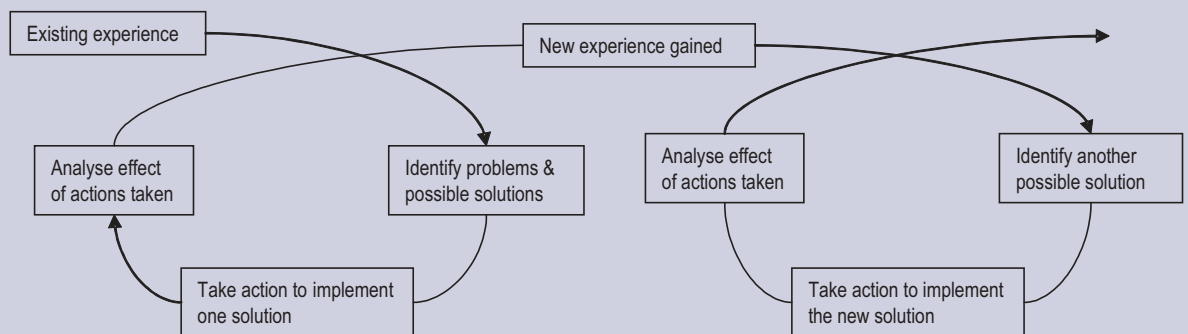


Supporting Community Management

A manual for training in community management
in the water and sanitation sector



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Supporting Community Management:
**A manual for training in community management in the water and
sanitation sector**

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Delft/Haarlem, September 2002

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Preface

For a period of four years participatory action research into the community management of rural water supplies took place in 6 countries¹. This research provided a huge amount of experience and insights.

To gather this information has been a challenge. However, it is an even bigger challenge to disseminate the information in such a way that i) it is being used, and ii) it leads to exchanges between professionals and to new insights and knowledge. As a follow-up to this research, a proposal to disseminate this knowledge was developed, financed by DGIS, the office for the Dutch Development Co-operation.

As part of this dissemination strategy, IRC and its research partners chose to develop or expand their capacity to train field staff in participatory development and issues related to Community Management of rural water supplies. For the purpose of capacity development IRC organised a Training of Trainers in March 1999. A manual for this ToT was produced, through which IRC greatly benefited from the work done by FMD Consultants.

This manual consists of a theoretical section and a tools section and is a document about learning and development approaches with tools to help people learn about community management, rather than a document that tells you all about community management of rural water supplies. For more content about community management, refer to:

- Keep it working; a manual for field workers (published by IRC 2001)
- How to support community management of water supplies; guidelines for managers (published by IRC 2002)
- State of the Art; (2003)

These are books that have also been written on the basis of the research experience and can be used for background reading. The tools are primarily for use by trainers responsible for helping field staff prepare for their tasks with communities.

¹ Nepal, Pakistan, Cameroon, Kenya, Guatemala and Colombia



1. *Introduction*

1.1 **Why a trainers' manual on community management?**

It is common these days for projects in the water supply and sanitation sector to actively promote community management of water supply and sanitation services. Similarly there are many tools that have been developed to enable us to engage communities, share knowledge with community members and enable community members, with minimal support, to better analyse their own situation and plan the management and improvement of their water supply and sanitation services.

Unfortunately formal or traditional education and training does not offer an opportunity for trainers, community development workers and engineers to learn in a way that enables them to practice the use of such tools effectively. In the last decade appropriate training courses have increasingly adopted practical approaches to learning that encourage participants to engage community members as people with knowledge and with ideas that should be built on rather than changed.

This manual may be used to plan training aimed at helping participants, such as field staff, internalise key concepts related to community participation in the management of their own water supply and sanitation services.

1.2 **Who is this manual for?**

Trainers of field staff

This manual provides innovative approaches and tools to help to improve the training of field staff. Firstly it provides background information on a number of concepts that are related to community management. It also has chapters that help to plan training programmes and training sessions using the action learning or experiential learning approach. Lastly it describes a number of useful tools to help participants internalise key concepts and skills crucial to support community participation and management. If adapted, field staff can also use some of the tools when working in communities.

Project Managers

This manual provides background on key concepts and skills which all staff, but particularly colleagues who work with communities, need to be familiar with. They also need to internalise these concepts and the skills discussed in order to promote genuine community participation in, and management of, projects and services. It describes the type of training approach required to help colleagues internalise these concepts and skills and discusses a variety of tools. This manual can also be used to help encourage colleagues to adopt community sensitive approaches in their work through organising training, or utilising key tools in everyday briefings and management.

1.3 Structure of the manual

This manual is divided in two parts. Part I covers the theory of concepts and approaches and Part II has a large number of tools meant to help internalise and learn how to use the theory.

Part I: Concepts and approaches

Chapters 2-6 - Throughout Part I there are references to the tools that will be found in Part II.

Chapter 2 Approaches to learning

Introduces the reader to a variety of learning approaches and the implications these approaches have for trainers and trainees.

Chapter 3 Useful concepts for field staff supporting community management

Introduces a number of important concepts which facilitators will need to internalise if they are to promote and support active community participation and management of water supply and sanitation systems.

Chapter 4 Discovery learning and community management

Explains participatory development and its phases; the diagnosing phase, the experimenting phase and the sustaining phase.

Chapter 5 Facilitation: a challenge

Deals with the art of facilitation.

Chapter 6 Preparing for training

Explains the hierarchy of training strategy, training plan, training programme and training session. It also discusses the various steps to take for learning based training.

Part II Tools

The tools described in this section are for use when helping, for example, field staff to develop concepts related to participation, learning and community management and to improve their facilitation. The sequence of the tools follows the discovery learning approach.

Part I – Concepts and approaches

2. *Approaches to learning*

The overall purpose of training is to help people learn: learn new knowledge, concepts, skills, attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, training is an educational activity, usually a structured event, where some focused educational process occurs. There are various approaches to helping people learn, and hence various training strategies and methods. This chapter discusses a few learning approaches and puts them in a historical perspective.

2.1 **Traditional learning and learning as an educational process**

In the traditional way of helping people learn, which is also called the banking approach or didactic teaching, the focus is on making trainees acquire knowledge. It starts from the idea that the participant's main problem is a lack of knowledge. Didactic teachers or trainers see a gap between what trainees know and what they 'should' know if they are to make the right connections between cause, effect and solution. Their role is to fill this knowledge gap. The teacher defines what is to be taught and how to teach it. S/he is the centre of knowledge, decides what participants need to learn, and what methodology should be used to achieve this.

The methods and materials used are all geared towards transferring knowledge from the teacher's mind to the participant's mind. The choice of content is often based on studies conducted by researchers. The pre-selected subject matter is then simplified to make it easily understandable for the participants, sometimes even condensed and presented in the form of simple messages.

Participants do not have any other role except for the role of passive learner. They are not supposed to participate actively and the trainer has total control over the process.

In the 1960s, new approaches to learning were developed in Latin America, in response to literacy campaigns that proved not to be very effective. The foundation of these new approaches was laid by Paulo Freire, who developed 'educación popular'. This approach, which focuses on adult learning, aims at raising people's awareness by focusing on their interests, needs and expectations. 'Educación popular' formed the basis for many other approaches to learning which all do away with the traditional didactic or banking approach.

During the second half of the 1970s, a variety of experiences with 'educación popular' were gained in Latin America. Despite differences in context, the approaches had similar aims, namely:

- to stimulate people's active participation to enable them to satisfy their own needs,
- to stimulate the process of self-organisation,
- to critically re-evaluate local history and traditions,
- to respect and further develop indigenous knowledge,
- to develop new knowledge by linking all those elements.

These developments have been instrumental in changing the attitude towards learning. In general, the following changes in views on learning have taken place:

- from a static and mechanic understanding to a more dynamic interpretation of learning;
- from the concept of learning as a receptive process to that of taking learning as a process of discovery in which the participant is active;
- from a task to a process orientation;
- from a standard to a differentiated and individualised approach.

As a result of these new insights, learning is more and more being seen as an educational process which involves the creation and acquisition of knowledge, awareness and skills. It is not only ‘knowing more’, but also ‘behaving differently’. It helps in building up one’s consciousness, examining one’s values, attitudes and orientations. Learning is more and more considered a process of discovery and growth, a process that activates both trainers and participants, and enables the individual to understand her or himself in terms of needs, feelings, motives, and past experiences. Information is used to raise awareness and to get a clearer understanding of one’s own situation.

The table below compares the traditional approach to learning and the approach that considers learning as an educational process.

Table 1: Comparison between the traditional approach and learning as an educational process

	<i>Traditional Approach</i>	<i>Learning as educational process</i>
Learning orientation	Transfer of theory and facts	Discovery of principles and development of learning capacity
Mentality of learning	To put in	To draw out
Focus on	Content, teacher	Learning process, participant
Role of trainer	Teacher/expert	Facilitator and resource person
Role of trainee	Receiver, imitator	Explorer and resource person
Trainee Activity	Passive, individual	Active, group work
Ethos	Competitive	Collaborative
Subject matter	Right-wrong Scientific	Options to be adapted locally Experiences from various sources
Mistakes	Not to be made	Are to be learned from
Session Planning	Programmed, imposed	Flexible, participatory
Learning assessment techniques	Exams/tests	Participatory evaluation, results of practical experiments
Assessment aim	Selection	Reinforcement of the learning process
Main learning techniques	Lecture, audio visual aids	Demonstrations, small group work, case studies, simulations, fieldwork
Main effects	Stimulates conformation and implementation according to given norms	Stimulates creativity, independent thinking and problem solving capacity

2.2 Participatory learning

One more recent approach is participatory learning. Participatory learning is learning-centred and based on the philosophy that people cannot be developed. People can only develop themselves through their own actions. Therefore participatory learning focuses on the development of human capacities to assess, create, choose, plan, organise and take initiatives. These skills can then spill over to many other aspects of the person’s life and community. A trainer facilitates a process of competence building and self discovery for the participants, whose needs, experience and goals are the focus of the training.

People cannot be developed; they can only develop themselves. An outsider can build a man’s house, but he cannot give the man pride and self-confidence. Those things a man has to create in himself by his own actions. He develops himself by what he does, by making his own decisions, by increasing his understanding of what he is doing, by increasing his own knowledge and ability, and by his own full participation as an equal in the life of the community he lives in.

Participatory learning is derived from many theoretical disciplines within social sciences, among others from adult education. The starting point for understanding the underlying framework is the world view, which was also used by Freire: A historical analysis of the

present society indicates that a large number of people are poor, unorganised and oppressed, and a few are rich, powerful and dominant. These two sets of people have conflicting interests and the social relations between them determine how a society functions. Social change occurs when the poor, dominated and oppressed people organise and act in their common interests.

In this context, the role of knowledge is critical. Firstly, poor people mostly have little access to information, skills and tools to acquire knowledge. Secondly, the dominant classes have increasingly used knowledge and information to maintain their dominant position. In the last three decades and in the future, knowledge continues to be one of the major sources of power and control. In many instances media and institutions producing research expertise and knowledge are used to control the thinking of poor and oppressed people. They are made to believe that inequality is inevitable, that they are not experts and thus do not know anything. As a result, they feel dependent on the dominant classes. Social change entails informing, mobilising and organising the vast majority of people who do not have control over resources, who are not properly informed and not well organised. Social change implies raising the consciousness of the poor, empowering the powerless, and organising the unorganised.

Principles of adult learning

- Adults learn what is of interest to them, using their own personal experiences.
- The experience of adults needs to be valued and nourished during the learning process, otherwise they may feel worthless or threatened.
- Adults learn best when the environment is safe, accepting, challenging and supportive.
- Adults enter learning programmes with immediate and personal needs, problems, feelings, hopes and expectations. These 'here and now' feelings must be recognized and respected if their motivation to learn is to be enhanced.
- Solutions must come from people's own understanding and analysis, and be congruent with their life style and functioning.
- In skills oriented learning there should be active participation on the part of the adult learner in those activities which use the relevant skills.
- Success in satisfying the expressed learning needs and achieving a desired objective is a powerful tool to reinforce further training. This element should be built into the learning programme.
- Different adults learn differently, thus a variety of learning styles and models is needed.

Participatory learning refuses to accept that people do not know anything. In many cases people's knowledge is authentic and accurate, in some cases it may not be so. This knowledge is known as popular knowledge in the field of social sciences. Participatory learning recognises the value of popular knowledge and encourages people to participate in their own learning process, which will then contribute to the awareness raising and empowerment of the people. As people begin to appreciate what they already know, they are more open to seeking new knowledge, which enhances the learning process. They get a feeling of ownership of that knowledge.

In this way, participatory learning can play a limited but crucial role in changing individuals and groups of individuals, which is needed for

social change. As participatory learning enhances a feeling of ownership of newly acquired knowledge, it becomes a strategy and tool for social change. It encourages people to investigate their own reality. Its methodology is experience based, open ended, and individual as well as group centred.

Participatory training is best facilitated in an atmosphere which:

- encourages people to be active,
- promotes and facilitates people's discovery of personal meaning,
- recognises people's right to make mistakes,
- accepts differences,
- tolerates ambiguity,
- encourages openness, self and mutual respect,
- is a co-operative process,
- encourages peership among learners.

In this learning process, the trainer plays the role of facilitator. For a trainer, the change from a dominating role to partnership is not always easy.

2.3 Discovery learning

Learning is a process that we undergo continuously; we learn through tackling problems, experiencing new situations and obtaining new knowledge. The cycle of learning, which is illustrated in Figure 1, reflects the way in which adults generally learn: through experience.

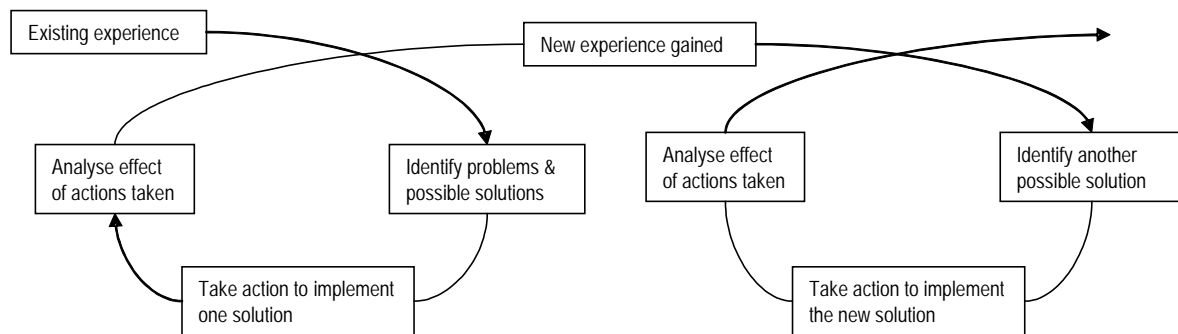


Figure 1: Cycle of learning in real life

The figure illustrates that problems and possible solutions are identified based on existing experiences and knowledge. Trying out a possible solution and analysing its effects give us new experience and more insight into the existing situation. Based on this new knowledge, other solutions can be identified, tried out and reflected upon.

In the concept of discovery learning or experimental learning, the discovery of knowledge through analysing one's own experiences is seen as the foundation of learning. Learning should be structured in such a way that it promotes opportunities for the exchange and analysis of experiences, systematic diagnosis, and a reflection on relevance and applicability. The learning event can therefore only be participatory.

In a training setting, learning from real life and working experiences means starting with the participants' experiences as opposed to starting with the trainers' knowledge. The trainer organises learning experiences through which participants can discover and develop new insights. Participants learn from reflecting on what they do and how they do it. The experience attained during the training sessions needs to give participants tools they can use to continue learning in their work. This may include for example answering questions such as: how did we co-operate, solve problems, take decisions, handle conflicts, and what can we learn from it. Participants achieve new insights, skills and attitudes through their active

participation in dealing with concrete situations and by systematic reflection upon these experiences.

This changes the role of the trainer into that of a facilitator who is responsible for creating opportunities for participants to bring out their experiences and to experience activities that they can draw on and learn from. These may be related to the use of tools for management, problem solving or assessment, or may be linked to behaviours experienced and analysed within the training setting. Thus the focus is on facilitating opportunities or activities which increase participants' ability to perform certain tasks or functions well, to solve problems related to those tasks, and independently to adapt and develop these tasks when the situation demands it.

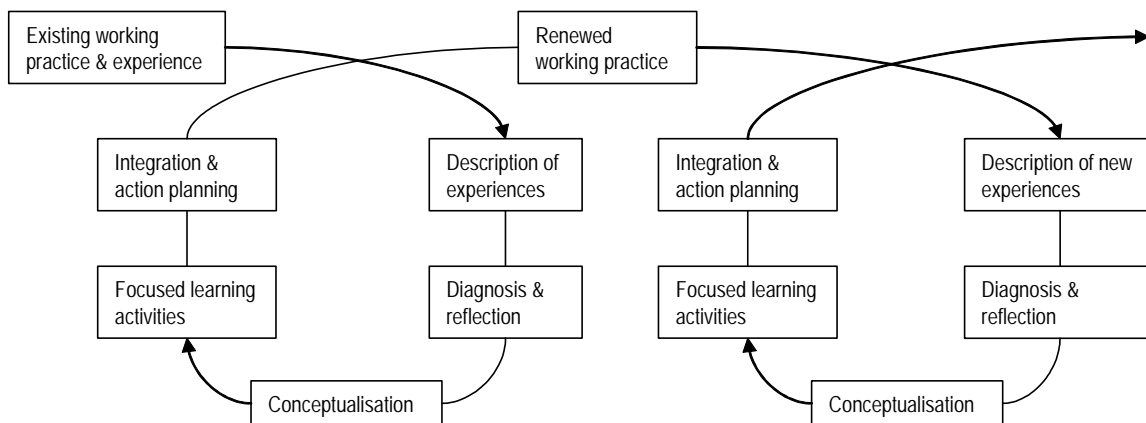


Figure 2: Steps in the learning process developed from the learning cycle

Discovery learning can be structured as a stepwise process, which is illustrated in Figure 2. This stepwise process can be used in training. The figure clearly shows that the starting point for the learning process is existing working practice and experience. Diagnosis of and reflection on these experiences enables us to systematise and conceptualise the knowledge. Focused learning activities, including analysis and experimentation, enable participants to review the relevance of ideas, and then plan to integrate them into 'real-world' activities in an attempt to improve projects or programming. This leads to an iterative or 'spiral' process of gaining and applying new knowledge and experience. Chapter 6.1 explains how the learning cycle can be translated into different steps in a training programme.

When we want to put into practice these guidelines for a methodological, dialectical and repetitive process, a number of questions may be posed to test the internal coherence of a session plan design. These include:

- Can the general learning aim and its specific learning objectives be achieved in the stipulated time schedule? Do they fit into the overall programme?
- Is there a logic and sequence in the selected topics and objectives?
- Is there coherence between the topics, between the objectives and the methods proposed? And how about the link between each objective, topic and the intended methods?
- Are trainees invited to share their experiences and to reflect upon them before taking a decision about change?
- Is the way in which specific topics are extracted from the central theme coherent?
- Do the underlying causes of the problems dealt with in the training become explicitly exposed? Are alternative solutions tested or analysed for their feasibility?
- Which improvements can be made?

Some of the tools in Part II help to diagnose the participants' experience, perceptions, attitudes and skills. Others provide focused learning activities.

2.4 Task and maintenance dimensions of learning groups

The two main dimensions of group learning processes are:

Task dimension of training which includes the factors involved in getting the task completed: goal-setting, defining working procedures and topics to be discussed, generating information, processing information, group-decision making, etc.

Process or maintenance dimension of training which includes factors involved in developing and maintaining a good learning climate and a good spirit in the group: developing openness, mutual understanding and respect, developing group norms and self-regulating mechanisms, maintaining commitment and contribution to the common task, conflict regulation, etc.

Individual participants, group leaders and trainers all have to contribute to both dimensions. For an effective learning process both dimensions continuously need to be kept in a good balance.

Some ways to contribute to task and maintenance dimension are the following.

Stimulating the task-dimension:

- **Initiating:** getting the group started on the task; orientation towards next step and final goals, by offering new topics for discussion, plans, etc. (angers: superficial learning, overriding feelings and emotions); Suggesting working procedures: helping the group to find effective/efficient working procedures (dangers: too many different proposals may lead to chaos, members may hide behind lengthy discussions about procedures); Asking for information: drawing out the resources of the group and identifying information that needs to be found elsewhere (dangers: spending too much time on data gathering and details, little time left to analyse and to search for causes and solutions);
- **Giving information:** sharing relevant information (dangers: overload of information, giving information just to hear yourself talking);
- **Asking for opinions:** preparing decision making by getting out what members think and feel about a suggestion (danger: initiating decision making before the information is thoroughly processed and analysed);
- **Giving opinions:** sharing your view with the others (dangers: hammering the same key over and over again, conflict);
- **Explaining:** asking or giving practical examples to make a point clear (dangers: too many details, badly chosen examples cause confusion);
- **Clarifying:** asking questions or restating what other members said to make it clear and/or to stimulate elaboration (danger: hiding behind questions and the words of other members);
- **Summarising/structuring:** stating briefly the essentials of what has been said, giving main options, indicating the main line of reasoning and logic, etc; summarising to focus the discussion and raise it to a new level (danger: discussion becomes too abstract, members are discouraged from contributing);
- **Checking consensus:** seeing if every one, especially silent members, agree on a point (danger: people feel awkward when they are pushed to talk).

Stimulating the maintenance-dimension.

- **Encouraging:** being friendly, responding to and building on suggestions made by others, appreciation of others and their ideas (dangers: if friendliness is not real it will turn against you later on; friendliness based on inability to deal with opposition and conflict in a positive way);
- **Stimulating:** giving a silent person a chance to contribute to the discussion; stimulating a member to express his views and feelings, etc. (danger: pushing);
- **Expressing personal and group feeling:** "I am getting bored". "I feel too tired now to continue", etc. (danger: breaking off a valuable learning process at the wrong moment);
- **Standard setting:** "Let us try not to interrupt a speaking member", "shall we agree that everyone watches, that all members get a equal chance to participate", etc.;
- **Harmonising:** helping those in conflict to overcome negative feelings, to understand each others feelings and views (danger: consensus becomes compulsory, no room for differing views);
- **Evaluating:** creating opportunity for people to express feelings and reactions towards the group work, and the behaviour of group members (dangers: lack of openness and auto criticism; reflection fails to lead to constructive dialogue);
- **Relieving tension:** bringing latent conflicts out into the open, putting a problem in a wider context, making a well timed joke (danger: members are not ready yet "to talk it over");
- **Making group work more interesting and lively:** bringing in movement or humour, paying attention to something personal to celebrate, introducing a 'gimmick' (danger: too many diversions might hamper other members);
- **Creating social opportunities to meet outside the working sessions:** organising sports activities, inviting group members for a drink, a walk, etc.

3. *Useful concepts for field staff supporting community management*

3.1 What is community management?

The debate on development paradigms began in the mid to late 1970s, when it was asked whether people's participation is critical in raising their level of development. The debate received significant stimulus from the reports of emerging failures of top-down, expert designed development projects and programmes (Chambers, 1983; Oakley, 1991). It became evident that much development work simply cannot be effective if the people concerned do not participate. Their participation has advantages for both the community and the support agency. The spread of participatory approaches in development work has been extraordinarily rapid since the 1980s. A wide range of methodologies have emerged to identify the problems faced by communities, most of which share strong conceptual and methodological similarities. They include participatory appraisal, participatory research, rapid assessment procedures and participatory action research.

The term 'community participation' is often abused and runs the risk of becoming ambiguous. A community is a group of people living in the same village or neighbourhood, organised into a municipal and social entity. Participation is usually defined as the process of people being involved in, and sharing, a variety of activities with a communal goal. This definition may seem obvious, but one can immediately ask 'whose communal goal'?

