations in the village and the role they play, prior to any definite decision on whether or not to grant support to any of these groups or encourage the creation of new ones. Existing organizations are not necessarily 'traditional'. The social structures of the villages undergo constant change. New groups are created, some with, others without outside support; some become stronger, others disappear quietly. New challenges result in new groups being created (see the history of Baleharjo in Indonesia and of Ban Nua in Thailand). But where such initiatives are spontaneously taken 'by the people', the poorest sections seem to be the last to organize themselves.

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In the Thai view, it is an error to work exclusively with self-help groups, unless this is conceived as a temporary strategy with the final aim of involving the entire village community. An exclusive focus on groups is likely to lead to a situation where 'a majority of the members are mainly middle-class with only about five per cent being poor' (Thai report, p. 42). In the DISAC approach we can thus

distinguish two stages in the identification process:
- An existing group, or a group in formation, identifies DISAC as a valuable SHPI or vice versa. It is a two-way process of mutual identification. The two parties, SHO and SHPI, then get to know each other better and may or may not come to a consensus. If the SHO is only profit-oriented, the DISAC will not accept it as a partner.
- During the second stage of the identification process the first SHO in the village acts as a self-help 'core group'. In conjunction with the SHPI the poorer sections in the village are identified, which then become the joint target for self-help promotion.

The consequences of the above for the organization of the work of the SHPIs in the three countries can be summarized as follows:
- Whenever a new SHO presents itself to the SHPI, seeking the latter's assistance, there is a need to assess carefully to which category the leaders of the SHO (in formation) and the greater part of their followers belong. So far, this has not, or not always been done with sufficient care.
- Whenever SHO membership is found to belong to the somewhat better-off sections of rural society, which is often the case, they should only be accepted as 'target groups' to the extent that they can evolve into 'core groups' and into a catalyst for mobilizing the self-help capacities of the poor majority (whether the poor should have their own groups or not is a different matter).
- Concerning the existing groups with which the SHPI is already working, especially in the Bina Swadaya situation, some sort of re-identification and assessment seem necessary with a view to determining which SHOs do and which do not contribute to the socio-economic emancipation of the rural poor, in other words, which SHOs help or do not help to achieve the declared objectives of the SHPI.
- The instrumentarium for target group identification needs further development in all the cases studied, not only for identification purposes, but also for monitoring the development performance of the SH promotion system.

Instrument 2: Participatory research and planning

Participatory 'research' – the active participation of the target population in diagnostic and problem-solving thinking – is often advocated but seldom done. When SHPIs and SHOs enter into contact, it is normally to initiate an activity, a 'project', not to conduct what the Thai workshop participants recommend and call a 'social analysis'. They deliberately avoid the word 'research': 'Formerly, we used the term 'research', which was seen as the work of the academics... From this we found that there is a domination which inhibits self-help of the people' (Chattip, Thai workshop report, p. 8). When saying 'we', Chattip refers to the practice of a number of small, innovative NGOs in Thailand, which stress that the 'preparation of the people's idea' should precede 'the project'. The analysis should be undertaken together with the 'village intellectuals' and might take as long as six months (according to the experience of another NGO, the North-East Community Development Workers Group). To do it properly is time-consuming, but six months is still a short period, if one realizes that it embodies a process of

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people starting to think differently on the subject of how to restructure the village economy. Subsequently, when the implementation process begins, 'economic activities may not cover from the outset all members of the community but consciousness raising should' (Chattip, Thai workshop).

The Brazilian and Indonesian case studies showed how crucial it is to assess the feasibility of an economic activity in its various dimensions: economic, social, political, technical, and operational (this did not appear so clearly from the Thai cases, because they were success cases, but the overall performance of SHOs promoted by the two DISACs is not necessarily better than that of the SHOs in the two other countries).

The start of the rice huller by a UB group in Indonesia was indeed preceded by an assessment of economic feasibility. But the social aspect was not looked into. The common bond was weak. Membership proved to be too heterogeneous for successful collective economic action. The rice huller mainly served the interests of one of the group leaders. The same seems to have happened with the krupuk factory set up in the second research village.

Other economic activities of the UBs (bean and livestock production) were found to be under-studied from an economic point of view. Especially when labour input is taken into consideration, their profitability from the members' point of view was even more doubtful. From the household studies we learned that members of low-income households are over-occupied; in other words that the opportunity cost of their labour input is relatively high, higher than for the more well-to-do sections of the population, who have time to spare.

In the case of APAEB, Brazil, the high expectations of economic benefits which the consumer shops were believed to produce for their membership, were based on two wrong assumptions: that intermediaries in the retail trade were making huge profits by overcharging and that rampant inflation could be effectively countered when people had their own shops.

The first assumption of excessively high profit margins being realized in the private retail sector proved incorrect as far as the private shops in the smaller district towns were concerned. Profit margins of those in the villages were very high indeed. The second assumption was based on the misconception that a macro-problem, inflation, could be solved by a micro-solution, a consumer shop. To realize a certain volume of sale, APAEB operations in the consumer sector from the very beginning had to be organized on a regional scale, which could have no other effect than to weaken the participatory and self-help aspects of the activities from the start of operations.

We also saw that a medium-size 'Casa de Farinha' (cassava mill) could give important benefits to SHO membership, but another mill of three times that capacity (Tanque Velho) caused operational problems whose solution would require an even larger investment (lorries, rasping machines), making the organization unwieldy for self-administration.

The Brazilian action-researchers observed a tendency among APAEB leaders to over-estimate the absorption capacity of their own groups. Especially when leaders felt that finances could be easily obtained, groups tended to engage in new economic ventures at a rate which exceeded their capacity for self-administration and self-management. The results were the overburdening of leaders, poor internal control, and neglect of educational tasks (Brazilian report, p.124). Even inter-group contacts may suffer from lack of time. In self-help promotion, the

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greatest challenge remains to identify economic activities which are beneficial to the poor majority. For this, one cannot exclusively rely on the leaders' appreciation of the situation. The identification of such activities calls for prolonged stays in the village by the SHPI staff to familiarize themselves with the living and working conditions of the rural poor. Household surveys administered to a small sample of poor households and conducted in a dialogue atmosphere, can be considered as helpful for deepening insight. For example, household surveys conducted in Indonesia under the present study brought to light the possibility of and the need for re-structuring the cattle breeding and raising systems. Tenant cattle raisers, who receive only half of the added value, possess all the skills and contacts necessary to carry on such an activity on their own. The only factor of production they lack in sufficient measure is capital for investment. For a Brazilian small farmer family, it might be even more important to become independent from the 'sementes de meia' system (half of the harvest goes to the supplier of seed) than to have access to consumer goods at a somewhat lower price in town (where most APAEB shops are situated).

These examples are given to illustrate that better knowledge of the economy of the poor is a prerequisite for effective SHPI intervention. SHPI involvement, directly or indirectly, in 'project' implementation does not provide such insight in sufficient measure. MOC in its development plan for 1986, taking into account the findings of the present study, states that a SHPI should avoid the 'atropelamento de atividades' (a cumulation of activities 'falling one on top of the other'), and stresses the need for more 'reflexão preparatoria' (literally: preparatory reflection). The above considerations suggest the following orientations for participatory research and planning:
- SHPI field staff should develop the skills for, and be stimulated to undertake, socio-economic analyses which should be conducted in at least some of the 'core' villages where SHOs are in operation, or expected to get started with SHPI support (in French: 'étude de milieu');
- For SHO leadership to decide in a responsible manner on what economic activities to undertake or not to undertake, they will need greater advance knowledge of costs and benefits and possible risks. In their appreciation of the situation they will need more assistance from SHPI staff in the assessment of feasibility in its various dimensions, in other words, not only in relation to the economic aspects but also in relation to the social, political, technical and operational aspects of the undertaking;
- The process of participatory research (or 'analysis') and planning should in the first place seek to identify activities which can be implemented by the SHOs themselves, without much need for continued managerial or financial support. Regional level projects, however much desired by local leaders, as in the case of APAEB, do not seem to be very appropriate as a starter-activity for self-help promotion;
110 – SHPI staff in general, as appeared from the study and ensuing workshop discussions, appear to be ill-equiped to assist SHO leadership and members in the analysis of their economic environment, the specific problems of the rural poor, and planning of economic activities. SHPI staff are not particularly geared towards performing such functions, nor have they been adequately trained for them. Follow-up programmes should provide for on-the-job training in these matters.

Instrument 3: Education and mutual training

Education and training practice, as organized by most development agencies, is still paternalistic and curative in nature. Logically, when project preparation is done in a directive and top-down manner, the supporting educational and training programme will share the same features. From the point of view of self-help promotion, one-way 'class-room' methods of teaching are anti-developmental. They do not encourage creative thinking, they aim at 'adoption'. Information programmes diffused by the mass media and advertizing campaigns are also inspired by a similar sort of philosphy. They bear witness to 'a flagrant disregard of people's knowledge and experience' (Brazilian report, p. 182) and to a veneration of modern, technical, specialized knowledge. MOC/APAEB are proud that they have been able to contribute to the development of a storage technique for seeds and staple food, free from the use of chemicals and receiving its main direction from traditional practice.

The Thai action-researchers for these reasons raised objections to the term 'education and training'. When indeed the aim is to create a learning situation in which knowledge is transmitted in a two-way direction between process facilitators (the former teacher) and development actors (SHO leaders and members), 'knowledge sharing and generation' would be a more appropriate term. Not surprisingly, the two DISACs in Thailand who came to this conclusion, had to reconsider their earlier formal training programmes. Preference and priority are, and will be given in future, to village level informal meetings which are largely self-organized and self-financed by the villages. Part of the same strategy is the organization of inter-village exposures (Thai report, p. 71).
DISAC Chiengmai has also initiated meetings at regional level of 'project holders'. On such occasions, representatives of SHOs which carry on one or more economic activities meet with leaders from other groups who have submitted a project proposal to the DISAC office. Such a meeting exemplifies the interrelation between the 'education and training' instrument and the earlier discussed 'participatory planning' instrument. For the financing of such a meeting the DISAC bears part of the board and lodging costs, while costs of transportation are met entirely by the SHOs themselves.
This is consistent with the basic principle of 'contributing from own resources' in respect of each and every promotional activity. In line with the 'holistic approach' the Thai report also emphasized the importance of spiritual education as an integral part of the educational process (Thai report, p. 94), and of education as a tool to develop and maintain a high standard of morality in the process of economic exchanges. It is interesting to note that in relation to spiritual training, the term 'education and training' seems to have lost some of its negative connotations and that 'teaching' in the traditional way (by the monk) seems an acceptable practice. The DISAC of Chiengmai has another target group for training which does not appear to exist in other cases, known as 'organic intellectuals', i.e. young people who are prepared to stay in the village and, with the help of the DISAC, are offered opportunities for more advanced professional training outside the village for a period of time. They are continuously guided by the DISAC in their reflection on the meaning and significance of their newly acquired knowledge and skills for the organization of village life and their own position within this.

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Both the Bina Swadaya and MOC reports express dissatisfaction with the
ongoing systems of education and training. Present systems are too much
focussed on leaders, so-called 'multiplicators', who seldom or never multiply.
The training programme of Bina Swadaya in the Yogyakarta research area gets
its direction chiefly from target setting (number of courses, number of
participants) and from what the teachers (the field-workers) have to offer rather
than what participants regard as priority matters. In principle, the choice is with
the leaders, but the range of options is very limited due to the limitations of the
field-workers. Course participants 'see the positive impact of training courses
primarily as the chance to meet people from other groups, to exchange ideas with
them' (Indonesian report, p. 101). But course contents are not linked to planned
or ongoing economic activities and the courses have no follow-up (idem, p. 102).
Bina Swadaya has now initiated a new policy of widening the opportunities for
subject matter training by inviting resource persons from other 'supporting
organizations' and neighbouring UB groups.
The APAEB/MOC gatherings in Brazil are of a different nature. Leaders
exchange ideas, experiences, and discuss problems on a wide variety of matters
related to economic activities, politics, health, etc.. They present to each other
songs and poems of their own composition. However, the information,
experience and inspiration gathered by leaders from this kind of interaction is
transferred to membership to a very limited extent only. In fact, what has
occurred over the past years is an enlargement of the knowledge and information
gap between leadership and membership, which is in contradiction with MOC's
objective of creating a more 'egalitarian' society. MOC is now looking for ways
and means to strengthen the responsibility of leaders for the effective
transmission to membership of the knowledge and skills they have acquired
during special leadership courses (Brazilian report, p. 128) (a principle often
applied by many NGOs to ensure such transmission is to have members
contribute to the training costs of their leaders/representatives).

