

A MANUAL AND RESOURCE BOOK FOR POPULAR PARTICIPATION TRAINING

**VOLUME THREE
A SELECTED GROUP OF TRAINING APPROACHES**



UNITED NATIONS

Department of Economic and Social Affairs

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INTRODUCTION TO THE APPROACHES

In this volume of the Manual, each of the approaches will be described in such a way as to paraphrase the statements made by its proponents. In so far as possible, the training objectives of the various approaches will be stated. Whenever any specific techniques are regularly used with a given approach, reference will be made either to the relevant chapters of the Manual or to other appropriate sources. By becoming familiar with this selection of possible approaches the reader will understand the implications for training planning and see that an approach is a core element around which training activities may be focused towards a goal.

The process of selecting the techniques that can be used with each of the approaches and of reviewing the innovative programmes that are identified with each of the approaches will also help clarify the nature of the approaches. The training needs matrix (Volume One, table 2) will serve as a guide to appropriate applications of particular approaches.

The choice of an approach is not an easy process. The trainer must continually be aware of the care with which he must integrate approaches and techniques in order to resolve his particular needs. However, as readers begin to use the Manual and to make additional contributions, the stock of information in the Manual will grow and the number of elements that can be combined will be greater. As training programmes are added or modifications noted, the Manual will become more useful in helping to develop new training activities to meet the variety of needs encountered.

There are several ways in which this volume of the Manual can be used. First, the specific examples of existing innovative programmes in Volume Two will have revealed training approaches that can then be explored in more detail in the discussions in this volume of the Manual and in the basic references provided. Secondly, an examination of the training needs matrix in combination with a review of the training approaches presented here will provide useful clues as to which approach or combination of approaches would be most likely to meet the needs of present or future programme objectives. Thirdly, the reader may find that at a certain stage in the development of a project or programme there is a need to use a sequence of approaches that will cut across all of the training goals. In this case he will have to study the different approaches to determine which sequence will be of most value.

Once it has been determined that a particular approach can be useful, the techniques in this volume of the Manual can be explored to determine how they can be adapted to the chosen approach and to the special needs of each case.

The format

A format has been devised in order to describe training approaches in such a way as to ensure a reasonable degree of standardization in the information. Since the reader is referred to reference material on each approach to provide an introduction to an in-depth exploration, no attempt has been made to go into great detail about the approaches here. However, enough description must be included to make clear the nature and utility of the approach.

Each approach is presented as a separate element of the Manual in the same way as are the examples of training programmes. This makes them easier to locate and makes the Manual more flexible for revisions and additions. The problem of how to integrate various approaches into a total training plan is necessarily one for the training planner in each case.

The format that has been devised for the entries on approaches consists of the following items:

1. Name of the approach;
2. Background, rationale and training goals or objectives of the approach;
3. How the objectives of the approach are achieved (normal training process, environment, methods etc.);
4. Specific techniques that are normally associated with the approach; and
5. A few selected references for further information (these references are not always to the definitive scientific works; they are often, rather, to works that provide detailed but nevertheless practical orientations to the approaches covered).

I. SYNECTICS: CREATIVITY TRAINING

Name of approach : Synectics: Training creative thinking (CT)

Background, rationale and training goals : Synectics is a method of stating and solving problems creatively. In many people, the source of innovative ideas may be stifled by a carefully nurtured desire to be rational. Synectics focuses on the unconscious part of the psychology of the inventive process in order to bring "irrational and emotional" elements into creativity. It is based on the premise that the creativity that is latent in most individuals can be realized when there are adequate opportunities to develop it.

"Synectics" comes from a Greek word meaning "the joining together of different, apparently unrelated, elements". Analogies flowing from free association are used to generate creative ideas in a group situation. When creativity has been developed it can be directed into systematic and productive channels. A transportation problem, for example, could be approached by considering the way in which lower animals carry things.

Synectics theory holds that:

(a) By understanding the psychological processes in innovation, people can increase their creative efficiency;

(b) The emotional, irrational component of the creative process is more important than the intellectual and the rational;

(c) These emotional, irrational elements must be understood in order to increase the probability of success in a problem-solving situation.

The synectics approach has met with success in groups of corporate executives dealing with management problems, with technicians improving production processes and in social studies and creative writing curriculae developed for young children in inner-city schools. The goal is simply to train for creative thinking.

How objectives are achieved : Problem-solving sessions are carried out in the field by interdisciplinary groups. The leader is responsible for providing direction and insuring the optimal generation, development and use of analogical material. Evocative questions are used

to elicit analogies within specific types of categories, such as "personal" or "book title". In fitting these analogies to the problem at hand (force fit) the problem is seen from a new perspective (viewpoint). The flow chart that may be used is shown in figure I.

The essence of a successful session is the creation of an atmosphere in which participants feel free to voice ideas that would seem ridiculous in a normal situation but that may be the basis of a feasible solution to a complex problem. The synectics method tries to keep the real problem in mind while considering the apparently far-fetched. The basic process can be divided into three substantive categories:

- (1) Analysis: breaking problems down into more manageable components;
- (2) Generalization: identifying patterns; and
- (3) Model seeking or analogy: identifying other examples of similar structure.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

Group facilitation skills would be useful in creating an atmosphere conducive to uninhibited discussion and in enhancing potential natural creativity in a systematic manner. Among the procedures that are often used is Crawford's procedure of listing the attributes of a person or situation (see references, below). No special materials are needed; this makes the synectics approach applicable to a wide variety of situations.

Although the approach has been tried in management and school situations, it has not been used for popular participation in the developing world. It should be easily adaptable for use in popular participation development.

Selected references :

