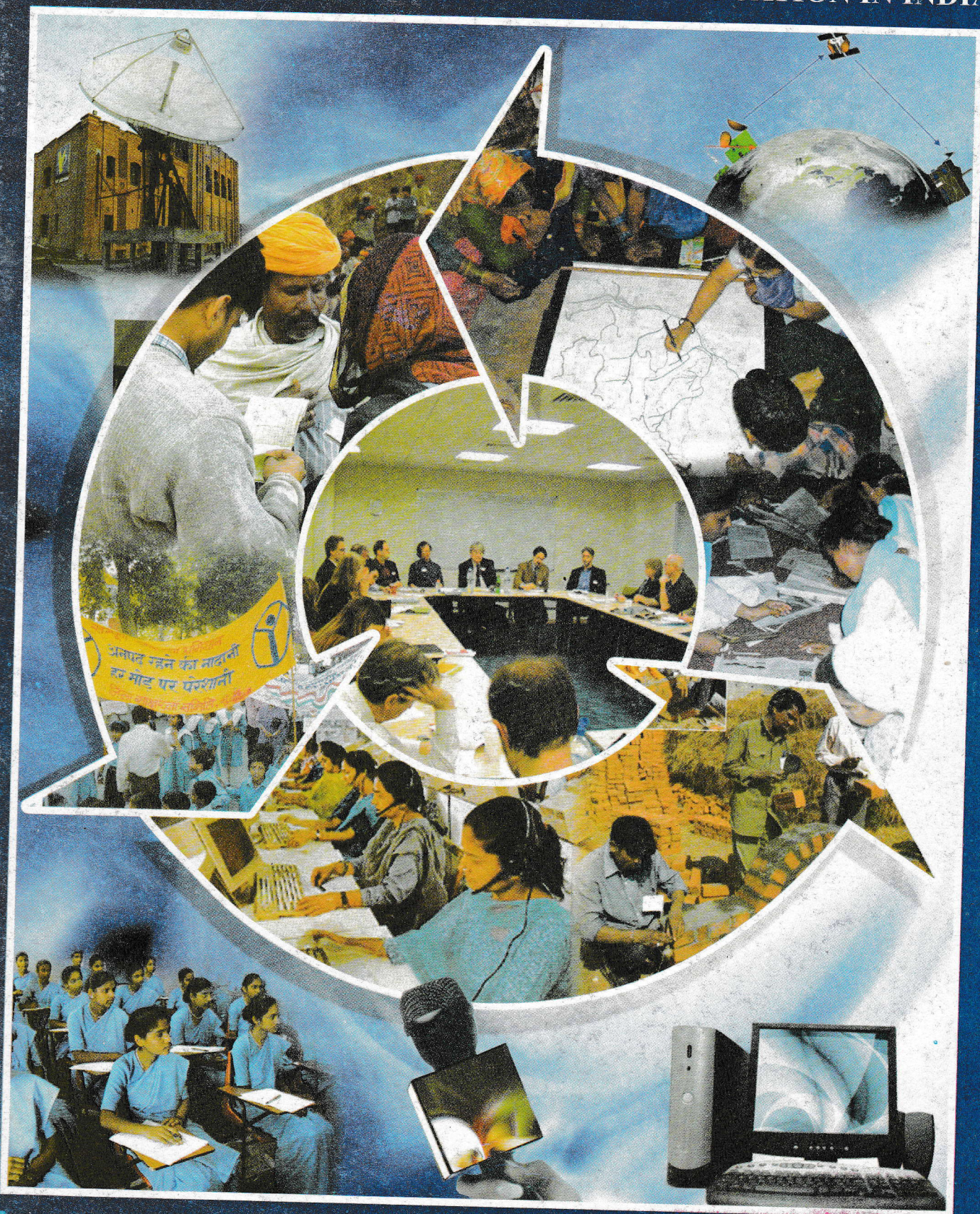






Indira Gandhi
National Open University
School of Extension and
Development Studies

MAE-002

Policy Planning and Implementation of Adult Education in India

Block

3

PARTICIPATORY TRAINING AND RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

UNIT 9

Participatory Training: Concept and Process **5**

UNIT 10

Participatory Training: Methodology and Materials **23**

UNIT 11

Learning Environment of Participatory Training **41**

UNIT 12

Participatory Research **64**

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COURSE MAE-002 POLICY PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF ADULT EDUCATION IN INDIA

Block 1 Five Year Plans and Adult Education

- Unit 1 Current Adult Education Policy and Programmes: An Overview
- Unit 2 Adult Education Administration
- Unit 3 Resource Support Structures of Adult Education
- Unit 4 New Initiatives and Emerging Challenges

Block 2 Implementing Agencies

- Unit 5 Role of Government Departments
- Unit 6 Role of Universities, Colleges and Students
- Unit 7 Role of Non-Governmental Organisations
- Unit 8 Role of Local Bodies, Community and Individuals

Block 3 Participatory Training and Research in Adult Education

- Unit 9 Participatory Training: Concept and Process
- Unit 10 Participatory Training: Methodology and Materials
- Unit 11 Learning Environment of Participatory Training
- Unit 12 Participatory Research