Living in the same community does not always mean that people share the same interests. They may even not get along (Werner and Bower, 1982). Most communities are not homogeneous; each community is often a small, local reflection of the larger society or country. It will have similar differences between the weak and the strong, similar patterns of justice and injustice, similar problems and power struggles, and similar elements of harmony and shared interests, as well as conflicts. The idea that people work well together simply because they live together is a myth. Thus, a community consists of people who do not necessarily share the same interests and values. Often there are conflicts of interest both within the community and between the community and the outsiders.

There are many views on these conflicts and their relation to participation (Huizer, 1971; Werner and Bower, 1982). On the one hand, the more conventional view sees community participation as a way to improve the delivery of basic services. By getting local people to carry out pre-defined activities, all kinds of services will be better accepted and eventually can be easily extended. Participation is seen as a way of controlling people. Social activists, on the other hand, see community participation as a process in which the poor work together to overcome problems, and thus gain more control over their lives. The first view focuses on shared values and co-operation between people at all levels of society, and assumes there are common interests. The latter view recognises the conflicts of interest, in that dialogue and participatory research are used to enhance people's awareness and confidence, and to reinforce their actions. This view owes much to the early work of Paulo Freire (1968) in the adult education movement, and other Latin American social scientists such as Fals Borda (1981).

McCall (1987) distinguishes three levels of participation: as a means to facilitate the implementation of an external intervention; as a means to mediate in the decision making and policy formulation of external interventions; and as an end in itself, the empowerment of

social groups to gain control over resources and decision making. In the latter, participation is a goal rather than a means in itself, and implies an acceptance that people can to a large extent identify and modify their own solutions to their needs. This means that development workers support local people to increase their capacity to manage changes in their environment.

The different levels of participation are influenced by the role of the state, the position of professionals, the culture of leadership and experience with democratic politics. One general misunderstanding about participation is that some people active in this kind of work have stereotypical idealised concepts of participation. The best results in a project or in research will be achieved when all members of the community participate wholeheartedly. However, it is unrealistic to think that full participation by all community members at all stages of the participation process is possible. No community is homogeneous, as we have noted. Of course, differences in insight have consequences for the approach of participatory support work. Different forms of participation imply different programmes and different methodologies.

An enhanced management role for user communities is seen as a way of increasing cost-effectiveness, improving reliability, and ensuring sustainability, by placing a larger share of the responsibility for operating and maintaining water and sanitation systems in the hands of the users themselves. It may also provide solutions to broader problems, such as the lack of adequate health care, the inequitable distribution of improved systems, the excessive costs, insufficiently prominent roles for women, low levels of self-reliance, and inappropriate choices of technology and of service levels that do not match community demand.

Community management is a potential vehicle for achieving a broad range of development goals, which should lead to more efficient, sustainable, and cost effective water supply development (see Box).

The goals of community management

- To improve system reliability.
- To improve the attainment of health and other benefits.
- To promote greater democracy and equity in the development process.
- To promote a more prominent role for women in development.
- To ensure more appropriate choices of technology and service level.
- To reduce the costs to agencies of improvements by making better use of local resources, skills and knowledge.
- To build community confidence and capacity to undertake further development activities.

Sources: Cox and Annis (1982); Dworkin (1982); Whyte (1984); van Wijk and Visscher (1987); UNDP/ World Bank (1988); McCommon et al. (1990); UNDP (1990b); Narayan-Parker (1990); Franceys (1991); Indonesia-Australia Development Co-operation Programme (1991); Renard (1991).

McCommon et al. (1990) defined the three basic components of community management as follows:

- **Responsibility:** The community takes on the ownership and attendant obligations of the system.
- **Authority:** The community has the legitimate right to make decisions regarding the system on behalf of the users.
- **Control:** The community is able to determine the outcome and to carry out its decisions.

From various field studies and experiences, a number of key lessons have emerged, which show that community management (IRC, 1997):

- goes beyond community participation, and equips communities to take charge of their own water supply improvements;
- involves long-term and changing partnerships between communities and support agencies, strengthening the capacity of each partner and enabling their combined resources to be used more effectively;
- can mean more widespread implementation of sustainable water supply systems;
- means a new role for support organisations as facilitators rather than providers, demanding new skills and offering greater opportunities;
- means that agencies have to adapt their pace of work to that of the community;
- means that agencies have to make an effort to understand communities, their vision, their logic, their ways of learning; their ways of decision making, etc.;
- brings benefits which can extend its scope beyond water into other development activities;
- extends its scope beyond rural to peri-urban water supplies.

The shift from community participation to community management is indicative of an important and challenging transformation of perspective in the water sector. Rather than simply being a form of ‘super-participation’, community management may instead be seen as a major vehicle for transforming the basis of basic service provision from a top-down to a partnership approach.

3.2 Existing local knowledge

For close to a century, rural development policies and practice have taken the view that local people are managing soil and water badly. Farmers have been advised, lectured, paid and forced to adopt new soil and water conservation measures and practices. Many have done so, and environments and economies have benefited for a time. But many problems have undermined these efforts, with financial and legal incentives bringing only short-lived conservation. Many efforts have been remarkably unsuccessful, often resulting in even more erosion than they were meant to counter (Pretty et al., 1995).

One of the most astonishing facts about technical development co-operation is that many water experts know little about the practices they are paid to improve. Engineers usually base their designs on physical data. The only social components they are likely to consider are demographic information and the financial potential of the users. Information on organisational patterns and local political structures are rarely collected (Huibers et al., 1995).

Components of community management

Responsibility

The community feels responsible for:

- maintenance and repairs
- regulating usage
- the local management organisation
- financing

Authority

The community decides on:

- technology choice
- service level
- form of local organisation
- usage regulations
- financing mechanisms

The community controls the system

Traditionally, people have handled and used water without external intervention. Through a process of trial and error they have developed a variety of basically simple water supply and water conservation techniques. Similarly, communities have developed management systems that enable a rational and effective use of water.

A new era for soil and water management must avoid these contradictions. It must consider local people and local knowledge as a contribution to potential solutions rather than as problems. The discovery and use of local knowledge and skills has to be put at the core of new programmes. It must reinforce local organisations through participatory processes, and such processes must be interactive and empowering.

3.3 Leadership and local organisations

Although the significance of traditional management structures and local leadership is often acknowledged, the general trend is to assume that new water supply technologies require new forms of local organisation to manage them. However, community management structures can cover a broad range of options, from very local individual or household level management to highly formal community water boards. The degree of autonomy of local organisations can vary considerably. Some may be closely tied to formal local government institutions, whereas others may be much more independent.

The most common approach adopted by government and donor organisations is to require communities to establish committees to co-ordinate local management of new schemes. Such local management organisations can either be specifically established to run the water system alone, or the necessary management tasks can be undertaken by existing general development organisations. Which is more appropriate will depend on local circumstances, and, according to the principles implied by the community management concept, should be decided by the community itself.

A factor often overlooked when working on the effectiveness of community management is the influence of charismatic individual leaders in mobilising community enthusiasm and interest in undertaking management tasks. Community cohesion is an important factor that will contribute to the likelihood of successful community management. A dynamic leader can help to pull a community together and create a common purpose. However, that cohesion does not necessarily mean that communities always need to act in an harmonious and peaceful way. Arguments and disputes, if properly regulated and resolved, can actually serve to strengthen cohesion by providing an important source of validation for local management rules. Competition for water resources can be a positive force in a community in strengthening willingness to manage. This only works, however, when there is an adequate and legitimate framework of laws and authority to provide clear boundaries within which disputes can be settled if and when they arise.

Most donor organisations prefer that community water organisations are democratically elected and represent all interests within the community (hence, for example, many insist that women have to be included). Many communities, however, lack a democratic model of elected representation on which this insistence is based, and find it difficult to quickly adjust to such demands when they are made.

The functions to be performed by local management organisations can vary considerably, depending upon the agreed division of responsibility between the support organisation and the community. The next box describes the typical tasks for a village water committee. The list is brief but, even so, the tasks cover a broad range of skills. Such models require committee members to negotiate on the community's behalf, co-ordinate and administer technical and managerial tasks, keep accurate financial and administrative records, promote good use of the water system, and regularly communicate and report back to the community. Building the capacity of communities to undertake these responsibilities is seen as a major support task for organisations.

Task description for a community water committee

- To represent the community in contacts with the agency.
- To organise contributions by the community, in cash or kind, towards construction, and towards operations and maintenance.
- To organise proper operation and maintenance, including supervision of caretakers.
- To keep accurate records of all payments and expenditures.
- To promote hygienic and effective use of the new facilities.
- To hold regular committee meetings to discuss and decide on issues, procedures, and problems.
- To inform the community regularly about decisions and to report on revenues and expenditures.

Source: IRC (1991)

Apart from an adequate skills base, local management organisations also require proper recognition and legitimate authority to perform their functions. If governments want community-based organisations to take management responsibilities, they must back them with the force of law. While in Latin America community water boards can be found with very clearly defined legal status, village water committees in Africa and Asia more often than not lack this official recognition and authority.

The clearest indicator of the success of community management is the extent to which water systems are kept in good working order by users. A community management approach implies that far greater responsibility for operation and maintenance will fall on the shoulders of the users. In many cases, community roles in operation and maintenance are limited to simple care of water points, doing little more than undertaking protective measures to minimise breakdowns. However, other cases indicate that communities are capable of much more. Women, as well as men, can play an important role in keeping systems in good working order, and often play decisive and indispensable roles in ensuring the success of water improvement programmes. Women are capable of taking responsibility for complex technologies, finances and basic care of water resources.

The relationship between management authority and control over resources may help to further strengthen the role of women. However, in many societies, positions of authority are reserved for men. If greater recognition is given to communities as managers, men may be more inclined to keep such positions for themselves. As community involvement grows, a gender perspective is even more essential to prevent men from securing a dominant, managerial role and women a dependent role in an area where they formerly enjoyed considerable independence and responsibility.

Community financing has been seen both as an indicator of the willingness and capacity of a community to take on management responsibilities, as well as a precondition for success. On a practical level, the options for community based financing are broad. Nevertheless, capacity building for communities is required so that they can develop effective financial management and accounting procedures. At the same time, communities themselves have a major role to play in identifying the most appropriate procedures.

The idea that community management should be based on a partnership suggests that limits are recognised. Although communities may be able to take on a very substantial share of management responsibility, the involvement of support organisations may always be required to some degree. The principal role of these organisations in the future will probably be to facilitate management by communities. This can involve anything from establishing suitably supportive legal and policy frameworks, up to providing skills training and ensuring that the necessary spare parts are locally obtainable, and the development of support approaches.

Water management on a broader scale also means that governments always have an overall responsibility to ensure that national resources are protected and properly used, and national public health standards maintained. Certain technical requirements, such as the maintenance of sophisticated water treatment works or the monitoring of water quality, may also be beyond the capacity of communities to perform. However, some communities have proved themselves able to carry out sophisticated technical tasks.

3.4 Gender and equity

Gender and equity are two important concepts in the water and sanitation sector. Gender refers to the socially constructed differentiation in attributes, opportunities and responsibilities associated with being a woman or man. As part of a broader socio-economic context, the concept of equity is also understood to indicate recognition of other influential factors, such as socio-economic status, ethnicity, religion, caste, age etc. Adhering to a gender and equity approach means that one works with a perspective that recognises and appreciates diversity in terms of backgrounds, experience and professional orientation.

Gender and equity can be discussed at different levels. During a training event applying a gender and equity approach implies giving equal chances to men and women, rich and poor to participate, i.e. to make best use of the diversity that exists among the participants. When discussing community management gender and equity issues cannot be overlooked. Too often this leads to unsustainable systems and women and men, rich and poor having unequal access to the resources and benefits of water and sanitation. Trainees need to know how they can address these issues when training field staff and how to apply a gender and equity approach in their training events. Some tools in Part II show how gender and equity issues can be discussed.

A useful book to learn more about this is the Gender Issues Sourcebook for Water and Sanitation of the UNDP-World Bank Water and Sanitation Programme (1995).

4. *Discovery learning and community management*

Involving people in the analysis of problems that affect them and in the design of potential solutions is a good way to achieve sustainable development. Although more time consuming than traditional development approaches that rely on 'blueprint' plans and development experts, participatory approaches generally lead to development efforts that lead to more sustainable results, because the people themselves have an interest in their success.

This is precisely the focus and rationale behind the development concept underpinning this Training of Trainers manual. This concept leads to a methodology of discovery learning with communities that starts from existing local knowledge and experiences and aims to respond to the expressed needs of a community related to their tasks of managing public services. It aims to find solutions to concrete problems and conflicts in the management of rural water supplies, and also to enhance the problem solving capacity of communities.

By stressing the relationship between appraisal, training and action, the methodology is useful for:

- finding solutions to (social) problems,
- identifying needs for change, and
- working out solutions of improved knowledge or technologies and action.

Working in this way can bring benefits to everyone involved. Support organisations working in communities can strengthen their own capacities and effectiveness, and thus cope with the increased demand for community management, and the community can enhance its capacity to solve its own problems. This is linked directly to the identification, development and testing of specific problem solving strategies and tools together with men and women in the communities concerned (Lammerink et al., 1995).

When applying a methodology that stimulates discovery learning, (some) community members are active, together with field staff, throughout the process from the initial design of the support process, through data gathering and analysis, to the final presentation of results and discussion of their action implications. The community is actively engaged in the quest for information and ideas to guide their future actions. An important feature of working with communities in this way is the dialogue between development professionals from the support organisation and people at grassroots level.

Strong emphasis is placed on participatory and gender-sensitive appraisal and needs assessment methods. It uses both qualitative and quantitative data collection on system performance and service, such as distribution problems, breakdown rates, cost, and local organisation.

Common features of a methodology stimulating discovery learning
<p><i>Local focus:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ An orientation towards the felt needs of local people and institutions. It deals with issues directly experienced and explicitly acknowledged as problems by local people and institutions. ▪ A strong link with locally generated initiatives. It aims at generating information and supporting decision-making processes useful for local aims and applicable to local initiatives. ▪ The involvement of non-local professionals as partners in a learning process. Non-local professionals contribute to the development process as facilitators or by providing technical/management information, and via discussions and negotiations with local actors. Typically, they serve more as facilitators than as experts.
<p><i>Action focus:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A minimal time gap between data collection, analysis and feedback. The timeliness of analysis and rapidity of feedback are important, both to increase the cost-effectiveness of the support activities, and to promote the practical utility of the results. ▪ A direct feeding of analysis results into planning and action. The methodology incorporates methods for translating the knowledge gained directly into practical decisions and/or feasible courses of action.
<p><i>Process focus:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ An equal concern for process and results. It aims at making all participants aware of the implications of the issue (problem, situation, possible solutions, outcome of experiments) being analysed and supporting them in undertaking relevant action. ▪ A built-in communication strategy. Final written reports are useful for institutional or training purposes of professionals, but meetings, posters, theatre, workshops are more important means of providing feedback to local institutions and the community at large.

Source: Barton et al., 1997

The development process geared towards sustainable community management of water supplies involves various activities clustered into three phases: diagnosing, experimenting and sustaining. This section addresses the process as a whole, and explains the logic and the sequence of steps within each phase. It further describes briefly what each step encompasses, and explains the coherence between them. It is stressed that the sequence of these steps should not be regarded as fixed; each actual process may differ, so that if necessary, some steps may be repeated or carried out in parallel. In some cases, one might even move back and forth, increasing the participants' understanding in the process.

Working towards sustainable community management of water supplies requires a methodology that is sufficiently flexible and compatible to enable rural communities and support organisations to share, analyse and enhance their understanding, and allow them to plan and implement problem solving activities. Training, support and backstopping is needed. This can be given by support organisations and field staff with experience in applying the methodology. In addition, field staff of support organisations needs access to problem solving and gender specific methods and tools in order to deal with the particular problems and issues that emerge from the studies. These tools, which are described in Part II, are based on experiences in participatory action research projects to improve community management. These tools can be used by institutions and communities to develop their own, local problem solving methods and tools.

The following section describes the steps in the diagnosing, experimenting and sustaining phases, and each of their activities and outcomes. Throughout the process community members will:

- take all decisions at the local level;
- strengthen and empower their organisations;
- develop their understanding of management principles and practices for the water supply; and
- be encouraged to develop new ideas about a possible future.

Key actors

- Project staff
- Field workers
- Project team from support organisation
- Team of professionals
- Local group at community level
- Other support organisations

4.1 Diagnosing

The diagnosing phase is the phase during which communities and field staff work together to get a view on the problems at stake and on the potential resources (including local knowledge and management structures) available to solve these problems. For the diagnosis, a combination of different methods and tools is available, some of which emanate from the tradition of participatory research and participatory rural appraisal (PRA). Examples of PRA tools are semi-structured interviews, observations, participatory mapping, transects, seasonal and other diagrams of flows, causality, trends and local organisational relationships, ranking, brainstorming and portraits or case studies of experiments. For feedback, various visual and communication tools can be used, such as village meetings, theatre, puppet shows, celebrations, games, posters, and other visual means.

Implementation of the diagnosing phase follows a logical sequence, starting with joint preparation by field and project staff of a common framework for support and for the selection of communities. This is followed by a participatory situation analysis, a needs assessment and problem identification, recording past experiences and potential resources, and identifying possible solutions.

4.1.1 Preparation

In this step of the diagnosing phase, the support organisation might have to form an interdisciplinary male/female project team of two to three people, representing technical and social expertise. Local development teams at the community level can also be formed. New teams can prepare themselves by collecting and reviewing information on other examples of community management of water supplies in their country, holding discussions with other support organisations on their approaches, and assessing common problems from the points of view of the community and the organisation. Field visits to other community-managed projects may also be useful.

This step allows the support organisation to gain a general overview of experiences and results with community management in their own country, and provides an opportunity for support staff to orient themselves in the field with respect to issues to which they may have paid little attention, such as gender and the environment (IRC, 1997).

4.1.2 Team training

The team of professionals will need to develop appropriate attitudes and skills for participatory work, perhaps through training and capacity building activities such as analysis and facilitation workshops (Hope and Timmel, 1987). Attention should also be paid to enhancing the community's experimentation and documentation skills; the latter skills will be needed to record the outcomes of the support work and the process. Such records can be used

to improve the support organisation's methodology and to make the approach more sustainable.

An important element in these preparations is team building. Smooth teamwork and effective collaboration will not happen automatically, but they are essential for the learning process of all involved. Teamwork also involves mutual trust and dialogue. Dialogue can begin in small groups, in which team members can share their own perceptions of a problem, offer their opinions and ideas, and make recommendations or take decisions.

The need for the team to gain self-confidence is also often neglected. This will not happen overnight, but is mostly a matter of practice, and requires a genuine belief in the importance of each contribution in bringing about improvements and transformations. From the outset, a team should pay attention to all aspects of team building, including group work skills, as well as the ability to listen, observe and question, and to offer feedback. In many teams these skills are lacking.

Group work methods are meant to help structure the work time together, so that teams can learn ways to unite team efforts towards the support tasks. Group work skills can make team members more sensitive to how others see them, and can make them more realistic about the changes they are promoting. Teams should practice the participatory principles they promote – if they believe that the participation of people is essential for the transformation of society, then their own functioning and methods must be consistent with that aim.

Joint 'planning and training' workshops may be held during the preparatory phase, during which the project team from the support organisation can:

- develop a common support approach and agree on an analytical framework,
- develop criteria for selecting project communities, and
- identify appropriate participatory and gender specific methods and tools for carrying out the performance assessments with community members.

The team may also develop ideas about a methodology to support communities in the implementation of plans and may draft material to brief their own organisation. Such briefs should include consideration of gender and equity aspects and address questions such as: Do both women and men, rich and poor participate in initiating, planning and establishing a water supply system? In what capacity are men and women, rich and poor involved in the management of the system, and how does this affect services? Has the involvement of both men and women led to changes in gender relations? From the outset, it is also important to discuss joint ideas for sustaining the process in order to leave communities with a greater capacity to implement effective processes and the ability to find solutions for future/other situations that need improvement. At the same time outlets for disseminating the results and details of the process have to be explored.

Such planning and training workshops can be facilitated by members of organisations that have already experienced the discovery learning approaches and have developed training modules.

4.1.3 Selecting communities

Following the workshop, work may begin on preparing a detailed work plan based on the set of criteria for selecting communities shown in the next box. This selection can be based either on communities that have requested an intervention (this is the ideal starting situation), or on communities known to the support organisation. If the latter is the case, efforts should be made to encourage more communities to enter the process.

The support team's work with a community can start with gathering and analysing secondary information, and building a relationship with people in order to reach a basic agreement. A mutual contract on how to work together can be part of such an agreement. A party, having fun together or a community walk can all help in the dialogue.

Criteria for selecting communities

- Two criteria for the final selection of communities are:
- whether the community is aware of the direct and wider implications of a declining water resource base,
- whether sufficient scope exists within the community to sustain the process, i.e. the leadership should be adequate, and there should be no opposing factions that may hamper action.

It is important to establish as soon as possible a practical and clear basis for the proposed collaboration, which may be a contract describing the proposed process, the role of the participants, the potential outcomes, and the proposed methods of working with the community. The support organisation and the community should together draft the contract and agree upon it.

By the end of the selection process, the field staff should be able start of the process. The communities should have been selected and agreements should be reached. There should be a preliminary understanding of the socio-cultural, physical and technical situation of each community. Team building efforts and training to develop facilitating and documentation skills should have begun. At the national or regional level a core network of individuals and organisations could be identified to contribute to strengthening and sustaining the process and who can use the outcomes (see box).

National reflection

Earlier experiences with participatory development approaches in the water sector have revealed that, because of the innovative nature of participatory support work, it is useful to set up a national or regional body with a mandate to reflect on the activities in the field. Such a body can be organised through existing sectoral co-ordinating bodies or by forming a national project reference group. This reference group can provide a forum for sharing information on activities, progress and results throughout project implementation, and so contribute to the development of effective strategies for community management of rural water supply systems throughout the country. At the same time, the support organisation can strengthen its collaborative links with government, national research institutions and members of other national support organisations involved in the sector.

4.1.4 Identifying problems and possible solutions

In this step of the diagnosing phase the field staff helps each community to describe and analyse their water supply system, to identify their problems and opportunities in community management, clarifying exactly whose problems are being identified. Important elements in this analysis include a performance assessment to gain a preliminary understanding of local socio-cultural and water related environmental conditions, as well as mapping exercises and surveys of general sanitary conditions. The process also includes assessments of gender issues

related to the establishment and management of the water supply system, such as the roles of men and women, rich and poor in local management, the effects of gender factors on the efficiency and use of the water supply, environmental concerns such as water source protection and watershed management, and issues of cost recovery and community-based financial management. During meetings, informal gatherings and interviews with key individuals, the team and community members can determine the range of topics of interest and concern related to the local water supply. The community members are encouraged to evaluate their own situation, and to compare their findings and experiences with other communities through exchange visits.

The next part of this step involves a series of activities which can be summarised as developing an agenda for experimentation with potential solutions: gathering information for detailed analysis, prioritising problems and identifying promising solutions. The agenda may include screening for indigenous technical knowledge and past experimentation in the community, as well as gathering promising ideas from outside the community as options for further testing.

The staff of the support organisation can begin to analyse the data, although the results should be continuously reviewed by the community in a series of return field visits. During these visits criteria will also be established for determining which of the identified problems are to be tackled first and to select these priorities. This can for example be done by asking key individuals or groups in the community to rank the problems according to the criteria. Subsequently, potential solutions will be identified and critically reviewed by assessing their advantages and disadvantages. The most promising solutions will be selected and an agreement will be reached on an agenda for experimentation. It will precisely state what should be tested, and by whom. The last part can be done at a village meeting or other gathering.

At the end of this phase, it may be useful to report the results and the process followed back to the national reference group, if one was established.