W. Letby, "The scientific imagination", Scientific Monthly, 15 (1922), pp. 263-270.

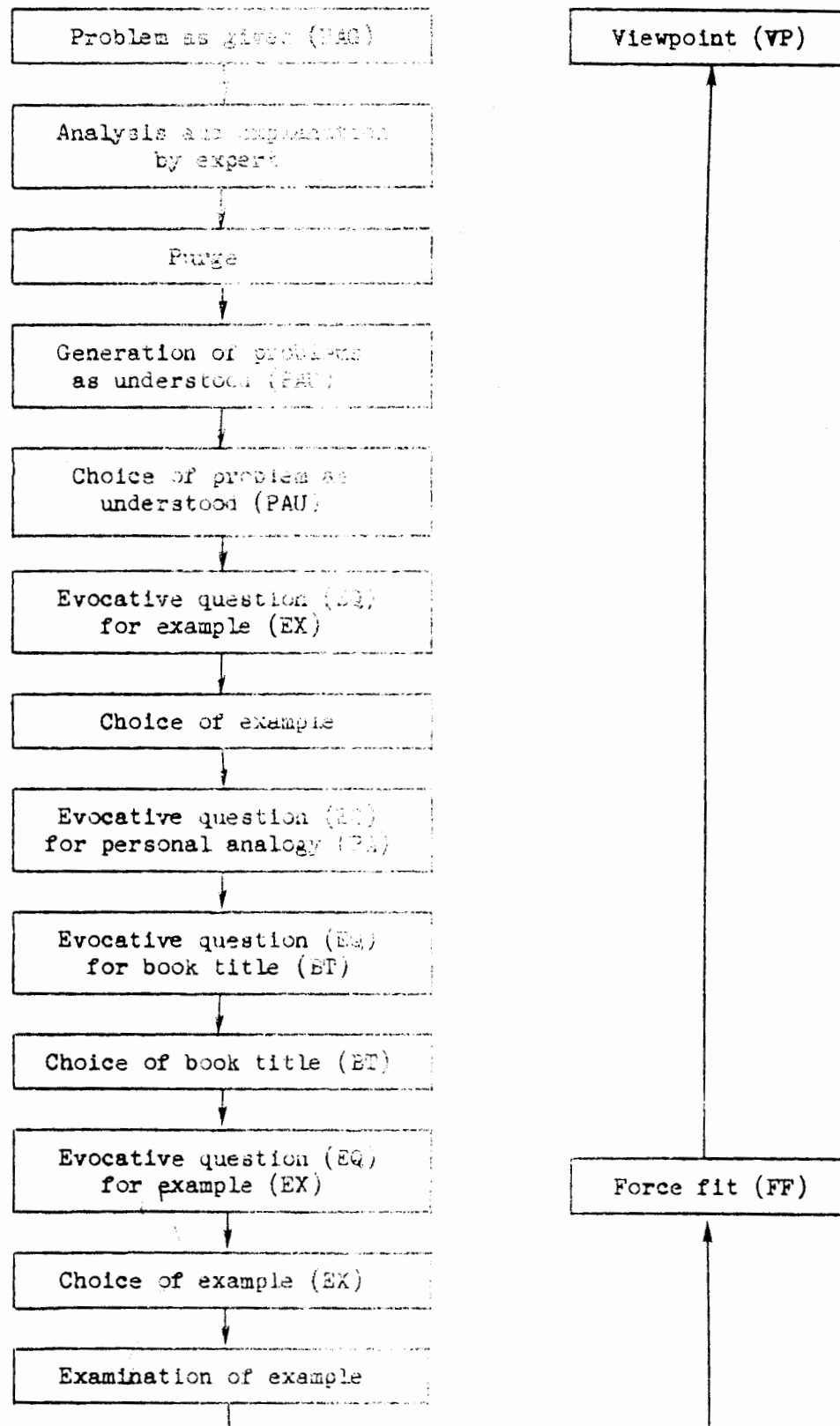
Robert P. Crawford, Techniques of Creative Thinking (New York, Hawthorn Books, 1954).

J.W. Getzels and P.W. Jackson, Creativity and Intelligence (New York, Wiley, 1962).

A.D. Davis and I.A. Scott, Training Creative Thinking (New York, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

Figure 1. Synectics flow chart

AP-I CT



Source: William J.J. Gordon, "Synectics", in Gary A. Davis and Joseph A. Scott, eds., Training Creative Thinking (New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

II. A DISCREPANCY MODEL OF TRAINING DESIGN

Name of approach : A discrepancy model of training design (DM)

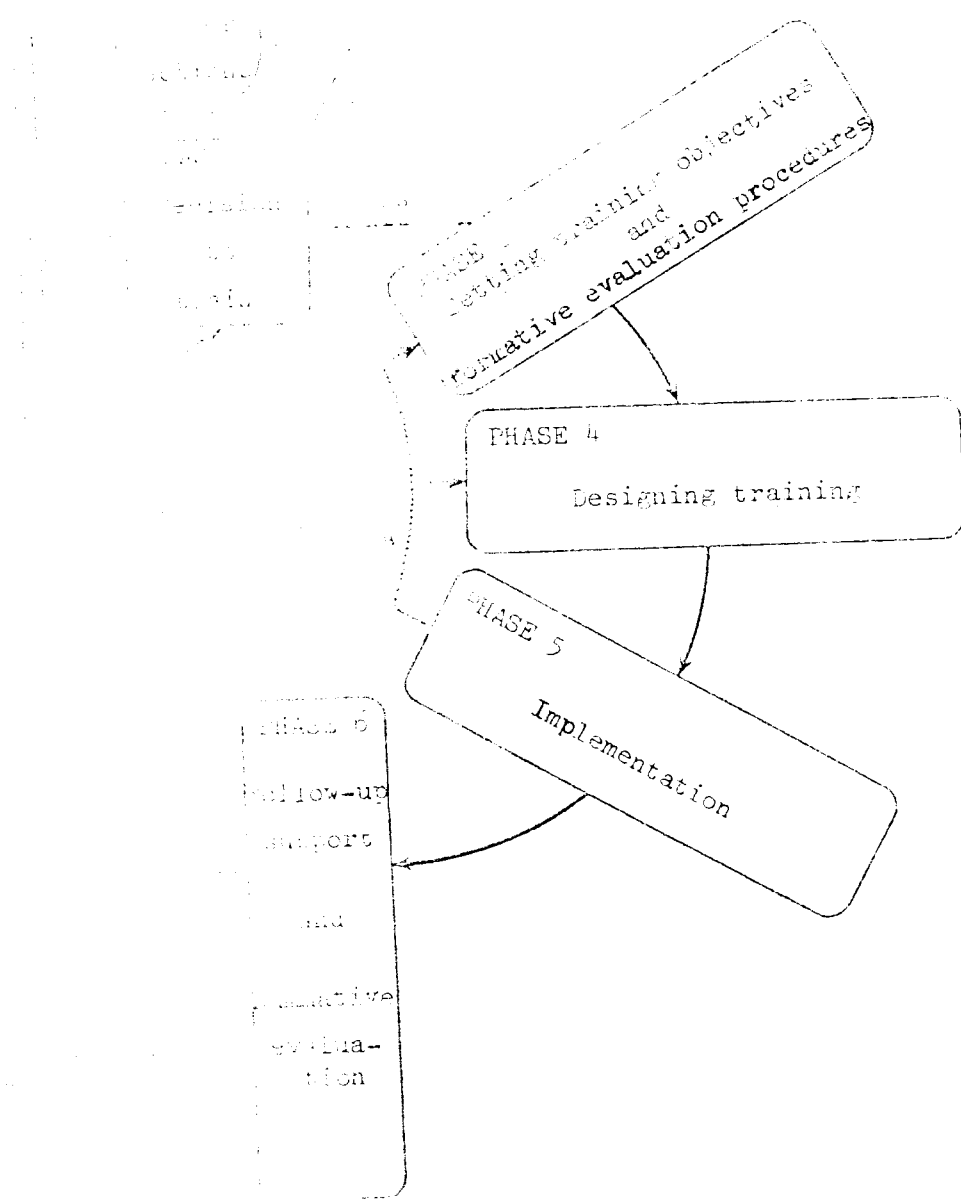
Background, rationale and training goals : The discrepancy model is the most recent and sophisticated version of the classic training approach that presents training as the means for giving people skills in such a way that these skills will match those needed for the jobs. The approach uses the most modern methods of programmed instruction and carefully developed materials; it incorporates the ideas of the importance of motivation and of developing a training climate as well as emphasizing the attitudes necessary for the learning process to take place. Its most direct presentation is in a set of volumes created by the East-West Communications Institute of the East-West Center of the University of Hawaii (see references, below).

The discrepancy model approach defines training as "learning to change the performance of people doing jobs". It divides learning into three kinds: (1) psycho-motor, that is, manipulative, (2) cognitive, that is, having the ability to recall learned materials and (3) affective, that is, concerned with attitudes, values and interests. It defines jobs as a number of tasks that people do, people as learners (almost always adults) and performances as how people behave on the job and the results they achieve.

Using these definitions as a beginning point the discrepancy model involves, in its simplest form, the determination of the skills required to accomplish a job and the means by which those skills can be imparted to the people who will do the job. The model is somewhat more complicated than this and it draws on a wide range of psychological and educational research; essentially, though, it is a circular model that feeds in both job knowledge requirements and trainees and then attempts to determine if the skills obtained and those needed match. The model is presented in figure II.