Block 4 Towards Lifelong Learning: Creating a Literate Environment

- Unit 13 Post-Literacy and Continuing Education
 - Unit 14 Institutionalisation of Continuing Education
 - Unit 15 Reading Materials for Neo-literates and Semi-literates
 - Unit 16 Role of Libraries in Post-literacy and Continuing Education
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BLOCK 3 PARTICIPATORY TRAINING AND RESEARCH IN ADULT EDUCATION

Introduction to the Block

This Block highlights the significance of Participatory Training and Participatory Research with emphasis on concepts, aspects, processes, principles, steps, methodology, materials and issues to reinforce your understanding; assessment of various methods, materials, processes and outcomes of conventional training and research in different contexts of adult learning. It consists of 4 units i. e. Units 9 to 12. These four units are reflective of the accumulated knowledge base that PRIA (*Participatory Research Institute in Asia*) has built on the basis of its field experiences as well as those of its network partners.

Unit 9 discusses the concept and issues of participatory training and enables you to critically assess the conventional training programmes. It highlights the principles underlying adult learning and participatory training, steps involved in participatory training and its influence on different spheres during interaction inside training rooms.

Unit 10 deals with methodology and materials of participatory training. It reinforces your understanding of various methods and materials vis-a-vis making them more participatory with emphasis on their use in different contexts of adult learning. It also touches upon the types of training materials required and the role of adult educator in participatory training.

Unit 11 highlights the concepts and issues of group process in participatory training and touches upon different forms of participation. It discusses the role of leadership during the training period, in conflict resolution and unconscious processes of groups. It explains the process of debriefing and consolidation.

Unit 12 focuses on the concepts, historical context, process, key features and issues of participatory research. It presents a critique of the conventional research paradigm and advantages of participatory research in adult education.

UNIT 9 PARTICIPATORY TRAINING: CONCEPT AND PROCESS

Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Objectives
- 9.2 Understanding Participatory Training
 - 9.2.1 Conventional Training
 - 9.2.2 Principles of Adult Learning
 - 9.2.3 Principles of Participatory Training
 - 9.2.4 Spheres of Influence
- 9.3 Steps in Participatory Training Process
 - 9.3.1 Pre-Training Phase: Designing Training
 - 9.3.2 Post-Training Phase: Follow-up and Report Writing
- 9.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.5 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 9.6 References

9.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit will familiarize you with the concepts and issues of participatory training. In Section 9.2 we critically assess the conventional training programmes and discuss the principles underlying adult learning and participatory training. This section will end with a consideration of spheres of influence during interaction inside training rooms. Section 9.3 deals with steps in participatory training.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this Unit it is expected that you would be able to:

- Discuss principles of participatory training in the context of adult learning; and
- Describe the various steps in pre and post phases of participatory training.

9.2 UNDERSTANDING PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

Training is a learning process, which involves learning of new skills, concepts and behaviour, amongst other things.

9.2.1 Conventional Training

The conventional training adopts a trainer centric approach where trainer becomes a central point around which the entire process revolves, while learners adopt a passive role. Figure 9.1 shows the conventional method of training.

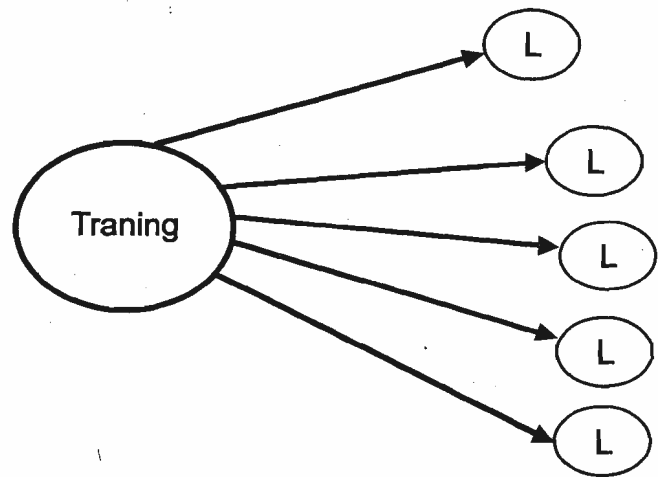


Figure 9.1: The Didactic Trainer → Learner Method

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/

In the conventional training:

- Relationship between the trainer and the learners is in the mode of teacher and students relationship.
- The trainer and the training institution have the responsibility of training.
- The trainer defines what the learners need to learn and how these learning needs can be met.
- Learners learn what the trainer teaches; have little knowledge about the topic and have no experience to share. Learning is simply a function of the capacity of the learners to learn and the ability of the trainer to teach.
- The trainer is considered important because she/he is assumed to be knowledgeable.

When we view this method from adult learners' vantage point we find that this method is not an effective training model. It disregards learners' knowledge and experience. Adults generally learn better and remember what they learned when they:

- Hear information,
- See demonstrations and illustrations,
- Discuss information and ideas, and
- Practice techniques.

Participatory training deals with adults and as such, has its theoretical base in the principles of active learning and adult learning.

9.2.2 Principles of Adult Learning

Adult learning takes place on the basis of certain principles which are as follows.