4.1.5 Outcomes

The outcomes of this phase should be an overview of the community water supply system, and improved skills among the members of the community and the field staff. They should now be able to identify problems, to understand existing cause and effect relationships, and to detect promising solutions (based on locally existing knowledge as well as technical knowledge from outside). Consensus should have been reached on the list of priority problems and on possible solutions to be tested - an 'agenda for experimentation'. Other outcomes include increased awareness, self-confidence, trust, appreciation, and increased rapport between outsiders and the community. The community should now have an effective organisation that will provide a firm basis for experimentation.

4.2 Experimenting

An interactive process is established with the communities to define the water supply management aspects to be explored and to discuss, design and adapt possible solutions to the conditions and needs of the community. These solutions, which may include technical readjustments to the water system, can lead to field testing and evaluation of these possible problem solving strategies, comprising methods and tools for improved management. These joint activities form the experimenting phase.

4.2.1 Community experiments

The overall aim of this phase is to design experiments that are reliable as well as manageable, and which can be monitored and evaluated by community members themselves. To achieve this, local capacities – skills, self-confidence and organisation – need to be enhanced so that the community can independently plan and design its own experiments and can improve, reinforce, enhance and add to existing experimental practices. Capacity building also includes the ability to set up and monitor experiments, which will require skills training and team building as well as efforts to strengthen exchange and supportive linkages with other communities or community members.

Activities to be developed during this phase include reviews of existing experimental practices through exchange visits to relevant communities, and workshops for examining possible solutions. During these workshops the community can plan and design selected experiments, and decide on their scale and layout, what inputs will be required, and who will participate.

4.2.2 Evaluating possible solutions

It is also important to decide right from the start which criteria will be used to evaluate the success of an experiment. Adequate monitoring and evaluation methods will therefore have to be developed and decided upon, answering questions such as what should be observed, measured and/or recorded, and when and how such information should be gathered.

After this preparation, community members and facilitating outsiders can begin to establish, manage and monitor different solutions. Experiments can be evaluated throughout the implementation phase, and group meetings can be held so that community members can discuss the results and begin to draw conclusions. The results of all observations need to be brought together and systematically analysed. If the same experiment is being carried out in other villages, analysis may be conducted at both group and inter-village levels. Analysis will include recognising unintended consequences and how the innovation could contribute to solving other problems in a sustainable way.

4.2.3 Outcomes

The main outcomes of this step should be the greater involvement of all members of the community, armed with a better understanding of the process, and enhanced practical skills. If the experiments have been well planned and designed, they will allow the use of simple monitoring and evaluation methods. The process of experimenting and evaluation leads to more sharing and co-operation among community members, as well the more active support of outside institutions.

From the feedback provided by the evaluations, a clear picture emerges of both the experimental results and the process that has been followed. Preferably, this picture is known to a wider range of community members than just those directly involved, but at least to all members of the water management committee. There will be a clear indication of the suitability of the various management practices under local conditions, and technical guidelines on how to implement the tested idea. Of course, the solutions accepted or rejected by the community also have to be recorded. The process will serve to build the community's confidence in its ability to solve problems, and to create a supportive environment for experimenting.

Some experiments may need further adaptation and additional related experiments may need to be designed. Eventually, the community may conclude that the organisation of the experiment could be improved, for example, co-operation among groups, the set-up of experiments, monitoring methods or contact with outsiders.

Other outcomes can include:

- the successful dissemination of strategies, methods and tools,
- the development of institutional linkages,
- the establishment of a system for training and communication,
- a well-documented and operational approach in the water sector, and
- a set of resource materials that can also be used in other areas of interest.

4.3 Sustaining

The third and final part of the approach, the sustaining phase, focuses on disseminating and sharing the findings for others to take up similar approaches (scaling up in space) and planning and co-ordinating further work in order to sustain community management (scaling up in time).

The two major elements in the sustaining phase are firstly sharing and evaluating results, and secondly the institutional embedding of intermediate level support services, such as district offices, and encouraging communities to use them if needed.

This last phase is important because the participatory process should lead to self management. The aim is to leave communities with a greater capacity to implement effective participatory processes, and the ability to find solutions for future/other situations that need improvement. The key to sustainability is a support approach that addresses the priorities of the community (in this case with respect to improving the management of their water supply and sanitation systems), and which is fully compatible with local conditions and culture so that community members can build on it independently with further experimentation. Communities will sustain what meets their objectives and reject what does not. However, communities should always be able to call upon and receive external support in case they cannot handle certain situations themselves.

4.3.1 Sharing and evaluating results

Experience shows that good ideas diffuse spontaneously, as experimenting communities share results with neighbours, pass on management advice, or make use of the traditional inter-village 'grapevine'. These effects can be amplified by setting up a programme to share the results with others. An important component of such a programme is the mobilisation of networks and channels for communication and dissemination developed during earlier phases.

Such a programme could focus on outcomes from community experiments such as new management practices or the use of indigenous trees to protect water sources, while emphasising the basic ideas and principles underlying the experiments, and the methodological aspects of the development process. The programme could also publicise the experiences of particular communities, together with ideas about promising solutions that could be tested elsewhere, and tips on how to experiment, such as testing innovative concepts, acquiring skills, and the organisation required.

The sustaining phase continues with the evaluation of tested problem solving strategies (the experiments) with the community, the further systematisation of processes and results (at the level of the community and of local support organisations), and helping to ensure the sustainability of the process within the community.

Activities during this phase may include inviting key individuals to attend planning/ evaluation meetings and organising field workshops. It is also important to document details of the development process and methods used for diagnosing and experimenting. At the same time, community members can put together manuals and audio-visual materials. Special attention should be given to encourage networking between community members and organisations.

4.3.2 Institutional embedding of support services

Throughout the process leading to community management, the role of external field staff and their institution changes. They gradually ‘wind up’ and ‘phase out’ their support by consciously changing their role as providers of direct management support and facilitation, to that of an external consultant called in only at the request of the community.

If they are to remain available for communities to call on them, intermediate level institutions must be demand responsive and flexible. The managers’ guide (Fonseca C. and Bolt E., 2002) exclusively deals with the role of support institutions and what their managers could do to play this role.

Field staff need to inform communities about support mechanisms and how they can apply for support.

4.3.3 Outcomes

Possible outcomes of this final phase include:

- inter-community networks and/or linkages with support organisations;
- a well documented and operational approach for designing and implementing experiments that can be used to improve water supply management and also in other fields;
- a larger number of communities involved in the processes of action and development for community management;
- an established community managed system of inter-community training and communication;
- a support structure that can be called upon and that is prepared to provide services.

5. Facilitation: a challenge

5.1 The role of the facilitator

In discovery or experimental learning, the trainer in the process is defined as being a facilitator. Her/his primary responsibility is to provide the trainees with an effective and appropriate learning environment and to facilitate an active process by which trainees determine and address their individual learning needs. This may be accomplished by facilitators who:

- encourage the active involvement of all trainees,
- promote an atmosphere of co-operation,
- adapt training activities and exercises to the specific needs of a particular training group,
- provide linkages to other components of training,
- assist trainees in making linkages between each training session,
- encourage trainees to constantly relate training experiences to real life,
- direct trainees towards materials and human resources they may require,
- make themselves available as a resource, not as experts who dispense answers,
- communicate with fellow trainers about progress, if applicable,.

5.2 Skills to facilitate learning and the use of tools

Good facilitation is a challenge and an art. The above list indicates what a facilitator needs to do. The following list indicates the skills required to do this. We need these skills in order to be able to promote dialogue and openness, to learn from each other and to enter into problem solving with participants. Problems have to be diagnosed within a learning group, whereby people are challenged in an acceptable way to change their behaviour related to these problems. We need to promote group and individual decision making and planning for action.

Some essential skills of a facilitator

- **Listening:** the first skill needed is the ability to listen carefully and creatively; picking out both positive aspects and problems, difficulties, tensions.
- **Observation:** as well as listening closely, the ability to pick up information about the situation from non-verbal cues.
- **Showing empathy, sensibility:** to be able to see problems through the eyes of the participants; to be able to detect and understand their feelings, ideas, values.
- **Encouraging:** building confidence in the participants by affirming positive aspects of their work, showing appreciation for their time and commitment and by helping them to recognise negative aspects for themselves, and to think out alternative ways of doing things.
- **Helpful questioning:** sympathetic questioning that enables the participants to understand the causes of problems, to think through the consequences of certain types of actions, etc.
- **Summarising/structuring:** to be able to summarise information generated by the participants and pick out main problems; to be able to sort out main possibilities and develop concepts and simple models together with the participants.
- **Timing:** a sense of timing when to encourage, when to challenge, when to ask questions, when to give suggestions, when to give support, when to summarise, etc.
- **Being flexible in planning:** to be able to create an atmosphere of flexibility, creativity and experimentation, and to act upon it oneself in combination with good preparation); insight in how to develop the learning process, how to use time efficiently and how to organise learning situations in a good sequence.
- **Being open and self-reflective:** to be open to feedback from the participants about the way we work and to take time to examine our own attitudes, values and ideas.


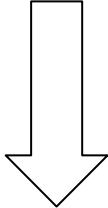
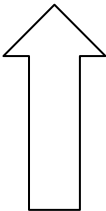
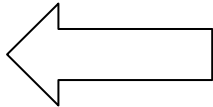
Explaining assignments

Any assignment given to participants needs to be very well explained. Sometimes the objective should not be revealed in advance. This is particularly true for assignments in the context of tools meant to address or influence participants' concepts. Once the objective is known to participants in advance (for example: 'this assignment is meant to give you a different view on community management'), they may not speak from the heart, but say what they think the facilitator wants to hear.

Facilitating reflection

An extremely important element in the use of any tool is the reflection on the contents as well as on the process. This puts a high demand on the facilitator, who needs to be very attentive and capable of summarising experiences, detecting common themes and of helping to draw conclusions that make participants feel they had a real learning experience. S/he also has to be able to make participants express alone, with a small group or with the entire group of trainees how they felt about the process they went through.

Reflection can be facilitated by structuring a discussion using a sequence of so-called objective, reflective, interpretative and decisional questions ² as in the box below:

<p>Objective questions to draw out experiences about the training event:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What happened during the exercise? ▪ What did you observe? 	<p>Reflective questions ask for emotions, feelings and associations:</p>  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What did you think? ▪ How do you feel about it?
<p>Decisional questions requires that participants decide on necessary change and action:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Do you want to do something now that you learned this? ▪ What type of action would be required? ▪ Can you do it? 	<p>Interpretative questions help participants consider the meaning and value of the training event:</p>  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What does this mean for your work? ▪ Should this be the case or not?

This sequence of questions follows the learning cycle explained in Chapter 2.

² Source: Little and de Geer (1994)

Listening well

- ***Concentrate on hearing and understanding the other person.*** Do not start preparing your answer while s/he is talking, but concentrate and try to understand what s/he means to tell you. Pay attention not only to the words but also watch gestures, facial expression, hesitations, etc. to pick up the emotional value of what the speaker says.
- ***Do not stop listening when you hear some key words (red flags).*** You will lose contact with the speaker and fail to understand her/him.
- ***Do not predict what speaker knows or wants to say.*** It is better to listen and find out for sure whether it is true or not.
- ***Do not pretend that you understood the speaker when you do not.*** It will help your and others in the group when you explain to the speaker where and when you got lost and to ask for clarification. Seeking clarification will also help the speaker to explore all sides of a problem.
- ***Do not become defensive and do not interrupt or argue with the speaker*** as soon as he/she challenges one of your favourite ideas, values, points of view: Continue listening to discover the views of the other person so that you understand better, and can respond constructively.
- ***Check regularly whether you really listened well and whether your interpretation of the words of the speaker is the right one.*** A good way is to restate or summarise the essential arguments and information. A good summary is short, gives only the essential elements of what the speaker said and invites the speaker to react, and correct any misunderstandings.

Making visible what is being said

Visualisation reinforces what is being done when using a tool. It helps participants to remain attentive and it provides them the opportunity to remember what has been said and to check whether what is being summarised on wall paper really reflects their opinion. Visualisation can take different forms. The facilitator or a participant may simply jot down key words to reflect the main lessons, participants may use wall paper to put down their thoughts for presentation at a later stage while simple drawings can help to get an idea across and for it to be remembered.

Flip charts and white boards give the lecturer an opportunity to write down key points that need to be re-enforced, explain details using graphics and make a note of issues raised by participants. Flip charts have the advantage that once key points are written down the papers can be posted on the wall and so remain visible as a prompt for participants throughout the lecture.

Drawings, diagrams, graphs and charts are a useful way to present and explain complicated information in a simple manner while making it more interesting for participants. Key graphics should be prepared as handouts and given to participants at the end of the lecture. Using questions can arouse interest and stimulate thinking. Key ideas and thoughts put forward by participants can be written up.

Overhead transparencies have the advantage that information can be prepared in advance and re-used, however they are often 'remote' from the participant, particularly if the lecturer writes on them during the session. Take care to interact with participants, use a pointer. Transparencies can be ideal for presenting graphics, especially if multi-coloured, or key points. However, they should not be used for presenting full texts.

Detailed notes of key information may be prepared in advance, if participants know they do not need to take detailed notes they can focus on paying attention to the presentation. Such handouts should be given out at the end of a session.

Pre-structured handouts, which give the structure/ main headings of the lecture, with ample space for participants to make notes, can be handed out at the start or during a session. At the end of the session these may include a question or details of a task for participants to answer or carry out before the next session. This will help the participant to keep track of the lecture, even when he/she has an attention break. It assists participants in thinking about and digesting the subject and gives a good structure for taking notes.

If participants need to digest definitions in detail they should be read in detail in the session (read out loud or silently or critiqued on an overhead).

Key information from **references** reinforcing key messages should be introduced during the session. Summarised handouts (not complete references) can be given out at the end of the lecture.

Using analogies

Comparing an issue to phenomena or processes that are well known to participants enables them to comprehend a relatively complex or abstract theory or idea more easily.

Group Work

Small group work (less than 8 people) is especially suited to:

- draw out and use the prior experience and knowledge of participants;
- raise interest and involvement of participants in the subject
- enhance assimilation and evaluation of new information by discussing it or implementing a problem-solving task;
- develop team work and other interpersonal skills, for example problem solving, decision making, creative thinking, communication and reporting skills;
- develop desirable attitudes such as tolerance, openness to criticism, familiarity with confrontation.

Typical Issues a trainer will have to consider when working with groups

- Does the trainer control the discussion as in a semi-plenary session where the trainer asks questions and sub-groups discuss and answer the question. Or does the trainer function as a neutral group discussion leader, as a resource person, as a facilitator to the group process, as an observer, or simply as one of the participants.
- The size of the group (from pairs to half of the training group).
- The objective of the group work and nature of the assignment, for example brainstorming an issue; listing possible solutions to a problem; discussing, confronting different viewpoints, approaches or solutions; group analysis of a text, or a case study.
- Is the small group work the main body of the learning activity (as in the case study) or just one element in a combination of techniques (like the buzz group in a lecture, where small groups quickly discuss issues and feed into the lecture).

Generally few materials are required. However, instructions need to be prepared and materials, such as a flipchart and pens, will be needed for facilitating feedback to the plenary. Suitable space will be needed and the programme should allow for some flexibility, since groups may not all be ready at the same time.

6. *Preparing for a training session*

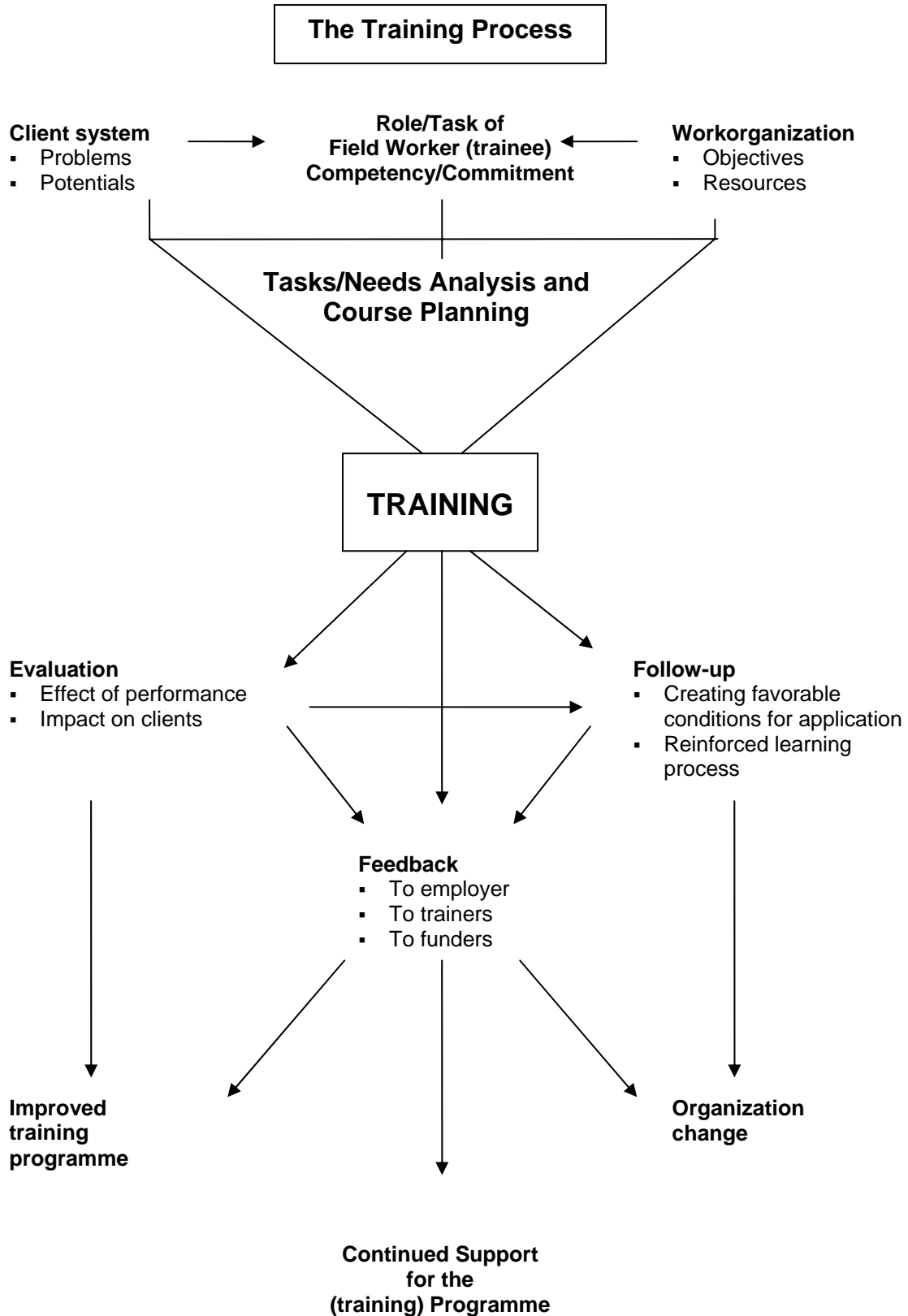
In Chapter 2 it was explained how views on learning approaches have changed over previous decades. Views on the effectiveness of training have also changed. Traditionally it was believed that there is a direct relationship between what is taught and what is learnt, and that knowledge automatically leads to action. Now it is realised that training results, such as learning and job improvement, do not only depend on the participant's capacities to learn, but also on the methods and behaviour of the trainer, the norms of the training group, and the general climate in the working organisation. Furthermore, it is realised that for action and job improvement both motivation and skills are needed. Thus, training is not only the responsibility of the trainer, but also of the participant and her/his institution. The table below summarises these differences in opinion concerning the effectiveness and impact of training.

Table 2: Summary of old and new concepts on the effectiveness and impact of training

Old concepts on the effectiveness and impact of training	New concepts on the effectiveness and impact of training
Learning is a simple function of the capacity of the participant to learn and the ability of the trainer to teach.	Learning is a complex function of the motivation and capacity of the individual participant, the norms of the training group, the training methods and behaviour of the trainers, and the general climate at work.
The acquisition of subject matter knowledge leads to action.	Motivation and skills lead to action; skills are acquired through practice. The participant's motivation is influenced by the climate at her/his work organisation.
Individual action leads to job improvement.	Job improvement depends on individual learning, the norms of the working group, and the general climate of the organisation. Unused learning leads to frustration.
Training is the responsibility of the training institution and begins and ends with the course.	Training is the responsibility of three partners: the participant's organisation, the participant and the training institution. It has a preparatory, a training and a post training phase, which are all important to the success of the training.

6.1 The training process

As can be read from the table below, a training process consists of a pre-training period, the actual training, and a post-training period. This can be visualised as follows:



Pre-training

When preparing a training programme, a training needs assessment is done for (potential) participants. The training needs of a participant depend her/his tasks and responsibilities, the problems and potentials of the people the participant is working with (the client), and the objectives and resources of the organisation the participant is working for. How to assess training needs is further explained in the next section.

The selection of (potential) participants is an important step in preparing for training. The basis on which staff are selected for training is important in determining its effectiveness. A participant should be interested and motivated to attend.

Based on a needs assessment and an overview of (potential) participants, the training course can be planned and prepared.

Training

The actual training takes place. Steps involved in developing and planning a training programme are given in Chapter 6.3.

Post-training

Even if a trainee has willingly attended training and benefited greatly from it, all may be in vain if the organisation is not receptive to her/his new attitudes and approaches. The trainee must be given scope to experiment and receive full support from the organisation in her/his endeavour to make use of the new learning. Nothing is more devastating for a trainee than to find that the organisation expects her/him to return to her/his old role in the same old way.

Developing a training strategy

Usually organisations prepare and implement a training event in the context of a training strategy. A training strategy reflects the mission of the organisation and indicates the contribution of training towards fulfilling this mission and, in broad terms, how this contribution will be provided. Developing a strategy requires insight in what is asked for in the field and what people/organisations would be prepared to pay for training. Developing a strategy also requires a good knowledge of the organisation's mission and policy.

A strategy only becomes operational when a training plan is developed, often on a yearly basis. A training plan reflects the type and number of training programmes planned for the period covered by the plan. It should be assessed against the strategy by asking questions such as: Do we reach the people we intend to reach? Do the contents of the training programmes suit the organisation's mandate? Do the objectives of a particular training programme fit the objectives outlined in the strategy?

6.3 Developing a training programme

Training programmes are particular events, having content specific objectives and lasting from a few days to a few weeks or even months. Programmes are to be set up in a way that they allow participants to share experiences, to discover what they want to learn, to learn new concepts and skills and to prepare for action in order to put into practice what they have learned. Training programmes need careful planning to ensure that they become successful learning events.

Table 3: Tips for planning a training programme

Tips for planning a training programme:	
Have clear objectives	Determine what you want people to know and be able to do after the training.
Know your participants	It is important to learn as much as possible about the trainees as soon as possible, preferably before the start of the training. You should at least have an insight into their education, professional background and career, organisation and position within the organisation, tasks and responsibilities, main activities.
Choose the right environment	Avoid a formal training setting, e.g. where the trainer is on an elevated platform and/or behind a desk. A circular setting is preferable. Don't use tables if they are not needed.
Prepare training materials and equipment	Before the start of a training session, make sure that all the materials and equipment you need are present and functioning. Check the room and test the equipment before you start.
Time realistically	Most trainers are too ambitious and achieve very little. Allow plenty of time for adequate discussion and thinking.

Preparing training includes the preparation of training sessions. Each session usually covers a day or half day. They have very specific objectives that fit within the objectives of the entire training programme. When preparing for a session the trainer will think in detail what s/he wants to discuss, how this will be done (the tools and techniques to be used), how s/he can see whether the session had any impact and how much time will be devoted to each of the issues to be addressed. As with the entire training programme, a training session can be built along the steps outlined in Figure 2 (Section 2.3).

Tools related to planning a learning event can be found in Part II.

Steps in a learning based training

After assessing training needs (see Section 6.4) a specific training programme can be developed. The steps in the learning process described in Figure 2 can be used to identify the steps needed in a learning based training programme. These steps are summarised in the table below.