The model, which is simple and almost self-explanatory, forms the basis for a detailed training approach. The job analysis in phase 1 is broken down into tasks; complete procedures for conducting the analyses and samples of the forms on which they may be reported are available. The end result of this phase is a clear statement of the skills that are necessary for the analysed jobs.

Figure 1. A model of training design



Adapted from G. K. Brown and John Middleton, Helping People Learn: A Guide for Trainers, Honolulu, Hawaii, East-West Communications Institute, 1970.

In phase 2, the decision to train is treated as an analytical factor because not all discrepancies in job performance are due to lack of training.

The task of setting training objectives, in phase 3, includes the task of establishing simple clear standard behavioural objectives; it also includes the task of establishing procedures, called "formative evaluation procedures", that ensure that the stated objectives will be measurable.

In phase 4, designing the training involves planning a series of five learning steps: (1) perceived purpose, (2) graduated sequence, (3) individual differentiation, (4) appropriate practice and (5) knowledge of results. These steps are combined with a series of teaching-learning devices, such as audio-visual aids, field visits, role playing and other activities in order to vitalize the learning process. In addition, a process of lesson planning has been developed in a simple, clear, comprehensive and innovative manner.

The fifth phase, implementing the training, is concerned both with developing a climate conducive to training and with making formative evaluations of preceding phases. This phase assumes appropriate planning of the previous phase and makes suggestions for developing the climate of learning and for providing positive support for the trainee in the learning process.

Follow-up support, in phase 6, involves continuing communication with the trainee, additional training and assistance, if necessary, in transferring the skills he has learned to the job situation. Summative evaluation is an analysis of the results of the training in terms of the job performance discrepancies that were originally determined. In this way the model comes full circle to the problem of job analysis and training decisions.

How objectives are achieved

:

Each training programme using this model has three manuals. One is a "Module manager's guide", one a "Module text" and one a workbook or "Exercise book". All three of these are programmed learning texts. The "Module manager's guide" lays out sample lesson plans, sets forth the structure of each section, including suggested activities, and provides the means to check on the progress being made. The "Module text" is also programmed; it has self-tests at the end of each small unit in which specific learning will have taken place. The "Exercise book" contains additional examples of

the materials; these can be used to reinforce skills and ensure achievement of the learning objectives. In each of the manuals, each step is clearly laid out and the forms necessary for each exercise are integrated with the substantive discussion of what is to be learned. The objective of each section and each unit are stated and the materials are at hand for the complete course. The entire system rotates around these programmed learning volumes. They train the trainer and the trainee in turn and are clear and easy to follow even under conditions in which the student and teacher have little experience. The innovation here is the simplicity and the thoroughness with which the model has been developed and the manuals structured.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

Although the programmed learning technique is the major one that is used throughout the approach, there are references to field trips, to audio-visual materials and to role playing (incidentally, there is reference to one of the manuals from which some of the techniques included in this Manual were originally derived). Therefore the trainer is assured of a modicum of effectiveness by the programmed technique yet is given the references that will allow him to use, in addition, the most innovative techniques if he so desires.

Selected references :

John Middleton and Francine Hickerson, Helping People Learn: A Module for Trainers; James Echols, People and Population; and George Beal and John Middleton, Organization, Communication and Co-ordination in Family Planning Programs. Each of these sets includes a "Module manager's guide", a "Module text" and an "Exercise book". They are published by the East-West Communications Institute of the East-West Center of the University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1974. The manuals themselves contain up-to-date references that support the approach.

III. FIELD TRAINING

Name of approach : Field training (FT)

Background, rationale and training goals : Field training is so simple that the need for careful preparation and attention to the difficult process of making it a rewarding experience is often overlooked. All too frequently, a trainee is placed in an organization or sent out in the countryside and put under the direction of a busy executive or field technician who has little knowledge of the training process or of what the trainee needs. Even though the person in charge of the trainee may be conscientious, he may not know what specific types of experiences will be an appropriate complement to the classroom training he is receiving. Alternatively, the trainee may be given a standard form or some routine task and be told merely to bring back some information or to observe what is happening and report on it. In a programme whose trainees do not come from field situations, any exposure is thought to be beneficial. This is, of course, true; however, if the supervision is not appropriate there may be negative effects as well as positive ones.

Field training for popular participation training can have an important impact on the trainee, on the people in the field and on the trainer himself if it is organized in a systematic way. The goals of field training in its broadest sense are to make the field not only a laboratory but also a reality test of the training activity. The kind and degree of goal achievement expected in any particular training programme may vary; however, there are a number of specific objectives that are normally included in a planned field training experience.

(a) The trainee should have the opportunity to develop proficiency in the particular capacities that he has learned. This is a matter not only of applying his skill but also of learning when and how to apply it.

(b) The trainee should have the opportunity to test his ability to understand the problems he will face in the future and/or to determine what experienced practitioners find to be practical obstacles to diagnosing those problems (e.g., how long does it take to get accepted so that people will tell you what their problems are or so that you can determine how they perceive their problems?).

(c) The trainee should have the opportunity to translate his general understanding and attitudes into practical actions or at least to see how this is done in real situations.

(d) The trainee should gain some practical understanding of the consequences of his actions and of the attitudes and behaviours he can expect as a result of those actions.

(e) The trainee should have the opportunity to combine his talents with those of the trainer; he should be able to bring back for joint solution new problems that arise in other aspects of his training activity and that may involve defining new problems or learning new capacities.

(f) The trainee should be encouraged to make a comparison with his own back-home situation so that he has some basis for utilizing field training as a model for future actions.

How objectives
are achieved

: Normally the training institution or the trainer makes specific arrangements with an organization or an individual to accept a trainee for a given period of time either on an internship basis or as an observer. The trainer and the field supervisor normally agree on a time period and a series of activities for the trainee or simply on the observation of the field work. Ideally, the trainee can make some contribution - ranging from lower-level assistance to some kind of academic analysis - that may be helpful to the supervisor. In any case, it must be remembered that, unless this is the place where he will return to work in the future the trainee is an outsider. The mechanical problems of timing the training, finding a field supervisor or working out a programme that will be useful to the trainee and not disrupt the work of the people in the field are often difficult. Badly handled, they can waste everybody's time.

There are a number of ways in which the trainee can be made useful:

(a) He may be able to gather data that the trainer or the trainees as a group can analyse and that when fed back to the field can help with local problems.

(b) Under the direction of the field supervisor, the trainee may carry out work that will be of assistance to his field supervisor. This may provide the trainee with the opportunity to apply his skills or to observe the way in which skills are applied in practical situations.

(c) The trainer may develop rapport with the community leadership for a period of time and develop with them some exercises or routines that will serve the community and also test the capacities of the trainee.

(d) Often trainees are asked to gather information or to prepare studies in the field that can be used for discussion in the training programme. Some of the most innovative of these are submitted to the people in the field and they are asked to react or to discuss the results with the trainees.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

There are as many possibilities for using different techniques as there are different situations. Any of the many techniques that involve gathering information or field surveys, many of the techniques that develop interviewing skills and some of the techniques that involve learning to observe and listen are excellent.

For an example of a comprehensive approach to field study as an incorporated part of a training programme, see "Community development in the Central African Empire"; the programme includes a handbook for field study (see EX-I CD). The rural development programme in Honduras also uses planned field study (see EX-VI RD) and the Philippine rural women's development programme has another kind of field work segment (see EX-VII WD).

Selected references :

There is very little material that treats the general subject of field training in any systematic way. The most useful may be:

Rolf P. Lynton and Udai Pareek, Training for Development (Homewood, Illinois, Dorsey Press, 1967), pp. 114-122.