- Adults come to the learning situation with a well-defined perception about one's self. Low self-concept blocks new learning. Low self-concept may have been due to their perception of their past experiences of marginalisation. Building their self-concept can facilitate their learning.
- Adult learning is an emotional experience. The act of learning creates anxiety, stress, fear, frustrations or helplessness. This needs to be understood and handled with sensitivity.
- Adults usually come with an intention to learn. If this motivation is not supported they will withdraw. Learning improves when self-directedness is encouraged, when they identify what they need to learn and do. Therefore, the learning content needs to be derived from their needs, and methods must be based on mutual respect between the learner and the trainer.
- Adults are voluntary learners. They enter learning programmes to seek solutions to their immediate and personal needs and to accomplish things to improve their lives and to gain control over their lives. The here and now feeling must be respected and recognised to keep them motivated to learn. The solutions to their problems must come from their understanding and analysis and must be congruent with their life style and functioning.
- Adults learn best in an atmosphere of active involvement and participation. Learning is an active process conducted in an atmosphere of openness and encouragement. It is not just taking part in a pre-set programme; instead the learners participate at every stage from planning the agenda, choosing methods to self-evaluation.
- Adult education helps groups to organise, stay together and grow. People develop their creativity and insights when working with others to identify and solve problems. Collectively they recognize their knowledge, skills, interests and ability to act.
- Success reinforces learning. When people succeed in their activity, their satisfaction motivates them to get more involved. It is often best to begin with a small and immediate problem. Successful solutions of the problems will empower them to face problems and expand their vision of the future.
- Participation is difficult when there are financial, physical, or socio-political constraints. Learning takes place when learners are not under stress; when learning environment is safe and supportive.
- Different adults learn differently. This necessitates use of diverse sets of learning methods to enable the learner and the learning process.

The adult learning model applies the adult education principles to participatory training programmes. Learners actively participate when the principles and practices of adult education form the basis of the training programme. They learn quickly and retain new knowledge and skills. The implications of adult education principles for training can be summed up as follows:

Implications of Adult Education Principles

Adult Education Principles	Implications for the training plan
Adults learn best when they perceive learning as relevant to their needs.	• Provide “real life” situations and emphasize the application of learning to real problems. • Identify learners’ needs and what is important to them.
Adults learn by doing and by being actively involved in the learning process.	• Provide activities, which require active participation of learners. • Provide activities which involve the learners as whole people: their ideas, attitudes, feelings, physical being.
Adults have unique learning styles. They learn in different ways, at different rates, and from different experiences.	• Use a variety of training techniques. • Establish an atmosphere of respect and understanding of differences.
Participants bring relevant and important knowledge and experiences to the workshop.	• Provide opportunities for sharing information. • Discuss and analyze participants’ experiences. • Use participants as a resource and encourage them to participate and share their experiences.

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

9.2.3 Principles of Participatory Training

The salient features of participatory training principles are as follows.

- Participatory training is participant centered. The training rises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them.
- The learning not only imparts new knowledge but also generates awareness and builds skills.
- Learning is derived from the experiences of the learners. Experiential learning is crucial to participatory training.
- Participatory training requires a learning environment where learners and their experiences are valued and they feel psychologically secure and safe to unlearn, try their new ideas and share their experiences.
- Participation of learners in the entire training process is valued. Consequently they develop their own norms, values and take responsibility for their own learning.
- The role of trainer is very crucial. The trainer believes not only in the participatory principles, but demonstrates it as a way of life.

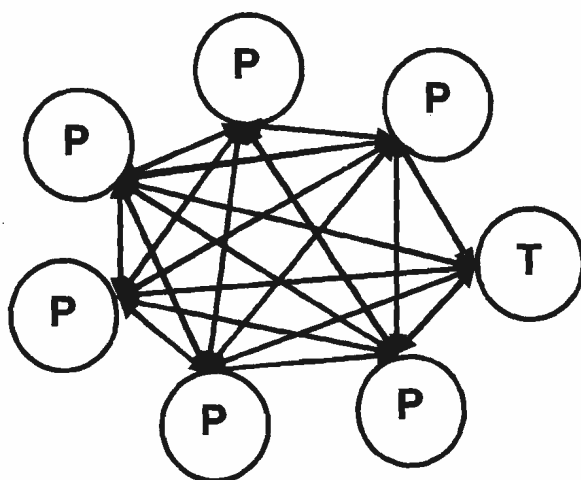


Figure 9.2: Active Learning Method of Participatory Training

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

Roles and Functions of the Trainer and the Learners in Participatory Training: Given below is a gist of the roles and functions of both the trainer and the learners in participatory training.

The Trainer	The Participants
• Is a facilitator	• Are members of a communication network
• Is a good communicator	• Feel at ease
• Works at the same level as the participants	• Participate actively
• Respects participants' ideas and experiences	• Share experiences
• Is supportive of the learning process	• Ask questions, make mistakes, and take risks as part of the training process
• Is an organiser of learning experiences	• Use the trainer as a resource, guide and mentor

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

9.2.4 Spheres of Influence

The training programme design is perhaps the most difficult task as factors outside the training sphere influence the interaction inside the training room. Interactions within training are influenced, enhanced or impeded by the wider spheres where training policies are formulated and decisions are made. For instance, the trainer who follows a bottom-up problem oriented conscientisation processes might face problems if operating in a highly centralised political framework. Figure 9.3 helps us to understand the ways in which interactions within a training room are influenced by the wider spheres outside the training room. An initiative in any one of these circles can cause ripples in both directions. When resources are scarce, institutional attitudes are rigid and directive; designing a participatory training programme can be full of constraints.