This framework can be used in various training settings, such as in a workshop setting or in the field. This section discusses the objectives of each step, and gives suggestions for the facilitation of the steps. In part II of this book you find various tools that can be used to facilitate the different steps. Although the steps apply equally to training in different settings such as in a workshop or in the field, the way in which they are applied and the training tools and techniques used will vary.

Table 4: Steps needed to plan a learning based training programme

Steps in learning		Main characteristics
1	Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarification of the subject and the reasons why improving knowledge and skills in this field is important. The expectations and fears of participants are discussed, and the programme is adapted where possible.
2	Generation of real life experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The participants' real life experiences related to the subject form a solid foundation for learning, making learning more practical and useful.
3	Diagnosis and reflection on experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The systematic comparison, diagnosis and analysis of experiences enables participants to identify patterns, conditions, causes and inter-relations. Participants reflect on these experiences with a view to identifying what lessons can be drawn for future application.
4	Conceptualisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emerging knowledge is systematised and 'labelled' in terms of concepts and hypotheses concerning the nature of the problem, causes, possible solutions and questions that have to be dealt with in more detail. Emerging categories of issues concerning the key elements, causes and possible solutions are reflected upon and linked with related concepts and theories. The facilitator will assist the participants to arrive at a clear frame of reference for the following phases of the learning process.
5	Focused learning activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This is the core of learning in terms of developing new knowledge or skills. Participants are provided with new information and content material, and are actively involved in practical sessions aimed at problem identification, problem analysis and experimenting with solutions.
6	Integration and action planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The main findings from the conceptualisation and learning are reviewed for their relevance and feasibility by participants individually, and then adapted for their own working situations. Each participant prepares a personal, practical and realistic plan to improve their working situation to take into account the lessons learned.

Step 1 - Orientation

The objective of orientation is to clarify and agree upon the training objectives and why improving knowledge and skills in this area is important. It should also illustrate how learning will be structured and organised. Orientation is not complete without the development of a clear and shared learning perspective on why training is important and what the purpose is. It is crucial to allow room for participants to share their expectations and fears concerning the training. Expectations have to be related to the programme, either by referring to the programme item(s) that will deal with particular expectations, by adapting the programme to include them or by explaining why they cannot be part of the training programme. Fears also need to be discussed and, of course, dealt with as well as possible.

Facilitation

The conventional approach to simply introduce and explain the objectives followed by a brief explanation of session structure and this is often all that time allows. However, orientation may also be an opportunity to enable participants to get a clear idea about what will be dealt with during the training. This can be achieved by presenting participants with a 'typical' case of the subject under study. Depending on the setting this presentation may be oral, on paper, using audio visual aids, or by using an example in the field. The discussion that follows

should allow participants to express their views and address why the subject is important and the purpose of developing knowledge and skills in this field. This approach has the advantage of ensuring that participants are focused on the key issues and are immediately immersed into the subject area in a thought provoking manner.

Step 2 - Generation of real life experiences

The participants' real life experiences are used as a basis for learning. Participants describe and exchange their individual experiences in this field and/or with this problem: what did each individual observe or experience? Where, when, how? Under what conditions (physical, institutional, social)? What consequences did they observe? How do they handle such a situation normally? What did they/others do to solve the problem, and how did it work out?

Facilitation

Straightforward questioning by the facilitator is the simplest and one of the most effective approaches to generate 'real life' experiences. All examples are valued, all key points are listed. The facilitator can stimulate and direct the generation of experiences by:

- promoting an atmosphere of relative openness and sharing based on mutual respect and commitment;
- asking well chosen questions, and by providing 'prompts' (such as slides, drama, discussions in the field) that stimulate and focus participants on the subject or problem;
- helping participants to describe their experiences by asking for examples and clarification.

If the facilitator feels participants are not opening up, buzz groups or small discussion groups are an effective way to encourage participants to express their own experiences and give examples.

Step 3 - Diagnosis and reflection on experiences

Participants need to have a comprehensive understanding of their experiences and existing practices if they are to improve them. In this step they are encouraged to diagnose and analyse past experiences and practices through comparison with those of other participants. They are encouraged to look for patterns, conditions, causes and inter-relations. They then express their views on what the situation would be like if problems were overcome, and compare this improved vision with the emerging picture of actual practices. Reflection on the gap between the actual and the desired situation is very valuable and enables participants to get a quick first impression as to how big the difference is and what needs to be done to improve the situation.

Facilitation

Diagnosis and reflection is best achieved by focusing in a logical way on a structured diagnosis of experiences and the desired situation. A simple check list may be used to facilitate the analysis. Make sure that participants identify:

- main aspects of the problem,
- causes of the situation,
- how problems are inter-related (cause-effect),
- when the approaches applied are most effective (under what conditions),
- why solutions worked in certain situations.

The trainer should stimulate an exchange of views and a search for causes, relationships and consequences, for example by confronting differing experiences or by asking thought provoking questions. Diagnosis may be complemented by a brainstorming session to identify possible solutions.

Step 4 - Conceptualisation and formulation of learning tasks

The emerging knowledge and experience concerning the problem analysed needs to be systematised and 'labelled' in terms of its causes, effects, and the relationship between different cases and possible solutions. This will lead to a set of categorised concepts or hypotheses. These concepts are reflected on and linked with related concepts and theories. Conclusions are drawn regarding the different concepts, their significance and priorities. This gives a better idea of the questions and issues which need to be tackled, and provides a good basis for defining subject areas and issues that need further analysis, such as what skills may be required. Participants arrive at a clear frame of reference for the following phases of the learning process.

Facilitation

In working groups, participants should be given different categories into which they can sort their accumulated information on experiences and problems. The diagnosis can then be presented back in plenary, followed by a discussion during which participants will draw conclusions from the diagnosis. The facilitator should relate this to theory and to established principles and concepts. Then the facilitator assists the participants to draw conclusions from the diagnosis, to relate this to theory, and to arrive as a group at a clear frame of reference for the following phases of the learning process.

Step 5 - Focused learning activities

This is the core of the learning experience. Participants are presented with additional information and content materials, and are encouraged to dig deeper into the subject. They can do this through focusing on specific aspects of the subject, analysing sub-problems or cause and effect relationships, practising specific skills, and experimenting with solutions. They are actively involved in a problem solving process in which they critically review selected texts, analyse case studies, do field work, analyse and interpret available records, conduct and evaluate small experiments, or take part in any other activity that may lead to the development of relevant insights and skills. Participants should be encouraged to address both technical and behavioural aspects. By the end of this step, participants should have gained sufficient new information to be able to implement changes and to experiment with improving real life work practices.

Facilitation

The trainer should as much as possible promote independent questioning and thinking by participants, by encouraging disciplined argument, rejecting 'easy' answers, confronting participants with differing views, and by repeating activities under different conditions. Participants should be presented with appropriate criteria that can be used to evaluate all learning activities, forcing them to assess the relative value of the different techniques used.

Step 6 - Integration and action planning

Participants need to review the main findings of the learning experience for their relevance and feasibility, and reflect on how they can be of value to their own specific situation. Participants then need to plan how to implement their ideas in their working situation. Each participant prepares her/himself to develop new working practices in the home situation.

Everyone makes a practical and realistic plan to improve her/his working situation so that it takes into account the lessons learned.

Facilitation

The process of planning activities to support improved change can be greatly aided by providing participants with a simple structure for planning activities and ensuring that they prepare realistic action plans. These should take into account the potential and limitations of the individual's role and responsibilities as well as factors within the work context that may support or hamper their implementation. This includes identifying follow up requirements such as additional training needs and necessary support in the home situation.

The various sessions of a training programme are put into a sequence that makes the programme as a whole follow the steps of a learning process presented in Figure 2, Page 14. Sessions at the start of a training programme are meant to diagnose what participants know, feel and experienced in a certain field whereas, at a later stage, sessions may focus on new concepts. Should different trainers be involved in the training programme, a training co-ordinator will have to make sure there is coherence between the sessions.

Each session may itself follow the steps of the learning process. A session on new concepts it may start with exercises that elicit participants' present knowledge and attitudes. Learning goals can be derived from such exercises. The session may end with an exercise on how the new concepts can be applied to participants' methods and style of working.

When planning a session it is important to define its objectives clearly and to refer back to these objectives throughout the planning. In their enthusiasm trainers are easily carried away by everything they would like trainees to know and experience, without checking its relevance in the context of the entire training programme. Planning also includes timing the activities within the session and arranging the logistics.

Elements of Training

General theme	The training subject or content to focus on: this will be the object of analysis and reflection
General objective	The overall training objective will be reached through the appropriate organisation of the training event, be it one session, a series of sessions, or even a complete programme.
Specific topics	These are the many parts that together make up the content or general theme. The links between these topics must be planned so as to build up the participants' knowledge and ability. Topics will be selected and ordered based on the background and characteristics of participants.
Specific objectives	Specific learning objectives, often linked to specific topics, will be reached at different stages in the training. Together they build the overall training objective.
Procedure (Methods)	Techniques and procedures to be practised within training that enable participants to achieve the specific learning objectives.
Participants	People for whom the learning event is designed. They have specific backgrounds which should be taken into account when tailoring training sessions to specific individuals.

It can be seen that these elements each build on or stem from the others in an internally logical and interactive way. As training is designed to develop and stimulate, training sessions themselves should be designed in tune with the adult learning cycle. The session programme will start from the trainees' own experience and, through practice and analysis, the training will develop the participants' ability to diagnose, deduce and draw conclusions and lessons from information. This in turn will enable them to increase their problem solving capacity and to develop concrete ideas and activities to bring about changes in their own practice.

The introduction of new information needs to be carefully planned to enable participants to reflect on its relevance and suitability. There need to be a clear links between training topics, objectives, techniques and procedures. Structuring the design process in a dialectical (question / reflection) and repetitive way enhances its internal coherence. The next table illustrates a tabular approach taking into account the various elements previously outlined.

Training planning matrix

General theme	Specific objectives	Techniques	Time needed	Procedure (Methods)
Topic 1				
Topic 2				
Topic 3				
Topic 4				
WHAT?	WHY?	HOW?	WHEN?	HOW?

The starting point for session planning is defining the general theme. This, as the name suggests, indicates the central theme and one or several general objectives. This should state clearly what issue is being addressed and what knowledge or experience the training should provide.

Training topics then need to be identified. The combination of the topics should cover all the key aspects of the general theme. The various topics can be dealt with in training sessions and when making a detailed plan for each of the sessions specific training objectives are defined for each topic. These objectives clearly state what specific lessons or facts must be learnt by the participants during the training on that specific topic.

Techniques describe the type of training techniques that will be used within a session. It is important to plan this carefully so as to avoid repetition of techniques such as lecturing or question and answer sessions. For each main technique used within a session it is then possible to specify the time needed. Finally procedures or methods should be detailed for each technique.

Suggested sequences for an individual training session:

- Start by explicitly drawing on the trainees' actual practices and experiences.
- Abstract from trainees' concrete, individual situation in order to develop a general understanding and deeper insight on a more theoretical and abstract level.
- Clarify the complexity of relations between the topics dealt with in the training.
- Trainees should be stimulated to apply their deeper understanding to a theoretical base by drawing lessons and recommendations.
- Encourage trainees to make concrete recommendations and plans in order to bring about change in their own particular context.

Some trainers prefer to detail the content of the topic at this stage, others simply sketch out key methods they will use. As a compromise it is good to start by preparing rough facilitation notes for each technique and topic. At a later point the facilitation notes can be made more detailed and include reference to what the trainer should say or do. These notes should also detail materials needed, handouts or overhead transparencies required and so forth. In this way the detailed training notes can be re-used by others.

Example

In the context of training for professional staff the Chief Training Officer invites you to plan a number of two-day training courses.

Planning the training programme

- Define the key characteristics of the target group selected, for example, female extension workers working with female headed livestock farms; veterinary assistants, the assistant research manager.
- Define the training activities. For example, in order to train dairy extension officers the programme could include two days training with farmers in the village, two-day activities every three weeks in a Dairy Training Institute and a refresher course at HQ after six months.
- Assess how these training activities support each other: will the training provide the required balance to achieve all the training objectives.
- Define the general theme and the general training objectives.
- Define the topics to be covered and the training objectives: do they cover the range of issues required? Are they of interest to the participants? Is it realistic to cover all these issues?
- Ensure that it is possible to achieve all the objectives within the training activity period.

Tips for planning a session

- Identify clear training objectives for participants. Take into account their level and ability.
- Break the session into bite-sized pieces so that the information presented to participants will be easily digestible.
- Choose appropriate training techniques or methods to get suitable messages across. Remember to plan the session to use different tools that in turn;
 - present information,
 - give participants the chance to be actively involved,
 - enable participants and trainers to draw lessons.
- Prepare and plan the use of short games or 'ice-breakers' that can be used as needed to revive participants but which also have a serious message.

Planning the training sessions

- Prepare the session plan based on the Training Planning Matrix. Define the session topic and specific issues to be covered. Define specific training objectives (what the participant should know at the end) for each issue. Issues should be complementary, building the participants knowledge or skills incrementally in a stepwise process.
- Identify complementary educational techniques to be used for each issue. Avoid using just one style such as lectures, and try to plan exercises that complement the issue. For sessions in the field plan discussions with farmers and other interested parties.
- Prepare the session plan in detail, detailing the procedures, methods, or activities that will be used to convey the key messages on each issue. For each activity be careful to indicate the time required.
- Describe the steps in the learning process you intend to develop with the participants under procedures, activities or methods. It is worth preparing detailed facilitation notes for each issue.
- Review the session plan. Try to look at the session through the eyes of your participants and to detect the weak spots. If in doubt pre-test the plan, through a “dummy run” preferably with a colleague. Run through all the planned sessions, double checking that you have allowed enough time and have introduced, worked with and repeated key lessons.
- Adapt the plan where necessary.

Checklist to evaluate a session plan

- Can the general theme and the specific learning objectives be reached in the planned time schedule? Do they support the overall programme?
- Is the sequence of selected topics and objectives logical?
- Is there a clear coherence between the topics, objectives, educational techniques and the methods proposed?
- Are the links between objectives, topics and the intended methods explicit?
- Do the specific topics selected cover primary issues in the general theme? Have any topics been omitted?
- Are the underlying causes of problems being tackled in the training clearly exposed? Are alternative solutions explored, tested and analysed for feasibility?
- What improvements can be made?

Session Topic:				
Specific Issue	Specific Objectives	Techniques	Procedures / activities or methods	Time needed

Notes:

- Reserve time to review what has been covered in the session.
- Summarise main points, check understanding, clarify remaining questions. This helps participants pull together the essentials of what they have seen and heard.

6.4 Training needs assessment

Getting to know your participants, largely overlaps with what is called a training needs assessment. Analogous to the distinction made between developing a training strategy and planning a training programme, we can distinguish different levels of training needs assessment. When developing a strategy an assessment will have to be made at the national or regional level. It should provide insight into the general themes that professionals in the sector

are interested in, and the potential numbers of participants. Changing policies, the introduction of new systems or programmes, and the creation of new functions all point to a need for training. Demand for training also arises when organisations expand rapidly or when new services are to be set up.

Once a training on a particular theme is scheduled and the programme has been developed broadly enough to market it, one has to get to know the participants. Identifying their training needs is the starting point for further development of the training programme. Once the training has started, assessment of training needs continues, either through planned exercises and/or through evaluative feedback during the training. This helps to adjust the training objectives, the contents and the curriculum. From a general assessment trainers may get a good indication of what a training programme should entail. However, a certain level of flexibility should be built in, to allow for adjustment of the programme to suit the particular needs of the participants.

When we train farmers, we don't train for the sake of training. We train in response to a need that they have identified. When a farmer applies for training, it is because s/he is confronted with a problem and is prepared to act and implement new knowledge to solve that problem. If you want to do something successfully, you have to be involved. This is what we expect from our trainees, they must be involved totally.

Source: Bernard Ouedraogo, Burkina Faso

Job and task analysis

A needs assessment usually starts with a job or task analysis. Where you begin depends on several factors. One is the amount of needs assessment that has already been done. A high level needs assessments, which includes an analysis of jobs, is often conducted by project or programme planners, rather than by trainers. The result is that the training focus will be predetermined to suit the needs of the project or programme. If this is the case, it is possible to begin by conducting an analysis of the tasks for which one is expected to provide training. For example, project or programme planners may have determined that hygiene educators need some training in community management, so they can adapt their activities to promote a community management approach by water supply staff. In this case the focus of the training activity (community management) has already been determined by the planners. If no such focus has been specified, a needs assessment will require a bit more time and the trainer will have to start by conducting a full job analysis. Using the above example, the focus may point to a need to change a teaching attitude into an approach that will promote hygiene in such a way that people can discover problems and solutions themselves. A job analysis has to be conducted to help determine what tasks a hygiene educator is required to do and which need most attention in a training activity. This whole process is one of gradually narrowing down the focus without missing any essential training needs.

Another important factor that can influence where to start is the complexity of the job and/or tasks for which a training is to be provided. If a job and its associated tasks are very complex, the trainer will have to spend a great deal of time on the both types of analysis. If the job is simpler, a job analysis may be sufficient to determine the training focus.

Time available for training is a third factor which must be considered. A trainer will often want to cover everything related to the job. Unfortunately, there is rarely sufficient time to do this and priorities must be set.

Techniques to identify training needs include analysing job performance or job related activities, problem analysis, diagnostic workshops, studies of good and poor performers, observation techniques, performance appraisal reports and brainstorming.

Additional assessment required

When preparing a new training programme we need to gather various types of data in order to be able to:

- formulate relevant and realistic learning objectives,
- select appropriate training methods,
- develop effective curricula to arrive at appropriate arrangements for training (timing, duration, food, place, setting, group composition, etc),
- assess the need for organisational change and required support and follow up after the training.

After assessing the training or learning needs the training organiser will need information on:

- ***relevant characteristics of the target group***: How many are there? Of what age, sex, educational background, working experience? Will they come as individuals or teams? What kind of restrictions and preferences do they have with respect to the timing and location of the training, food and lodging, working in mixed groups (e.g. sex, age, staff level, level of education)?
- ***the resources available (or potentially available for the training programme)***: financial resources; training facilities, materials and equipment, human resources, information, inter-institutional working relations.
- ***the nature of the human resources***: training management capacity, availability of qualified moderators and resource persons, sufficient support staff, participants and staff in fieldwork locations.
- ***the working conditions of the participants***: how do the working conditions of participants allow them to apply what will be learned in the course? What other measures are needed to solve the problem? Is the programme or organisation willing to take such measures?
- ***the needs and possibilities for adequate follow up and support***: what opportunities exist for continued learning after the training? What kind of support and advice will those who complete the training need. Will the programme or organisation be able to supply such support? Who else might and should get involved?
- What possibilities or restrictions for monitoring and evaluating the outcomes and impact of the training exist in the programme or organisation? Can this be done by line staff or do training specialists need to be involved?

6.5 Monitoring and evaluation

Evaluation will provide the trainer and the trainees with an opportunity to reflect on the training as a whole and to identify where one could do better next time. Monitoring provides information about problems that might occur and allows someone to arrange problem solving action immediately. Problems may be related to the contents of the training, to the learning process or to logistics and other organisational issues. Monitoring information needs to be fed back to the person(s) who can undertake corrective action.

Monitoring and evaluation can have a task and a maintenance dimension. The first focuses on the learning process; the second on the group process. Both are equally important and need to be addressed in oral or written monitoring or evaluation activities.

Task dimension

- Were the objectives clearly defined and shared by everyone?
- Were these objectives realistic?
- Were the working procedures clearly spelled out and understood by everyone?
- Were these procedures appropriate?
- Could all participants contribute to achieve the task (by giving or asking for information, seeking or giving clarification, structuring and summarising findings, etc.)?
- Did we make sufficient progress towards attaining our learning goals?

Maintenance dimension

- Did we listen well to each other? Did we all feel respected and accepted?
- Did we stimulate each other to participate and encourage each other to express ideas and feelings? Did we all feel personally involved?
- Did we have fun together and was our creativity stimulated?
- Did we allow people to make errors?
- Did we accept differences in ideas, values and opinions?
- Did we tolerate ambiguity and explore alternative answers?

There are many methods for monitoring and evaluation. These vary from having trainees fill in forms to more interactive and/or visual ways of sharing. Usually interactive and /or visual ways fit best in an adult learning approach, when it is important that the trainer also voices her/his opinion. Trainers need to prevent themselves from reacting instantly to the feedback they get from participants. Not only is instant feedback often defensive and not very constructive, but reacting instantly may also lead to going into detail about something before a overview of the important issues is complete.

Monitoring and evaluation tools are found in Part II.

Part II – Training Tools

Introduction to the tools section

Throughout Training of Trainers on which this manual is based, a large number of tools have been used to take participants and facilitators through the cycle of learning. These and additional tools have been brought together in this part of the manual, and have been referred to in Part I. Participants to this ToT, who are or will be trainers themselves, can use them when training field workers or colleagues. The tools will help trainers to facilitate the process of learning, and in skills and concept development.

If slightly adapted, some of the tools in this manual can be used by field workers when working with community members. However, most of the tools are meant to address the concepts and skills of field workers and hence to increase their capacity to use the tools laid down in 'Keep it working; a manual for field workers'.

The tools are described using the following structure:

<p>Title of the tool</p> <p>Summary Explains the overall reason for using the tool, how it can be applied and in what situations.</p> <p>Objectives States clearly the objective of using the tools and what use of the tool aims to achieve.</p> <p>Procedure Outlines the steps to be taken to use the tool effectively. (and if applicable)</p> <p>Hint Hint boxes suggest the best way to use particular tools.</p> <p>Example Usually provides one illustration of the tool being used.</p> <p>Alternative Uses Gives ideas about when and how the tool can be used.</p>

During a training of trainers session the tools can be used to:

- help understand the learning approaches and the community management concepts addressed in Part I,
- promote learning from each others' experience,
- simulate 'real life' problems and issues,
- encourage participants' confidence and skills in presentation, or
- lighten the atmosphere and stimulate feedback.

Whenever a tool is used trainers need to evaluate it with the participants. The evaluation should focus on what the tool contributed to knowledge about community management, on what it contributed to the skills of the participants and on how the tool can be used when participants prepare for training field staff.

As much as possible, the tools have been grouped to reflect the adult learning cycle. Trainers may not use all the tools. Whether they are used or not is determined by the training needs.

Getting to know each other

Tool 1: Flower presentation

Summary

This is a simple approach to enable participants to present information so that they get to know each other. It also enables information to be kept on the wall as a reminder to each participant of the expertise of others.

Objective

- Participants and facilitators get to know each other.

Procedure

Divide the participants into pairs.