D.C. McClelland and D.G. Winter, Motivating Economic Achievement (New York, Free Press, 1969) discusses both field work and follow-up activities.

IV. GROUP DYNAMICS

Name of approach : Group dynamics (GP)

Background, rationale and training goals : Group dynamics was probably the first aspect of human relations behaviour to receive attention by training specialists. Early studies by Kurt Lewin and others comparing autocratic and democratic behaviour generated interest in how groups function. ^{1/} The studies have been continued as a matter of scientific inquiry and because of the general dissatisfaction about the ineffectiveness of meetings. Originally, a group which evolved into the National Training Laboratory began to explore ways in which groups could be made more effective, particularly in arriving at decisions. This led to extensive research in the field of group dynamics and group process; a great deal of material has been published on these subjects. Group dynamics as an approach to training has come to be incorporated into sensitivity training, laboratory training and organization development.

The simplest definition of group dynamics as a training strategy is that it is an approach that encourages groups to arrive at the results that best combine the talents of all the members rather than simply to arrive at some lowest common denominator on which everybody can agree. To help achieve this goal a series of identifiable processes may be used to help a group make decisions that will best reflect the collective effect of its members.

The initial and basic understanding that group dynamics approaches must bring to the members includes the following elements.

(a) The group is a common and basic element through which many of the decisions that influence people and society are made.

(b) Group skills can be learned by understanding how groups function and how to participate in them effectively. By participation in an effective group, individual and group satisfactions can be obtained and the potential of groups for mobilizing social action and accomplishing goals can be enhanced.

^{1/} See, for example, Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York, Harper, 1951).

(c) Group participation does not inhibit individual growth and, in fact, group leadership skills are useful in solving personal and collective problems.

The most relevant account of the approaches and methods as well as of the limitations of group dynamics are laid out in the publications of the National Training Laboratories. Paraphrased below is a summary by Gordon L. Lippitt of some of the work done on groups over the years; it is in the form of a few statements that suggest when group decision making is appropriate. ^{2/} Lippitt suggests that the times when group decision making is appropriate are:

(a) When there is a need to deal with complex problems that will require the skills and resources of many different people in order to arrive at a decision and when the co-operation of many different persons is needed to accomplish the objectives;

(b) When the members of a group have learned to understand the nature of group processes and are able to work together effectively;

(c) When the decision-making process involves shared leadership and the elements of problem solving, group acceptance of responsibility, processes of compromise and harmonizing of views; and

(d) When group decisions are reached by a consensus that involves agreeing upon procedures that incorporate the group in determining what actions need to be taken and in making a commitment to take action steps that will be assessed later.

Following his statement of the conditions that are necessary for the use of group decision making, Lippitt then states the factors that facilitate the process of group decision making. These are:

(a) A clear definition of the problem;

(b) A clear understanding as to who has the responsibility for the decision;

(c) Effective communication for the production of ideas;

^{2/} "Improving decision making with groups", Group Development (Washington, DC, National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1961), pp. 90-91.

(d) An appropriate size for the decision-making group;

(e) A means for testing different alternatives relative to the problem;

(f) A need for building commitment to the decision that is made;

(g) Highest commitment of the leader to the process of group decision making; and

(h) A need for agreement on the procedures and methods for decision making prior to deliberation on the issue. [7]

Finally, in relation to the problem of effective group process and the need to emphasize enhancement of the role of the individual rather than his submergence in the group, Bradford and Gifford summarize the results of experimental research in group behaviour and human relations by setting down the following principles:

(a) Leaders, supervisors and administrators trained in effective human relations are more sensitive to the needs of individuals than are untrained ones;

(b) In effective group relations, the group becomes sensitive to the needs of its individual members;

(c) In effective group relations, the individual shares in the setting of the group goals that affect his own situation and in determining the methods to be used in reaching the goals;

(d) Frank expression of individual differences of opinion and of personal feelings are more easily possible in a permissive situation than in an autocratic, manipulated one;

(e) The utilization of the consensus method of decision making makes the individual important;

(f) In effective group relations, the individual is encouraged to feel independent, is delegated responsibility and authority as the group members develop trust, and is encouraged to grow as an individual.

3/ Ibid., p. 92.

(g) Group-relations research indicates that a wide range of individual contributions is needed;

(h) Individual action and responsibility are more likely to result from shared decision making than from autocratic decision making; and

(i) Leadership is a skill that is acquired, not inherited. 4/

How objectives
are achieved

:

Group dynamics training brings groups of people together under leaders who have had extensive training in the group process and who, normally, have credentials as trainers; this is because of the strong emotional as well as sensitive issues that are involved in the training. Participants are carefully screened to avoid bringing in trainees with severe emotional problems. As the training proceeds, the participants go through a series of exercises and interactive processes that attempt to give them an understanding of group processes and of the way to function effectively in them with the help of a trainer.

The trainers' or group leader's role in this process has been defined as:

(a) Helping the group decide what its purposes are for coming together and deciding on the goals it intends to reach;

(b) Helping the group to become conscious of its own process, to look at its own procedures and to increase its operating efficiency;

(c) Helping the group to become aware of all the talents and skills that are available to it within its own membership;

(d) Helping the group to develop measures for the evaluation of its activities;

(e) Helping the group to learn to accept new ideas and new members, to accept discipline in working towards objectives and to learn from and profit from failure; and

(f) Helping the group to create new tasks or subgroups and learning when to terminate them. 5/

4/ Paraphrased from Leland Bradford and Gordon L. Lippitt, "The individual counts in effective group relations", ibid., pp. 25-30.

5/ Paraphrased from George L. Lippitt, "How to get results from groups", ibid., pp. 31-36.

The process of group decision making is a complex and difficult one and there is a great deal of literature on all of the problems that individuals have in the interactions by which they learn to function as a group. Much can be learned by reviewing detailed studies of the actual development of the group process as well as the results of the research in group dynamics that has been carried on for many years.

For the purposes of this Manual, a review of the four phases summarized by Thielen and Dickerman will serve as an overview and introduction to any further study of the broad stages through which the participants pass in developing group confidence.

1. The individually centred phase. In this phase each member is concerned about himself and his role and sees the others in the group as individuals only.

2. The phase of frustration and conflict among stereotypes. This phase involves serious problems in understanding the role of leadership, the role of the other members, the rights and obligations of each and the ways in which some questions and problems will be raised so that goals can be achieved. This phase is also characterized by the search for effective communications skills.

3. The phase of attempted consolidation of group harmony. During this stage the members of the group are more interested in the capacities they have developed in understanding each other and cementing good relationships than in exercising newly learned leadership skills and focusing on the difficult issues that have to be resolved. There is a sense of individual responsibility and an increased capacity to communicate. This is the point at which the group members feel secure with each other and at which the group becomes an instrument that is capable of acting. There is still resistance to facing the problems that remain to be confronted; this resistance is caused by fear of losing the harmony and returning to the previous state of frustration.

4. The phase of self-assessment, flexible group processes and emphasis on productivity and problem solving. In this stage, the individual and group efforts are combined in the enterprise of beginning to look at the purposes of the group, the problems to be solved and the ways in which the skills and understandings developed can be brought to bear in productive effort. 6/

These phases are described in the form of an abstract generalization based on the ways in which some actual groups have been developed, as evidenced by the study of actual cases. It is not claimed that the phases always develop in sequential order or that this is the standard pattern for all groups. However, the formulation provides an important summary and an insight into the approaches and the problems of group dynamics training as it is presently practised.