As someone involved in training programme you might be situated in any one or more of these circles:

- You might be a member of staff of an institution engaged to provide training.
- You might be an official of a govt department charged with the responsibility of planning training programmes.
- You may be an advisor working for an international agency with responsibility for collaborating with implementing organizations in planning and implementing training.



Figure 9.3: Influences of Wider Spheres on the Interaction inside the Training Room

Source: United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat), 1988: 27.

The preliminary identification of spheres and roles makes distinctions between levels of decision-making, when we consider the variety of steps in programme design.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

1) State salient principles of participatory training

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9.3 STEPS IN PARTICIPATORY TRAINING PROCESS

Participatory training process emphasises a systematic and comprehensive effort to design, conduct and evaluate a training programme. It comprises a series of steps in three distinct phases. The pre-training phase focuses on designing of the training programme. During the training phase, focus is on group facilitation, debriefing and consolidation, and creating a conducive learning environment. The post-training phase includes such steps as evaluation, follow-up and report writing. We will here first discuss the spheres of influence and then go on to pre-training, during training and post-training phases of the participatory training process.

9.3.1 Pre-Training Phase: Designing Training

This is the most critical and most creative component of the training programme. It comprises the following steps.

- a) Conducting learning/training needs assessment. What do participants want and need? What does the organisation want and need?
- b) Formulating objectives based on organisational and personal needs.
- c) Identifying content from the objectives.
- d) Sequencing the content. How to start a programme and end it? How to sequence the various content to develop the pace for learning?
- e) Choosing the methods.
- a) **Conducting Training Needs Assessment:** What is meant by training needs assessment? A training needs assessment is the process of identifying the requirements in a given situation, in this case, what the trainees in the workshop need to learn. If we are engaged in a programme of basic education and we want to promote a deeper commitment on this issue in the village education committee, then the members of the village education committee become the learners.

Why training needs assessment is vital?

- To develop long and short range plans of action.
- To help set priorities.
- To develop support and stimulate action.
- To design a workshop that will provide the participants with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed in their jobs.
- How is one to assess training needs?
- Identify the information needed.
- Identify the sources of information.

Broadly, there are three *sources* for identifying training needs of a particular group. Although they are independent sources for gathering information, you must consider them as complementary to one another in order to prepare a consolidated list of training needs. The three sources are:

- Job descriptions of the job or task that learners perform give insight into the learning needs of the group. The nature and requirements of their work become a source of information about their learning needs. This exercise can be done for each individual learner, for the entire group of learners as well as for an organisation as a whole. Make sure that the job description is complete and accurate (Add or revise tasks as needed).
- Existing records, documents and other such materials can also become useful sources of information. These records may be minutes of meetings, progress reports, performance review documents, etc. They can also be records of events and problems that a group of learners might already have worked on.
- Previous training conducted with the same learners and reports of the session could also be a source of useful information. Some time these reports may also have future learning need assessment.

Result of need assessment

- A needs assessment identifies the gap between the present situation and the desired situation.
- You can examine both present and desired behaviour, knowledge, skills and attitudes.
- You can collect data, which will be useful during the evaluation stage.

Given below are some Dos and Don'ts regarding need assessment.

Some Dos and Don'ts

Dos

- Make systematic and comprehensive design efforts
- Know the background and the needs of the participants

Don'ts

- Borrow standard formats and designs from others
- Fit session to requirement and availability of trainers, training institutions and resource persons' availability
- Organize materials and locations to suit the need of trainers, training institutions and budgets
- Identify content to suit the methods

Source: PRIA.1996. *Insights to Participatory Training*. New Delhi: PRIA (Mimeo).

- b) **Defining Objectives:** What is meant by defining objectives? An objective is a specific statement of what a participant must be able to do in order to demonstrate that he or she has achieved the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to complete a task. Each objective must be:
- Specific:* It must state exactly what the participant will do.
- Measurable:* It contains quantitative terms (e.g., numbers, percentages).
- Attainable:* It is possible for the participant to accomplish.
- Relevant:* It is related to what is needed on the job.
- Time Bound:* It states how long it will take to achieve the objective.

Why should we define objectives?

- All learning needs do not get fulfilled through a single training programme. We have to make a choice of those learning needs that can actually be addressed in a structured, systematic and planned training programme.
- Foci of learning can be classified in three ways.
 - i) The first is learning of knowledge i.e. gathering of information, concepts, and ideas. This is **“cognitive learning”**- it includes mental, abstract and intellectual effort.
 - ii) The second focus of learning is called **awareness where an emotional appreciation** of the issues is aimed at. It includes themes like motivation, commitment, values, emotions, (matters of heart), etc.
 - iii) The third focus of learning is to **build skills** in a specific area, for example, skills in vaccination. This framework of learning helps us to separate and clearly specify the objective of a particular training programme.
- Objectives serve to relate the content of the training to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes identified in task analysis, which is based on the desired job performance of the participants. They make planning and implementation of training focused, effective, and efficient. They are the standards used to evaluate the training.