In development education, the 'father knows best' tradition has had its day. At
the same time, one should also recognize that the imparting of a specific skill may
sometimes call for a more directive approach: examples are cost calculation,
bookkeeping, maintenance of machines etc.. The choice is therefore not so much
between the one or the other approach. Rather it is the task of the SHPI to work
out, with the leaders and members of SHOs, a well-balanced package of
education and training facilities which contains elements of both.
The consequences for the SHPIs in the field of education and training practice
seem to be the following:
- In order to prevent a growing knowledge and information gap between leaders
and followers, decentralized, extramural village level education and training
should be given greater emphasis in the programmes of the SHPIs. This will
lessen – but not completely eliminate – the need for centrally organized training
112   courses in 'training centres'.
- The SHPIs in all three countries may consider developing a programme of
'functional education' which is directed specifically at the ordinary members of
SHOs. The functional aspect refers to, the direct link between course contents and
the economic activities which the SHO has planned for, or has started. Ideally,
such a programme should include literacy for the illiterate part of SHO
membership as well as numeracy training as a means for all members to get a
better understanding of the economics of self-help activities.

- As to APAEB, Brazil, in order to reach financial autonomy, there is an obvious need for its executive staff, especially branch managers, to be trained in such fields as cost calculation, pricing of goods, stock and cash controls, shop management, etc., and for its Executive Committee to learn about fundamental business concepts (overhead costs, depreciation, break-even point, working and reserve capital).

Instrument 4: Resource mobilization and resource provision

As one DISAC director put it: 'If the poor manage to survive, then this is because they have something; and if they have something, they can save'. The primary function of a SHO is to provide the organizational framework for the pooling of members' savings, which will then enable them to obtain credit, if need be.*

Savings
Contributions from members' own resources can take various forms: financial (money), material (e.g. rice for the rice banks) or human (labour, know-how). The capital for the first rice banks at Ban Nua, as we have seen, was not obtained through outside support but from member contributions, while savings by members of the poorer landless groups were complemented by contributions from the richer village groups.
The Indonesian UBs have operated for many years on their own funds and continue in part to do so.
APAEB members have contributed labour and material for the construction of the buildings which house the consumer, storage and processing units. As yet, no monetary savings scheme has been started by APAEB; the resources are there, but so far have not been tapped. The successful introduction of savings schemes by the 'Caixa Economica' (State-owned bank) and several private banks points to the existence of a savings potential in rural areas. Part of the APAEB membership participate in these schemes as holders of a 'Caderneta de Poupança' (= savings deposit books). Factually, such schemes have the macro-effect of draining small farmers' savings into large scale industrial projects. If APAEB leaders and members were to invest some more of their own savings in their own economic activities, they would achieve a higher degree of financial autonomy and probably also demonstrate greater care and caution in making investment decisions. Another indication of a savings potential in rural Brazil is the existence of 'caixas' which are particularly popular among rural women. Caixas are informal thrift and credit associations. A lottery system determines who gets the loan first.
Development literature abounds in examples of astonishing savings capacities in rural areas, also among the poor, who seem to be the first to recognize the importance of saving as a means of reducing the risks of life (ILO, 1984). In the

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* In Working Document no. 1 of the recent Cebemo study 'A comment on the S 24 study of the German Federal Ministry' by K. Verhagen (1985), the possible negative effects of external financing have already been dealt with. The discussion will not be repeated here (Oegstgeest, The Netherlands: Cebemo, Mimeo).

Indonesian research area, Gunung Kidul district, the 73 Credit Unions supported
by Foster Parents' Plan accumulated Rp 100 million of savings capital
(US$ 90,000). Their loan portfolio amounted to Rp 107 million (US$ 95,000).
These and many more examples show that there is a large self-help potential in
the financial sector, and that the availability of outside finance – where it takes
the form of 'easy money' – might well be one of the main obstacles to achieving
greater financial self-reliance for the rural populace.

Credit

In discussing the role of credit in SH promotion, the first question one should ask
is whether there is a need for it. The experiences of DISAC Chiengmai in the
research villages and some other localities served by the same DISAC show that
SHOs need very little external material support to start up meaningful economic
activities. However, in cases where some form of financial support is necessary,
one might add a second question: where should such support come from, from a
local or a foreign financing (donor) agency? When support originates from a
foreign agency, monies are mostly seen to be channelled through the SHPI, acting
'de facto', as a 'sub-donor'. The NGO concerned would probably not like such an
epithet, but this is how they are often looked upon by the recipients.
The Indonesian Bina Swadaya has a long tradition of channelling foreign support
to local groups. One channel has been the KSK credit programme referred to
earlier (p. 68 and p. 92). The programme has undergone many changes in its
regulations and procedures since its inception in 1976. With the recent setting up
of the 'Centre for Solidarity Capital Formation', UB groups are now encouraged
to deposit their savings with this Centre, for which they receive some form of
dividend at the end of the year, depending on the Centre's surplus.
Lending rates to UB groups amount to 2.5% per month for credit which is used
for on-lending to individual members, 2% when used for working capital for
group enterprises (economic activities), and 1.5% when used by groups for
investment purpose. The term is usually 10 to 12 months and can be extended
when given for investment purposes (up to 3 years). The savings/credit ratio is
1:8 for very poor groups and 1:2 for groups which are almost self-reliant
(Indonesian report, pp. 106-107).
The assessment of the UB groups' savings capacity was done by the field-worker.
Of the groups investigated in the first research village, Balcharjo, all the UB
groups received five times their 'solidarity savings', while the farmers' group in
Pacing received credit at a ratio of 1:8. Access to such a credit scheme as KSK
may accelerate the undertaking of economic activities, but it also undeniably
detracts from the need for the mobilization of resources by own efforts. For
example, it is doubtful whether the farmers' group in Pacing would ever have
started their collective field if they had had access to KSK credit from the
beginning of the group's operations. Moreover, the easy inflow of money from
external sources also tends to weaken the internal control mechanisms. The
114 Indonesian study provided some confirmation of the assumption that credit
which stems from members' own savings, is normally more equitably distributed
than credit which comes from outside. However, the present recording system of
Bina Swadaya is still insufficiently developed to monitor such important facts
whenever they occur.
Just as in the case of Bina Swadaya, the funds of the DISACs in Thailand which
serve to finance the economic activities of SHOs, come primarily from foreign

donor NGOs. This is also true for MOC (Brazil), but MOC does more than the others to assist SHOs in getting access to the local credit system and subsidy programmes, such as those administered by Polonordeste and the Prefeituras (district administration), etc. It has made the promotional system somewhat less dependent on foreign financial assistance. At the same time project appraisal and approval have been partly localized and have become the prime responsibility of local financing agencies. With such a structure, foreign agency financing can be restricted to institutional support for the local SHPI, i.e. MOC.

In discussing external resource provision there should be no hesitation about raising two more fundamental questions. The first one is whether self-help promotion is at all compatible with the 'sub-donor' function as at present performed by most SHPIs in developing countries. The Thai report says that under present conditions field-workers still spend a lot of energy in explaining that the DISAC, although its limited financing role, is no a banker; that money which comes from a church-affiliated organization ('from the priest') also has to be repaid; and, additionally, that accepting financial assistance from a DISAC carries no obligation whatsoever to convert to Christianity. (p. 38).

The second question relates to the role of local financing agencies.* The proposition of greater involvement of local agencies, banks or otherwise in financing economic activities, may not be considered very practical in situations where the existing financial agencies are inimical to genuine forms of self-help promotion. But is not such a situation often taken for granted too easily?

In the cases studied, the public sector in general was not found to serve the poor in a meaningful way, except where the SHPI had set itself the task, formally or informally, of acting as an intermediary in the process of linkage building (MOC, DISAC Ubon, Bina Swadaya for some groups) or to monitor that process through a watchdog function (both DISACs in Thailand). However, the possible negative consequences of such a policy should also be realized. The danger of loss of autonomy when accepting government funding will be further reviewed below in 'linkage building' (Chapter 8). If the source of funding is bank credit, SHOs and their members not only may have to sacrifice part of their autonomy of action but may also end up in a situation of bondage to a financing system over which they have no control. In self-help promotion, one must exercise great caution in facilitating external credit, especially when funding originates from institutional lenders which have been given the mandate 'to reach the small farmer' or other rural poor. Thai action-researchers in their report observed that there is a form of external resource provision 'which is exploitative, which leads to domination and which is not liberating'. 'Exploitative credit' in their experience may also come from institutional lenders such as development banks. For that reason, another Thai NGO (CULT) has felt it necessary to initiate a debt-redemption programme to liberate the small farmer not from the money-lenders, but from the national agricultural development bank (BAAC)! The Thai farmer who says, 'since I have had that tractor, I have become a slave of the

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* One of the recommendations of the Nanjing TCDC workshop on strengthening institutional credit services to low-income groups (UN-ESCAP 1986) reads: 'Financial transactions of self-help groups may be handled by self-help support institutions *until* financial institutions are prepared to accommodate these' (author's italics).

bank' testifies to a situation which is not unique for Thailand. Recognizing this fact is not to deny the more positive role banks or agencies with similar functions have played and continue to play in the history of rural development, especially where banks are co-operatively owned.

In the financing of economic activities of SHOs and their membership one can broadly distinguish three different approaches in shaping institutional interaction:
– One is the continuing dependence of SHOs on funds administered by a SHPI/local NGO, which acts as an intermediary between a foreign financing agency and a local SHO.
– The second is that of the existing local institutional financial system (banks, special financing agencies) being encouraged to adjust their policies to become more responsive to the needs of SHOs and even allow for some form of equity participation by SHOs in the capital of the financing agency.*
– The third is where SHOs are encouraged to develop their own financial system at inter-group level, which will allow them to set their own rules and regulations and remain in full control of choice of activities and use of resources.
There are also all sorts of combinations and variations of the above. Bina Swadaya has opted for the first approach, but at the same time is encouraging savings at group level and at inter-group level through its KSK scheme. MOC/APAEB so far has no clear strategy in this respect, but it comes near to the second option, when it provides backstopping to APAEB and its SH groups in getting their legitimate share of cheap public financing. The two DISACs in Thailand are moving towards the third possibility: they promote savings at grassroots level and apply a revolving system whereby loan reimbursements by one group are used to finance the activities of other groups. By making the financing system completely open, the DISACs try to strengthen the sense of responsibility of the older groups, which through timely repayment facilitate the financing of new groups. This can be considered an important step towards setting up a common investment fund, which will eventually be administered and managed by the SHO representatives themselves.

Concerning resource mobilization and provision, the following follow-up activities might be considered for the near future:
– the undertaking by MOC of a participatory study to assess the desirability and feasibility of a savings programme which would enhance the self-financing capacity of APAEB and its affiliated groups;
– a re-consideration of the SHPIs' role as lending institutions, with the explicit recognition of the fact that self-help promotion and financing are two functions which are difficult to reconcile, especially at field level;
– a review of the financing mechanism, giving special attention to one, or a combination of the two following options: (a) the transfer of the banking function, in part or in whole, to specialized local financing organizations, which can also act as recipients of foreign funding for projects; (b) the formation of a revolving fund which is partly fed by SHO contributions and administered by SHO representatives, leaving them the prime responsibility for project approval and fund management.**

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* A development along such lines was the major thrust of the recommendations of the earlier mentioned Nanjing UN-ESCAP Workshop (1986).

**Actually, one Cebemo-supported NGO in Thailand, not involved in the present study, is already practising this concept.

Instrument 5: Management consultancy

This study is not quite alone in finding that efficient management is central to
SHO performance. 'Management consultancy' refers to the assistance given by
the SHPI in relation to the ongoing economic activities of self-help organizations.
However well prepared a 'project' may be, there is a need for such assistance, a
need which tends to decrease in time in relation to a particular activity, but to
increase in relation to a particular SHO. This paradoxical finding can be
explained by the fact that a dynamic SHO, which has got a first activity started
with a certain amount of success, will soon wish to embark upon a second
activity, and so on. An effective SHO tends to develop from a single-activity to a
multi-activity SHO. This type of evolution makes the SHPI-SHO relationship
resemble an 'esperial infinita' (Brazilian report, p. 65), an unending spiral. Yet
there might be an end because, as we have discussed earlier, there is a limit to
what a single SHO can undertake, given the limitations of its leadership. With the
evolution of the SHO, the nature of the required advice and assistance will also
change.