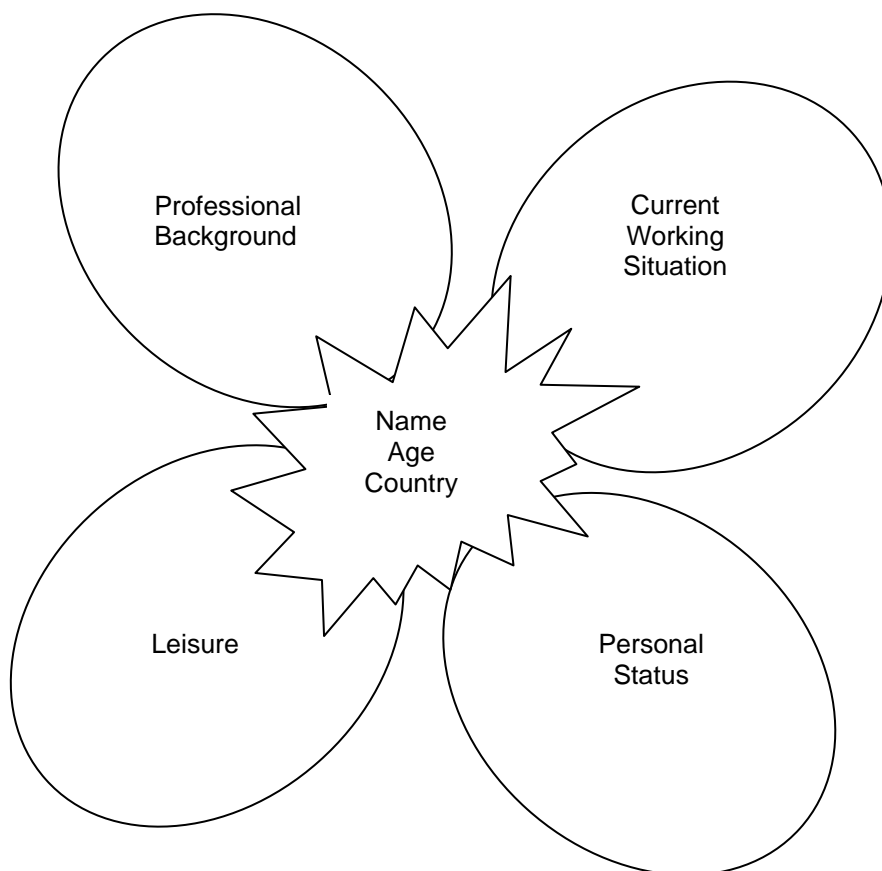
Each individual prepares a flower with four large petals.

Ask the pairs to interview each other to obtain the information required (see below).

Ask all individuals to prepare a presentation flower about their partner.

Ask all individuals to present their partners in the plenary.

Information required in a flower presentation:



Tool 2: Clever Cecilia and Running Raju

Summary

This is a nice and easy informal introduction for use at the start of a training session.

Objectives

- To help participants and facilitators to remember each others' name.
- To create a moment of laughter at the start of the training.

Procedure

Have everyone sit or stand in a circle.

Ask each person to introduce her/himself by her/ his first name and by adding an adjective that starts with the same letter as the name, like Clever Cecilia and Running Raju.

Whenever it's someone's turn, ask her/him to repeat what the people who went earlier said, before introducing her/himself.

Setting the Scene

Tool 3: Promoting respect and conditions for learning

Summary

It is important that participants listen and respect other viewpoints, even if they don't agree. This simple tool can be used to develop such an atmosphere quickly. Appropriate points may even be used to form 'workshop rules'.

Objectives

- To enhance an atmosphere of mutual acceptance and respect between participants.
- To help participants appreciate the need to listen carefully and to query in a thoughtful and constructive manner.

Procedure

Ask participants to split into two groups.

Give each group a different text to read, one text discussing 'respect for others' and another 'conditions for learning'.

Have each group working separately and ask them to identify and list on a flip chart the conditions that are necessary in order to create 'Respect for others' or 'Conditions for Learning'.

When the groups have presented their lists, facilitate a discussion about the points raised and stress key points.

Display the lists on the wall for future reference.

Example

At the start of the workshop, participants were split into two groups each with an issue to discuss 'conditions for learning' and 'respect for others'. In the plenary session, participants discussed the relevance of these issues and how they could support these conditions within their family, amongst work colleagues and within the communities where they work. The discussion helped them to consider carefully how a learning environment may be created and stimulated.

A summary of the conditions considered essential for promoting learning and ensuring respect for others

- Do not interrupt others when they are making a point.
- Ask and listen to each other when looking for new ideas.
- Respect other individual's points of view.
- Respect each other as persons and as colleagues.
- Use positive language when reacting to a colleague's idea.
- Encourage participation of each member of the group.
- Do not monopolise discussions.
- Join in and encourage others to do so.
- Accept differences of opinions.
- Accept constructive criticism.
- Respect yourself.
- Believe in and trust others.
- Help develop the confidence of others.
- Be flexible.
- Work in small groups.
- Reflect on each others' behaviour and performance.
- Remember each individual has something to offer.

Tool 4: Fears and expectations

Summary

When you start working with a group it is useful to find out what participants expect from the training (expectations) and what they do not want to happen during the training (fears). Knowing their expectations and fears will help you deal with them. You may try to fulfil expectations or indicate where they are unrealistic. You may be able to take away fears so they do not disturb the learning process. Knowing that their expectations and fears are known about and dealt with usually increases participants' commitment to a training event.

Objective

- To create a conducive learning environment, where participants feel their concerns are dealt with.

Procedure

Explain to participants that you hope the training will meet their expectations and that their learning process is not disturbed by unnecessary fears or concerns.

Ask participants to jot down on cards three expectations they have and three fears or concerns (one on each card, so they will write a total of six cards).

Stick all cards on a wall and ask participants to take a close look to see whether there are similar cards or cards that seem to address related issues.

Group the cards according to the participants' suggestions.

Discuss the meaning of each of the clusters and clarify which of the expectations is or can be dealt with within the context of the training and which cannot. Similarly, discuss which can be removed by some action from you and/or the group and which is beyond your and the group's control.

Draw up a list of action points indicating what has been agreed.

During the training, regularly assess the action points.

Concentration and laughter: creating a learning atmosphere

Tool 5: Boom

Summary

This game makes the participants alert and stimulates them to concentrate on something other than the project work for a while.

Objective

- To activate participants and stimulate their concentration capacity.

Procedure

Ask the participants to stand in a circle.

Have participants count off numbers in sequence. The person having a number that is a multiple of seven, has to clap hands or shout BOOM.

When a multiple of seven occurs, the counting changes direction.

Participants forgetting to say BOOM, clap hands or change counting direction are out.

When participants get really good, add another number for boom-shouting or hand-clapping.

Tool 6: Nine dots in a square

Summary

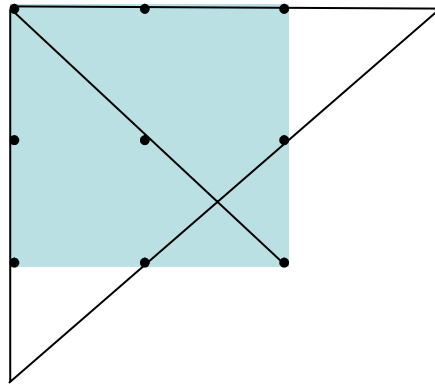
This game does not require any preparation and only takes a few minutes. It makes participants concentrate, but at the same time it can be used as a starter for a more fundamental discussion.

Objectives

- To divert participants' attention for a moment.
- To make participants realise the need for thinking beyond fixed limits.

Procedure

Put nine dots (without the lines!!) on a flip chart or on the white board as follows:



Ask them to copy the dots on a piece of paper and to connect all the dots with no more than 4 straight lines, without lifting the pencil from the paper.

Ask the participant who was able to solve the problem first, to draw the solution on the board and ask her/him to explain it if needed.

Draw the lines yourself, should no one be able to find the solution, and provide an explanation.

Alternative uses

This tool can be referred to when discussing concepts related to learning and willingness to learn, i.e. willingness to look beyond the usual limits.

Tool 7: Broken system

Summary

This is a simple game to keep participants alert. It also indicates clearly how messages change as they are passed from one person to the other.

Objectives

- To entertain participants, while keeping them alert.
- To prompt a discussion about how messages can be distorted when they are not clear or when they are not passed directly to the person concerned.

Procedure

Ask participants to sit in a circle.

Ask one of them to whisper a message in her/his neighbour's ear. This neighbour then whispers the same message to the next person.

The message is passed on until it reaches the last person in the circle.

Ask the last person to say the message as s/he heard it.

Discuss what happened to the message, whether such distortion also occurs in real life and how this can be prevented.

Possible message: "I heard one time of a country where elephants play with stones"

Tool 8: The Postman

Summary

This game is amusing. It creates a relaxed atmosphere in the group.

Objective

- To help people get to know each other.

Procedure

Form a circle with chairs for participants. The number of chairs needs to be one less than the number of participants.

Ask participants to sit down. One will have to remain standing and this person will now start the game.

Say, for example: "I have got a letter for everyone wearing glasses".

Explain that everybody wearing glasses will have to change chairs. The person in the middle will have to try to occupy one of the chairs and the person not able to find an empty chair will have to take a turn standing in the middle and delivering another letter, using another criterion to make some people change chairs.

Alternative uses

This technique can also be used to find out about the jobs of the group members, by shouting, for example: "I have a letter for all engineers", or "I have a letter for all colleagues who work in sanitation".

Tool 9: My secret friend

Summary

This game catches the interest of the participants and lightens the atmosphere during the workshop. During a long intensive working session this game makes a nice break.

Objective

- To create a climate of companionship and mutual encouragement.

Procedure

Ask participants to write on a piece of paper their name, some personal characteristics and some information on their job or function.

When everyone has finished writing, have the papers folded and put in a box which has 'secret friend' written on it.

After mixing the papers, ask each participant to take one paper out of the box, without showing it to anybody.

Ask each of the group members to send a message at least once a day to their secret friend in such a way that this person cannot detect who sent the message.

During the workshop have the messages that participants put in the box read aloud.

At the end of the course/workshop/training, ask the participants to say who her/his friend was. Ask someone to start by guessing who sent her/him messages. If they are wrong, the real secret friend should reveal themselves. Then this person guesses who is her/his secret friend, and so on.

Getting a view on participants' experiences and perceptions (diagnosis)

Tool 10: Group discussion with cards

Summary

Cards are one of the most effective tools to help participants visualise their thoughts or ideas so that they can be presented back to a larger group. Using cards provides a very simple and useful way to quickly obtain insights into the variety of different opinions and thoughts on a subject. This enables participants to appreciate the variety of views on an issue and, as a result, it quickly establishes a basis of knowledge on which further activities can be built.

Objective

- To quickly identify a variety of issues and participants' views related to a particular subject.

Procedure

Explain the purpose of the exercise and discuss the rules for card visualisation (see 'Basic rules' box).

Ask participants to divide themselves into groups of about four to six people .

Ask each group to discuss the concept or issue to be addressed, for 30 to 60 minutes.

Ask them to write key points on cards and attach them to paper fixed on the wall, where they can be viewed by all participants in plenary session.

With the participants sort the cards into clusters., Each cluster should indicate an issue of importance arising from the points written on the cards. In this way the categories will reflect the issues considered important by the participants.

Reflect on the outcome and discuss it, highlighting the key issues identified by participants. Use the outcome as a basis for further discussion, particularly in relation to significant issues that were not raised, or for further planning of the training programme.

Hint

This technique is particularly useful for broaching awkward or unconventional concepts, such as those related to gender issues or behind the concept of community management, and encouraging discussion.

The facilitator can use the outputs to gauge the understanding of participants, and to lead a more complex or detailed analysis of the same issue.

Basic rules for card visualisation:	
Only one idea per card	Use key words only
<i>Always write in a clear hand writing or it becomes hard to read.</i>	
Never write more than three lines in a card, if possible keep to two lines only	

In principle, cards are written anonymously, so should the meaning of a card is unclear, ask the group to explain. Don't ask "Can the person who wrote this card give an explanation?" The issue may be sensitive or the author may feel embarrassed to make public what s/he wrote.

Example 1

To clarify the roles and tasks of women and men in society

- This creates an understanding among the participants about the differences in the tasks and roles of men and women. It also enables the facilitator to stimulate a discussion on gender roles in relation to community management.
- To stimulate or direct ideas, participants can be asked to write down thoughts related to the roles and tasks of women and men with respect to reproduction, production, the management of communal services or community politics concerned with water supply.

Example 2

Identifying achievements and constraints

In a workshop at IRC participants, divided into small groups, identified specific achievements and constraints in relation to their experience of community management.

The clusters defined for '*constraints*':

- *Issues beyond their control*; such as vast geographical disparity, political instability, confusion & anarchy.
- *A shortage of skills*; such as little administrative experience, lack of technical and other relevant skills.
- *Different interests with respect to water use in the community*; between more recent supply systems and traditional water systems, or the use of latrines and water for other than their planned or intended use.
- *No recording of information on paper*: typically there is a lack of 'proper' records and monitoring by the community.
- *Environmental problems*, such as problems of land slides, deforestation, floods and a decrease in water yield from the source.
- *Financial constraints*: often communities have inefficient systems of cost recovery and no culture of cash payment.
- *Conflicts*: between different personalities or interests, or a conflict of roles between water committee members.
- *Little female participation*; typically women's participation is undervalued and they are little involved in decision making.

The clusters defined for '*achievements*':

- *Legal provision*: the community can help to reach agreements to obtain free land for communal tube wells and legal status defining committee roles and rules for resource use.
- *Involvement of women*: for example, the recognition of women's roles may lead to increased involvement and raise self esteem.
- *Positive impact of project*: for example, –a reduction in the incidence of water and faecal borne diseases, or the self-financing of existing water supply and sanitation facilities.
- *Improvement of community skills*: community capacity is improved through increased knowledge and awareness and development of specific skills in areas like water management, technical and administrative abilities.
- *Increased self-reliance*: as the community takes more initiatives, increased community participation helps them organise themselves to tackle different or greater problems.

Alternative Uses

The same method can be used for quick brainstorming, asking participants individually, or in small groups, to write down their ideas.

Tool 11: Mural newspaper

Summary

This tool gives participants the opportunity to prepare and present information on a particular issue or subject. Working in teams or individually, participants prepare suitable information and present it in the form of a newspaper, (illustrated as murals or wall posters). They then present their own newspaper, evaluate its contents, and discuss the factors to keep in mind while preparing and presenting a mural and while giving feedback.

Objectives

- To exchange information related to participants' work situations and the context within which their projects are taking place, possibly in relation to specific issues.
- To help participants develop confidence and experience in preparing and presenting information to others.
- To encourage participants to critically evaluate presentation techniques and to learn to receive critical feedback.

Procedure

Divide participants into working groups or 'teams', choosing participants with something in common to form the teams, for example they come from the same country, region or project.

Explain the topic for the mural and ask participants to present information about it in the form of a newspaper page on the wall. They may use text, drawings, and photographs.

Ask each team to 'sell' its newspaper to the other participants of the workshop. Each team is each given 15 minutes to present their newspaper. The presentations can be done by one or more members of the team.

Ask the audience to indicate whether they would 'buy' the newspaper. Evaluate it assigning a value of one to five for sales, content and appearance (see figure below).

Ensure that discussions focus on presentation techniques: discussions on the content of each presentation should be avoided.

After the presentations facilitate a plenary discussion about the results of the ranking, the value of its use, things to avoid when presenting information and tips on how to improve presentations.

Hint

If this tool is to be used to obtain factual information from participants on an important issue, it may be advisable to ask them to present murals on two issues, firstly a topic or subject of personal interest, and secondly the topic related to work or the training sessions.

Criteria	Rank				
	very poor				very good
Sales promotion	1	2	3	4	5
Quality of content	1	2	3	4	5
Appearance	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 3: Evaluation form used for a mural newspaper presentation

Example

Presentation of information by teams on their country or region and the projects on which they work

Each team was asked to describe the different situations in their countries, regions or projects. This included topics such as politics, culture, geography and environment, economic and social situations. Many of them also presented information on particular issues or project contexts, such as major water issues, problems faced, and the impact of social division on project effectiveness.

Alternative Uses

This is a very effective technique to use when colleagues are presenting a large amount of information or research results. It forces presenters to present information clearly and concisely, and enables them to receive constructive criticism in a comfortable environment before presenting ideas to a larger audience or to external evaluators.

Tool 12: Mapping

Summary

Mapping is a process by which information is represented on a spatial map. Typically we are used to normal topographical maps or specialised maps such as weather maps, land use or geological maps. Here the term ‘mapping’ refers to the preparation of maps of different types: the common factor is the involvement of a group of individuals or actors in the mapping process. Typically these actors will be people with an interest in using the results of the mapping, and may consist of focus groups: individuals of a specific type such as field workers, community members, specific groups within communities, etc. Maps can be developed from any kind of materials, making them extremely versatile and useful in almost any situation (see box).

In a workshop, it is easiest to draw maps using coloured pens or stickers to represent specific information.

Objectives

- To help participants identify how they view or perceive a particular situation.
- To introduce participants to an especially useful and versatile communication tool for sharing information, for problem analysis and for planning with community members.

Procedure

Clarify the purpose or objective for the mapping exercise. Virtually any type of information can be represented in the form of a map. However, participants will need a clear idea of what they are expected to map.

Provide at first maybe two or three items participants can map, preferably relatively easy issues, for example the physical location and type of sources in the community in which they grew up. Once they have started mapping and develop some confidence they could be asked to map other types of information. Ask participants to present their maps.

Mapping as described here is used for training. It is a very effective technique to stimulate participants to ‘see’ the wealth of knowledge and skills in all communities. Participants usually have great fun and enjoy using this tool.

Conventionally, village mapping is carried out by community members who would map their own village highlighting or adding the information requested by the facilitator.

In a field setting maps may be made out of anything. Often they are drawn by community members on the ground, using sticks, stones and other readily available material such as flour, dried beans etc. Each different material (or its size) represents different information, such as the location of homes and facilities, the relative importance of an individual, or indicates recent problems such as families who suffered an infant death in the previous year.

Hint

Information from maps, and the subsequent discussions around the different issues raised, as well as the emphasis shown, often provide good preparation for and an ideal platform for other exercises related to the analysis of perceptions.

Example 1

Mapping 'my village' in relation to water management and use

Participants drew a map of the village or section of the city in which they lived as a child, in order to stimulate a discussion on the knowledge that exists in villages.

They were asked to draw the map of their own native village where they had spent their childhood and to put emphasis on:

- available water sources and storage facilities,
- water related traditional practices, how it was used, in what quantity,
- defecation and waste disposal practices,
- sanitary conditions in the village and in particular traditional hygiene practices.

While preparing the maps certain issues were raised to encourage participants to include on the map information regarding leadership, gender, indigenous knowledge and decision making.

All maps prepared by participants differed greatly. The variety of maps provided a wide diversity of information about different villages including: relative location to other villages, population composition, water and land resources available, land use patterns, habits of water use, and management practices followed by the communities.

Results

The variety of maps and the discussions that followed yielded a diversity of information on knowledge within villages related to water:

- type and location of water resources,
- how water resources are managed and used,
- details concerning water bearing rocks,
- complex water allocation systems in time of shortage.

The various ways of illustrating information through mapping were discussed and this led to a reflection on the perception about villagers held by the participants as a whole. It revealed that within their own community there is a lot more inherent knowledge than initially perceived by participants, including about management and decision making systems, as well as their own mechanisms for passing on information.

Remarks, when reflecting on the exercise, included that mapping was found to be very useful to identify the vision of an individual or group or regarding an issue, particularly for planning, monitoring and evaluation.

It is important to involve key informants, to avoid missing out important information. For example, elderly women and men will be far more aware of information relating to traditional activities.

Advantages

Mapping helps participants to learn about a specific problem and to facilitate discussions with groups of community members, since their involvement ensures that information presented by the map is not only based on community knowledge, but is also represented in a form they can understand.

Disadvantages

If too much information is included on one map it can be hard to understand. Due to differences in perception and interests, a mapping session will often lead to argument and might cause conflict between those involved.

Description of a village map

My home village: Bhojpur

I was born in Bhojpur, a village of 59 households in Eastern Nepal. It is a hilly/mountainous region with abundant vegetation and numerous natural springs. Spring water sources are tapped by the villagers for water supplies from beautiful and spacious stone tap-stands which have resting places nearby.

Like my father, many men in the village had served in the British Army Gurkha Regiment, and were aware of the value of building and using latrines, so 12 houses had simple pit latrines. Other households used to defecate and urinate either in nearby ravines or forest. Two primary schools and one health post both had pit latrines, but the children preferred to use the forest.

My village did not have good functional roads but there were plenty of village paths and trails for humans, horses and mules. On the higher land, people would grow maize, millet and wheat, with paddy on the lower land. Irrigation canals supplied water to crops, particularly paddy rice. However, agriculture also relied on the monsoon rains.

Stone tap-stands were used for supplying water for drinking, bathing and washing clothes. Excess water from these tap-stands was collected in a pond at a lower level and was to water or wash animals. The water then drained into the fields. Although there were no solid waste disposal pits, all animal droppings and organic waste was thrown into a manure pit, and extracted every six months to be used as a fertiliser. There were three Hindu temples near the jungle that each maintained ponds which were used mainly for watering cattle and irrigating fields.

Examples of traditional water use:

Nyamware Province, Kenya	Bhojpur village, Nepal	Sherqillah village, Pakistan
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Protected springs for supply of water for drinking and domestic use. ▪ Stream water utilised for bathing and washing. ▪ Downstream water used for the men to wash and water livestock. ▪ Rain water for farming. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Stone tap-stands built at captured springs supply water for drinking, bathing and washing. ▪ Downstream excess water utilised for watering and washing animals, beyond which water is drained to fields to supplement irrigation water. ▪ Irrigation canals fed by streams filter down through the fields. ▪ Temple ponds utilised for watering cattle and fields. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Channelled stream water (Nallah) from the mountains is used for all purposes: domestic use, bathing, construction, irrigation, watering animals. ▪ Households traditionally have a water tank, which is filled early each morning from the channel and used for drinking and cooking. ▪ Water is directly used from the channel for irrigating fields, watering gardens and is also used in kitchens.

Example 2

Investigating management relationships

Objective

To raise the awareness of participants to traditional management practices and activities related to water use.

Village maps can be used as a basis for detailed analysis of which individuals in the community are responsible for management and decision making in relation to water resources. Asking participants to identify traditional management activities in the villages where they grew up encourages them to be very objective since they know the example well but are removed from it by time and context.

The facilitator may choose to ask participants to indicate on the map who was responsible for making decisions for different aspects of village life, such as: water use, forestry, farming, livestock, trade, commerce and cottage industries. Alternatively the participants may go into detail with respect to the management of a particular natural resource, such as the management of water. The link between managing this resource and the community hierarchy will quickly become evident. Detailed points should address violations, conflict and problem solving mechanisms and any standard approaches for tackling natural problems related to water resource use including droughts, repair of structures after flooding and so forth.

Participants may carry out an individual analysis and feedback in the plenary using the map as a visual aid. Alternatively, a well structured discussion could be used to identify key information.

Points regarding wider management skills in the community may be drawn out and listed. Where necessary, participants should be asked to relate how such skills are useful in managing water supplies. In this way participants will appreciate the value of other skills inherent within the community that can assist in water management.

Hint

It may prove easier to persuade participants to address a community's managerial and decision making role by using a subject removed from their professional experience.

Emphasis should be put on identifying difficult management issues such as water allocation during droughts, organising maintenance and repairs of equipment, tackling violations of agreements and conflict management.

In addition, participants could be asked to address wider management activities within the community including forestry, farming, livestock, trade, commerce, construction and local cottage industries. The skills required for these activities can then be discussed in relation to water management.

Example 4

Mapping or identifying decision making processes

The two boxes below illustrate the description of firstly, management relationships and secondly, the decision making process for a village in Nyamware Province, Kenya.

Management relations at village level: Nyamware Province, Kenya

Management of water resources was the collective responsibility of the elderly (usually men). They made the decisions about protection of the water source but both men and women participated in the actual work. Women were usually expected to report any incidents that could lead to pollution of the river. This was especially the case if someone took a bath in the area set aside for drinking water, or if persons damaged or undertook activities that might damage the protective fence around the source. Women would report these incidents to their husbands or, if a child was at fault, they would go directly to the parents. The men would investigate and report infringements to the elderly men in the village. Small incidents would be communicated to the head of the household of the offending person who would then discuss it with the offender and settle the matter at home. Major incidents required the village men to sit down together and call in the offender and witnesses in order to make a communal decision on how to resolve the matter. The head of the household, where the offender came from, would be expected to resolve any problems.

Decision making process at village level: Nyamware Province, Kenya

Issues to be addressed, or on which decisions are required, are identified by both men and women. Although the men usually take decisions, time is allowed for consultation within the community. Normally this is so men can get their wives' opinions, and so the women are able to consult each other. Their opinions are also communicated by the elderly women to the elderly men separately, since they have most influence over the men's final decision. Once the men make a decision others are informed and a public meeting is called, allowing community members to discuss it together. Usually, the views of the women have been taken into account by this stage, and women attend these meetings to ensure their views have been considered. The decision is then usually accepted. If there is major disagreement the consultation process may resume.