How do we define objectives?

- Determine skills, facts and attitudes which learners already have and identify those they need to learn (expectations). In the training workshop stress only those facts that participants **MUST** learn to be competent in their work (see Figure 9.4). The objectives of training programme are directly linked to what the learners need to learn.
- Use active verbs when writing objectives.

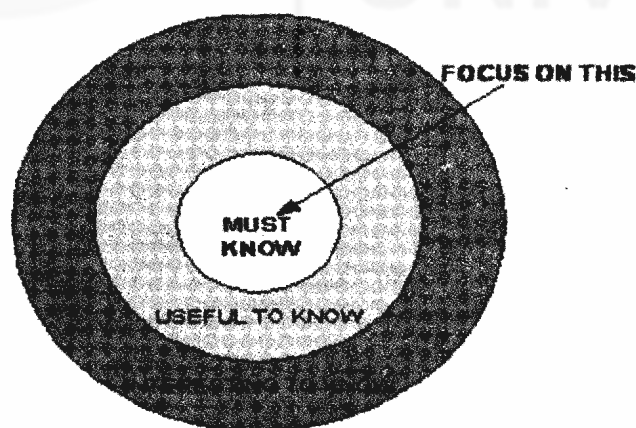


Figure 9.4: Focal Point

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

Here, you can look at an illustration given below regarding Participatory Training on Panchayati Raj.

Expectations of the trainees

- To acquire information and knowledge on Panchayati Raj System, 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act in rural development, empowerment of women and dalits
- Practical grassroots experience with gram panchayats
- Ways to communicate the essence of Panchayati raj system to rural masses

Objectives

- To develop an understanding of Panchayati Raj System with special reference to 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act and its role in community development and empowerment
- To sensitize the development workers to strengthen gram sabha and gram panchayat
- To develop an understanding of various low cost methods of communication to spread the message of Panchayati raj to marginalized sections of society.

- c) **Identifying Content from the Objectives:** Once we have derived the objectives of a particular training programme precisely, the next task in designing is to identify the content, which will help us to achieve those objectives.

In identifying the content, we once again need to look at:

- Who our learners are?
- What is their level?
- What is their starting point?
- What do they already know?
- How much detailed information can be given?
- Which combination of learning foci need to be emphasized with a particular group of learners?

For example, suppose a training programme to generate greater commitment towards education of the girl child among members of the village education committee has to be conducted. This would require an emphasis on creating awareness rather than skills because the village education committee is not directly responsible for teaching; that is the job of the teacher.

The elaboration of content in order to respond to each of the objectives of training requires considerable knowledge of the subject matter. Experts may have to be consulted. Yet, it must be ensured that the content is appropriate to the level of learners and not overly detailed.

- d) **Sequencing the Content:** Having identified different content areas, the sequence or flow of different contents needs to be specified. The important thing in sequencing is to determine how the entire training programme will flow from the beginning to the end and how one content area follows another.

There are several important considerations when determining a useful sequence. Logically sequenced content takes learners step-by-step from one pace of knowledge and learning to other. Sequencing of the content can be done in the following ways:

- First, the content related to the individual is dealt with followed by content related to the group, moving on to the community and then to the society. It is a micro to macro sequencing of contents.

For example, Micro-Macro Sequencing of Contents for a Sensitisation Workshop on Violence against Women can be illustrated as follows.

Day 1	Session	Method
9.30 am-10.30 am	Welcome Introduction	
10.30 am-11.00am	Tea	
11.00 am- 1.00 pm	Issues and challenges concerning women	Individual exercise and group discussion
1.00 pm- 2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm- 4.00 pm	Violence against women: personal experiences	Individual case studies and open discussion
4.00 pm- 4.30 pm	Tea	
4.30 pm- 6.00 pm	Video on strategies to combat violence against women	Video and open discussion
Day 2		
9.30 am - 11.00 am	Perpetuation of violence against women: Psychological and family analysis.	Case study and discussion
11.00 am-11.30 am	Tea	
11.30- 1.00 pm	Perpetuation of violence against women: Societal analysis	Case study and discussion
1.00 pm-2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm - 4.00 pm	Strategies to combat violence against women	Lecture
4.00 pm- 4.15 pm	Tea	
4.15 pm- 6.00 pm	Individual strategies to overcome violence against women	Individual assignment and group discussion

- Second, the sequence moves from society to community to the group followed by self. This is macro to micro sequencing. Look at another illustration below.

Macro-Micro Sequencing of Contents for a Sensitisation workshop on PRIs for first time Pradhans of Panchayats.