As stated in the MOC report, the relationship of dependence of the Subaé
vanguard group on MOC is not the same as it was four years ago. The changes
which have occurred are a reflection of those which have taken place in the
overall MOC-APAEB relationship. They have not followed, as is often assumed in
development projects, a simple linear pattern – the promoting agency gradually
withdrawing its assistance – but rather oscillated, with the two getting nearer to,
or further from each other at different points in time. This type of movement can
be explained by the somewhat ambiguous position taken up by the APAEB
leadership. In the early eighties MOC was accused of manipulation but later,
when MOC staff had purposely adopted a lower profile, they were reproached for
having 'put the hot apple in their (the leaders') mouth but MOC did not want to
do anything about it'. The relationship between MOC and APAEB groups has
matured over time. APAEB leaders insist on getting advice but refuse to be
commanded (Brazilian report, pp. 72-75).

During the research workshop in Brazil, a local leader emphasized the need for
MOC's assistance in such fields as management of finances and formulation of
rules of operation for the SHOs affiliated to APAEB (in cooperative law such
formalized rules are called 'by-laws'). The study itself also showed that a much
more elaborate bookkeeping system is required to enable earlier detection of
shortcomings in management, and facilitate the assessment of the profitability of
each economic activity undertaken. The present bookkeeping and accountancy
system of APAEB disregards depreciation of donor-financed assets as well as
management and interest subsidies, which are essential for APAEB to continue
its operations. A new system needs to be conceived which, on the contrary, would
make such matters manifest, since there can be no real self-reliance without
financial self-reliance.

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The management assistance at present provided by the Bina Swadaya field-
workers to UBs is adequate in relation to the savings and loan business
(recording of savings, credit applications, distribution of loans, interest payments,
distribution of surplus). But no adequate recording system has so far been
designed for the specific economic activities in which some of the UBs are
engaged. The result is that one can only make a guess at their economic

profitability after a tentative reconstruction of the accounts, based on imprecise oral information.

UB leaders interviewed also expressed their wish for Bina Swadaya fieldworkers to play a more important role in the settlement of disputes within the UBs. SHPI workers may indeed see it as their task to mediate between the disputants, but it is certainly not their task to arbitrate. Neither MOC nor Bina Swadaya seem to have a clearly defined policy in this respect.

The Thai action-researchers reported a similar inclination among SHOs, which write to DISAC and ask for assistance in resolving their quarrels. It would be a better policy for conflicts to be solved through mediation by leaders from other villages. This however presupposes the existence of a supra-village network, which will be discussed below. The Thai DISACs have a policy of encouraging SHOs to maintain a simple bookkeeping system. In line with their 'knowledge sharing and generation' approach, they do not insist that SHOs should follow a uniform system but assist the SHOs in the design of a system that suits their particular situation.

From the case studies we may conclude that all SHOs, irrespective of their state of development and size of operation, are in need of consultancy in relation to financial and organizational matters, as well as, occasionally, the settlement of internal disputes. From the Brazilian and Indonesian case studies it became apparent that at present the two SHPIs are not able to provide consultancy on the organizational and financial management of economic activities to the extent required by SHOs. In the Thai situation, the simplicity of the operations of the SHOs has meant that, so far, they have less need for this type of consultancy service.

The problem is not just a technical one, in the sense of SHPI staff merely lacking the basic 'nuts and bolts' skills for effectively assisting SHOs in managing their economic activities. It is also a mental attitude. The average SHPI staff member is not 'business-minded'. In the Brazilian context, the provision of moral and educational back-up for a political struggle is a more stimulating type of activity than the design of an accounting system for the analysis of a profit and loss account.

The idea that budgeting and cost accounting are as essential for SHO performance as the moral, ethical and social aspects of their work is gradually gaining ground, but its wholehearted acceptance will take some time. The suggested lines for future action are as follows:

– to make the introduction of appropriate bookkeeping and accountancy systems an item of first priority on the list of 'projects' where such systems do not already exist, or do not provide sufficient insight into the financial situation of SHOs which conduct economic activities, viz. in the case of APAEB, Brazil and some of the Indonesian UBs;*

– to consider, in consultation with SHO leaders, how the role of the SHPI in resolving disputes within the SHO or between SHOs could be reduced to a minimum, and to assist in the conception of procedures which would lay the responsibility for mediation and arbitration primarily on the collective SHOs themselves.

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* Even before the Indonesian study had been completed and as a direct outcome of its findings, Bina Swadaya had begun to introduce an auditing and recording system for economic activities.

Instrument 6: Linkage building with third parties

The conceptual framework set out in figure 3 (Chapter 3), presumes that local NGOs acting as SHPIs have a duty to assist SHOs in building up a network of linkages, not only between SHOs (movement building) but also between SHOs and third parties which are potential supporters of SHO activities. Official recognition of complementarity of functions among development institutions, however, holds no guarantee that linkage building is actively pursued as part of the promotion policy. As one action-researcher put it: 'We pay lip service to the issue of inter-institutional collaboration in official meetings, but we do not actively pursue it'.

Local NGOs, including those which participated in the present action-research, have an understandable and natural tendency to regard the SHOs they support as *their* groups. SHOs whose leadership are still lacking in self-confidence may feed that attitude by shifting their own responsibilities on to SHPI staff and forcing them into a protective 'godfather' role, which is contrary to the self-help philosophy. The latest annual report of MOC/Brazil (1985), testifies to a heightened awareness of this problem over past years. MOC, therefore, has not only supported the creation of APAEB as a regional organization, but has also encouraged APAEB groups to get in touch with parastatal financing organizations such as Polonordeste.

The reason for supporting SHOs in linkage building is twofold.
- First it is a matter of principle. Organizational self-reliance implies that SHOs should feel free to interact with those non-governmental or governmental bodies, or private persons whom they feel can serve their interests. SHOs belong only to themselves.
- Secondly it is a matter of practice. Lack of linkage may feed suspicion and result in obstruction, particularly on the part of government agencies. A positive linkage, on the other hand, may have the additional advantage of giving access to productive resources distributed by such agencies.

The Indonesian action-researchers do not deny the importance of linkages but are not too sure whether there is a need to assist UBs in building them up. 'The strong and well informed leaders of UBs are capable of contacting support organizations and do so quite effectively by themselves (other NGOs, government extension services, etc.). However, since Bina Swadaya has to start concentrating on the poorer sections..., assistance in linkage building might prove necessary'.
At the workshop in Brazil, SHO leaders complained about the large number of development agencies adressing themselves to the rural population (in the research village of Subaé no less than eleven); a situation which creates a lot of confusion in the minds of the people.
On the other hand, leaders argued that now that they were organized, they felt much more confidence in entering the town-based offices of such organizations and putting in their claims.
The policy of the two Thai DISACs, which is endorsed by the action-researchers, reflects an attitude of great caution. The DISACs see it as their duty to act as the SHOs' consultants in the management of their external relations. 'They have to know whether (the third party) will benefit them or exploit them'. The BAAC

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(Development bank), as discussed earlier, may push the small farmers into a cycle of indebtedness, and collaboration with government entails the risk of loss of autonomy (Thai report, p. 76). But the Thai action-researchers also recognize that 'villagers cannot avoid getting in contact with government and merchants. They will be contacted by them if they do not seek it' (idem, p. 86).

Not only in Thailand, but elsewhere too, we see persistent attempts by governments to capture local organizations by a combination of political pressure and promises of easy money or other facilities. Such co-optation efforts are not necessarily always prompted by malignant motives. There might be a sincere wish 'to bring more of the rural poor into the development process'.
But, good intentions notwithstanding, it is still the bureaucrats' view of development that prevails and therefore carries the danger of loss of SHO self-determination. The answer to this dilemma lies probably in one of the premises underlying the linkage building process as conceived in the framework of the 'holistic approach' (see Chapter 9). SHOs or their representatives can only negotiate to their advantage with third parties from a position of strength. Such strength does not and cannot rest on material wealth only. Rather it emanates from a combination of spiritual wealth and a high degree of economic self-reliance. By economic self-reliance is meant a state of the village economy whereby villagers are not crucially dependent on outside support for the supply of food and other basic necessities.
Maintenance of SHO autonomy can be pursued in two ways:
- By minimizing interaction with third parties, relying entirely on its own resources. This is the *autocratic* scenario.
- By frequent interaction with a variety of institutions and maintaining a careful balance between a series of dependencies and interdependencies. This is the *diplomatic* scenario.
The latter seems the more realistic one. The ongoing rapprochement between SHOs and government-controlled organizations in all three countries appears to be an irreversible trend for the years to come. More important than how much interaction there is between SHOs and third parties would seem to be the *nature* of such interaction. Assuming that SHPIs have a duty to assist SHOs in the process of linkage building with third parties, suggested lines of action fall in three directions:
- One is to inform SHO leaders and membership more systematically about the facilities third parties have to offer, and to stimulate discussions about the possible benefits and risks of strengthening relationships. To a certain degree this policy is already being practised by MOC and DISAC, not so much by Bina Swadaya.
- The second line of action is to actively further the creation of a climate of greater sympathy for and understanding of the self-help approach within government or paragovernmental administrations. This last aspect is already taken care of by the SHPIs through participation in seminars, consultations, etc., at national or state level, but, unfortunately, it does not receive much attention at the lower levels of administration (district and village) where the risks are greatest that ill-coordinated interventions by third parties, governmental or non-governmental, will undo what the SHPI has carefully helped to build up.
- The third proposal results from the need for inter-NGO collaboration at regional level and for geographical and functional specialization among them as

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discussed before in Chapter 6, under 'Development dilemmas' of local NGOs.
The SHPIs in the three countries could play a vanguard role in this respect, by
initiating discussions on these matters in a more systematic way and at greater
depth than could be done under the present study.

Instrument 7: Process extension and movement building

Action-reseachers from all three countries confirm the importance of movement
building between SHOs, and also underwrite the proposition expressed in
Chapter 3 (Instrument 7), that extension of the process to other villages and areas
is primarily the responsibility and task of the SHO leadership. The question
remains, how to put such broad principles into practice?

The APAEB case, Brazil

Concerning the structure of the SH movement there is the thorny question of
horizontal versus vertical expansion. In the Brazilian case study a vertical
regional structure, APAEB, was set up at an early stage to facilitate self-help
activities at the grassroots within the 'comunidades'. Within the APAEB
structure we see vertical and horizontal processes or motion, which have been
schematized in Figure 12 below. On the left rectangular, motion is expressed in
general terms; on the right, it is applied to the Brazilian case study.
In explanation of figure 12: the 'comunidades', SH groups from different
localities, have created a regional organization, APAEB. This is an upward
motion; the arrow goes upwards. APAEB sets up a wholesale service which is
expressed by the horizontal arrow to the left. The management of the wholesale
service entails a top-down motion; the arrow runs down vertically from wholesale
service to the branches, the 'Postos'. The Postos are now in a situation where they
have to submit themselves to the exigencies of 'sound business management'. At

Figure 12: Horizontal and vertical motion within a two-tier structure of SHOs*
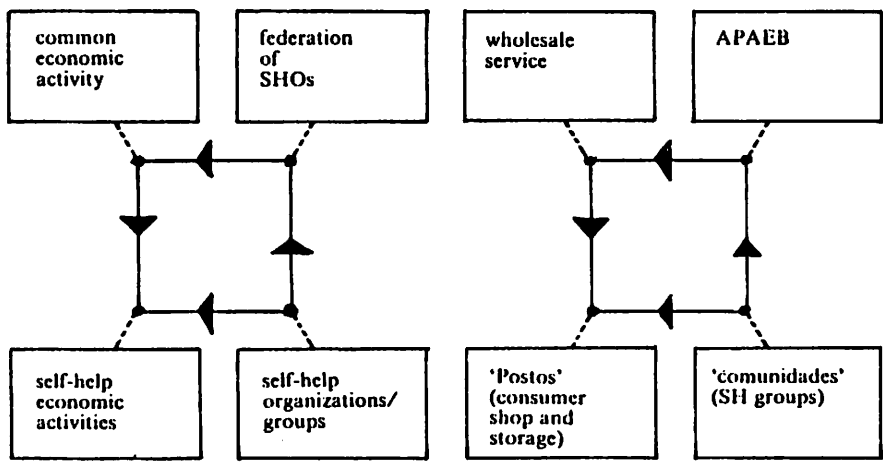
* Design adjusted from H. Desroche, 1985, p. 108.