The trainer is advised that prior to using the group dynamics approach he should become much better acquainted with the literature and should seek competent individuals in the field with whom to discuss the needs, problems and benefits that are inherent in it. It has, however, been used successfully in many countries when the conditions were appropriate and the preparation was adequate.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

Depending on the level of sophistication of the group involved, there is a large number of techniques that can be adapted to the needs of group dynamics. The National Training Laboratories have prepared some specific techniques, some of which are described in this Manual. Examples include: "Clear and unclear goals" (TE-III-5 AV) and "Practice in observation: Empathy" (TE-III-7 AV). In addition, for specific assistance and techniques, consult Donald J. Nylen, Robert Mitchell and Anthony Stout, Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa (Washington, DC, National Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1967).

6/ Herbert A. Thielen and Walton Dickerman, "Stereotype and the growth of groups", ibid., pp. 74-78.

Selected references :

The bibliography on the subject of group dynamics is extensive. The reader is referred to the bibliography in the Nysten, Mitchell and Stout Handbook referred to above for a particularly good selection of materials related to training problems in developing countries. In addition to Group Development (see foot-note 2, above), some of the classic works in the field are:

Chris Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York, John Wiley, 1964).

Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, eds., Group Dynamics (Evanston, Illinois, Row, Peterson, 1953).

Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1960).

Matthew Miles, Learning to Work in Groups (New York, Columbia University Teachers College, 1959).

V. LABORATORY TRAINING

Name of approach : Laboratory training (LT)

Background, rationale and training goals : Through development and experimentation, laboratory training has evolved from the general concept of human relations training; it has absorbed other influences and built on the growing volume of research on training methods. Laboratory training is carried out through group processes but it is different from sensitivity training or group dynamics.

Fundamentally its purposes are:

(a) To provide better leadership for social and organizational situations. Ideally, this leadership should be equipped to bring the behavioural sciences to bear on problem solving in real situations, using democratic methods;

(b) To develop leaders who are committed to social change and have the sensitivity to guide and direct changes in the social arrangements and the human relations that are involved in these changes; and

(c) To develop leaders who are skilled in group processes and who have a capacity for action and also a capacity to assist in the discovery and testing of new principles of human relations training.

The training approach rests on the assumptions that leaders can learn new knowledge as well as change their behaviour as a result of the training process. The training system also assumes that intensity of the training experience will ensure that the knowledge will be brought back to the home situation. This means that the trainee not only has to develop leadership and knowledge, capacity and understanding in group process, behavioural science and social change but he must also be prepared to make direct efforts to relate his learning to the specific problems that he knows he will face on returning to his home environment.

Another critical assumption behind the training approach is that research and training will be integrated in the same activity. This means that research methods will be part of the training: participants will experiment with and test hypotheses about their own behaviour, they will use scientific methods in solving problems and they will develop working relations with researchers in the laboratory.

There are a number of models of change that have been offered to describe the laboratory approach. Some models emphasize psychological dissonance, others emphasize intense feedback and others emphasize still other elements; but the earliest and probably the clearest is the original Lewin model of three-stage learning change through the unexpected behaviour of the trainer and the special training environment that is created. A schematic representation of the model is given in figure III.

It is, of course, clear that this model can be used in various ways. Prisoner-of-war camps have used the system in destructive and coercive ways. Legitimate organizations have used the method subtly to condition employees and executives over long periods of time. However, the laboratory method makes its goals explicit, its democratic intentions predominant and the voluntary nature of its experience clear. Therefore the attempt to produce intense changes in the knowledge and behaviour of people in a short time is constructive. It is also made clear that the laboratory training is designed as an educational experience, using applied social science, and that it is in no way recommended as therapeutic; it accepts only normal persons. However, it goes well beyond the normal experience of the learning of knowledge into the attitudinal and psychological dimensions of the individual, the group with which he works and the external reality he will have to face when leaving the laboratory.

The training goal is generally described as the learning of the scientific and democratic methodology of group problem solving; however, the goals of laboratory training are spelled out in more detail by the National Training Laboratory as follows:

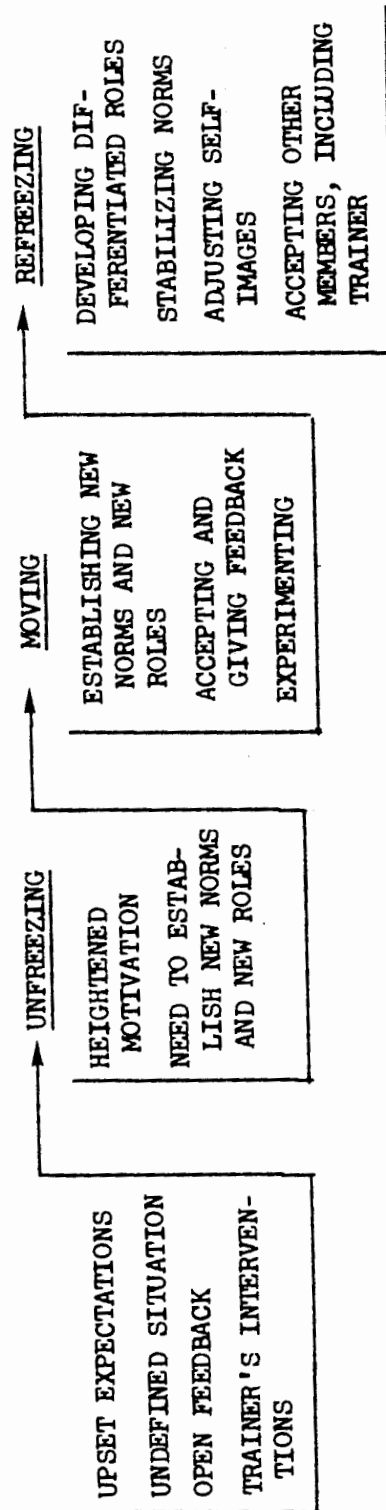
"1. Understanding of the processes of group problem solving and decision making and skill in communicating these understandings to others.

"2. Understanding of the forces determining the behaviour of members in a group and of the group as a group.

"3. Understanding of the conditions of group growth and skill in facilitating such growth.

"4. Understanding of varying concepts of leadership and authority and of the relation of these concepts to an ethic of democratic behaviour.

Figure III. A change model of laboratory training



Source: Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York, Harper, 1951).

"5. Understanding of the interrelationships between the group and the larger social environment and skill in helping to relate group action constructively to the social forces affecting it.

"6. Understanding of the interrelationships between the individual member and the group and skill in relating personal needs and purposes to group needs and purposes.

"7. Understanding of the effects of the group in influencing individual growth and learning in creating change in the larger social environment.

"8. Understanding of current theory, principles, and research results in the area of group structure and process.

"9. Understanding the use of leadership ability in practical ways and scientific methods of problem solving in everyday situations." 7/

How objectives
are achieved

: Laboratory training is carried out in groups of from 8 to 15 people who are completely isolated from the work setting. The course is usually in a block period of 15 sessions of two hours each. The training times may vary; they are held over a one- or two-week consecutive period. The training is carried out through the attempt to create a "cultural island" in which tradition, red tape, fear of failure, status problems and other impediments to change are eliminated and the forces and facilities for an individual to try to achieve the change he desires to make are maximized. There is even an attempt to create an atmosphere in which, if a person does not change, he will feel out of step; however, there is an attempt to involve him in the decisions as to what that change will be and to encourage and support it as it occurs.

Essentially, the training plan is that the trainee should become deeply involved in the training culture, that he should constructively re-think his back-home culture and, finally, that he could relate the training process to the reality which he will have to return.