Day 1	Session	Method
9.30-10.30 am	Welcome Introduction	
10.30 am-11.00am	Tea	
11.00 am- 1.00 pm	Perspective on development and Participatory Development	Buzz group and lecture
1.00 pm- 2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm- 4.00 pm	73rd constitutional amendment- salient points	Lecture
4.00 pm- 4.30 pm	Tea	
4.30 pm- 6.00 pm	Video on PRI functioning	Video and open discussion
Day 2		
9.30 am - 11.00 am	Roles and responsibilities of Pradhan	Lecture
11.00 am-11.30 am	Tea	
11.30- 1.00 pm	Factors promoting and hindering functioning of Pradhans	Case study
1.00 pm-2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm - 3.00 pm	Presentation of group report and discussion	
3.00 pm- 3.30 pm	Tea	
3.30 pm- 5.00 pm	Plans for applying learning to own work	Individual assignment and group discussion

- Third, is a combination of these two sequences, where one starts with macro, comes to micro and then moves again to the macro level. The sequence flows from society to community to group to self and back to the group to community to society.
- e) **Choosing Methods:** The last step in the process of designing is selection of appropriate methods. In this area of work, we use learning-training methods as these address each focus of learning directly.

If the focus of learning is knowledge, concepts and information, it can be best provided through what is known as the lecture method. The other methods of acquiring new knowledge could be demonstration, field visits, etc.

- For literate participants, reading materials can also be provided. But the quality, level and appropriateness of those materials need to be ensured.
- Other aids like flip charts, posters, transparencies, etc. may also be used. But essentially the purpose of a lecture, either by one person or by a panel of persons, is to provide additional information, new knowledge and concepts to the group of learners.

When **the focus of learning is awareness**, the existing experience of learners can be utilized. Methods appropriate for awareness have been called **structured experiences** because they make structured use of either the past or the present experience of learners or others.

- Group discussion as a vehicle for learning is one such example. Learners in a small group share their experiences and critically analyse them to develop new insights and appreciate the issues involved.
- Exercises and simulations generated during the training programme are other examples of structured experiences. These make use of the experience generated during the training itself.
- Role-play is another example of structured experience. It encourages the learners to enact a part of the reality they have observed or experienced. Role-play also promotes awareness.
- The case study method is useful in situations where other people's experiences are used for the learning experience of a group. The case study may be written, oral, audio, or audio-visual.

The third **focus of learning is the learning of skills**. No skills are learnt without practice.

- Apprenticeship is a long-standing method of learning skills. Be it playing on a sitar or repairing of scooters, in both cases the model of practice is apprenticeship. During the training programme itself, methods should be such that allow practicing of skills by the learners.

Certain methods are more suited to achieve certain objectives. For example, you can see below the interrelationship of certain methods and objectives.

Inter-relationship between Objectives and Methods

Imparting knowledge	Developing skills	Changing attitudes
Lecture	Demonstration	Discussion
Reading	Practice	Practice
Case study	Case study	Case study
Audio visual	Simulation	Simulation
Presentation	Role play	Role play

The choice of the learning method is a crucial determinant of an effective training programme. Following the above steps, a time schedule is set. Ideally the length of the training programme is determined by assessing how long it would take to achieve the training goals. However, in reality a number of constraints affect the decisions such as willingness of the employers to release their staff, and willingness of the trainees to be away from their families if the training programme is a residential one. Therefore, important consideration would be the time given to the project work in the field, theoretical study and simulated practice in the training centre. Participatory learning depends upon the availability of materials. Sometimes the programme planner will have to prepare learning materials; and provide learning resources where they do not exist such as a library or information resource centre. Resource persons are identified if needed. It is important that

resource persons have experience of field practice as well as academic knowledge and teaching expertise. Unless we have this we shall not be able to engage in problem solving, reflective, experiential mode of training. You cannot tap and share the experience of others if you yourself lack it.

Considerations for selecting a method for developing skills

- Who are the learners and what is their background?
- How to create a conducive-learning environment?
- Availability of physical infrastructure, material and other resources.
- Size of the learning group and facilitator.
- What are the trainers' capacities and competence?

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

2) List out the steps in Pre-training Phase.

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9.3.2 Post-Training Phase: Follow-up and Report Writing

Post-training phase can be divided into follow-up and report writing.

- a) **Follow-up of Training:** Follow-up of the training programme is essentially meant to continue the process of learning initiated during the training programme. Each training programme creates a set of knowledge and ideas, which learners try to implement in their own situations. These efforts may require further support as follow-up.

Everything that is done by learners and trainers after the training programme does not constitute follow-up. Follow-up is any process of intervention and support provided to an individual and/ or group, to further enhance their learning process, for a specified period of time, following the training programme. Thus follow-up implies activities carried out to support the learning process after the training programme within a given time-frame.

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

- Follow-up provides support, encouragement, knowledge and resources needed to implement the learning the learner acquires during the training programme;
- It helps to define additional learning needs during the period immediately after the training programme. It helps to continue the learning process by bringing out new learning needs;
- Follow-up is also used to assess the training programme and its impact on the learners, their work and their organisations. This helps the trainers in designing future training programmes;
- Follow-up provides an opportunity for the learners to consolidate their own experiences acquired during the training programme;
- In a broad sense, follow-up can also be used strategically. If training has larger objectives of social change, follow-up can be used in a strategic way to: a) Foster a feeling of solidarity among the like-minded activists and the organization; b) Sustain the process and efforts of cadre building and formation of networks; and c) Strengthen formation of small groups and facilitate a process of building a larger and stronger organization.