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the top, initiatives are taken which go downwards. Refusal to comply by the Postos may result in the whole organization going bankrupt. The Postos themselves, however, have been built and set up as a SH activity of the 'comunidades', which is expressed by the bottom arrow running from right to left.

Some APAEB leaders are of the opinion that APAEB as a people's *organization* has developed too fast (author's italics) but as an *economic enterprise*, having studied the economic results, we would say that it has not developed fast enough, because the combined turnover of the small number of branches (Postos) is still too small to support the overheads of the central service.

Recently, APAEB embarked upon a new commercial venture. A mobile shop visits ten villages which have no 'posto' (consumer shop) of their own. The mobile shop will help to boost APAEB turnover at a relatively low cost. But for the APAEB movement to take root in these same 'comunidades', APAEB will have to initiate other activities which can be managed by the groups themselves. The growth of the structure at an early stage in a vertical direction has given rise to problems in the economic and social spheres, which neither MOC staff nor APAEB leaders had anticipated. Now that the structure is there, it has to be managed and a certain amount of top-down initiatives, sanctioned by APAEB leadership, will have to be taken to ensure the economic survival of the organization.

The Thai and Indonesian cases

The policy used in structuring the movement of the two Thai DISACs, particularly the DISAC Chiengmai, is quite different. SHO activities are started on a very small scale by one or two groups in the same village (see the Ban Nua case). The activities of the 'core groups' serve as an example for other groups within the same village. Subsequently, a pioneer village like Ban Nua gets the status of 'mentor village'. Invitations are sent to neighbouring villages, often to relatives, to participate in local festivities. Visitors are brought face to face with the ongoing activities in the mentor village, and subsequently may ask delegates from the mentor village to come and explain the group activities in the visitors' villages. If the mentor village delegates are convinced of the seriousness of intent of the inhabitants of the other village, they make a gesture: in a traditional ceremony they provide the other village with some rice or two young calves as seed capital for a rice bank or buffalo bank.

In 1984, DISAC Chiengmai supported the setting up of an intergroup/inter-village Working Committee for Chomthong District, 'but the operation failed, the committee did not work' (p. 61, Thai report). One year later four SHOs with a genuine interest in inter-group collaboration together started a small savings scheme. At monthly meetings they exchanged experiences and discussed issues of common interest for possible joint action. By early 1986, their number had grown to eleven SHOs. A two-tier organization is slowly emerging.

122 The DISAC strategy is first to get the self-help idea and practice strongly rooted in the village communities, and to encourage inter-group collaboration only at a second stage, when the groups themselves feel the need for it. It builds on the social cohesion between villagers, which still exists in spite of the inroads made upon people's social behaviour and preparedness for collective action by the expansive capitalist economy.

The Indonesian case is again quite different. First, in the Indonesian context,

NGOs are not supposed to promote autonomous movements which pursue their own objectives of socio-economic change. They are accepted only in the complementary role of implementors of national development programmes (see for example Ismid Hadad, in Prisma, June 1983, p. 19). The political environment seems to some extent to be responsible for the flat structure of the Indonesian UB movement. As long as UBs continue to operate as isolated small groups spread over large geographical areas, they offer no real challenge to the existing government-controlled system of development institutions. But there are also factors inherent in the UBs as such, which further complicate the movement building process. After several prudent efforts and initiatives on the part of Bina Swadaya staff to elicit interest in inter-group meetings and activities, they could only conclude that the UB leaders themselves were simply not interested and preferred to go on their own way (Indonesian report, pp. 51-52). Unlike the situation in Brazil, where SHO leaders feel themselves part of a larger movement, UB leaders seem to have a narrower perspective focussed on the village and their own social position within it. Moreover, there are great differences in membership composition between UBs, and leaders find it difficult to appreciate that they have any common ground in economic matters.

Relationship between process extension and movement building
If one endorses the concept that process extension is mainly the responsibility of local leaders and can be done more effectively by them, then process extension and movement building become integrated and almost identical, the first laying the foundation for the second. With a view to raising the level of participation of local leaders, MOC encouraged the formation in two Districts of 'Grupos Populares de Acompanhamento'. These are in fact District level committees whose members have taken up the responsibility of acting as monitor to several new groups, in addition to the leadership function they already fulfil in respect of their own groups. It is a 'de facto' transfer of promotional functions from MOC staff to local leaders, who get compensated for their work input by payment of the equivalent of the minimum daily wage – a very modest amount for a leader. (MOC Annual Report 1985, p. 6).

The following lines of action might be considered by the respective SHPIs with regard to process extension and movement building:
– In the case of APAEB, supported by MOC, first, consolidation and rationalization of the present system of distribution of consumer goods at the Centre and at branch level, with the possible consequence that one or more consumer units will have to be closed; secondly, strengthening the basis of the movement by the encouragement of small-scale storage and processing activities and other collective initiatives which can be managed locally; in other words shifting the focus of process extension from regional to local level and from district towns to villages.*
– In the situation of the two DISACs in Thailand, there is need for a further   123
concentration of promotional activities on selected smaller geographical areas (districts) and of 'mentor' villages within such areas, such as was tried out in

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* The recommended policy would imply discontinuing the initiation of new economic ventures requiring large capital investments at 'Municipio' level. The existing mobile shop will function as a go-between between new villages where economic activities are undertaken which are economically viable and profitable from the beginning.

Chomthong District (the available number of field staff, however, is at present far too small to cope with the DISACs' ambitious development goals).
– Judging from the situation in Yogyakarta area, prospects for the building up of an authentic movement of UB groups in Indonesia do not seem particularly bright. It would be a more feasible alternative for some UBs which limit themselves to savings and loan business, to line up with the Indonesian national organisation of Credit Unions (CUCO-Indonesia). Implementation of such a policy, however, would call for closer ties between Bina Swadaya and the Indonesian Credit Union movement at national level, prior to greater coherence of action at field level.

Instrument 8: Monitoring and ongoing evaluation (MOE)

Monitoring and ongoing evaluation have been found to be the least developed instrument of the self-help promotion instrumentarium. The shortcomings of the present situation are detailed in all three country reports, and apply to all three levels where MOE is required: at the SHO level, at the level of SHPI-SHO interaction, and at the level of the interaction between the SHO/SHPI complex and other supporting institutions. This last type of interaction is still so poorly structured that MOE as a systematically organized regular practice and special form of inter-agency collaboration is still out of the question. In the following we shall therefore deal with the situation at the first two levels.

SHO-level
In none of the cases studied was a situation found capable of giving a knowledgeable and well-informed membership the opportunity to participate in MOE practice on a regular basis. A few very small groups in Thailand were the only exceptions. Two-weekly or monthly meetings at SHO level certainly facilitate holding leadership accountable for their deeds, but their dominant position needs to be counter-balanced by a more formalized mechanism, providing membership with the information they are entitled to, especially in respect of the use of money and distribution of benefits.
In Brazil, MOC action-researchers consider it of crucial importance that the present situation be remedied and that each SHO be assisted in the development of its own mechanism for assessing performance and progress of operations (MOC report, p. 65). In consequence, this aspect of MOC's promotional work will need much more attention than it was given in the past.
When groups are very small, such as in Ban Nua village, Thailand, a MOE mechanism may grow up by itself within such a group. But as SHO membership grows and operations become more complex, we normally see a development in the opposite direction: administrative powers tend to converge and be concentrated in the hands of a few persons. Bina Swadaya has introduced the REM system (Recording, Evaluation and Monitoring, see Indonesian report, p. 116 et seq.). The system aims at a regular flow of information from the UB groups upwards, via the field-workers and Field Offices, to the Central Office at Jakarta, and provides for a reflux of 'guidance' and 'feed back' from the Centre downwards to the UBs. The system as now practised has two main shortcomings:
– it does not work well because of shortage of qualified manpower at different levels and the long lines of communication (Indonesian report, p. 118);

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– the present system lays the prime responsibility for MOE with the SHPI and not with SHO membership.

SHO-SHPI interaction

An important aspect of the MOE system is the participation of the SHOs in the assessment of the performance of their promoters, the SHPI. A classic way of doing this is to organize 'evaluation and planning' workshops, during which field staff and group representatives meet for a joint assessment of the overall situation, and discuss priorities of action for the future. All four SHPIs, MOC, Bina Swadaya and both the DISACs organize yearly workshops for this purpose. In the MOC case such meetings take place even more frequently. But, although considered helpful and necessary, such meetings in themselves do not allow 'to go beyond the level of what *appears* to be happening' ('ultrapassar o nivel do aparente').

What *really* happens under the apparent surface, and its impact on the day-to-day situation of SHO membership, remains rather vague or hidden. MOC in its latest development plan argues for a much more analytical approach and for not accepting the surface appearance as a confirmed fact. Monitoring and ongoing evaluation are basically analytical processes. They are easily overlooked in development practice which is characterized in many instances by haste and the day-to-day struggle for organizational survival. MOE is time-consuming. It also presupposes analytical interest and capacities on the part of its participants: SHO members, leaders, SHPI staff and other associated persons.

To strengthen such interest and capacities SHPIs might consider the following activities which, in content and orientation, take their direction from the experiences gathered during the present action-research:

– To conceive, design and implement an information system which will provide SHO members with sufficient up-to-date, easy-to-digest factual information and enable them to participate in MOE practice whithin their own organizations on a regular basis. The purpose is not to dream up a theoretically ideal system (and maximize participation) but to develop a low cost mechanism which will work in practice (in other words to *optimize* participation), and which logically fits in the earlier discussed system of functional education and mutual training (Instrument 3).

– To review regularly (monthly) and systematically at field office level, in consultation with SHO leadership, the SHPI's promotional practice (use and effectiveness of the other seven instruments); to consider realistically to what extent the responsibility for some promotional tasks could be transferred to 'local cadres' (people who originate from the ranks of SHO membership) at a proper indemnification and without overburdening them.

– To encourage and enable SHPI field staff: (a) to devote part of their time to action-research; more specifically, to select a number of villages where field-workers will try to assess the development impact of the SHOs on members and non-members, and deepen their insight into such crucial questions as: which categories of the village population benefit most from the self-help activities, what are the main problems of the disadvantaged section of the population which might be solved by group action, etc.; (b) to discuss with their colleagues, SHO leadership and members, the outcome of their investigations and their consequences for promotional practice, both informally and in more formal ways, during field workshops, preferably located in one of the 'lead' or 'mentor' villages.

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STRATEGIC DESIGN OF MAP METHODOLOGY

MAP methodologies are extremely flexible. They can be utilised in almost any situation that calls for increasing the involvement of rural people. This has been amply demonstrated in the programmes that have adapted MAP methods during the past three years.

In conducting its practical research, the MAP Project has had to contend with a number of specific constraints. And as every practitioner knows, the political realities of working with actual development projects often limit the scope of available options. This is obviously true in designing of participation activities.

Though it is an immensely flexible methodology, MAP is built on specific values. These form a basic framework for discussing the strategic design of any adaptation of MAP. Many of these values are introduced as underlying assumptions of MAP in the Final Report. Three of them are especially important when considering possible choices in designing a strategy for promoting participation:

1) - rural people can be agents of their own development;

2) - a major change in individual self-perceptions, from passive victims to active players, is needed in many rural situations for this to occur; and

3) - the practical experience of successfully managing small projects is a key ingredient to altering negative self-perceptions and developing self-confidence among villagers.

From the perspective held in these three points, the MAP Project has gleaned a number of strategic insights about designing participation promotion programmes.

1 Grassroots Mobilisation

The three values above are most easily addressed in programmes that are community-based and open-ended in regards to the planning of local projects. Such programme are particularly effective in allowing the poor to take an active role in organised efforts of rural development.

Strategic designs of MAP adaptation used in this context have enabled the formation of informal groups based on local priorities and mutual trust among peers. When local projects are planned in an open-ended way, a sense of project ownership by participants is inherent with the process. Nothing is imposed from outside.

CMPP in Tanzania has been an example of this type of approach. Though planning seminars are organised under the auspices of the primary society, projects are planned by informal groups of youth, women, and men, rather than the formal

structure of the co-op. Many of the participants in these seminars are not even members of the cooperative. The long term intention of this approach is to establish a pattern of successfully managed self-help projects: as villagers become more confident in their capacity to initiate and manage development activities, the greater the potential for local control of cooperative institutions.