In order to do this the "cultural island" is designed to involve the trainee immediately in small groups to determine goals, activities, procedures and

7/ Irving R. Weschler and Edgar M. Scheen, Five Issues in Training (Washington, DC, National Training Laboratories, 1962) pp. 1-11.

content. The trainer acts as a non-authoritarian resource person. However, he is involved in helping the trainees to collect facts, use research methods based on their own experience and create an environment of scientific objectivity. He is also available to assist the group whenever it needs his help through intervention, feedback or support in order to achieve the objectives that the group has set for itself.

As the group begins to function and the members become immersed in the training culture, there is an attempt to refocus their attention on the recognition of the individual and group skills on which they can draw. Attention is also drawn to the tensions that exist between the training culture and the job culture, to their own personal development both as group members and as individuals and to the problem-solving process. Facilities are provided for individual counselling, for scientific analysis of group relationships, for help with problem-solving techniques and for such other difficulties as the group may encounter. Finally, the focus is shifted to the problems of the back-home situation. This is done in two ways: through the assessment of the problems of change on the job and through what is termed "application training". Among the elements in application training are the following:

"1. Continuous stimulation to relate training experiences to back-home situations to encourage trainees not to separate present learning from later use.

"2. Developing a realistic picture of the difficulties of applying new learnings with people who have not shared the same training experiences.

"3. Deciding on realistic priorities, an overall strategy, and a timetable for action after the laboratory is over.

"4. Conducting individual self-assessment, with consultative help, of strengths and weaknesses for carrying out application plans.

"5. Working with others who face similar problems, both in planning and in testing plans for back-home action.

"6. Trying out in practice situations, where possible, phases of the plans for application about which the individual feels least secure.

"7. Identifying traps and mistakes that would prevent successful application.

"8. Planning for further consultation and for wise use of resources in improving the job situation." 8/

In summary, the laboratory method uses the human relations approach in an intensive way to develop a wide variety of integrated skills; this is accomplished in a relatively short time through an intensive but non-directive environment that encourages both intellectual and behavioural change on the personal, the group and the job level. However, there is as yet little scientific information on the results of this kind of training. It would appear from the data available that much work and adaptation will be necessary to accommodate training content as comprehensive as that which the National Training Laboratories aim to offer; their programme is outlined below.

(a) The Laboratory attempts to create, for purposes of analysis and practice, group situations in which the same basic factors of individual and group relations are present as in the pressing problem situations of each person back home.

(b) The learner is involved in the training situation to a point where he feels it extremely important to become an accepted member of the group and to help work out adequate solutions to the group's problems, which are also, at the moment, his problems.

(c) Scientific methods of observation, testing and analysis are provided to help the group solve its problems; to help the group and the individual members improve and grow; and to help individuals to generalize both the learnings and the methods from particular training experiences to other comparable situations.

8/ Ibid., pp. 28-29.

(d) An attempt is made to develop an atmosphere of permissiveness in which it is possible for individuals to examine their own behaviour, ideas and motives more objectively than normally and to accept help and criticism from others without defensiveness. Each individual, in effect, is helped to build a mirror in which he can better see himself.

(e) Group standards are developed which give rewards and satisfactions to an individual as he changes his actions as a member of the group from less to more group-centred behaviour. Training that preaches against the sins of autocratic behaviour, when such behaviour has rewards and satisfactions for the individual, is not likely to prove effective in altering autocratic patterns. A group that provides greater satisfactions and rewards for democratic behaviour is more likely to lead to modification of autocratic behaviour.

(f) Opportunity is provided for trainees to become aware of the problems of threat, insecurity and resistance to change present in most human relations situations and to become more aware of the need for an adequate assessment of all of the forces affecting readiness for or resistance to change.

(g) Opportunities are created for each learner to test and practise new and improved behaviours under supportive and reassuring conditions.

(h) Opportunities are given for trainees to understand the theories underlying their problems at the Laboratory and at home. This is one of the important conditions of effective transfer of learning from training to job.

(i) Opportunities are made available to help trainees analyse the component parts of their back-home problems, to plan realistically stages of possible improvement and to try out and practise first steps to be taken back home.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

The techniques of this type of training are somewhat more sophisticated than those of some other approaches presented here. The National Training Laboratories (P.O. Box 9155, Rosslyn Station, Virginia 22209) will provide a list of qualified trainers experienced in this work. Laboratory training should be done under the guidance of an experienced trainer. However, the approach uses

some of the techniques described in Volume Four of this Manual. University Associates, 7596 Eads Avenue, La Jolla, California 92037 publishes a catalogue which indicates the study and training materials that can be used for this type of training.

However, the intensity and variety of laboratory training often makes it possible to create a wide variety of problem-solving techniques. Laboratory trainers encourage groups using this approach to develop techniques based on their own experience. They also adapt training techniques from many other areas in order to create the skills and attitudes that this type of training aims to foster. Therefore the prescription of specific training techniques is less valuable in this approach than in some others. Volume Three of this Manual contains descriptions of many techniques that are not associated specifically with this approach but that have been used occasionally. The sophistication and the progress of the group will be a determining factor in the movement from standard group dynamics approaches to more creative and individually adapted techniques.

Selected references

: Rolf P. Lynton and Udal Pareek, Training for Development (Homewood, Illinois, Dorsey Press, 1967).

Irving R. Weschler and Edgar H. Schein, Five Issues in Training (Washington, DC, National Training Laboratories Learning Resources Corporation, 1962).

The above two volumes provide the sources of much of the material summarized and of many of the quotations used in this chapter.

Richard Batchelder and J.M. Hardy, Using Sensitivity Training and the Laboratory Method (New York, Associated Press, 1968).

R.R. Blake and J.S. Mouton, Personality Factors Associated with Individual Conduct in a Training Group (Austin, Human Relations Training Laboratory of the University of Texas, 1956).

L.P. Bradford, J.R. Gibb and K.D. Benne, Group Theory and the Laboratory Method (New York, Wiley, 1964).

VI. MOTIVATION TRAINING

Name of approach : Motivation training (MT)

Background, rationale and training goals : A group of psychologists, of whom David C. McClelland is best known, have been studying the problems of motivation for many years in many different countries. They noticed distinct differences between the personality characteristics of people who seem to be high achievers and others; they developed tests and methods of observation to isolate the elements that differentiate these high achievers from others. For theoretical purposes, they developed a variable called "the need to achieve" (n Ach). They used tests on individuals and on configurations of people in corporations, organizations, communities, farms and other groups in a wide variety of situations and countries.

They found, among other things, that the high achievers had a number of special characteristics. They frequently think about how to do things better. They do not necessarily respond to financial rewards. They like to take personal responsibility. They set moderate goals for themselves that are neither too easy nor extremely difficult. They like to have feedback on their progress towards their goals. They seem to investigate the environment in which they work more carefully than others do. They respond to an environmental situation in which their behaviour is rewarded and appreciated. They take greater advantage of opportunities.

McClelland amassed impressive evidence to show that entrepreneurial skills are important aspects of the development process and that persons with high achievement motivation make important contributions to development goals. Therefore he argues that the more high achievers there are, the more development there will be.

Research also indicates that the achievement skill can be learned; it provides evidence as to changes in skills that have occurred owing to environment, education, training etc. Through his analysis of many social scientists' research and through the use of pilot courses, McClelland has assisted in the founding of institutes in Mexico and India and courses in other countries to train people for more highly motivated behaviour. McClelland advances the following propositions with respect to increasing motivation in adults.