Tool 13: Venn diagram

Summary

A Venn diagram shows people's perception of the key institutions and individuals in a community and their relationship and importance for decision making (concerning the management of the water supplies). This technique helps the participants understand the relationship between organisations, and provides a comprehensive pictorial overview without being boring. The disadvantages are that it is difficult to draw and time consuming.

Objective

To let participants realise how organisations or individuals are related to each other, and what importance they have to the issue being discussed.

Procedure

Ask participants to identify key institutions and individuals responsible for decision making in a community or organisation.

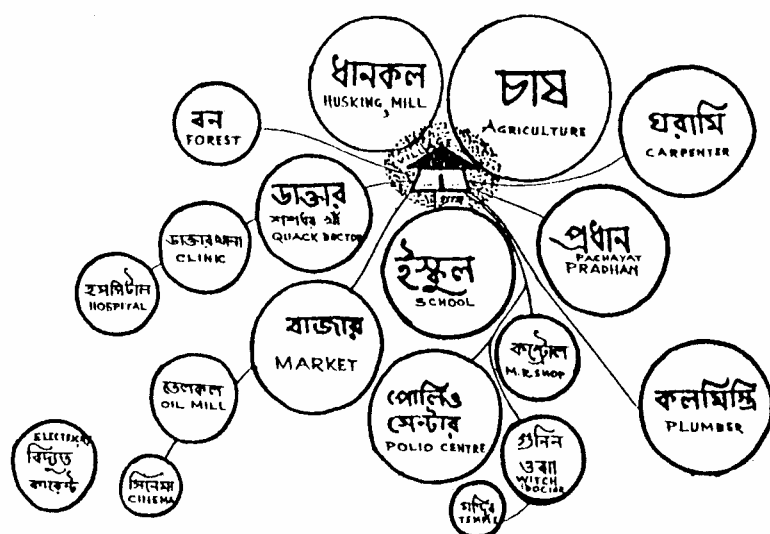
Have them describe the degree of contact and overlap between them in terms of decision making. Overlap occurs if one institution asks or tells another to do something or if they have to co-operate in some way.

Ask participants to draw circles to represent each institution or individual, whereby the size of the circles indicates their importance or scope. Circles are arranged in such a way that separate circles represent no contact between organisations, touching circles indicate that information is passed between institutions, a small overlap indicates some degree of co-operation while a large overlap reflects considerable co-ordination.

Discuss the outcome of the exercise and its implications for future activities.

Obtain information from secondary sources to check that the information you have portrayed is correct (triangulation).

Example of a Venn Diagram



Tool 14: A tool on leadership

Summary

Leadership is a rather abstract term and a leader is closely connected to those wanting to be or being led. Leadership patterns always give rise to emotions. Some people are happy to get a chance to lead; others do not want to be leader. Some like to be led; others prefer to do their own thing. Some leaders act democratically; others are authoritarian. Some people just want to follow; others want to participate in decision making.

A simple exercise can help to make participants understand the dynamics associated with leadership. Going through this exercise will help them understand leadership dynamics in (community) groups.

Objective

- To have participants experience the impact on them of someone who starts taking the lead.

Procedure

Before this exercise, ask one of the participants to play a special role, that of a leader. Do this without other participants noticing!

Explain to the leader that in the next session you want her/him to make sure that the other participants each get their own chairs and arrange them against the wall of the room, with their backs facing the group. Tell the leader that s/he should do this without any indication that s/he was asked to do so by you.

Tell her/him that s/he may answer questions when fellow-participants start asking what is happening and why s/he is acting the way s/he does. However, s/he should not indicate that you had asked her/him to do this.

Once all participants are in, leave the room using a simple excuse, such as that you have to go to the bathroom. While you are gone the leader can start to initiate the action.

Enter the room again when you have the impression that activity has settled in the room.

Stop the exercise and ask participants what is going on.

Reveal that you had asked the leader-participant to act the way s/he did.

Facilitate a discussion about what they felt when the leader told them to collect the chairs, whether they liked or disliked it, whether their feeling changed over time and whether or not they felt they had to obey. Also ask the leader-participant how s/he felt, what type of a leader s/he had wanted to be etc. etc.

Finally discuss the possible meaning of this exercise for them as trainers and for their trainees as field staff.

Hint

You may think of another activity for the leader to organise, but it should always be something that affects the entire group.

Tool 15: Historical development

Summary

This tool helps participants to recall historical events and makes them realise how attitudes and concepts may have changed over time. It also shows what people consider to be important. Because it is visualised, the overview can be referred to time and again.

Objective

- To identify how the understanding of, or attitudes to a particular concept have changed over time.

Procedure

Ask participants in a plenary how a particular concept is currently viewed by themselves and their colleagues.

Ask them to reflect on how this concept was understood in the past and to give their views about why changes in perceptions occurred. During steps 1 and 2, have all comments, views, attitudes and understanding identified by participants written onto separate cards.

Cluster all the cards into categories depending on the subject or content of the completed card. In the example below the degree of community participation or community involvement in managing water and sanitation projects was used to establish different categories for clustering cards.

Have participants examine in a plenary how these different clustered groupings have changed over time.

Discuss the clustered groupings, which are now also defined by time, and have them visualised graphically (see example below).

Discuss the outcome of the exercise.

Graphical visualisation is important to aid comprehension and understanding. Very simple visualisation tools greatly increase the ability of others to follow a changing theme or concept.

However care must be taken to ensure that participants know how to read the visualisation tool used.

Example

Understanding how the concept and practice of community participation has developed over time

A discussion and simple historical analysis of how water sector projects were planned implemented and managed from the 1950's to the 1990's revealed both a wide variety of views about community participation and a clear trend in the development and practice of community management over 40 years.

In plenary the participants were asked to indicate the different ways in which they use community participation or have observed community participation being used in water and sanitation projects today. They were then asked to reflect on how water and sanitation projects were managed in the past and to consider the degree of community involvement in those projects.

The participants considered that community participation is needed for a number of reasons:

- It leads to strengthened self-reliance of communities members.
- It reduces the costs of management, particularly operation and maintenance costs.
- It is more efficient than management by state agencies and possibly by private enterprises.
- It makes it easier integrate both customary or traditional knowledge and more recent or modern knowledge into projects and schemes.
- The state often does not have sufficient capacity to ensure suitable water supply systems for all communities.

As the cards were clustered by participants they jointly decided that the degree of community involvement should be the key to establishing each category. In this case they identified three main categories:

- implementation and management of systems by external agencies;
- community participation through provision of materials and labour for construction, but with external maintenance;
- community water system management.

Tool 16: Using case studies

Summary

A case study is a very effective way to find out how participants think about a certain issue or to ensure that they practice the analysis and use of information, for example for planning the implementation of a project. It provides the facilitator with valuable insight into the way in which participants normally plan and implement work and field operations. A case study can be a real life experience from the facilitator or from one of the participants, or it can reflect an imaginary situation. Careful preparation is needed and a case study should preferably be pre tested (see section 6.3 on developing a training programme).

Objectives

- To stimulate participants to analyse, assess and improve techniques normally used to design and implement projects.
- To create a starting point for the development of a logical stepwise process for planning projects.

Procedure

Divide the participants into working groups. If possible a group should consist of participants who work together. Each group is given the same case study and asked to read it carefully.

Explain that each group will develop a stepwise process for the planning, design and implementation of a project and that, in order to do this, they will develop a plan to implement one project as illustrated in the case study.

Have participants read through the case to identify important information.

Ask them to analyse the case using a few guiding questions (see task assignments given in the example below). The analysis may have different objectives, for example; to develop guidelines for work operations under different conditions, to explain why a situation, problem, behaviour or process occurred. This forces participants to think actively about the problem, develop insight into situations that regularly occur and to discover different approaches to solving such a problem and what to do in such a situation.

In a plenary discussion the results of the subgroups are synthesised and key lessons or conclusions are drawn out.

Hint

A good well written and well thought out case study is important. It is often easiest to write the case study partly from real life, adding fictional details as needed.

Example

Case Study *The case of Olvana*

Groups are asked to develop a stepwise process for the planning, design and implementation of water supply schemes.

They have been requested by the District Development Committee (DDC), to plan the implementation of water supply schemes in Olvana district, Morenia. The DDC has asked them to assist as specialists, since the DDC recognises the importance of involving the communities fully in the project, but has no experience in such approaches.

The DDC aims to use the stepwise process as the basis for developing guidelines which the DDC will then expect other institutions to follow when implementing water supply projects.

Both groups are given the two page case study and a brief from the DDC. They will first design a draft plan (Task Assignment 1) and then work to improve each other's draft (Task Assignment 2).

Brief from District Development Committee

From: DISTRICT DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

Brief: Re Improved water scheme implementation

- A. Develop a stepwise process for the planning, design and implementation of water supply schemes.
- B. Use this process to plan the development of improved water supply schemes in Olvana district, Morenia.

Key objectives of DDC sponsored water supply schemes:

- Sustainable water supply .
- Improved health.
- Building capacity at the community level to solve their own problems.

You will be required to present the development programme for Olvana district to a full meeting of the DDC in one week's time. The presentation should illustrate the key steps in the process you propose, listing crucial activities in each step. Clearly outline the different roles both institutions and communities can play. The DDC will invite a number of advisors to assist with a critical assessment of the proposal.

Background

OLVANA is one of the most densely populated districts of Morenia. Generally the district is blessed with a favourable climate and fertile soils. Rice production is usually good and in most years rice is sold to other districts of the country. Deforestation is a problem, since wood is the primary source of cooking and heating fuel, and is also extensively used in construction. Most people obtain drinking water from unprotected sources, and some using river water for drinking. People complain that springs are yielding less water every year. Most of Olvana is mountainous and therefore difficult to reach, which poses serious problems for the provision of education, health facilities, extension services and infrastructure. Altitudes vary considerably and range from 500m above sea level to over 2500m.

Morenia is a rapidly growing developing tropical country with a two month long summer monsoon and a shorter winter monsoon. Irrigation is widely practised both by small holders and large schemes, enabling agricultural production even in the dry months.

Olvana has five major zones:

Marginal agricultural zone

This is the driest, least populated and least developed part of the district. Agricultural production is low and the only cash crop is sparsely farmed cotton. The most important sources of income are from livestock and charcoal burning. Very little natural vegetation remains in this area resulting in high run-off and excessive erosion. There are various traditional sources of water in use, largely hillside springs and shallow wells, but they are increasingly unreliable and appear to be depleting yearly.

The population of Olvana consists of various ethnic groups. Most families own sufficient land to feed themselves all year round, although some larger landowners rent small plots to landless farmers. Many men migrate to other districts or the major towns of Morenia, generally for seasonal work for two months during the dry season.

Rice zone

Large scale rice irrigation schemes, managed by the (para-state) Government Irrigation Board, dominates agricultural production in this area. Rice is grown by tenants, who often also own small private plots outside the schemes. Within the zone no other crops but rice can be grown. Tenant's income is low and there is a severe shortage of fuel in the area. To solve this people have tried to plant and grow trees. Unfortunately saplings often die soon after being planted.

Dry land agricultural zone

The primary land-use in this densely populated zone is smallholder subsistence agriculture, although an increasing number of people sell surplus production in small local markets. In some localities there is smallholder coffee and tea production, although coffee and tea factories are far away. There is an ever more serious shortage of water, animal fodder and building materials. Women spend hours walking up and down steep hillsides to collect water.

Sugar belt zone

Dominated by a huge sugar factory. More than 90% of the farmers in this zone grow sugar cane, resulting in a cash economy. Due to the moderate income derived from sugar cane the area under food crops is reducing yearly.

The National Park

This large beautiful untouched forest with exciting wildlife is an official national reserve. In order to attract more birds the National Park plans to flood substantial sections of the forested area.

Institutions covering Olvana district

A number of institutions in Olvana district are involved in rural development. Most have a keen, but often conflicting, interest in the limited water resources.

<p>Governmental organisations represented in the District Development Committee:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ District Water Supply and Sanitation Office ▪ District Agriculture and Animal Husbandry Office ▪ District Social Services and Community Development Office ▪ District Forestry Office ▪ District Office for Wildlife Conservation ▪ District Education Office ▪ District Office for Women and Development 	<p>Local non-governmental organisations (NGOs):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Foundation for Sustainable Agriculture ▪ Health for All Association ▪ Water for People Foundation ▪ Wildlife Foundation ▪ Tree Planting Association ▪ Various Religious Organisations ▪ Foundation "Power for Women"
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Governmental institutions are represented in the District Development Committee (DDC), which develops the annual District Development Plans, and is chaired by the District Commissioner. When establishing annual plans the DDC uses development data supplied by various district offices and considers project proposals put forward by NGOs. Projects are either implemented by the governmental organisations, or by local NGOs under the supervision of district government organisations.

The DDC discovered that many of the drinking water supply schemes constructed to date have fallen into disrepair or are otherwise no longer functioning. In a number of communities people are quarrelling as a result of differences with regard to the use of their limited water resources. It is felt that these problems are to a large extent due to the fact that

knowledge held by community members related to the use of water resources is hardly ever put to use. The DDC wants to change this situation by developing guidelines for project implementation. These guidelines will be used by institutions involved in drinking water supply. However, the DDC lacks know-how and experience related to the use of local knowledge.

Task assignment 1: Design a draft plan for project implementation

- The groups will need a substantial amount of time to prepare their project plans. Facilitators should 'drop in' on teams to ensure that they are tackling all the key issues.
- When the groups are ready they are asked to present their plan to the decision making body (the DDC) represented by the other working groups in plenary.
- Questions, comments and clarifications reveal the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, and will give each team ideas on how to improve their stepwise process to planning.

Task assignment 2: Assessing and improving the draft

The different development plans should be posted up on the walls, forming an exhibition of presentations around the room. Both groups are then asked to appraise the others' development plans using a checklist provided by the facilitator (see below). Participants are asked to list comments on the first draft of plans, phrasing comments not as criticisms, but as illustrations of how the plans could be improved. If participants feel it valuable and time allows, they may be asked to reformulate their plans, illustrating the different steps in the process clearly. However this will depend on the purpose of using the tool, as this last step may not provide any new learning for participants.

Proposed checklist to assist in improving the draft stepwise process

In which stage of the project cycle, and how, are local people and local institutions involved in:

- Planning?
- Execution?
- Monitoring?
- Evaluation?

What are your suggestions to improve people's participation?

Will alternative solutions, if any, be adopted by the local population? Give your suggestions for improvement.

Are local financial or other constraints taken into account in steps for the planning and implementation of a drinking water supply project?

Do you believe the steps will satisfy:

- The District Development Committee?
- The Institutions and NGOs in the district?
- The women and men of the communities?

Do you think that after the proposed steps for project implementation of the drinking water supply systems, activities at the community level will continue?

Are the steps realistic and feasible?

If not, what are your suggestions in order to make them more realistic and more feasible?

Would the steps lead to sustainable water supply systems?

Give your suggestions for improving the steps, if any.

Tool 17: Rope exercise

Summary

This game requires allows participants' to experience how it feels when one's participation is limited. However, it requires active physical participation. The game provides the participants with practical examples to relate to in discussions on how individuals in a community communicate and interact.

Objectives

- To understand the value and importance of participation.
- To become conscious of the importance of the flow of information between community members in order to prevent a conflict of goals.

Procedure

Divide participants into groups of three.

Ask two participants to act as observers – they have to keep out of the activity initially and give feedback on what they observed.

Arrange that in each group one person is blinded, one person is hand-tied, and one person is feed-tied.

Put a rope circle around all the groups, held by the participants who have their hands tied.

Place four objects outside the circle, well out of reach of the groups.

Explain that each group objective is to reach the object nearest them and that they have four rounds to achieve this:

In the first round: no talking is allowed while each group tries to reach its object.

In the second round participants can talk.

In the third round the observers can intervene verbally

In the Fourth round the groups have to help each other so that each group achieves its aim.

Facilitate discussion and reflection on the meaning of the exercise. A variety of questions can be asked to stimulate discussion and thought. Questions may be designed in advance, so they get progressively more analytical.

Encourage discussion on topics relating to co-operation and hindrance within communities, different interests, the role of interventions, importance of communication.

Finish the session by highlighting a few of the comments raised. What is the purpose of this exercise? What did you see? What happened? What did it mean?

Possible questions for reflection

- How did each everyone feel?
- What did they do?
- What was the objective?
- Why was one person blindfolded, and why did others have their hands and feet tied?
- How does this exercise relate to real life?
- What lessons can be drawn for real life?
- How did observers intervene?
- Evaluate their intervention in relation to people's participation?
- Were there significant differences between different rounds?

Comments following the rope exercise

Participants drew comparisons with their feelings during a project:

"The people who were blindfolded (just like those left out in a community) felt frustration, that someone might harm them – they wished that someone was telling what was going on and they were afraid of falling."

"The people who were hand tied (or those with limited influence on the decision-making) felt limited but still useful because they could pull."

Tool 18: The relative importance of project components

Summary

This activity is useful for analysing the relative importance of different components of a project or activity.

Objective

- To obtain a better understanding of when, how and why different elements or components of an overall project or activity should occur, or are of importance.

Procedure

Divide the participants into working groups and ask each group to consider the effectiveness or impact of an overall project or activity if only one component of an overall activity is addressed in isolation. Each working group is to address different components of the 'whole' separately. In the case of community participation, the different components could be the provision of materials, cash and labour, taking responsibility for organisation and maintenance (O&M) of water supplies or sanitation schemes, and having decision making power over elements of the scheme.

Ask each of the working groups to make a presentation looking at the ramifications or 'pros and cons' of addressing their component in isolation.

Facilitate a plenary discussion which focuses around the importance of each element or component and their contribution not just to the 'whole' or overall activity, but also to each other's effectiveness. In particular the 'when' 'how' and 'why' of each component should be applied or included to achieve optimum impact.

Example

Benefits of community participation

The participants were asked to consider what impact community participation would have on a project if the principle of community involvement was only applied to one small aspect of the project. Each different working group was then given one particular aspect of a project and asked to discuss the repercussions of involving the community on that issue in isolation from other project activities (see boxes).

The participants found that it is not sufficient to involve the community in only certain parts of a water supply and sanitation project, if the objective is sustained impact. It also became clear that as well as positive effects, there are also problems that are likely to arise as a result of community participation. It is important that agency staff responsible for supporting community self-development analyse different situations and are aware of possible pitfalls so they are prepared to tackle them as they arise. For example, when involving a number of community members or their representatives in the decision making process it is inevitable that there will be differing opinions and conflicts, because each has different interests at heart.

Impact on development when community water committees are involved only in the provision of materials, cash and unskilled labour.

- This increases a community's appreciation of the system but not sufficiently.
- It reduces costs, since you don't have to pay contractors. The people feel the system is their own. In Ceylon, Colombia the cost of a 50m Pesos project was reduced by 30%.
- It allows community to participate in quality control surveillance.
- Local groups to provide operation and maintenance start to develop.

The participants key points are summarised in the boxes.

Impact of cost sharing by community members on organisation and maintenance (O&M) of water supply and sanitation projects:

- The system can work for longer, and becomes more sustainable.
- It helps to equalise the distribution of water to all members.
- It develops a sense of ownership in the project.
- It helps community members to develop accounting skills.
- It creates conflict between individuals in the community.
- Poor people are unable to pay their share of the costs. This leads to stress and constraints.

Impact on development when communities are involved only in decision making

- It increases the capacity of communities to identify their problems and make an effort to solve them.
- It increases self-confidence and a sense of ownership.
- It creates a better distribution of roles and responsibilities in the community, especially between men and women.
- Not all members of the community participate in decision making. Usually leaders, influential people and power groups participate. Poor people are usually 'shy' and are left out.
- The involvement of women in decision making is not evident. They are usually left out and this has a negative impact on the long term sustainability of the projects.

Tool 19: Perceptions analysis

Summary

An essential part of any training exercise is to find out participants' perceptions about the issues at stake during the training. If their perception is not clear to the trainer, s/he may be totally wrong when determining the focus of the training. However, it is equally important to make an inventory of participants' experiences and practices to determine the training focus and to motivate participants. By analysing how perceptions compare with actual practice, a picture of training needs emerges.

Objective

- To get insight in how participants look upon issues that are crucial to the training contents.
- To get insight in training experiences and practices.

Procedure

Explain the need for insight into participants' perceptions for the development of training programmes.

Determine the issues for which it is important to get to know participants perceptions, experiences and practices.

Use the task assignments given below to make the necessary inventories. For the second assignments you will need to divide participants into small groups of four or five people.

Discuss the outcome and explain how the outcome will be used to determine learning priorities.

Example 1: Task assignment: Indigenous knowledge

This is a script that can be adapted for each different group of trainees.

You may be from a small rural community yourself, or you may have relatives who are living in the rural community. Maybe you have been living in the countryside, or have been working closely with villagers.

Whatever your community experience, all of us are either researchers, trainers or in charge of training staff who should support the population, and should know the target groups of the support agencies we have to train.

In this assignment you are invited to reflect upon practices in water resources management and changes in those practices brought about by villagers themselves, without intervention from water agencies and/or government services. Such 'management practices' might imply all kinds of activities, the tools they use, the use they give to water, the rules and regulations around water points, where they water cattle, where they get drinking water, different sources of water, storage, labour, dealings with maintenance, etc.

Think of a specific community you know well, and concentrate upon their traditional management practices. Please write down in key words on cards the practices you identified as being 'home-made' by the villagers themselves (one management practice per card).

Example 2: Task assignment: Inventory of perceptions about training

This script can be adapted according to the home circumstances and experience of the trainees.

In the previous assignment we explained that much of the learning in this 'training for trainers' programme will be based on the exchange, analysis and systematisation of your own experiences. Most of us have experienced that the experiences of community members are an important source of learning. By the same token, your experiences in your home and work situation count a great deal. This task assignment is to get to know about each other's perceptions, ideas and ideals about training.

Individually [10 min.]

We ask you to write in key words on separate cards the three most important answers to each of the following questions:

- In your opinion, what should be the role and main objectives of your organisation related to community management of rural water supply and sanitation?
- In your opinion, what could training contribute to these objectives?

Be sure you put only one idea or opinion on each card, so that they can be sorted separately.

In groups [40 min.]

- Collect cards from group members, allow each member to explain her/his answers and ask for further clarification if necessary.
- Discuss the answers.
- If possible try to classify or group the cards according to content.
- Prepare a flipchart to present the sub-group results

NB: Use the flipchart as a visual aid, not an aide memoire! Look at it from the perspective of the viewer. Is it visually clear and interesting, or is it a list?

In plenary session [30 min.]

In the plenary session the presentations on the role and objectives of training are read and grouped by subject matter. Finally, categories are created to synthesise the central idea or topic for each group of cards.

Example 3: Task assignment: Characterising the training approach

For this assignment participants will apply the questions to a particular training course or session they have attended together.

How is the learning event structured?

- There is a fixed order of logical steps.
- The programme allows different items to be developed through the interaction with the trainees.

What is the main objective of the training?

- To pass on technical recommendations.
- To enhance problem solving capacities.
- To support with additional information (e.g. on input supply, credit facilities, marketing).

Why were these objectives chosen?

- Because the analysis of the trainees' job showed the need for it.
- Because the trainees wanted to learn about these issues.
- What is the role of the learner?

- S/he participates actively in the training programme.
- Trainees accept and apply the information that is provided, or follow instructions given.

What is the role of the trainer?

- S/he is a training organiser, who creates opportunities for learning, rather than a research person.
- S/he provides learning opportunities using specialist knowledge of the subject matter.

What is the main orientation of the training programme?

- It is mainly concerned with transferring information about the subject matter.
- It focuses on understanding how the subject matter relates to the trainees' situation.