2 Institutional Strengthening of Local Organisations

MAP methodologies can also play a creative role in strengthening local institutions. Because those who have a direct interest in an organisation are more informed and involved, participatory planning renders a greater ability to implement plans and policy. It builds teamwork and cooperation because a common context for decision-making, communication, and problem solving is created. Participatory planning also encourages initiative and responsibility because people feel a greater sense of commitment through the ownership of a plan.

Improving the operating performance of local organisations is a strategic application of MAP methodology. CMPP in Kenya has moved steadily in the direction of strengthening primary cooperative societies and away from a strategy of involving grassroots members since it was first initiated in 1986. Though the final outcome is still uncertain, the Ministry of Cooperative Development has strongly suggested that CMPP in the future should be a programme used exclusively with elected officials of cooperative management committees.

It is important not to confuse "strengthening local organisations" with that of "grassroots mobilisation." Both are legitimate strategies for rural development and are often related but they are not synonymous. When a participation programme is designed, careful consideration needs to be given to the difference in light of its basic objectives. Rhetoric found in many programme documents is concerned with the "poorest of the poor" but activities are focussed on leaders of local organisations. Working through established leaders is usually a very indirect way to reach marginalised members of a community.

3 Limited Effectiveness of External Inputs

An attitude of dependence is often a big obstacle to rural people becoming agents of their own development. The premature introduction of financial or material resources in support of local projects can be a hinderance to altering passive self-perceptions.

The MAP Project came across many examples of frustrated development projects which illustrate this point. Water wells dug by the IRDP/EP fell into disuse when repairs were needed because local residents were waiting for the project sponsors to come back and do the job. Communal work days in constructing a local dispensary in one Tanzanian village promptly stopped when an expatriate technician sought to support the local initiative by promising to provide metal roofing material: villagers shifted their efforts from constructing their own building to soliciting additional support from their new found patron.

MAP, with its interest in altering self-perceptions and promoting local initiative, works best when no external resources are provided to assist people in the projects they plan. The basic message of self-reliant development thus remains simple and consistent.

Objectives of many programmes, however, often include the introduction of external support. Experiences with MAP adaptations have shown that it is possible to succeed in promoting self-reliance if resources are provided with thoughtful prudence. This was the case in the Tanzanian village of Managhat as villagers spent over a year preparing to receive grade cattle from an international donor. Planting small pastures and attending simple training sessions on the care of grade cattle were both required by the donor. These were important steps for encouraging self-reliance even as villagers anticipated the arrival of gift cows.

Since self-reliance is often seen a key to long term sustainability, careful thought should be given to the contradictions implied with the provision of inputs. As with other variables in the design of a programme, the question of whether to provide external resources or not needs to be answered in accordance with its fundamental objectives.

4 Enhancement of Women's Participation

The need to integrate women's involvement into the mainstream of rural development is increasingly recognised as a major priority in many programmes. Two approaches for ensuring women's integration were found to be helpful in conducting programmes with MAP methodology.

It was important to establish a quorum for women's attendance in MAP seminars. In the early days of the CMPP, involvement of women was always strongly encouraged. The number of women who then actually attended the planning seminars, however, was often quite small. This recurring problem finally led CMPP to establish minimum quotas for women's attendance. If a quorum was not reached by the time the seminar was to begin, then it was postponed. A strong message was thus delivered about the importance of women's participation.

Interestingly enough, teams of facilitators seldom experienced the need to cancel more than one seminar because of poor women's attendance. It may well be that through the act of cancelling, facilitators reinforced their own resolve about the seriousness of women's participation and were, therefore, able to adequately communicate this fact in subsequent set-up visits with local leaders.

The division of men and women into separate groups during portions of a seminar also proved to be effective. Because traditional culture often subordinates female involvement, this gave women an opportunity to organise their thoughts, prepare their presentations, and sharpen their questions prior to meeting again with the men. Dividing into men's and women's teams became a means for ensuring the integration of women's insights into the deliberations of the entire community.

5 Follow-up Support by Facilitators

The programmes that experimented with MAP generally followed an "expansive" strategy. They were designed to reach a relatively large number of communities rather than provide intensive support to a very few. By design, facilitators in these programmes had limited opportunity to offer continued back-up support to participants. This usually consisted of follow-up meetings and monitoring visits to review progress and discuss problems concerning project implementation.

CMPP, IRDP/EP, and LAMP all largely avoided having facilitators play an intermediary role to link communities with external services and resources. The reason for this was the same as that for limiting external inputs: facilitators want to encourage self-reliance. The more that facilitators do for people, the greater the risk of developing an unintended sense of dependency.

The major challenge of a participation programme is to discern the minimum level of facilitator support that still allows the programme to be an effective catalyst for self-reliant development. A systematic pattern of monitoring visits can accomplish this. Many facilitators, however, are tempted to skimp on follow-up work so that they can conduct new seminars in additional communities; this must be strongly resisted.

6 Participation in Large Sectoral Programmes

MAP adaptations with programmes that are "sector specific" (e.g. health, environment, irrigation, forestry, etc.), encounter more problems in mobilising grassroots action than those that are completely open-ended. Sectoral concerns involve an element of salesmanship as local participants are asked to focus their attention on the particular interest of the outside agency. MAP is most effectively used in sectoral programmes when local people are free to decide their own responses to a designated topic. It is obvious that the more directed a programme is in its desired results, the more difficult it will be to establish a sense of local ownership for the project.

The formation of maintenance committees around projects previously funded by the IRDP/EP is an example of this type of MAP adaptation. In these planning events, the subject of discussion was determined by the existing project. The response of the community, however, was never imposed. People themselves decided how, indeed if, they would maintain the project infrastructure under consideration. The village seminars in the Babati LAMP similarly resulted in people planning their own projects.

MAP can also be beneficial to sectoral programmes with a large geographic focus. Participation helps to ensure that future proposals are sensitive to locally felt needs while the inclusion of indigenous knowledge in the planning of major projects can improve their eventual effectiveness.

The "constituency" seminars sought to have contending interest groups contribute their perspectives to the formation of district environmental projects; this proved to be successful. Participants also left the seminars better informed about LAMP activities. But it was difficult for participants to assume practical responsibility for their proposals.

As with the distinction between institutional strengthening and grassroots mobilisation, it is important not to confuse participation in large sectoral projects with something it is not. Such adaptations of MAP have their genuine value, but large projects are limited in their capacity to empower local people.

Session: "Evaluation of the 'Facilitators Orientation Seminar'"

Objectives: To bring the orientation seminar to a conclusion by reviewing what has taken place and by providing an opportunity for the trainees to express their thoughts on how well it went.

Materials: Seminar Evaluation Form

Time: Approximately one hour.

Procedures: This session will consist of a reflective conversation followed by the completion of an evaluation form.

Questions for the reflective discussion might include:
- here on the wall is a blank time-design of the time we have spent together in the training; starting at one end of the table, every person mention one session they can remember and then we will place it on the time-design.
- which sessions do you remember as being very active with a lot of noise, etc?
- which sessions were the most difficult, the ones where people seemed to really be struggling to understand?
- which sessions were most interesting to you personally?
- when you go home and someone asked you "what did you learn at that seminar you attended?" what will you tell them?
- in what areas do you feel you need to work to work the most to further develop your own personal facilitation skills?
- what aspects of this training seminar have you appreciated the most?
- if you were to suggest some changes to this seminar which would improve it for the future, what would recommend?
(30 minutes)

Please take a few minutes now to fill out the evaluation form which is now being handed out.
(25 minutes)

To conclude, call upon a trainee spokes person to say a few words about meeting the challenges and fulfilling their responsibilities as facilitators in the future. (5 minutes)

Orientation Training Seminar for New Facilitator

Seminar Evaluation Form

1. Relative to you hopes and expectations at the beginning of this seminar, please tick one of the following:

   The seminar ...

   ____ Greatly exceeded my hopes and expectations
   ____ Somewhat exceeded my hopes and expectations
   ____ Was about what I hoped for or expected
   ____ Fell somewhat below my hopes and expectations
   ____ Fell far below my hopes and expectations

2. Please say why you responded as you did to question #1:

3. How would you rate the following (tick one column for each category):

	excellent	very good	average	below avg.	poor
seminar content					
design of the seminar					
methods and process used					
group participation					
interchange among participants					
quality of materials					
quality of trainers					
OVERALL SEMINAR RATING					

4. What was most beneficial to you personally from this seminar? why?

5.   If this seminar was to be done again for other facilitator trainees, what would you recommend be kept the same (done as it was in this seminar, NOT changed)?

6.   What would you want done differently (recommendations you would make to strengthen it -- additions, deletions, changes)?

7.   What kind of follow-up to this seminar, if any, would you recommend? what next steps should be done?

8.   What additonal comments do you have?

Chapter Three

On-the-Job Training for Facilitators

Novice facilitator become acquainted with participatory methods during the initial training of an orientation seminar. Real learning, however, really begins to happen as facilitator take to the road and put their newly acquired skills to practice in the midst of their everyday work. Facilitators very quickly begin to adapt the methods to their own personal styles as they develop particular techniques and approaches with which they feel comfortable. In a sense, new facilitator begin to settle into a routine as they enable villagers to build local plans for development.

This familiarity with their work produces both positive and negative results. While facilitators gain more confidence in leading workshops, enabling seminars to move smoother and faster, they also often develop poor facilitation habits that undermine the essential aims and objectives of the programme. These detrimental facilitation habits usually evolve very unintentionally and unconsciously.

Field monitoring of facilitators at work during village planning meetings is essential for further growth and development. Observations from an experienced facilitator can spot problems areas that are invisible to the local team. Creative criticism and from the outside can enable field staff to continue their journey toward becoming effective facilitators.

Appraising facilitators is at the heart of on-the-job training. In doing this, of course, it is important to establish a creative atmosphere for making criticism. Monitoring exercises are also a good time to review base-line data collected by the facilitator prior to their work with the villages. The following pages introduce these activities and then share a few ideas concerning ways to conduct this work.

3.1 Setting the Context for Creative Criticism

Though there is no prescribed format for on-the-job training, it is important to set a positive atmosphere for appraising facilitators at the beginning of the exercise. No one enjoys being watched knowing that their every mistake is being eagerly noted. It is up to the external resource person to create a personal working

environment that avoids the traps of defensiveness and self-justification on the part of facilitators.

Becoming a facilitator is a continuing learning experience. Hopefully, this was dramatically conveyed during the orientation seminar. In part, this is why the trainer was "evaluated" immediately after facilitating a classroom demonstration of MAP. Repeatedly discussions were held on ways to improve facilitation performances. The outside monitor needs to find ways to rehearse the kind of self-evaluation that was part and parcel of the orientation seminar.

At an early stage of the monitoring exercise, it will be valuable if the monitor can tell about a recent personal experience where he/she encountered a problem in facilitating a group only to realise later that improvements could have been made had another option been followed. This will serve as a reminder that one is forever "becoming" a facilitator but never finally "arrives."

All criticism begins first with affirmation. Focus on the what was done well before picking on points where improvement is needed. And at the end of every critique it is crucial to affirm the possibility of further growth and development. The appraiser needs to verbally express confidence that such growth and development will surely take place because of the personal commitments and skills of the one being evaluated.

3.2 Appraising a Facilitator's Performance

Monitoring visits by an external resource person are referred to here as "on-the-job training." As has been said, it is very difficult to design a prescribed training format for conducting this type of appraisal and training. At its minimum, it requires observation of a complete village planning event followed by a full day of reflection and conversation. During the self-evaluation conversation, every aspect of conducting a seminar is discussed in great detail with the facilitators. This, of course, includes extensive discussions about ways to improve all types of participation activities. The more that this type of observation and reflection can happen, ideally on some kind of regular basis, the better.

During the orientation seminar, a facilitator appraisal form was introduced. This can be a tool for common reference but should always be treated in an impressionistic way. In a sense, appraisal form serves as a checklist for observing a facilitator and reminds everyone about some of the basic areas in which they need to prepare themselves.

The MAP Facilitators Handbook will remain a valuable tool for reflecting on facilitation skills. It is rationally ordered so that consideration can be given to a comprehensive range of issues. Following its contents will allow a review of participatory techniques, stylistic issues constituting a participatory environment, and the complex issue of ensuring quality in village planning. The Handbook carries with it the added bonus of being a familiar resource to the facilitators themselves, thereby lowing the "threatening" nature of the appraisal.