"Proposition 1. The more reasons an individual has in advance to believe that he can, will, or should develop a motive, the more educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.

"Proposition 2. The more an individual perceives that developing a motive is consistent with the demands of reality (and reason), the more educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed.

"Proposition 3. The more thoroughly an individual develops and clearly conceptualizes the associative network defining the motive, the more likely he is to develop the motive.

"Proposition 4. The more an individual can link the newly developed network to related actions, the more the change in both thought and action is likely to occur and endure.

"Proposition 5. The more an individual can link the newly conceptualized association-action complex (or motive) to events in his everyday life, the more likely the motive complex is to influence his thoughts and actions in situations outside the training experience.

"Proposition 6. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement in the self-image, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

"Proposition 7. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement on prevailing cultural values, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

"Proposition 8. The more an individual commits himself to achieving concrete goals in life related to the newly-formed motive, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

"Proposition 9. The more an individual keeps a record of his progress toward achieving goals to which he is committed, the more the newly-formed motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions.

"Proposition 10. Changes in motives are likely to occur in an interpersonal atmosphere in which the individual feels warmly but honestly supported and respected by others as a person capable of guiding and directing his own future behaviour.

"Proposition 11. Changes in motives are more likely to occur the more the setting dramatizes the importance of self-study and lifts it out of the routine of everyday life.

"Proposition 12. Changes in motives are more likely to occur and persist if the new motive is a sign of membership in a new reference group." 9/

The follow-up studies on the training courses have demonstrated that significant changes in achievement motivation occurred in persons trained by this system. However, in some cases many other variables were involved in the environment and affected the results.

Motivation training courses are now widely used either as separate training activities or as part of courses that use a variety of methods (see, for example, "Rural development in Honduras" (EX-VI RD)). Although the courses are most frequently used for business and management organizations they have been experimented with in other areas.

The courses have four basic goals:

1. To teach participants how to think, talk and act like persons with high "n Ach";
2. To stimulate participants to set higher but carefully planned goals for themselves over the next two years;
3. To increase participants' knowledge about themselves; and
4. To create a group spirit among course participants from their learning about each others' hopes, fears, successes and failures and from their going through an emotional experience together in a retreat setting.

9/ Rolf P. Lynton and Udai Pareek, Training for Development (Homewood, Illinois, Dorsey Press, 1967), pp. 102-103.

With the formation of the Small Industries Extension Training Institute in South India, McClelland stated the goals of the training in the following way:

"1. The course seeks to increase entrepreneurial spirit and improve interpersonal competence among the participants by emphasizing motivation, planning and co-operative effort, rather than technical skills.

"2. The course is basically one of self-development. Attention is focused on the self, and methods are presented for self-directed motivation change. Attention is given to three approaches to greater self-knowledge and understanding of motives:

- a) The roots of values, attitudes, and motives are examined. Here the familial and cultural effects on the individual's images of himself and his world are examined.
- b) Each individual is guided in examining his characteristic modes of behaviour as perceived by those about him.
- c) He is also encouraged to examine his fantasies and his aspirations in relation to his actual behaviour.

"3. A continuing theme throughout the course is that participants can initiate and control change by setting reasonable goals for change in themselves, in their firms, and in their area, and that this can lead to rapid economic growth for the individual and for the area." 10/

How objectives
are achieved

: In Motivating Economic Achievement, McClelland indicates in detail how people were selected for the Institute and how follow-up was conducted; the book also provides additional material on how the Institute functions and on what its results as an experiment and as a community project were. For the purposes of the Manual, we will focus on his account of the course itself, presenting a paraphrase of his description.

10/ David C. McClelland and David G. Winter, Motivating Economic Achievement (New York, Free Press, 1969). The book contains a description of the course given at the Institute; much of the following material is paraphrased from this description.

Careful standards were established for admission to the course to ensure that only people who could profit from the course and who would agree to participate in follow-up activities (involving two years) would be admitted. The range of persons admitted was broad, however.

To begin with, in the first stage of the course evidence is presented showing how motivation towards achievement and the "entrepreneurial spirit" are related to performance and success and how such a spirit has contributed to national economic growth. Participants spend some time studying the research findings on the subject and the question of how and why achievement motivation is related to improved performance. The activities recommended for the next stages of the course are outlined in the following paragraphs.

(a) Participants are given an opportunity to analyse their own spontaneous thinking or imagination and to score this material for motivational content according to well defined scoring procedures. The purpose is to help them recognize achievement thinking in its various aspects so that they can reproduce it in their thoughts and, therefore, in their actions.

(b) Participants are encouraged to use the understanding of their own motivation and thinking to evaluate their approach to their work and to set realistic challenging goals for themselves.

(c) Participants practise "achievement thinking" by learning to perceive job situations, problems and possibilities in terms of achievement. They engage in achievement-related activities in a simulated business situation. Here they become aware of the relationship between achievement thinking and entrepreneurial actions.

(d) Cases of successful entrepreneurs and sometimes entrepreneurs in person are presented to the group to enable the participants to see the relationship between successful business functioning and achievement thinking and also to understand the origins of entrepreneurial behaviour.

(e) Participants are, throughout the course, given an opportunity to experience and internalize the characteristics of a successful entrepreneur. This is done through activities (c) and (d) and by lectures, discussions and demonstrations involving creative problem solving and risk taking.

(f) The individual is encouraged to write an autobiography, to make plans for his future and to take the practical steps and make the commitments necessary to fulfil the personal goals he has set for himself. Personal counselling sessions are arranged to help individuals to obtain better self-knowledge, more realistic appraisal of goals and more creative ways of attaining them.

(g) Participants are encouraged to examine their relations with others in the group throughout the course. In small and large groups, they are given opportunities to understand the needs of others and to help them in solving their problems.

(h) The participants are given practice in aiding and supporting one another in group activities. This interaction is designed to increase co-operation upon their return to their area and to increase the probability of mutual reinforcement for one another in the future.

A number of other varied and specific activities are used in the conduct of the course in addition to those outlined in the general statement above. Participants learn to score pictures, talks, articles and general statements in terms of the "n Ach" scores. They are encouraged to analyse fantasies, interpret tests and analyse films in terms of achievement motivation content (n Ach). They are assisted in closing the gap between what they imagine themselves to be and what they are. They are taught that they can achieve realistic goals that they can set for themselves.

A manual was developed from the courses. Trainers emphasized the importance of feedback. The trainers also attempted to provide the support necessary to realizing training goals back home; further, they encouraged the formation of a formal organization to promote the training goals in the local environment. Although the initial courses are conducted jointly, with collaboration between the Institute and local centres, the courses are rapidly turned over to competent local trainers.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

"Ring-toss" (TE-III-8 AV) was used to demonstrate how high achievers tend to behave. "Role playing" was often used (TE-III-1 AV). Films, audio-visual aids and visiting lecturers were frequently brought in. Simulation of business situations was used. The participant contracted with himself as to the changes he intended to accomplish. Group work also involved exercises in "Attempting to see yourself as others see you".

Most important was learning the skill of scoring stories and pictures, particularly one's own material, in terms of motivation and the development of a personal work plan. Motivating Economic Achievement discusses these scoring techniques at length.

Selected references :

David C. McClelland, The Achieving Society (Princeton, N.J., D. van Nostrand, 1961).

David C. McClelland and D.G. Winter, Motivating Economic Achievement (New York, Free Press, 1969).

E.R. Danzig and M. A. Nad Karmi, A Manual for Instructors (Hyderabad, India, Small Industries Extension Training Institute, 1964).