How is the interaction planned between trainees and trainers?

- Interaction is actively promoted in the programme.
- Participants are free to become involved or just to be present, listening and looking on, but not actively participating.

How is the training itself conceived?

- As a package of material that should be modified and adapted by participants' contributions, according to their specific situation.
- As a ready
- made package of techniques to be applied.

Considering the answers stated above, how would you characterise the training approach underlying the programme that was designed?

As a *directive approach*: directive teaching, with a passive audience in a receiving attitude and a fixed distribution of roles between trainers and trainees.

As a *demonstrative approach*: an active demonstration method, designed to arrive at conclusions by trying-out ideas and involving trainees' participation.

As a *questioning approach*: a participatory method, guiding the observation and reflection of the trainees; with frequent interaction between trainers and trainees and between trainees themselves.

Example 4: Task assignment: Inventory of training experiences and practice

This task is designed as a follow on to Example 3.

This session we started with a description of your perception of training.

Now we will focus on a description of your actual training practice. Select from your experience a training event that you deliver, that you know well and that is not too extensive. Answer the following questions.

Individually [25 min.]

Who are you training?

Why are you training them, with what aims and objectives?

What have been major successes and failures in your training practice?

What elements of your regional, local working context facilitate or hinder your training work?

In groups [45 min.]

Participants list and explain their individual answers on a flipchart and classify them. Participants make a comparison between the different training practices.

In groups [45 min.]

The same groups discuss the question: How do contextual factors, such as training environment, influence the training practice and quality?

Groups prepare a summary on a flipchart.

In plenary

A representative of each group has 15 minutes to present their flipchart results.

The plenary makes a synthesis about:

- Subjects (To whom?)
- Objectives (What for?)
- Failures and successes
- Contextual influence

Example 5: Differing perceptions of development workers and communities related to water supply sources

PART A: Sketch map

Summary

This technique makes participants aware of how their agency's perception of a water supply system in a village differs to that of community members. (All participants must have visited certain villages in small teams prior to the exercise, or have visited the village separately in the course of their everyday work.)

Hint

Often sensitisation of development workers occurs after new project planning and implementation has begun. In such a case it is very important to find out how perceptions within the community to the new proposed water supply system differ to the previous or currently used sources/system.

Objectives

- To create awareness of the differences in perception between community members and external development workers with respect to existing (traditional and improved) water supply systems.
- To gain insight into how difficult it is to understand reality from the viewpoint of community members.

Procedure

Ask participants to divide themselves into groups, each consisting of those who have visited or are familiar with a particular village.

Ask each group to draw a sketch of drinking water sources and any water systems in the village, marking which are used, and if possible, by which community members.

Hint

If participants are asked to think about the knowledge of individuals in the community, particularly people they know, it is often more likely to raise awareness of the variety of skills and abilities that are available within a community.

Ask the groups to illustrate the location of other water sources such as rivers, lakes and springs and to indicate what these alternative sources are used for. Invite each group to present their sketches and facilitate a discussion around the presentations.

Discussion

The resulting discussion is significant since it provides the facilitator with a good opportunity to highlight bias or blind spots amongst the participants. Similarly, it often enables participants to recognise the limits of their own understanding compared to those of other people.

The discussion needs to emphasise the importance of an individual's background, experience (and possibly culture) on their perceptions. If possible, an example of a similar map prepared by community members should be available so participants can see the emphasis placed by community members on different water sources.

Alternative uses

This example looked at the perception of development workers related to drinking water sources in a community. A similar exercise can be carried out in relation to hygiene and sanitation or even in relation to land use, commerce and trade or irrigation. Asking participants to address perceptions related to a different context may obtain a more spontaneous response than something related to their profession or work, for which they probably have a good idea of the 'correct' response.

PART B: Reflection and assessment

This is designed to follow on from the map sketching exercise.

Summary

Participants learn to critically address the gap between how they perceived their behaviour in the past and their actual behaviour. They are encouraged to critically assess to what extent they lead or control community participation, rather than control their own participation with the community.

Objective

To highlight the differences between on the one hand the perceptions of community management held by participant, their colleagues at work and their organisations and on the other hand, the practice in their daily work with communities.

Procedure

Divide participants into small groups.

Ask participants in groups to identify how they act in their different settings at a national, institutional and communal level.

Have these points written on flip charts or cards, which are put onto the wall for easy viewing. Have participants consider the knowledge of community members in their project, and compare it to the perception of the villages they drew earlier. Continue putting points on the wall for viewing.

Ask group members to silently read (without comment) the cards posted by the other groups and to return to the plenary session.

In the plenary ask participants to reflect on the points raised and identify conflicts between what they say they want to achieve together with community members and what they actually do.

Discussion

The discussion should revolve around how participants perceive their own behaviour as project staff and how they actually behave in the communities. Are they really as participatory as they think? How is the community involved? Do they work with the community, or does the community have to work with them? Who leads the process? How are community members involved in decision making? In the discussion all points related to how participants perceive their own behaviour, and their actual behaviour, should be written onto cards and posted onto the wall.

Example

Discussion Results

From the discussion it became clear that it is not easy to involve communities or be genuinely participatory. Participants identified a number of conditions agency staff need to fulfil in order to develop a partnership with the community.

Increased flexibility is needed in development organisations to develop a partnership with communities. Development organisations need to:

- follow the pace of the community;
- take local knowledge and practice into account when planning;
- involve communities from the very beginning,
- focus on developing projects based on a demand from community,
- better understand community perception, interests and problems,
- take into account the logic of community customs, traditions and unwritten laws.

Development organisation staff need to have more social skills, and to have a better understanding of how to reveal and use community skills, and community capacity for organisation and management. Communities need to have information in a form they can use, query and develop.

Tool 20: Gender and task analysis

Summary

A gender and task analysis is a good way to start towards applying the gender approach that is crucial for sustainable systems and sustainable management. It helps to make people aware of significant differences between women and men and how these influence community management. Before starting to talk about the management arrangements for the water supply system, it is useful to get a view on how water related tasks are divided between women and men. Only when the starting point is clear can a meaningful discussion take place about the need for change. This exercise works best when the discussion takes place within a representative mixed group of men and women.

Objectives

- To increase awareness concerning the differences between the tasks of women and men, including those related to water supply and sanitation projects.
- To demonstrate the importance of these differences.
- To highlight the importance of involving both genders especially in relation to the development of water supply and sanitation activities and projects.

Procedure

Divide the group in small groups and ask them to discuss the social, economical and cultural differences between women and men and to depict this on a flipchart, either in words or through a drawing.

Ask the groups to present the outcomes of their discussion and allow the groups to give feedback to one another.

Meanwhile put some concluding remarks on flipcharts, such as the ones given in the example below.

Ask the groups to write all kinds of tasks involved in community management of water supplies on small cards (one task per card!).

Put up two flipcharts, one with a picture of a woman on top for putting up tasks performed by women and one with a picture of a man on top for putting up tasks performed by men.

Ask the groups to stick the cards with the tasks on the appropriate flipchart

Run through the outcome and allow discussion where groups do not agree.

Discuss the implications for project staff working with communities.

Example of conclusions related to Gender Role analysis

- Men and women are different in various ways;
- They have different access to paid jobs;
- They do not have decision making power on the same issues;
- These differences have an impact on project planning and implementation;
- Etc.

Tool 21: Setting priorities for learning through ranking

Summary

Ranking is a tool you can use to stimulate discussion whenever choices have to be made. These can be choices about deciding who is most in need of assistance, about what type of water supply services they prefer or about the way the operation and maintenance fund is to be raised. Ranking helps to make the decision making process transparent, to achieve clarity on existing perceptions about the advantages and disadvantages of various possible solutions, to identify key constraints and opportunities and to discuss selection criteria. Ranking exercises can range from very simple to complex. The tool described here starts simple, but once a weighing element comes in the tool becomes more complicated.

Objectives

- To show participants how they can weigh their opinions against those of other people and prioritise them.
- To arrive at a consensus about the issues to be included in the training programme.

Procedure

Determine with a group of trainees all the issues they might like to deal with during a training programme.

Have the group take a closer look at the various possible issues and list advantages and disadvantages of dealing with each.

Have the group look at the advantages and disadvantages and help it to develop a list of criteria that an issue should meet. Such criteria may, for example, include that they can use the new knowledge or skills in their work immediately, or that it fills a pressing gap in their knowledge. Any additional criteria agreed by the group should be added to the list.

Draw up a matrix, putting possible issues on the horizontal axis and the selection criteria on the vertical axis. Ensure that everyone understands the wording.

Ask participants to score each issue individually or as a group. For each criterion they can score which possible issue is best (and so scores highest), which is second best etc. The highest score should equal the number of possible issues.

Once all the issues have been ranked against all criteria, add up the scores and have the group draw a preliminary conclusion.

Should the group feel that not all criteria are equally important a weighing element may be brought in. Some criteria may be so important they count three times more than some of the others, while others count twice as much. The scores for each issue are then multiplied by the 'weighting' number the group has allocated to that criterion.

Discuss the conclusion from the exercise carefully and allow trainees to voice their doubts. If they feel it has produced a 'wrong' result, this may indicate that not all criteria were listed, or that some were given too much or too little weight. Allow them to change their minds if they feel the final score does not really correspond to their feelings. In this way they will refine the criteria they are using until they end up with a truly useful tool.

Hints

The participants found that an advantages of this technique was that it takes account of more variables and that it helps in making quick decisions. The disadvantages were that it can create confusion and the mathematics can be difficult.

Examples of ranking learning priorities

Issues Selection criteria	Gender and equity	Hygiene promotion	Cost-recovery
Addresses policy of our organisation	***	**	*
An issue we do not yet know anything about	**	*	***
High Impact on community management	**	*	***
Easy to allocate resources for	***	**	*
Total Score	***** (=10)	***** (=6)	***** (=8)

Score can be *, ** or ***

Issues Selection criteria	Relative weight	Gender and equity	Hygiene promotion	Cost-recovery
Addresses policy of our organisation	2	*** x 2 = *****	**x 2= ****	* x 2 = **
An issue we do not yet know anything about	1	**x 1 = **	* x 1 = *	*** x 1 = ***
High Impact on community management	3	** x 3= *****	* x 3 = ***	*** x 3 = *****
Easy to allocate resources for	2	*** x 2 = *****	**x 2= ****	* x 2 = **
Total Score		***** (=20)	***** (=12)	***** (=13)

Score can be *, ** or *** and has to be multiplied with the relative weight factor

Tool 22: What determines people's willingness to change

Summary

People have their motives for behaving the way they do. The other side of the coin is that people are willing or resistant to changing certain behaviour and have their reasons for either. If we want to discuss behavioural change, for example, concerning improvement of the management of water supplies, it is important to be able to distinguish factors related to readiness to change. It is equally important to realise that if we discuss 'change', we need to take into account what factors could inhibit or promote the change being discussed.

Objectives

- To realise that there is a wide variety of factors promoting or inhibiting change that need to be taken into account.
- To gain insight in possible ways to deal with such factors.

Procedure

Ask participants to take a few minutes to recall an event when they were asked to change a certain behaviour and the factors influencing their decision to change or not to change.

Have each factor written onto a separate card, stick them on a wall.

Hand out the figure given and ask participants to see whether the factors they wrote down can be clustered according to the stages for change.

If participants' experience is not all captured in the figure, add to it.

Ask participants to take another few minutes to recall some events in a community that illustrate the stages given in the figure, and ask them to explain how they dealt with them.

If someone shares her/his experience, allow the others to react and to come up with alternative ways to deal with the event.

Alternative uses

This tool can also be discussed in the context of 'selling a plan' to colleagues. Participants can be asked to predict reactions from their colleagues to their action plan and think of strategies to make best use of positive reactions and to deal with resistance.

Tool 23: Listening and summarising

Summary

Listening is a crucial skill for a trainer. A trainer needs the ability to listen carefully and creatively, picking out positive aspects and problems, difficulties and tensions. S/he also needs to stimulate participants to listen carefully and attentively. Obeying a few basic rules helps to make a trainer a careful listener.

Objective

- To make participants aware of how they listen.
- To realise the importance of summarising what a discussion partner says.
- To be able to provide feedback in a constructive manner.

Procedure

Facilitate a brainstorm about what constitutes 'careful listening', and note any criteria on a flipchart.

Explain the procedure of the debate about a thesis and divide the group into four small groups. Group 1 defends the thesis, Group 2 attacks the thesis, Group 3 observes Group 1 and Group 4 observes Group 2.

During a preparation stage, Groups 1 and 2 (separately) draw up their arguments while Groups 3 and 4 (separately) prepare an observation checklist.

Allow 10 minutes for Groups 1 and 2 to discuss the thesis together, while Groups 3 and 4 observe the discussion.

After the debate ask members of Groups 1 and 2 what they experienced. Did they feel they were listened to? Did they listen to other debaters. Do they feel the discussion was useful. If so, why? If not, why not?

Ask members of Groups 3 and 4 to inform the others about the points on their checklist and to give feedback to Groups 1 and 2.

Summarise the discussion by listing some key lessons learned.

Tool 24: Asking good questions, getting useful answers

Summary

Questioning, written or oral, is an important tool for a facilitator. It can help to discover the perceptions of trainees and to help trainees reflect on experiences. People's learning is very much influenced by the questions they are posed. Open questions are usually more challenging and invite more reflection than closed question. Leading questions will probably provide an answer that the trainer wants to hear, rather than an answer the trainee has made up him/herself through reflection. Probing questions require trainees to give further thought to an issue. The sequence in which questions are asked also influences learning. It is therefore worthwhile to take a closer look at questions and the impact they have.

Objectives

- To realise how the way questions are posed influences learning.
- To practice developing questions which invite others to reflect meaningfully.

Procedure

Start by posing a number of leading questions, such as: Who had a nice weekend? You are not feeling very happy about this session, are you? You know the difference between leading and closed questions, don't you?

Make a mental note of the reactions of the participants. Ask them how they felt about answering the questions. whereby you may also ask them to explain some of the reactions you noted.

Summarise the feelings and reactions by jotting them down in key words on the blackboard. Ask participants in discuss with their neighbour to think about how these feelings and reactions could have been prevented.

Facilitate a plenary discussion and summarise ideas for improvement on the board or a flipchart.

Organise work on the task assignments and allow for sufficient time to discuss the task assignments.

Task assignment 1


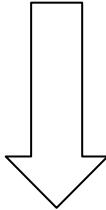
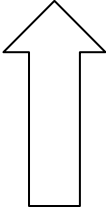
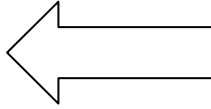
Indicate for each of the questions below what type of answer you may expect and how the question could be reformulated to get a more useful answer.

Leading/closed questions	Open-ended questions for probing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I suppose you are not satisfied with the management of your water supplies? ▪ Don't you think the quality of this water is poor? ▪ Because the water source is not protected, right? ▪ By lack of maintenance" you mean that the maintenance worker is too lazy? ▪ Don't you think that paying him a monthly allowance will solve the problem? 	

Task assignment 2

This exercise will be done in pairs. Take a close look at the box below, discuss it with your neighbour and develop a list of questions inviting someone to reflect on a recent experience. Look for another couple and have one person of each couple talk to each other, while the others observe the conversation by looking at the following: Are the questions posed open or closed? What effect did it have on the answers? Did the interviewer listen actively? Did the sequence of questions invite the interviewee to go from reporting about the experience to reflecting about its impact on future actions.

Reflection can be facilitated by structuring a discussion using a sequence of so called objective, reflective, interpretative and decisional questions' as in the box below. These questions try to stimulate learning and change from an experience.

<p>Objective questions to draw out experiences about the training event:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What happened during the exercise? ▪ What did you observe? 	<p>Reflective questions ask for emotions, feelings and associations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What did you think? ▪ How do you feel about it? 
<p>Decisional questions requires that participants decide on necessary change and action:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Do you want to do something now that you learned this? ▪ What type of action would be required? ▪ Can you do it? 	<p>Interpretative questions help participants consider the meaning and value of the training event:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What does this mean for your work? ▪ Should this be the case or not? 

Tool 25: Observation, an art in itself

Summary

Careful observation of non-verbal communication provides a wealth of information about a learning process and a trainer can act on their observations to improve the learning process. However, a trainer will first need to check their interpretation of their observations. They may be totally wrong, leading to the wrong corrective action! Observation can be done in a structured or unstructured way.

Objective

- To become sensitive to non-verbal signs of communication.
- To realise that interpretation of non-verbal signs of communication often needs cross checking before action is undertaken.

Procedure

Describe the purpose of the session on observation.

Select or develop the appropriate task assignment.

Ask participants to read the task assignment and allow some time for discussion and to answer queries.

Arrange the conditions for the task assignment. For example, if group dynamics of a group discussion are to be observed, arrange a setting where a number of participants take part in the discussion and others observe.

Ask participants to carry out the task assignment.

Facilitate a discussion about the observations and ensure that the major lessons are summarised.

Task assignment 1: Observation of group dynamics: Non-verbal language

Observe the interaction between the participants carefully and observe the non verbal messages that group members (knowingly or unknowingly) send to each other and how these influence the group process. Record what you saw in the diagram (observation), what you think the message was (interpretation), and how participants reacted (effect observed).

Observation:

- Amongst the non-verbal behaviour you observe, you can describe:
- Nodding, looking, or not –looking, at someone when talking or listening, looking away from someone, facial expressions such as smiles or frowns, gestures with the hands.
- Position of the body, erect or bent, turned towards or away from the speaker or audience, hand under chin, legs crossed, etc.
- Sounds and utterances other than words or sentences.

Interpretations:

Describe the message you received from the non-verbal behaviour. Non-verbal messages may indicate all sorts of things, but especially may reveal feelings, emotions, relations of and between participants. An observation may suggest (amongst other things) that someone feels relaxed or tense, may express friendship or hostility, show whether a person is really interested in another person and what s/he says, express agreement or disagreement or expressing dominance or sub-ordination.

Effect:

Describe the effect of non-verbal messages on the verbal communication. Examples might be that someone stops halfway a sentence after seeing the expression on the face of a group member, or someone else suddenly gains the floor to express his/her views after making gestures.

Participant	Observation	Interpretation	Effect

Tool 26: Lecturing

Summary

A lecture is a relatively straightforward presentation of information by a specialist and is useful when trainees have indicated an interest in knowing more about a certain topic. Lectures usually only make up part of a training session and are combined with audio-visuals (like video), small demonstrations or task assignments, which provide added learning value to a lecture.

Delivering a lecture that impresses the audience seems to be 'an art', 'a gift' or 'magical' to most of us. But it is not magic. To become an effective lecturer you simply need to know and believe in your subject, plan carefully and be yourself.

Objective

- To help deliver an effective lecture.

Procedure

Describe a clear purpose and learning objectives for the lecture. Objectives for a lecture are usually formulated in terms of awareness and knowledge.

Describe how the lecture links with other learning activities in the training session.

Identify the contents of the lecture and list the main issues and concepts to be addressed.

Shape the lecture by using a format, such as the one below, in which the main issues and concepts are listed in the right order and that also allows for a description of the introduction and the conclusion of the lecture.

Allocate time to each of the parts of the lecture.

Prepare audio-visual aids, such as flipcharts and overhead sheets, with key words that help trainees to keep track of what is being said.

Deliver the lecture.

Reflect on the lecture (in the context of the entire training session) and try to answer the question whether it achieved its objectives and if not, how the lecture should be adapted next time.

Examples of alternative structures for lectures:

- Problem centred structure: starts with a problem statement and leads the participant through various stages of the problem solving process. Typically analysis, define issues or criteria involved, present/discuss various possible solutions, draw conclusions.
- Comparative structure: two or more systems, points of view, opinions are compared.
- Rule/ example or Example/ rule structure: either start with the statement of a general principle and then address real life examples or applications, or look at specific cases or examples and develop a rule or principle with participants based on findings.
- Present a classification or network of inter-related issues, subjects, concepts and underlying factors - use this as a basis for discussions and developing understanding.

Hint

A lecture does not stand alone

A lecture is usually only part of a training session. Whereas the objectives of a lecture may be awareness raising and knowledge oriented, the objectives of the entire training session can be behaviour oriented. When combined with other types of learning experiences knowledge provided through a lecture may be internalised and lead to behavioural change. However, too often a lecture, i.e. providing knowledge, is considered to be sufficient on its own.

Basic structure of a 15 minute lecture

<p>Tell them what you will tell them</p> <p>Introduction to the topic, explaining how the lecture will be structured</p> <p>2 minutes</p>	<p>Tell them</p> <p>Three main topics. Here the statements are made and explained</p> <p>12 minutes, 4 per topic</p>	<p>Tell them what you've told them</p> <p>Summary and conclusion of what has been discussed and, if applicable, announcement of what is expected next time</p> <p>1 minute</p>
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Tips to help you present a lecture:

- Use conversational language, simple words and phrases, do not embellish statements.
- Speak clearly and do not speak fast or softly, but vary your volume and intonation to stress points.
- Stand upright, open and at ease. Avoid recurrent unconscious movements (ask someone else to tell you nicely what they are!) Change your position and use gestures to emphasise points or explain information.
- Maintain eye contact with participants. Do not look at your papers or write on the board when you are conveying essential information. Try to be aware of and act on non verbal messages relayed by the participants. They may indicate your are going too fast, speaking too softly or that you have lost your audience and need to reformulate a point.
- Respond to initiatives from participants, but lead 'off the road' irrelevant questions and points back to the central theme.
- Write your central concepts and key points on a board or flipchart. This becomes an external memory and prompt. Participants must know the session structure and where you are at all times.

Tool 27: Developing a case study

Summary

As we have seen earlier, the use of a case study can be very powerful at any point in a training programme. At the diagnosis phase it can help to get a view of participants' experience and perceptions. A case study, worked on in small groups, can also provide trainees with an opportunity to share experiences and to learn from each other.

Objective

- To learn how to develop a case study as a tool to assess trainees' attitudes and knowledge levels.

Procedure

Define the learning objectives of the case study. Is it meant to help participants further develop their analytical and problem solving skills, ensure an exchange of ideas between participants or to highlight current perceptions and practices?

Determine how key lessons from the case will be linked to other sessions or key concepts in the training.

Determine whether the same case can be used in different sessions with different learning objectives.

Describe the case, thinking about how complex the information needs to be to convey key messages and whether quantitative data adds to learning and understanding.

Define the group assignment, describing the group task in clear terms and including questions that focus the analysis and encourage lateral thinking. Indicate

clearly how much time is available and how feedback will be presented in a plenary session.

Organise pre-testing of the case, for example by asking a colleague to quickly run through the exercise.

Plan the facilitation carefully, paying special attention to questions used to stimulate analysis, and the composition of groups for the assignment.

Ensure that analysis of the case and drawing out the lessons is followed by a problem solving or action planning task.

Tips for the description of a case

The case needs to relate closely to the real life situations of the participants. They should be able to recognise the situation and quickly settle down to the task. Include typical data that would usually be available in the case situation or is necessary to enable a valid analysis. Consider novel ways of presenting or describing the case to participants, for example, on audio or video cassettes? Do *not* include an interpretation of what happened, and do not present the data in such a way that only one conclusion can be drawn.

The learning effect varies with the type of case study. Generally case studies are particularly useful to:

- Develop insight into future work situations.
- Convey information that is outside the experience of the participants.
- Strengthen the diagnostic and problem solving skills of the participants.
- Develop insight into long term processes and the effects of such process as projects, technology transfers, capacity building or innovations.

Tool 28: Organising excursions

Summary

An excursion is primarily a learning event, but usually serves two purposes. On the one hand an excursion can be a welcome break from classroom activities. On the other hand it offers the opportunity to discuss or add to what has been dealt with in class through a real life situation, with experienced persons. An excursion requires careful planning and preparatory work by participants as well as by the excursion organisers and those who will receive the group.

Objectives

- To provide participants with an opportunity to validate in a real life situation what has been dealt with in class.
- To provide participants with a source of inspiration.