After the field monitoring work, it is the responsibility of the outside trainer to write an internal memorandum reiterating all of points brought up in the reflections

and self-evaluation conversation. Without a written document, all of the appraisal work will tend to fade away as the facilitators become removed in time from the discussions. Producing a written report, of course, requires the external monitor to keep extensive notes on the entire exercise.

3.3 Using Base-line Data

Examining progress on the village development plans made during MAP seminars is an important aspect of the on-the-job training. It is a misunderstanding to think that an ability to lead interesting discussions involving a lot of people is the chief characteristic of a good facilitator. The quality of one's facilitation skills is directly related to how well villagers are enabled to succeed with the self-help projects they plan. On-the-job training entails as much reflection on village project activities as it does on the "up-front" performance of facilitators during seminars.

Facilitators usually conduct monitoring visits and follow-up meetings in an effort to sustain momentum from a MAP seminar. Comparing the results from these activities with information from the original base-line data can be an informative exercise in understanding the dynamics of village development work. Past experience, however, has shown that base-line information often remains in the file cabinet after it is collected. The practical use of this material by facilitators something realised only with considerable effort.

After attending village monitoring visits or follow-up meetings with the facilitators, an outside resource person needs to analyse with the facilitators in analysing the reasons for success or failure. A good conversation might include the following questions:

- what projects did this community plan to undertake?
- what results or progress were we able to see during the follow-up meeting or monitoring visit?
- where have you been excited by their progress?
- where have you been a little disappointed because you expected or hoped to see more?
- what problems are slowing them down or are causing them to become stuck?
- let's review the base-line data collected before the seminar; as we look back now, what are indicators of these same problems?
- if we had the "eyes" to foresee these problems, how might we have pushed the participants to consider them during the MAP seminar?
- what can we learn from this? what can we do in the future to help other communities to avoid these problems when we conduct a MAP seminar with them? (in this way, the base-line data will give us the "eyes" to see!)
- now back to the village we were just discussing - how might they be able to overcome the problems that are causing them to become stuck?
- what can we do now as facilitators to encourage them in doing their projects?

Practice in using the base-line data to analyse problems in projects will enable facilitators to think more deeply in future MAP seminars. Such reflection needs to be included in every on-the-job training event involving outside resource people.

Chapter Four

Advanced Facilitator Training

Whereas on-the-job training sessions take on the qualities of small intimate tutorials with just a few people, advanced training seminars for facilitators once again move toward the formality of classroom work. Though on-the-job training involves serious preparation and planning, it also always involves a certain element of catering to the unexpected. Advanced training seminar once again require a carefully considered format and structure.

Prematurely prescribing this structure, however, would be a mistake. The particular content of advanced facilitator training needs to be in direct response to the insights gained from field observations of facilitators at work. The trainer will create a training design depending upon those observations. This is particularly true for those categories where much of the training needs to be focussed: enabling high levels of participation among villagers and ensuring high quality thinking in the formation of village plans.

The one area of advanced training that does allow for considerable pre-planning the theoretical assumptions of MAP methods. Virtually none of these are likely to have been presented during an orientation seminar. This chapter presents some particular suggestions for training facilitators in the underlying theory behind MAP and recommends some ideas for designing additional training for enhancing participation and quality.

4.1 Theoretical Assumptions of MAP

Deep behind many of the methodological approaches of MAP lie the ground-breaking work of Paulo Freire. Much of the thinking about the role of rural animators is traceable to his work. More immediate is the educational work of the Institute of Cultural Affairs and their theories concerning "image shifts." Other practitioners concerned with participation have also written extensively about underlying theory.

The procedures that follow are some possible ways to have facilitators consider the theoretical assumptions of participatory methods. There are far too many for any one seminar, so a trainer will need to pick and choose carefully according to the needs of the audience.

Sessions: "Making Participation Possible"

Objectives: To reflect upon the profundity of being a MAP facilitator by studying
             different sections of this article on rural animation.

Materials: Copies of the article, "Making Participation Possible," from Rural
             Development, Number 9, 1987, a newsletter published by FAO.

Time: Approximately 30 to 45 minutes on each topic.

Notes: The article has several short sections that easily lend themselves to
             quick studies. These sections can be identified through dividing up the
             main text into particular subjects as well as focusing of the theory and
             practice "boxes" that run through out the article. In an advanced
             facilitator seminar these sections might be studied, one a day,
             throughout the duration the training. Possible topics of short studies
             can be selected according to the needs of the group from the following
             list:

                    "the making of an animator" pages 28-29
                    "barriers to change" pages 29-30
                    "animation" pages 30-33
                    "facilitation" pages 33-35
                    "progressive redundancy" page 35
                    "internal animators" 35-36
                    "as an organisation grows" page 29
                    "caricature of an 'expert' & profile of an animator" page 30
                    "choosing the best" page 31
                    "regular supervision is 'crucial'" page 31
                    "participation that transcends community barriers" page 32
                    "a collective encounter with reality" page 32
                    "toward collective self-reliance" page 33
                    "animators can also be obstacles" page 34
                    "the risk of a new dependency" page 35

Procedures: Have the facilitators read the particular section of the day and then
             lead a reflective conversation. The questions should vary according to
             the topic, but some general questions might be:
             - what points does this section make about enabling self-reliant
               development?
             - how do our activities with MAP compare with the points in the
               article?
             - when there are difference between ideas presented in the article
               and MAP, what are the differing arguments between the two? what
               is the insight of each?
             - how does the section we have read today push us to think more
               deeply about what it means to be a MAP facilitator?

Session: "Presentation and Exercise on 'Image Shifts'"

Objective: To have new facilitators consider the dynamics that are involved in behavioural changes.

Materials: Black board or flip chart, an image shift work sheet.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Present in an imaginative way the following four assumptions concerning behavourial traits.[1]

1. People Think in Images
2. Images Are Created by Messages
3. Images Govern Behaviour
4. Images Can Change
5. When Images Change, then Attitudes, Beliefs, and Behaviour Changes

A visual teaching image for the presentation might be as follows:
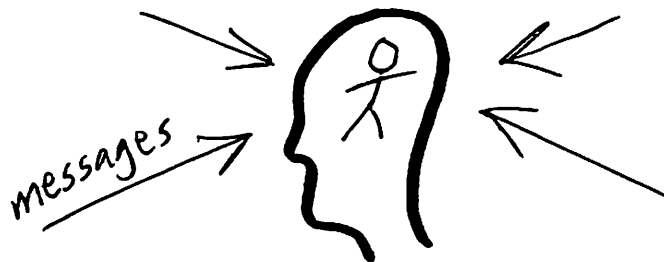
MAP is a way of trying to mobilise grass-roots initiative where there currently is little or none. This has to do with catalysing new behaviour. If it is true that images control behaviour, it is important to develop analytical skills in recognising these images. This will help facilitators to better understand why people act as they do, especially in regards to the focus of the work: the catalysing of self-reliant development activities. Such analytical skills will enhance one's ability to make their programmes more effective. The following exercises will enable us to grasp this concept of "image change" more fully.
(30 minutes)

Exercise: "Changed Behaviour in Friends or Family." Take a minute and brainstorm times that you have observed a change of behavior in your close friends, your husband or wife, your children, your parents, etc. Try to come up with four or five different cases. Now do the same thing for yourself: when have you gone through a major change of behaviour. List four or five.

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[1]see excerpt from George and Keith Packard in the appendix on "The Foundational Understandings of Imaginal Education and their Relationship to Theories of Social Psychology."

Image shift work sheet

Old behavior	New behavior
Old "image"	New "image"
Reinforcing messages 1. 2. 3. 4.	Reinforcing messages 1. 2. 3. 4.

Old behavior	New behavior
Old "image"	New "image"
Reinforcing messages 1. 2. 3. 4.	Reinforcing messages 1. 2. 3. 4.

Session:	"Encouraging an Image Shift"

Objectives: To consider the ways that a someone might help occasion an image shift in another.

Materials: Image shift work sheet.

Time: Approximately one hour

Procedures: Have the group brainstorm negative, harmful, or unhelpful behaviour you can see in friends or family members. Choose one and state what you think would be a more creative behaviour to replace the current one. Then fill out the work sheet. The new messages need to be ones you can assume responsibility for sending, and can be verbal, visual, or related to "feelings." (10 minutes)

Have a few people share their examples; discuss:
- Was it more difficult to project into the future and to prescribe rather than to merely observe? (10 minutes)

Now brainstorm negative behaviour within yourself that you would like to change. Choose one and fill out the work sheet.

Share some examples and discuss.
- Was this more difficult to complete?
- Why or why not do you think that is that the case?
- What was the nature of the messages for the new image? Are they messages that you send your self or are they some other kind?

In conclusion, point out that today's work has been to become more familiar with "image shifts" in anticipation of more practical application for MAP programmes in following workshops.

Session: "Negative Behaviour that Prevents Self-reliance"

Objectives: To analyse images that sustain counter productive behaviour which undermines self-reliance.

Materials: Image shift work sheets.

Time: Approximately an hour and a half.

Procedures: Introduction - in a previous session we learned how people live out of images and how images control behavior. In this session we want to look at that theoretical insight and apply it to the objectives of MAP. We will begin by discussing the behaviour that is contrary to the objectives of MAP and try to discern the images and messages that are sustaining that behaviour. Later, we will look at the images that MAP is trying to create and the messages it uses in doing that job.
(5 minutes)

What are some of the typical behaviour traits that undermine cooperation and authentic self-reliant development activities in the villages? This is behaviour we would like to see changed for the sake of vibrancy and self-reliance. Because of particular values we put on local initiative and working together, we might call these "negative behaviour traits" (e.g. drunkenness, passivity, embezzlement, waiting for someone else to do something, silence in meetings, never saying what they really think, women shouldn't be involved in decision-making, expecting aid, expecting the party leadership to make all the decisions, etc.) Individually, make a list.
(10 minutes)

Break into teams (perhaps three) with each team being assigned a part of the list. For each "negative behaviour," the team should discuss and name the underlying image and the messages that are reinforcing that image. (45 minutes)

The teams return and report their work. Following each report discuss other ways of seeing the underlying images and reinforcing messages. (30 minutes)

In conclusion, point out that in the next session we will take these "negative behaviours" and ask ourselves how we would hope to see these behaviors altered as a result of the MAP activities. This means we will be trying to create new images and send consistent reinforcing messages through all that we do in our seminars and through all other contact we make in the villages.
(5 minutes)

Session: "New Behaviour MAP Hopes to Catalyse"

Objectives: To take the list of "negative behaviours" that undermine self-reliance
                and to state a new behaviour for each that MAP would like to
                encourage.

Materials: Image shift work sheets.

Time: Approximately two hours.

Procedures: Break into teams again (perhaps with a new mix of people) with each
                team taking a set of the new behaviours that are desired. Each team
                then comes up with a new image that would support the new behaviour
                and a set of possible messages that can be communicated through
                MAP contact to create the new image.
                (45 minutes)

                The teams return as a whole group and hear the reports from the
                teams. Discuss any other insights that people from other groups might
                have on the matter.
                (15 minutes)

                Often we find ourselves sending out messages that inadvertently
                contradict what we intend. These are usually very subtle and,
                therefore, we fail to notice them. We can clearly see examples of this
                when parents say "do as I say, not as I do." What they do, of course,
                is usually a much stronger message in creating images for their
                children than what they say. Can anyone give an example of this truth
                with children?

                The same is also true for work in MAP activities. To end this session,
                we want to think a bit on the contradictory messages we send through
                our unconscious actions that undermine the messages we are
                consciously trying to create (e.g. the facilitator who listens politely to
                the contributions of women participants but only writes up ideas
                contributed by men).

                - What are unintentional ways we communicate that villagers are in
                  fact not the experts?
                - What are the inadvertent ways we communicate that women are
                  not equal participants with men?
                - What are ways we unconsciously communicate that we don't really
                  expect them to succeed, that what they do really doesn't matter?
                - What are other ways that we fall into this trap of undermining our
                  own work?
                - What can we do to call ourselves to attention about these concerns
                  when we are out in the villages?

                In conclusion, we want to be very careful not to undermine our work
                through unintentional messages.