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

Some possible methods are:

- Face to face interactions among learners themselves and between learners and trainers. For example, field visits by other learners or trainers to a site, meetings of only the learners, as well as along with trainers, meetings of all learners or a sub-group. It may also involve conducting advance training, providing additional learning material, providing opportunity for apprenticeship, etc.
 - The choice of the method should depend on the needs of the learners and availability of resources. Illiterate, rural and urban poor learners may require greater use of direct methods; project holders may be satisfied with indirect methods only. A combination of direct and indirect methods is generally very effective.
 - It is important to plan a follow-up deliberately and consciously. It does not happen automatically. Broad follow-up plans should be considered at the time of developing the design of the programme. Details of the follow-up can be again worked out at the end of the programme, along with the learners.
- b) **Report Writing:** Generally, report writing is considered a time consuming and boring job. It is a common feeling that the report is only useful for administrators or researchers. Report writing however is a basic tool, which provides information about the event, the objectives, content, process and methodology. Report writing is important as it helps maintain records of an event and can later give rise to new ideas on reflection. Reports are also a part of the organisational memory and follow-up strategy.

Types of Reports: Although there are no specific types of reports, for the purposes of training they may be broadly classified into:

- Process-based training report
- Data-based training report and
- Research-based training report

The process-based report is meant to help one understand the event in detail. Along with quantitative data the main emphasis of the report is to provide its audience the elements of methodology used by the trainers in achieving the objectives. It also explains the methods and techniques used in such a way that the readers can develop the skills themselves. Most of the case-study types of training reports fall under this category. The style of presentation of this type of report outlines both process and contents in detail. This type of report is useful for those who are trainers or those who would like to see how a particular training programme was facilitated, and how a particular method was used in achieving a particular objective.

The data based report is a report that informs the readers about the event. It presents the objectives of the training and outlines the content of the training with the types of methods and materials as well as the resource persons in a precise form. This kind of report stresses more on factual data. These reports are generally meant for the donors, government departments, administrators, etc, because of their interest in knowing the type of people involved, the outline of the content, and the use of funds for the event.

The research-based training report emphasizes the how and why of a training event. The objective of this report is to identify some of the basic learning that is used by the trainers in attaining a particular objective. The analysis of the methodology is used as a basis for this kind of research report. Researchers use such training reports to study different aspects and methods of training used by the trainers. Sometimes such reports are also prepared to evaluate the effectiveness of the training programme and whether such a training model can be used in future. At times, a report may be a combination of all the three types.

The structure or format of the report depends upon the audience at whom the report is directed. The style of presentation should also meet the needs of the audience. While writing the report the following questions should be considered:

- What were the objectives of the training?
- How was the training planned?
- What were the subject / content areas?
- How were these subjects/ content areas developed?
- What were the methodologies used by the trainers?
- What was the result of the training?

After answering these questions, then the next step is developing the structure of report. Various aspects need to be considered:

- Objectives
- About learners \
- About trainers
- Approach of training
- Main themes and subjects
- Materials and methods used
- Process - the happening
- Evaluation
- Critical analyses of process by the trainer

You can use the following tips on report writing.

- Take detailed notes during the training programme.
- If possible write a brief- report daily.
- Make a record of the important activities conducted during the training on a regular basis, while the training is going on.
- Record the behavioural aspects of the trainees during the training.
- Capture processes along with the contents.
- Keep one set of learning materials for reference.
- Note details of presentations made by groups.
- Write in a simple lucid language and try to write the report soon after the completion of training.
- Seek inputs from your co-trainer/co-facilitator.

9.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have described concepts, principles underlying adult learning and participatory training. We found that the conventional training programmes adopt a trainer centric approach where the trainer is a central point around which the entire process revolves. The learners adopt a passive role. Participatory training, on the contrary is participant-centered. The training arises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them. Participatory training, premises on the principles of participatory research, aimed to bring about changes in attitudes, behaviour and functioning of learners by bringing changes in their perception of their abilities and needs; it also empowers the learners by providing them information and equipping them with appropriate skills and means to use information in relevant context. We have also described the steps in participatory training process in three different phase viz., pre, during and post training.

9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- 1) The salient features or principles of participatory training are as follows.
 - Participatory training is participant centered. The training rises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them.
 - The learning not only imparts new knowledge but also generates awareness and builds skills.
 - Learning is derived from the experiences of the learners. Experiential learning is crucial to participatory training.
 - Participatory training requires a learning environment where learners and their experiences are valued and they feel psychologically secure and safe to unlearn, try new ideas and share their experiences.
 - Participation of learners in the entire training process is valued. Consequently they develop their own norms, values and take responsibility for their own learning.
 - The role of the trainer is very crucial. The trainer believes not only in the participatory principles, but demonstrates it as a way of life.

- 2) Pre-training phase: Basically it refers to designing training and comprises the following steps.
- Conducting learning needs assessment. What do participants want and need? What does the organization want and need?
 - Formulating objectives based on organizational and personal needs.
 - Identifying content from the objectives.
 - Sequencing the content. How to start a programme and end it? How to sequence the various content to develop the pace for learning?
 - Choosing the methods.