George H. Litwin, "Climate and motivation: an experimental study" in D.A. Kolb, I.M. Rubin and J.M. McIntyre, eds., Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice Hall, 1971).

VII. SELF-AWARENESS AND SELF-DEVELOPMENT

Name of approach : Self-awareness and self-development (SA)

Background, rationale and training goals : The self-awareness approach is relatively new and does not have a large body of documentation; it grows out of the new currents in non-formal education, humanistic psychology and human relations training. It has been tried with apparent success in a variety of rural situations in which little progress in training and education have previously been made.

The basic concepts are deceptively simple. They include such concepts as helping the trainee to develop a new self-awareness and confidence in his own capacity to learn what is important to him and to apply it to his own life; using group processes to help individuals to understand and actively pursue their own potentials; promoting creative and expressive behaviour which will lead to using the learners' creative talents and to encouraging their independent thinking as individuals and groups.

Such approaches seek to define new trainer-learner relationships and new empirical methods of training planning which grow more directly from the learners' environment. They define training in terms of a new configuration of perceptions about "learning how to learn"; further, they regard training as a means of learning how to cope at the same time with both oneself and one's environment and they emphasize the inner dynamics of individuals as the key to the development of substantive skills for the development programme.

While these approaches recognize the significance of the ideas of such people as Ivan Illich and Paulo Freire, ^{11/} they do not conceive of the self-awareness approach as revolutionary in any economic and political sense but rather as being concerned with the processes of constructive personal development, critical thinking and problem solving that will facilitate and strengthen local participation in national transformation.

^{11/} See, for example, Ivan Illich, Deschooling Society (New York, Harper and Row, 1972) and Paulo Freire, Pedagogy of the Oppressed (New York, Seabury Press, 1971).

An important element in this approach is the idea of the teacher as facilitator. This means that while the teacher may be either highly trained or only a para-professional, his job is not as an expert dispenser of knowledge but rather as a resource person whose success is measured by the degree to which the learner achieves a measure of psychological and social confidence as well as skills of his own choosing.

The assumptions of this approach have been clearly stated in an unpublished paper prepared for the United Nations by World Education, Inc; these assumptions are:

"1. Learning, in order to be developmental, should enable the learner to change the way he uses himself (e.g., from passive to active, timid to confident, routine to creative). This is a fundamental growth objective.

"2. (a) Besides the knowledge gap there is an enormous gap between man's aspiration for a better life and his perception of himself as an agent to achieve it. Action to overcome the two deficiencies must be interrelated.

"(b) A learner's self-concept sets the limits of his role in development. Self-concepts can be strengthened and expanded through sensitive preparation of the learning experience and environment.

"3. Effective learning takes place only where there is strong motivation to learn. The motive power must come from inner convictions and not from mere persuasion or external incentives.

"4. The degree and persistence of effort invested is a reflection of the learner's belief in his capacity to succeed and control his destiny; this belief can be developed and enhanced through a planned sequence of successful experiences.

"5. Developmental growth requires the capacity to clarify value positions, discern cause-effect relationships, make considered judgements and take responsibility for action. Learning experiences can be structured to directly promote these attitudes, abilities and behavior.

"6. The cultural and social milieu of the rural adult can exercise a powerful and decisive hold on the individual's right to make options. A curriculum is not likely to achieve developmental goals unless it treats integrally the 'set' and the 'setting' (mind-set and social context).

"7. Non-formal education is not a device for promoting social adjustment and maintaining and strengthening existing social structures. Rather, it enables individuals to question the existing system. This questioning can be a responsible and constructive process and need not be a disruptive one.

"8. A liberating education is most needed in the case of rural people since they are the ones most affected by structures of dominance.

"9. Conscientization is not something that can be 'done' to people. It must spring from within. The facilitator can only help create the climate and conditions likely to foster human development. The selection, training, and use of facilitators is, therefore, of vital importance.

"10. Development must begin in an endogenous way. A facilitator drawn from within the community or from a comparable setting will be at least as successful as an outsider.

"11. At every stage of the educational process, local leaders and learning group peers can play an even more important role than the teacher or facilitator in reinforcing and legitimizing change.

"12. Change is more readily understood and adopted by rural adults when it is seen in the context of their priorities and interrelated with the other important segments of their life. Therefore, learning experiences need to be supported by the sensitive and integrated action of all agencies involved in local development." 12/

12/ "Non-formal education and community development: implications for social welfare training", unpublished report submitted to the United Nations by World Education, Inc., May 1975.

How objectives
are achieved

The objectives set forth for this type of training are easily stated; however, they are frequently extremely complex in their execution and very demanding on the creative talents of all those involved in the planning and conduct of the training and the follow-up.

The training activities envisioned under this system require extensive and continuing research. This research must draw information from the trainees' own environment that is not always easy to obtain, particularly if that environment is rural and outsiders of any kind are usually distrusted. For this reason the approach tends to use local people as front-line staff.

Self-awareness training involves the use of essentially similar techniques in the training of the trainers and in the training of the trainees: the need to establish new relationships, open up communications and maintain flexible content is critical. There is also the critical need to move at the pace of the learner.

The need to measure progress in terms of both efficiency and effectiveness during the course of the training as well as the patience that is required in the pursuit of the established strategies makes the initial training preparation difficult and time consuming.

Initially, a small project may be able to concentrate resources better than a larger one. The development of training materials that are not only substantively sound but also "teacher proof" and that at the same time will support trainers when crises and problems develop in difficult situations create methodological problems that challenge the creativity of everyone involved in the training. Learners are often not ready for the responsibilities that are involved in such training programmes and it may be necessary to move slowly in the pursuit of particular objectives. Trainers themselves may be continuously tempted to return to more conventional methods because of the security to be found in doing things the customary way.

A final aspect of self-awareness training is the extensive follow-up that is needed in the local environment in order to support the activities that result from the training. This may cover the whole range of government, community or private services. There is reason to expect that this approach to

training will provide more self-reliant people and will make them more able to deal with their own problems, even though social systems are powerful and not easily changed.

The internalization of new ideas does not take place rapidly, so there is a need for continued assistance, not so much in the training phase as in maintaining healthy linkages vertically and horizontally, so that the results of the training are not overwhelmed by factors that are well beyond the control of the communities or of the smaller social systems until the larger social system makes an adjustment to it.

Techniques associated :
with the approach

Many of the techniques associated with this approach are developed from the preliminary research that is done in the environment in which the training will be conducted. In the development of the techniques, trainers are encouraged to take their cues from the trainees and to involve them in the preparation of the materials. Some standard human-relations techniques are used. In "Rural women's development and participation in the Philippines" (EX-VII WD) and "Education in Turkey" (EX-IV CD) a variety of innovative games have been developed, including "Need identification" (TE-II-4 CB), "Differences in perception" (TE-I-6 UP), "The impertinent PERT chart" (TE-II-3 CB), "Serialized posters" (TE-I-7 UP) and "Problem-solving posters" (TE-II-2 CB).

Selected references :

"Non-formal education and community development: implications for social welfare training", unpublished report submitted to the United Nations by World Education, Inc., May 1975.

James Hoxeng, "Let Jorge do it: an approach to rural non-formal education" (Amherst, University of Massachusetts, 1973).

The University of Massachusetts' approach is an important one which emphasizes many of the same elements described here. It also emphasizes gaming and has some other differences from the approach described here; the Manual's approach is largely drawn from programmes of World Education, Inc. that were done in co-operation with a number of other agencies.

Catherine Crone and Lyra Srinivasan, Research on Innovative Non-Formal Education for Rural Women: Phase I (New York, World Education, May 1976).