Sessions:	"Eight Instruments to Promote & Support Self-Help"
Objectives:	To consider some of the deeper issues in promoting self-help through participatory means.
Materials:	Copies of "How to Promote and Support Self-Help: Eight Instruments Reviewed" from Self-Help Promotion by Koenraad Verhagen.
Time:	Approximately 30-45 minutes per section.
Notes:	Like the article from the FAO magazine on "Making Participation Possible," this chapter lends itself to short subjects on particular topics concerning the promotion of self-help activities. The eight topics are

"Identification of target population and self-help groups"
"Participatory research and planning"
"Education and mutual training"
"Resource mobilisation and resource provision"
"Management consultancy"
"Linkage building with third parties"
"Process extension and movement building"
"Monitoring and ongoing evaluation"

This chapter is full of abbreviations which need to be explained:

SHPI	"self-help promotion institution"
SHO	"self-help organisation"
MOE	"monitoring & ongoing evaluation"
UB	(a savings & credit organisation in Indonesia)
MOC	(movement of community organisations in Brazil)
APAEB	(association of small producers in Brazil)
DISAC	(dioceses action centre in Thailand)
KSK	(a credit scheme in Indonesia)
BAAC	(bank for agriculture cooperatives in Thailand)

Procedures: Have participants read the section and then discuss. Though all of the research work for this book took place in Asia and Latin America, comparing the experiences and perspectives of this work to the African conditions from which MAP has emerged will push facilitators to think more deeply about their work and how they can best accomplish it. Specific questions need to be created for each section as they are studied, but some general questions might be:
- what points does this section have to make about enabling self-reliant development?
- how do our activities with MAP compare with these points?
- when there are difference between ideas presented in the chapter and MAP, what are the differing arguments between the two? what is the insight of each?
- how does the section we have read today push us to think deeper about what it means to be a MAP facilitator?

4.2 Enabling High Levels of Participation

The exercises and training sessions in an advanced training seminar which focus on improving participation techniques will be best created in response to observations made by the trainer during on-the-job monitoring visits.

In addition to the trainer's own conclusion, another valuable resource, when available, are the results of any external evaluations on the programme by short-term consultants. These documents always have much to say about the operation of the programme and careful study of them during an advanced training seminar can enable many fruitful conversations among facilitators.

4.3 Ensuring High Quality Thinking by Participants

Issues of quality in planning are also likely to be big issues for advanced training events. Personal observations by the trainer and comments from external evaluators will be the basis for designing training activities.

Discussion on the issues and presentations by the trainer both need to be followed by practice. Though this can be done in simulated classroom situations (role plays on naming anticipated accomplishments, scheduling projects, facilitating "feasibility" reflections during project selection, etc), there is no doubt that practice in an actual field situation is far more effective. If time, logistics, and finance will allow, a practice seminar needs to be scheduled in an advanced training seminar just as in the orientation training event.

Chapter Five

Workshops for Designing a Participation Programme

The training of facilitators is closely related to developing programme designs for participation promotional activities. Though not strictly a training activity, this chapter presents some ideas for facilitating the creation of a participation programme design. It is divided into three sections: clarifying programme objectives, considering strategic options, and preparing operational manuals.

5.1 Clarifying Programme Objectives

Traditionally, many new programmes are designed by engaging a team of consultants who interviews a number of people and then makes a number of recommendations concerning the future of the programme. Given the participatory nature of these anticipated programmes, it makes more sense to employ participatory methods right from the beginning. Rather than interviewing interested parties on an individual basis, it will be more effective to convene a planning workshop to clarify programme objectives.

As in any participation activity, careful attention needs to be given to who is invited to attend the workshop. A workshop of this nature typically brings together two groups: 1) those who can influence programme policy and 2) senior management responsible for the implementation of the programme. Donors might also be represented.

A first step would be to place the new programme within its larger framework. Is the programme to be exclusively focused on the open-ended promotion of participation activities or is an aspect of a large development project with a particular focus like health, environment, or cooperatives? In a workshop setting, this larger framework could be examined with a review of programme documents or a presentation by a senior programme officials. After the study (or presentation) a conversation might be held with the group:

- what references were made in the programme document (or presentation) concerning participation promotion?
- does this larger framework establish any limitations in regards to designing a participation programme?
- what flexibility is there for designing participation activities?

Such a conversation would set the stage for a major workshop using MAP methods. The focus question of the workshop would be: "what does this programme hope to achieve in regards to participation?" The workshop participants would individually brainstorm their ideas and write them on cards. These would then be organised by categories. At the conclusion of the workshop, the group would have a broad perspective about promoting participation in the future.

The next step in the process is to consider obstacles that stand in the way of accomplishing the vision. Following the same procedures, major contradictions to developing the participation programme can be identified.

5.2 Considering Strategic Options

The next step in the planning process is to establish strategic directions. At this point it will be valuable to review insights from the past experiences of other participation programmes. One way of doing this is review a section from the final report of the "MAP Research and Development Project." This section is found in the appendix. After reading these few pages, participants in the planning workshop might be asked the following questions:

- what were the different "strategic insights" reported by the MAP R&D Project?
- which ones did you find yourself saying "yes, that is right!"?
- where did you find yourself saying "wait a minute, I'm not so sure"?
- which seem to have a direct bearing on our discussion regarding this programme?
- what new strategic options does this report cause you to consider?

After this warm up exercise via reading and reflection on the MAP final report, conduct a proposals workshop following similar procedures as described above. The focus question of the workshop is: "what do we need to do to address the obstacles we confront and realise our long-term vision?" At the end of the workshop conclude with a conversation that reviews specific decisions that have now been made concerning strategic approaches for participation activities in the programme.

With these decisions now made, a small team of people can be assigned to create drafts documents and operational manuals for programme implementation.

5.3 Preparing Operational Manuals

A "procedures manual" must be written to precisely define activities that facilitators will be expected to carry out in the field. The MAP Facilitators Handbook is a general resource for facilitators, but it does not specify exactly what a facilitator does in relationship to a particular programme. This is the purpose of the "procedures manual." Good examples of this type of procedures manual have been

produced by the Cooperative College in Zambia for CMPP and the Cooperative Union of Tanzania for CMPP in that country.

A "cycle of activities" needs to be created that objectifies the rhythm of contact that facilitators will be expected to keep as they work with any particular village. This cycle includes the conducting of the original planning seminar as well as subsequential monitoring visits and follow-up meetings. Depending upon the complexity of the programme, other activities might be incorporated as well, e.g. leadership training events, set-up visits, periodical reports, etc.

Once these details have been determined, then "facilitator workplans" can be written. These are usually done on a quarterly basis though they can also made for an entire year (if people are prepared to make adjustments!). Workplans for promotional activities in rural areas need to take a lot of details into consideration. Below are some instructions that were found to be helpful in planning CMPP in Tanzania (which is known as MUWA according to its swahili acronym) and illustrates issues to consider in building workplans.

Creation of Draft Workplans MUWA

Basic guidelines to be followed:

-facilitators will work on a rhythm that calls for two weeks in the field followed by one week in the office, two weeks in the field, one week in the office, etc.;

-no MUWA seminars will be scheduled to occur during the rainy season when farmers are cultivating or during the harvest season; other MUWA activities like monitoring visits or follow-up meetings may take place as usual;

-if any team is behind schedule in doing the full cycle of MUWA activities with a primary society, priority will be given to bring the cycle up-to-date before initiating MUWA in new situations;

-the "unit" of planning will be four primary societies in a district (2 each in neighbouring divisions) that have made the change to "one village, one society;

-leave will be taken by facilitators at different times of the year so that MUWA activities can continue with two of the three facilitators;

-in more distant districts, it often makes sense to plan activities in two week pairs to economize on travel, e.g. set-up visits and T&E meetings together on a two week trip, four MUWA seminars in the same district on a single two week trip, monitoring visits and Leaders Seminars together, etc;

Steps for creating a MUWA workplan:

1) find a calendar and number the weeks of the year 1 through 52, the first week in January being #1 and the last week of December being #52;

65

2) create a worksheet on a manila sheet by drawing a chart, or timeline, for the 52 weeks;

3) work in pencil because there will be minor adjustments as activities in different districts have to be coordinated;

4) mark the core of the various rainy seasons and harvest seasons (they may differ from one district to another);

5) plot cycle activities on the 52 week worksheet for societies where MUWA seminars have already taken place;

6) when scheduling new MUWA seminars for a "unit" within a district, plot the full cycle in pencil before scheduling other new MUWA seminars elsewhere;

7) avoid scheduling MUWA seminars during the rainy seasons or during harvesting time;

8) check to be sure that holidays don't prohibit doing the activities planned for the week (usually they don't, but allowances must be made for them in the week's activity);

9) minor deviations of two or three weeks in the cycle can be made in the workplan to allow for maintaining the rhythm and convenience of travel, etc.

These brief reflections on clarifying programme objectives, considering strategic options, and preparing operational manuals will assist any trainer who becomes involved in assisting a programme design its participation activities.

MAKING PARTICIPATION POSSIBLE

Their aim is to encourage the rural poor to think, reflect and act autonomously. Their major role is to facilitate the development of the poor's own capacities to organize and manage. Their ultimate fulfilment is their own redundancy.

"I have been a leader of my community ever since I can remember. But my leadership was more like that of the government. The people were simply following me and depending on my leadership."
— a Philippines fisherman

Animators and the UN system

The term "rural development animator" is relatively new to the United Nations system's vocabulary. But UN experience with animators dates back to the mid-1970s. At about that time, traditional rural societies in South Asia were witnessing the emergence of poor people's organizations which stressed democracy, self-reliance and the rejection of paternalistic outside aid. Important figures in these organizations were "development workers" and "educator-activists" whose major role was promoting among the poor something called "collective self-reflected awareness". ILO and other agencies took interest in the movement, studied it, and helped to set up networks among participatory organizations operating in South and Southeast Asia. By the early 1980s, contact was made between this Asian movement and NGOs and social activists in Latin America and Africa with an equally rich experience in promoting grass-roots self-reliance. At the same time, FAO's Small Farmers Development Programme in Asia was pioneering the use of locally-recruited "group organizers" to help set up peasants' organizations and forge links with government services.

In the 1980s, animators — under various names — have taken their place in the rural development programmes of UN agencies. "Group promoters", "change agents" and "para-professionals" have proved indispensable to the success of projects to organize the rural

> *"An outsider who comes with ready-made solutions is worse than useless. He must first understand from us what our questions are, and help us articulate the questions better, and then help us find solutions."*
> — an internal animator, India
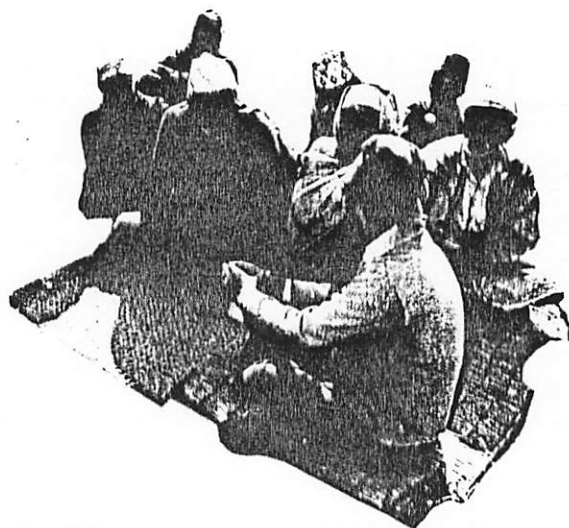
poor for productive, self-help activities. As consensus grows on the validity of the new approach, agencies are collaborating more closely in pilot activities and, just as important, governments are taking an increasing interest.

An ILO technical cooperation report says the "animation movement is still small, the odds against it are heavy, failures are possibly as numerous as successes, internal contradictions are not absent, and the eventual outcome of the struggle in any given country is unpredictable". However, the movement's strength is its belief that the spirit of self-reliance resides in all human beings. "The existence of the spirit," the report says, "may not be questioned."

THEORY
animation, facilitation, participation

According to one definition, a "rural development animator" is a person who *assists the rural poor to initiate self-development processes.* But how does this person differ from others engaged in the task of rural development, such as extension agents, community development workers and project field staff? The latter normally deal with entire rural communities, irrespective of the communities' social and economic divisions. They also tend to treat rural people as objects of change. Underlying this so-called "delivery approach" to development is the assumption that the subject knows and the object is ignorant.