Procedure

Define the purpose of the excursion.

Make a list of potential destinations.

Decide where to go on the basis of criteria such as the learning potential, ease of logistical arrangements, potential for adding recreational activities.

List preparatory activities for the participants to maximise the impact of the excursion.

Inform the participants about the excursion, its purpose and the preparatory work.

Make the (logistical) arrangements, including a discussion with the institution you intend to visit.

Allow participants time for the preparatory work.

Ensure that the actual excursion runs smoothly and that its purpose is achieved.

Facilitate a discussion with the participants after the excursion (perhaps at a later date) to reflect on what they saw and learned.

Tool 29: Role plays

Summary

Role play encourages participants to approach an issue from a different perspective, adopting the role of another person in a different situation. By adopting and acting out other roles participants not only get a better understanding of other people's positions, but identify their own bias or misconceptions. Role plays offer good opportunities for discussing information, but also for giving feedback about behaviour discussed earlier in the training, such as behaviour related to listening, observation and asking questions.

Objectives

- To develop insight into the nature of simulated 'real life' roles and to increase self awareness.
- To explore an issue or problem from the perspective of people who cannot be present.
- To develop flexibility and understanding about the views of other people.
- To identify any bias in one's own attitudes and their relevance to others.
- To practice communication skills.

Procedure

Introduce the subject and learning objectives.

Describe the setting of the role play and explain the procedure and group tasks.

Assign roles and ask some participants to act as observers.

Give role players the opportunity to feel their way into their roles by simply letting them discuss the general situation in their roles and encourage them to take on the character they have been given.

At the same time ask observers to prepare by listing points they will look out for, if necessary, dividing the tasks between themselves.

Conduct the role play, encouraging participants to give full expression to their roles. With some degree of overacting this can be highly entertaining for the participants and the observers, while still making all the points.

It is important at the end of the role play to consciously 'de-role', so you defuse, for example, tensions that arose between people who were angry with each other in the role play.

Facilitate a feedback session, whereby role players as well as observers reflect on what happened in their roles and this differed from their real life experiences. For example: How were the problems perceived differently?

How did the behaviour of the players differ from their behaviour as professionals?

Did all characters get an equal opportunity to present their opinions?

How could they adapt their work to account for the needs of the roles they just played?

Formulate key lessons from the discussion.

Tips to make a role play successful

- Each role should include a description of the individual's concerns and priorities of the individual to be portrayed. This description may include tips to the participants on how to play the role, for example if someone is a "poor woman" she may be instructed to speak only when spoken to.
- As it is important the different roles being played are realistic it often helps to base them on an experienced conflict situation.
- Within their roles role players may be asked specific questions or asked to discuss specific issues. In this way topics addressed in the course can be analysed from different perspectives. Role players should play seriously and sincerely.
- Observers should give feedback about the role played, not about the player.

Example

Conflicting interests related to water use and management

The role play below was designed carefully: a map was drawn of the fictional village, houses and house numbers were marked. A key element was the mapping of a piped water system (in this case two small unconnected systems) and the identification of realistic problems with the system. The role play was designed so that everyone could contribute what s/he could realistically know. In the example the older head mechanic knows a lot, but doesn't like to talk. The role play provides various examples of conflicts related to water in a community. Through active participation in the role play the participants get a good understanding of different issues that may lead to conflict. Analysis of the role play enables participants to reflect on these issues and to be prepared to face similar disputes in real life.

Setting the Scene

Detailed briefings were prepared.

- The briefing for community members provided details on the terrain, local economy, typical problems and local culture – it also listed the characters involved in the meeting.
- The agency staff briefing provided information on the village in less detail, identified two key people who would be at the meeting and gave a brief description of the water system.
- The briefing for observers outlined their role and gave clear instructions that they should not comment or intervene.

Instructions

- Participants were each asked to play the role of different people in an imaginary situation, ideally involving a wide range of likely stakeholders.
- Each participant selected a character card, –stating the name or position of a character on one side and character specific information on the flip-side. This information may relate to personal issues, specific knowledge or characteristics of the individual.

During the role play

Observers and agency staff were asked to go to a separate room to prepare for the role play.

- The observers' role was to observe the process, the problems that were being raised, the follow up, which members of the community were being questioned, how the questions were asked, etc. By taking note of the process they would be able to make valuable comments from insights that those involved in the role play would not have.
- The agency staff had been invited to a community meeting by the village to discuss problems related to water supply and look at options to overcome them.

The remainder of participants (all the community members) remained in the training room. A map of the village without hills or the water supply system information was given to the community members.

- In order to take on their roles participants from the community were asked to discuss for ten minutes the types of problems they had from the perspective of their characters.
- This discussion before the agency staff arrived proved crucial to enable participants to really take on board the roles. It also enabled them to identify key problems to present to the agency staff.

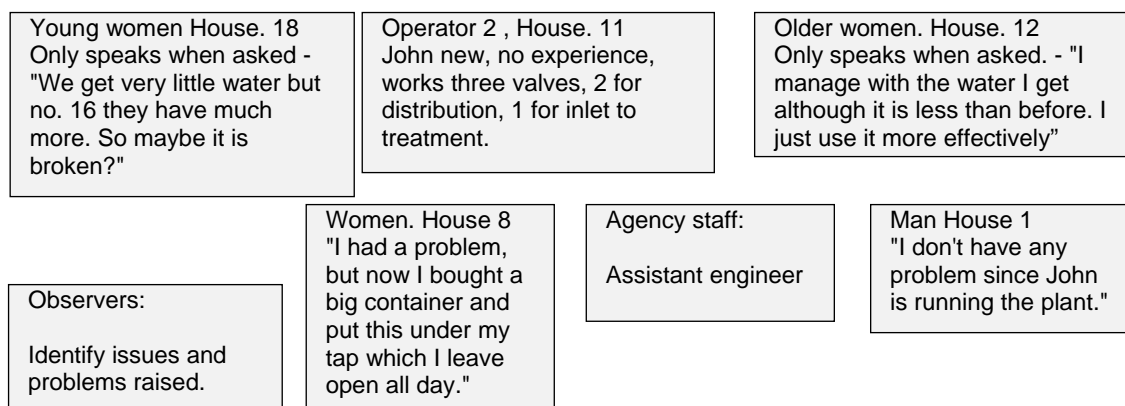
The agency staff were invited into the meeting and were shown the map.

- Participants took on their roles and discussions continued. Agency staff asked questions and queried responses to see how they could help.
- The meeting took about 20 minutes, giving agency staff time to question the community members.
- After the meeting agency staff were asked to summarise their findings and to suggest follow up.

Characters and their roles

- Two participants were asked to play the role of agency staff.
- Two participants were asked to be observers.
- Other participants played members of the community.
 - Man House 1: "I don't have any problems as John is running the plant."
 - Man House 6: "We don't get water so I stopped paying my tariff"
 - Women House 8: "I had a problem but now I bought a big container and put it under my tap, so I can leave the tap open all day."
 - Operator 2 (John) House 11: Three months on the job. No previous experience. Took over without much introduction. Operates 3 valves, 2 for distribution, 1 for inlet to the treatment plant.
 - Older women House 12: She only speaks when asked. "I manage with the water I get although it is less than before. I just use it more effectively. I waste less and re-use water".
 - Younger women House 18: Only speaks when asked. "We get very little water but in number 16 they have much more. So maybe it is broken?"
 - Chairman water committee House 21: "We are very concerned and think that the system is very old. It is 10 years old. We think the government should help us to build a new system. Some people already don't want to pay the tariffs."
 - Main operator House 22: Has years of experience. S/he knows that there is sometimes air in the pipeline between houses 16 and 17. "I do want to help new operators if they ask me and acknowledge my experience, and compensate me for my inputs." S/he only speaks when asked. S/he can provide detailed information on scheme and knows that the source is gradually providing less water due to deforestation.
 - Man House 23: He likes to talk and stresses that there is no problem. He has water all the time.

Some of the character cards:



Discussion & analysis of the exercise

After the role play different groups (complete group, observers, agency staff and community members) were separately asked a series of questions, (see table below).

Questions posed to different groups of participants

To group:	To observers:	To agency staff:	To community members:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What is your first impression of the role play? ▪ What was good about the role play? ▪ What were the difficulties? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What surprised you during the role play/ ▪ How did you think the agency staff interacted with the community members? ▪ How could they improve their approach? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What was easy to discuss? ▪ What was difficult? ▪ What would you like to improve? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ How did you think you were solving the problems as a group? ▪ How did the agency support you in solving your problems? ▪ How could the agency staff improve their approach? ▪ How could you as a group improve your problem solving capacity?

Tool 30: Games for learning

Summary

Games as learning techniques are characterised by the creation of a fictitious situation, in which the participants get involved, act and react, create and play within the limits set by the rules of the game. While the role play is used mainly to develop insights into the nature of real life roles, in educational games the roles and rules exist to create an attractive and challenging situation that facilitates learning. In this case it is not the nature of the role itself we are interested in, but the content of the discussions generated by the game. People can be very active and creative in these kind of games and the attention of the participants remains very high. Participants can digest newly acquired knowledge by playing a game in which they have to use this knowledge. By participating in educational games participants also develop skills like explaining and defending a point of view, and interpreting and evaluating information.

Objectives

- To ensure that participants remember key issues.
- To grab the attention of participants.
- To revitalise participants through activity.
- To make complex information and ideas more easily digestible.
- To help participants develop specific skills, such as analytical and presentation skills.

Function of games

Each type of game has its own educational function (depending the mode and context of application). Some games have a very specific and restricted function (e.g. games specifically designed to activate the participants). Others may be used to realise various functions such as:

- To facilitate the process of getting acquainted (e.g. the postman).
- To facilitate an exchange of views or the diagnosis of participants' working practices.
- To increase motivation or concentration.
- To introduce new information.
- To deepen and integrate new knowledge, insights and to develop opinions and attitudes (e.g. 'the court of justice', a debate).
- To develop skills such interpreting non verbal communication
- To facilitate the maintenance of a good group climate and create opportunities for non-obtrusive interpersonal feedback.

Procedure

Define the topic and the objective the game should contribute to, taking into account the potential players.

Select the game that is most appropriate to develop the topic and will best realise the objectives for these participants

Introduce the topic and the objectives of the session so that participants know what they are expected to learn from the game and become motivated.

Explain the procedure of the game, taking into account the time available.

Create conditions for playing the game and play the game.

Facilitate the discussion by asking various types of questions such as:

What did we hear? What did we see? What did we feel? What did we read or present? What happened?

What is its meaning? What does it tell us?

What do we think about what we have seen, heard or felt?

Does this occur in your situation too? Can you apply this in your work environment?

What conclusions can be drawn? What can we learn from these experiences?

The development of a game

First answer the following questions: What is the objective? What effect do we want the game to develop? Do we want to facilitate the development of a good learning climate? To develop co-operation skills? To promote the integration of earlier learning? Clarifying the purpose may be half the work. It is also important to have a good picture of the participants involved in the game.

Brainstorm and make a list of cultural practices, children's games and round games that are common in the country or region. For more complex games brainstorm on practices in social institutions, cultural uses or codes (e.g. a tea ceremony), and other well known customs in society. Such situations may provide an excellent basis for a game.

Assess for each of the games on your list whether you can use this game or situation for the purpose you have in mind. Which situation is most appropriate for reaching the objective with these participants?

Define the rules of the game, selecting from the real situation or game only those roles and rules necessary. Define the different roles. All the rules and roles should be very clearly defined.

Prepare materials for the game, such as papers, cards, symbols, etc.

Finally the game should be played at least once to test whether it works and to iron out any difficulties.

Example

With a little bit of creativity trainers can make their session plan a lot more attractive by slight changes to their technique and adding a game to their session plan.

Some examples of games

A game that is very common among children all over the world is called hop-scotch in the UK, panya in Kenya, ghoi in Nepal, and chulu-dzara in Zimbabwe. It has other names in other countries. It can be played to get participants involved in a new topic and/or to let them discover or discuss some new information, or to structure existing information, in a pleasant way. (How? How do you play hop scotch to discuss new information? "Hop, hop. I've fallen over." "Seeing the blood spurt out of your knee like that reminds me of a very interesting tube well, I once saw." "Oh good, tell me about it, while I bandage up my knee." I do not get it. Peter)

To make people feel relaxed and more confident a game like the Postman (See Tool 8) can be played. In this case, it is not the content that is important so much as the effect that playing the game has on the group atmosphere and the feelings of the individual participants and their ability to relax or concentrate etc.

Tool 31: Micro-teaching

Summary

As we have seen, gaining new experiences is a very important element of the adult learning cycle. It is therefore important to provide participants with an opportunity to gain experience by practising newly acquired skills or making use of new knowledge. Organising micro teaching sessions that are followed by some time for reflection and feedback will prove very useful. Micro-teaching can facilitate a discussion on a certain topic, delivering a small lecture or helping students learn from an experience such as a role play or a puzzle.

Objective

- To practice working with newly acquired knowledge and skills. To practice giving feedback in a constructive manner.

Procedure

Explain the purpose of micro

teaching and agree on its duration, timing, topics and the 'teachers'.

Allow the 'teachers' sufficient time to prepare for the session, for which they may use the format given in section 6.3. They can prepare to deliver material about issues such as forming a water committee, the importance of capacity building or training the caretaker.

Facilitate a brainstorm on points for observation and feedback to the 'teachers'.

Once a micro-teaching session is about to start, ask at least two people to ask at least two participants to act as observer rather than 'student'.

Hold the 'teaching' session.

Facilitate the feedback session by first asking the 'teachers' about the experience, how s/he felt about it and what s/he would do differently a next time. Then ask the "students" and lastly the observers. Ensure an open atmosphere, in which criticism is voiced in a constructive manner.

Depending on the number of micro teaching sessions this could take a full day.

Task assignment for observers:

Observation of a micro teaching sessions

You will observe some of your colleagues practicing to moderate a teaching session:.

Observe:

- The 'students'. Are they really involved? What is their contribution to the learning process?
- The 'teacher': What is his/her role and contributions? How does s/he interaction.

In addition the following questions may assist you to systematically assess the sessions and to prepare your feedback to the participants who prepared and implemented this session:

- Did you discover a certain *learning philosophy* in the set up of the session?
- Did the session have a clear *structure*? Were the different parts well related and balanced?
- Were the subject or problem and the *learning objectives* clear from the start?
- Were participants *motivated*? How? Was the importance of the subject clarified at the start of the session?
- Were *learning procedures* clear to you at all times?
- Were *learning techniques* adequately selected and applied?
- Were participants *actively involved* in the learning process? How?
- Could *participants contribute* directly from their own knowledge and experiences?
- Did the trainer *interact* adequately with the training group?
- Was *the timing* adequate?
- Were learning results *summarised*? Was *evaluation* built in?

Was it in your opinion an attractive, effective and stimulating learning experience? If yes, why? If no, why not?

Preparing for training

Tool 32: Needs assessment

Summary

For training to be useful it needs to address the learning needs of the group. Before developing training or starting a session it is important to find out what these learning needs are. To end up with training focused on job related learning needs, a needs assessment should include a job analysis and an analysis of existing capacities or performance. When these are compared the trainer can identify gaps that can be filled in the training.

Objective

To identify the learning needs of a group of participants to obtain a basis for training or session development.

Task

The Chief Training Officer (CTO) of the Ministry of Agriculture invited you to attend a meeting. The objective of the meeting is to analyse the jobs and tasks of managers and assistant managers of Farmer Training Centres. In order to do this you will need to define the knowledge, attitudes and skills required for each position and task.

Procedure

Split participants into groups of 5 or 6 people Ask each group to prepare an analysis of what needs to be done to complete one of two jobs whose description they are given, using the procedure described below. Allow participants to use alternative approaches if they choose. For effective training needs analysis it is often essential to involve those with 'hard' experience in assessing needs. In real life situations a mixture of focused group discussions and interviews is often used. This example assumes that individuals will be interviewed.

Procedure for Job Analysis

In groups brainstorm on the tasks involved in the two jobs. What are important components of the two jobs.

Prioritise the tasks for each job.

Select one vital task such as organising the demonstration of an innovative farming method.

List all the components/steps of this task that is everything one has to do to perform this task properly. Define what the person should know in order to perform this task to an acceptable standard or level.

Critical incident analysis (performance interview)

Invite a participant from the other group who is familiar with the specific task you analysed.

Interview him/her about his/her recent experiences in performing this task. This should include specific queries with respect to that specific task, such as abilities required, personal shortcomings in relation to the task or problems encountered, amount of work involved, resources needed, and so forth.

Tell the interviewee in advance that you are especially interested in concrete examples of experience when implementing this task, especially incidents that reveal what strongly influences failure or success. They should also define what they mean by failure and success in this task. Such incidents are often termed 'critical incidents' as they reveal not only the extent to which an individual can influence and control the task, but also the likely critical weaknesses and strengths associated with the task.

Following the interview, the interviewers and interviewee should analyse the information together. Questions they should ask themselves include:

- How does such a needs analysis enhance insight into the job requirements?
- What did we learn about the institutional support required for these positions?
- What implications does this have for the scope of training that may be needed for people in these positions?

Tool 33: Developing a training strategy

Summary

As explained in Part I there are a clear relations and distinctions between a training strategy, a training plan, a training programme and a training session. Training strategy development requires an organisation to have a clear vision and mission. This helps when developing a strategy, and subsequently a training plan and training programmes that suit the needs of the organisation and ultimately help to ensure that trainees can put into practice what they learned. However, before the strategy can be developed, there is a need for insight into the training needs of the water sector. A strategy can be developed for different levels. Field workers may also be involved in a strategy for training community members.

Objectives

- To realise the need for a training strategy to focus training event.
- To find out how to obtain an insight into sector training needs.
- To practice the development of a training strategy.

Procedure

Ask pairs of participants to write on a flipchart what they think a training strategy is, why such a strategy is needed and the information required to develop a strategy. Ask them to present their ideas.

Facilitate a discussion about the results. Aim at a definition using common elements from the presentations (e.g. by underlining what seem to be key elements in the participants' descriptions and combining these into a definition). Make sure the definition also covers why a strategy is needed.

Jointly develop a list of information requirements.

Make sure there is a consensus about the definition and explain the task assignment given below.

Allow time for participants to do the assignment in small groups.

Ask the groups to present the results of their work and facilitate a discussion about the commonalities and differences.

Task assignment

The Chief Training Officer of the Ministry was impressed by your contributions to earlier meetings. He wants you to organise an in service training programme for district staff. In the next year at least one district engineer and two field workers from each of 50 districts need to have their skills upgraded. The aim is to prepare them for two new roles:

To link communities to support organisations

To initiate participatory action development at local level through adaptive implementation processes.

In particular these new roles will require:

- The adoption of a more participatory and problem oriented approach towards communities.
- The active stimulation of local experimentation, and adaptive testing of strategies to manage water supply systems.

The Chief Training Officer requests you to forward a training strategy indicating:

- What types of training and support activities you propose to develop.
- Why these specific activities or combinations of activities were selected.
- Where the activities will take place and who will be involved.
- When you propose to start and over what time period the training will take place.
- How you plan to evaluate the effectiveness of the training.

A needs assessment identified the most important training needs as being:

- To develop a strong awareness and positive valuation of people's traditional management systems and indigenous knowledge.
- To develop skills to apply a participatory and problem oriented approach.
- To develop communication skills.
- To foster an attitude that supports learning from community members, and promotes joint diagnosis and planning.
- To develop facilitation skills to assist community members in the design, implementation and monitoring of management experiments.

The needs assessment also revealed that:

- The job performance of district staff is strongly influenced by the lack of transport caused by maintenance problems and fuel shortages.
- There is a low level of interaction between the district engineer and the field worker.

Monitoring and evaluation

Tool 34: The mood meter

Summary

The mood meter is a rapid evaluation technique to find out whether participants found an activity useful or not. This approach can quickly give a facilitator an impression of how successful different activities and sessions have been.

Objective

- To quickly evaluate an activity, session, product or one day in a workshop.

Procedure

Draw up a list of evaluation questions with participants, such as “ How do you feel about the length of the workshop?”, “What do you think of the usefulness of the activity?”

Add to the list three faces (see below representing a happy face, a neutral face and an unhappy face.

Ask participants to put a mark against the face that best reflects how useful they found the issue that is being evaluated.

Allow participants to add oral comments if they want.

Ask for clarification to find out why particular questions of the activity or session received most and least smiley faces.

Tool 35: Using checklists

Summary

A checklist is a simple tool that can be developed for monitoring. A checklist will ensure that key issues are addressed and checked for quality.

Objective

- To enable participants to develop and use a simple checklist.

Procedure

First explain what a checklist is and the purposes it could serve. Show examples of different types of checklists.

Divide participants into groups of four to six people.

Ask each group to develop indicators for a checklist to assess the quality of a different topic such as facilitating a discussion, or a water supply system, drawing on earlier discussions and analysis. .

Ask participants to make a checklist with two columns, one for the indicators and the other for writing down how the information about the indicator will be collected, for example through observation or through interviewing.

Should participants opt for interviewing, have them also formulate review questions, taking into account what has been said about questioning in Tool 27.

Example

Checklist established by participants in relation to differing perceptions of development workers and communities related to water supply sources

Participants developed a checklist to enable them to view issues related to the use of traditional water sources and the need for improved water supplies, more from the perspective of communities. The checklist was developed after an analytical exercise about community knowledge and differing perceptions, and was intended to be used during visits to communities.

Participants divided into groups of four to six. In these groups participants wrote down issues that they considered important when observing and questioning people in a community about their water supply system. Each group was then asked to make a checklist for a specific issue, in this case:

- Catchment, source/intake,
- Treatment, storage, mainlines,
- Distribution,
- Drainage and use of water,
- Handpumps.

Checklists Developed for issue 1: Catchment, source/intake:

Things to Observe	Questions to be asked
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Physical quality of existing structures.▪ Quantity of water produced in a set time.▪ Protection measures being used at the source.▪ Contamination through other uses and cross pollution of drinking water sources.▪ Land management and conservation practices being implemented or needed for e.g. forestation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Do people consider that sufficient water is available at critical periods?▪ Are there periodic problems with quality?▪ When the system breaks down, where do people collect drinking and washing water?▪ What local understanding, beliefs and customs are there related to the water source and catchment area?

Tool 36: Letter to a friend

Summary

Some people express themselves more freely in writing than orally. This tool can be used for written evaluation of a session or an entire training programme. Because it is in the shape of a letter to a friend, it is likely to be less formal than a written evaluation using a fixed set of guiding questions.

Objective

- To have participants reflect on and put into words what they have learned and how they will benefit from it.

Procedure

Discuss with participants why it is important to take some time to reflect on what was learned from the training event and how this will be used in future.

Explain why a high value is attached to evaluation remarks by participants and why they are using the 'Letter to a friend' model.

Give the participants a sheet with some unfinished sentences (example below) and ask them to complete the letter.

When they have finished, give participants the opportunity to discuss the activity.

Example

Delft,

Dear

At the moment I am at IRC in Delft, the Netherlands and we just finished a Training of Trainers.

During this training I learned that ..

I will make best use of what I learned by

Please note

You can adjust the letter so that the participants evaluate specific areas of your concern.

Tool 37: Discussion with neighbour

Summary

A simple and informal evaluation technique to find out what the participants think about an activity and how they think it can be improved.

Objective

- To quickly evaluate an activity, session or some aspects of workshop facilitation.

Procedure

Ask the participants to turn to their neighbours and discuss three questions:

What are we doing?

How are we doing it?

How can it be improved?

Ask the pairs to report the main issues from their discussion to the plenary.

Summarise these presentations and agree areas for improvement.

Define the steps needed to bring about the improvements.

Divide up the tasks that have been agreed.

Hint

You may stimulate participants to look at the hopes and fears formulated at the beginning of the course and to asking themselves whether they came true. If so, why and if not, why not?

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