Animators, on the other hand, assist exclusively the poor and deprived. They regard the rural poor as creative subjects of change, and true development as the liberation of the poor's creative initiatives. However, the expression of the people's creativity is suppressed by adverse social processes which make them passive and reluctant to innovate. Needed, therefore, is an alternative form of interaction that animates the rural poor to investigate and analyse the social reality they live in, understand the causal factors of their poverty and deprivation, perceive possibilities for change by their own action and take initiatives to transform reality.

As part of this process, animators seek to facilitate the strengthening of people's capacities to organize and
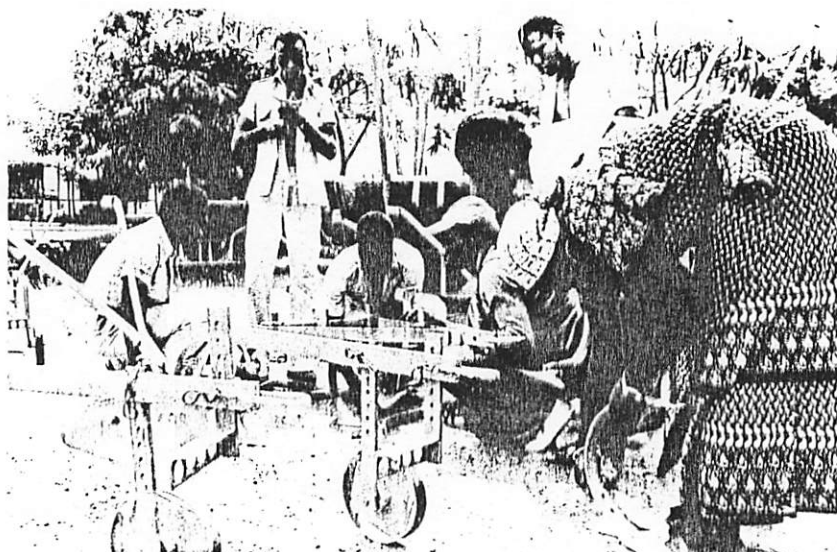
"We have been baptized as animators. But it is ultimately the people with whom we work who will decide whether we are animators or not."
— graduate from an animator training course, United Republic of Tanzania

manage self-reliant action. Finally, animators work to make themselves redundant: the crucial test of an animator's effectiveness comes when he or she withdraws, leaving the rural poor to manage their own lives.

The making of an animator

The rural development animator requires social and behavioural skills. First, he or she must be committed to the rural poor rather than to a party or project, and have decided to work with them against powerful vested interests. Second, he or she should have faith in the poor's ability to learn and act creatively to bring about change.

The animator is engaged in a joint endeavour with the poor which enables both to advance their consciousness. He or she need not necessarily possess specific technical skills. More important is an ability to understand the dynamics of a given social reality, including the organization of social relations

The terminology	Animators are the first to acknowledge that the terminology used to describe their work lacks precise definitions. The following list, drawn from the literature on animation, is intended as a guide for the uninitiated:
	Animation - assisting people to think, reflect and act autonomously by helping to build up their intellectual capacities and knowledge base
	Conscientization - a process in which people achieve a deepening awareness both of the reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality
	Facilitation - assisting people to acquire practical skills, to improve their access to material resources, and to undertake actions
	Participatory rural development - a process of creative change initiated by organized, self-conscious rural people acting in response to their own deprivation
	Praxis - the interplay between action and reflection and the systematic reflection on actions
	Problemization - the posing of reality to the people as a problem for critical reflection
	Self-reliance - an expression of a person's faith in his/her own abilities; de-alienation and regeneration of powers lost through dependence and exploitation

and the structure of poverty and domination. Also needed is a continuous learning ability, a willingness to learn from the people's knowledge and actions, an ability to share and analyse experiences with fellow animators and alertness to changes in reality. The animator must establish a subject-to-subject relationship with the poor founded on mutual learning and on the poor's own ways of communicating. Essential is respect for the poor's traditions and willingness to adjust to the life and work styles of rural people — the animator does not work regular office hours.

He or she should also have the capacity to assist the poor to build up the skills needed to cope with barriers to change. Overcoming these barriers also calls for the ability to cope with tensions and conflicts created when the rural *status quo* is disturbed. The animator must handle conflicts with tact, avoid premature and unnecessary confrontations and seek allies to support and strengthen his or her work.

Barriers to change
Why are rural development animators necessary? Despite attempts at land reform and improvements in education and health services, massive rural poverty persists in many developing countries. Many rural societies remain divided between the rich, who enjoy political and social power, and the poor, who are politically and socially weak. This division, resulting from

| THEORY two "fundamental human values"	To help the poor develop as creative beings animators must promote two fundamental human values. One is *self-reliance*, achievement of which requires a combination of material, intellectual, organizational and management capabilities. The poor's capacity for self-reliance is built up through collective efforts. These should emerge, an ILO report says, from the inner urges of rural people, rather than being created by coercion. The other requirement is *participation*. Initiatives for self-reliance are undertaken within a collective framework of participatory decision-making and action. Participation is both an instrument for self-reliant action and the fulfilment of a basic human need. Participation has to be conceived as an active process in which people's initiatives are guided by their own thinking, using means and processes over which they exert effective control.
THEORY as organizations grow . . .	Since the essence of participation is self-initiative in a social framework, organizations of the rural poor are useful facilitating instruments. However, by vesting power in offices, organizations can create seeds of domination which inhibit people's initiatives. The tension between participation and organizations tends to increase as the latter expand and higher-level federations unite base groups. Some form of representation is inevitable. This presents members with the problem of ensuring that their representative remains true to their aspirations. This, in turn, leads to a major issue, the *consciousness gap* existing between leaders and ordinary members. There are bound to be some people with a sharper perception of the need for social change who are more able to comprehend and systematize ideas and organize action. That such persons tend to lead others is often inevitable in the early stages of the participatory process. The challenge is to ensure that these leaders remain true to the aspirations of those they represent and that the interaction between them reduces the consciousness gap rather than creating a new dependency. An important element in organizational consciousness, therefore, should be the people's ability to check the growth of internal authoritarianism. This countervailing power should stand ready to confront and transcend the formal power of organizations.

unequal access to productive assets, leads to exploitation of the poor through sharecropping, high rents, usury and low wages. Socio-economic rural institutions tend to be controlled by the rich who use them to claim a disproportionate share of public resources. The poor's economic dependency generates dependent behaviour patterns, while competition among them
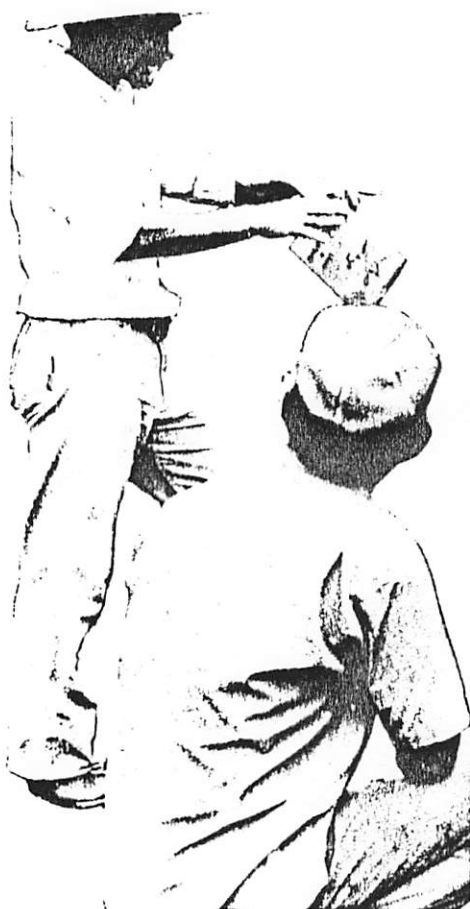
discourages group action and encourages individualism and atomization of the community. Socially, economically and psychologically dependent, they rarely unite to deliberate about their situation, let alone take collective action to change it. While rural people sometimes mobilize their labour — e.g. to improve rural infrastructure — these activities do not touch the core issues of poverty, dependence and powerlessness. Autonomous initiatives are usually not sustained and often do not acquire the characteristics of genuine participation.

This situation provides the rationale for external stimulation of the rural poor to help strengthen their capacities for participatory development. Such a build-up is not generally developed spontaneously. People need to be stimulated and facilitated by skilled intervenors entering from outside, or emerging from inside, their community. Much depends on the way this stimulation is carried out.

Animation

The intervenor's first task is *animation*, i.e. assisting people to

PRACTICE caricature of an "expert"	PRACTICE profile of an animator
An ILO consultant recently helped reorient a project for participatory planning in the United Republic of Tanzania. Key elements in the new approach were nine men and five women selected from field-level government services to become village animators. During an early training session, they were asked to make a caricature of the conventional rural development worker. They agreed on basic points — that he or she is one who "instructs, monitors, deals with, and dominates" the poor who, in turn, "listen, adopt, respond and depend". Asked to construct an alternative model, the trainees agreed on the desirability of a subject-to-subject relationship, with the people "exploring, initiating, reflecting, acting and emerging" while the "expert" (in this case, the animator) "learns, understands, stimulates, assists and facilitates".	Studies in South Asia show that most rural development animators are males of middle-class origin, aged between 25 and 40, with a relatively high level of formal education. They come from socially active strata of the community, often have previous experience in community activities and are looking for alternative approaches to development. Many became animators after disappointing experiences with other forms of development assistance: political activists were disillusioned by the lack of concrete results from their efforts; NGO workers felt their activities failed to come to grips with poverty and inequality; officers on government projects had experienced the frustration of bureaucracy in planning and implementation; community aid volunteers had begun to see the limitations of existing village institutions as instruments of change. Other animators were formerly student activists searching for a relevant role in society.

build up their intellectual capacities and a knowledge base. People operate as animated subjects when they are able to investigate and analyse social reality, perceive possibilities for change, take initiatives and engage in critical review of their actions.

The logical starting-point in this process should be stimulating the people to probe into their life situations and experiences. This involves a problem-posing approach, in which reality is presented as a challenge for intellectual inquiry. This method contrasts with that employed in most development projects where the social analysis is conducted by outside professionals. *Problemization* of reality usually takes the form of posing central questions such as "Why are we poor?". Specific issues will vary according to the particular social context. For example:

• Among poor small-scale farmers, problemization might centre on issues relating to production, marketing, purchase of inputs, credit and prices. An important task of animation is to assist people to collect and process data and draw conclusions about their poverty. This exercise often reveals a series of deprivations caused by usurious interest rates and unequal relations with landowners and traders. Through these inquiries, people begin to relate their poverty to the social environment and also uncover possibilities for collective action to retrieve economic surpluses.

| PRACTICE choosing the best | More than 100 people applied for five positions as "community facilitators" with a rural development project in the Philippines. To identify the best candidates, the project team conducted a series of written tests and interviews over a period of two weeks. This led to the selection of ten candidates found to have a strong commitment to the rural poor. The project team put these through a ten-day field test designed to gauge their ability to live and work under difficult rural conditions; adjust and adapt to rural ways; establish a rapport with rural people; gather information on a community in an unobtrusive manner; and analyse this information.

The candidates were sent in two-person teams to five districts with instructions to "learn as much from and about the people" as possible without carrying out a formal survey. The care with which they recorded and analysed their experiences and the information they gathered served as the basis for the selection of the top five candidates. The project team also consulted the local inhabitants to find out how well the candidates were able to integrate themselves into the community during their stay. A third criterion used in the selection process was the candidates' own opinions about who among them was most suited for the job. |
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| PRACTICE regular supervision "crucial" | Through its People's Participation Programme (PPP), FAO is helping farmers in eight African countries to organize themselves into small groups for productive activities. A recent evaluation of a PPP project in Sierra Leone made the following points:

"Firstly, the approach to increase people's participation in development through group formation has a better chance in a village without internal contradictions and factions. The work of the Group Promoter (GP) is easier and supported if he/she can work together with an *enthusiastic* villager who is willing to develop the village, has some understanding of the project approach, and is considered an authority by other villagers. Often group decisions are changed again and again and finally not carried out at all. The regular presence and supervision of the GP and the agrotechnician appears to be crucial to assist the group members in the difficult process of working and organizing together in a non-traditional way. The group process toward cooperation, unity and solidarity of members depends above all on the undertaking of *concrete activities with visible results*. Workshops and training conducted by the project in different villages allowing PPP participants to meet and compare results plays an important role. Finally, increased participation of women can be achieved by a male and female GP together by carefully building on the traditional role and responsibilities of women." |