9.6 REFERENCES

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UNIT 10 PARTICIPATORY TRAINING: METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS

Structure

- 10.0 Introduction
- 10.1 Objectives
- 10.2 What, Why and How of Training Methodology and Materials
 - 10.2.1 Knowledge-based Learning Sessions
 - 10.2.2 Skills-based Learning Sessions
 - 10.2.3 Awareness-generating Sessions
- 10.3 Participatory Training Methods/Techniques
- 10.4 Training Materials and Resources
- 10.5 Roles of Adult Educator
 - 10.5.1 Systematic Preparation
 - 10.5.2 Understanding Self
 - 10.5.3 Planning for Self-development
- 10.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 10.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

10.0 INTRODUCTION

Unit 10 deals with methodology and materials of participatory training. Adult educators know very well that there is no one method and material for making adult learning sessions successful and effective. In Section 10.2 you will understand various methods and materials which could be used in different contexts of adult learning. In Section 10.3 you will understand various participatory methods. Section 10.4 briefs you about the types of training materials required in training. Section 10.5 highlights the role of the adult educator in participatory training.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this Unit, it is expected that you will be able to:

- Discuss the various ways of selecting a method for holding different types of learning sessions with adult learners;
- Describe the range of participatory training methods and materials for use in adult learning; and
- Understand different roles of an adult educator and learn the ways of planning self-development.

10.2 WHAT, WHY AND HOW OF TRAINING METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS

To answer the 'what' question, you may say that training methods and materials are the techniques and resources the adult educator uses to organize a training workshop and transfer new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to participants. Many

a time it is useful to differentiate between the methods, tools/aids and techniques in order to use them effectively. There are some differences between methods, aids, equipments and techniques, which are highlighted below.

Difference between Methods, Aids, Equipments and Techniques

Methods	Tools/Aids	Equipments	Techniques
Refer to how subject matter is going to be dealt with in a broad sense, e. g. group discussion, lecture, role play, demonstration, etc.	Refer to the various supporting materials that are used in the course of training, e. g. slides, posters, film clips, models, etc.	Refer to the infrastructure which helps in utilizing aids i. e. over-head projectors, slide projectors, etc.	Refer to the variations of the method, e. g. under the broad heading of Small Group Discussion (SGDs), the method used could be plenary, brainstorming, fish-bowl, etc.

In order to answer the 'how' question, you can point out that active learning workshops use a variety of training methods in order to engage participants in the learning process.

When choosing teaching methods for a particular session, you may consider the following questions:

- Is the method suitable for the objectives?
- Does the method require more background knowledge or skills than the participants possess?
- How much time does it take to prepare and then to use it in the learning session?
- Is that sort of time available with the adult educator and adult learners?
- How much space does the learning session take?
- Is that kind of space available at the venue of learning sessions?
- Is the method appropriate for the size of the learning group?
- What kind of teaching materials does it require?
- Are those materials available?
- Does the method require special skills to use?
- Does the adult educator possess these skills?

10.2.1 Knowledge-based Learning Sessions

The broad factor guiding the selection of methods is the focus of learning. If the focus of learning is increasing knowledge, then the methods used may be lectures, field visits, demonstrations, self-study, etc.

Adult educators need to keep in mind that they need to talk about only those facts which the participants need to know. It is important to get the participants' attention before explaining why they need to know the topic. Tell a story that shows why it is important.

Give a summary. Explain the main themes you are going to cover. Present the facts and information. Use handouts to reinforce the talk. Participants learn more by listening and actively participating than by taking detailed written notes. Ask participants to tell stories about how the facts will be used by them. Among the materials to be used, whenever possible, use audio-visual aids such as Chalk-board, Flip chart, Models, Posters, Photographs, Overheads, Slides, Video, etc.

10.2.2 Skills-based Learning Sessions

If the focus of learning is to increase skills, the methods used are more of practice sessions, demonstrations, apprenticeship and learning by doing.

Examples of Activities for Skills-based Learning Sessions

- Name the skill. Ask if participants have for it any other name(s) in the local language(s).
- Tell why it is important. Ask if participants have in mind other reasons for its importance.
- Explain when to use it. Ask participants if they use the skill in any other context.
- Describe the steps involved in performing the skill. Ask the participants if they include some other steps in performing the skill.
- Demonstrate the skill. Ask the participants to demonstrate the skill as understood by them.
- The demonstration must use effective methods, which are applicable to the work environments of the participants. Ask the participants if there are other effective methods to master the skill.
- Use only that equipment, which is available to participants in the field. Ask participants to name equipments available locally for mastering the skill.
- All participants must be able to see what you are doing. It is possible that one of the participants may be able to, or may want to, demonstrate the various parts of the skill. Invite such participants to demonstrate all or some operations.
- Explain what you are doing (a written handout with pictures will help reinforce the explanation). Ask participants to draw pictures of what the skill is supposed to involve.
- Arrange practice sessions.
- Come to the most important part of conducting skills-based learning sessions and take time to practice. Make all participants practice the skill.
- Each participant must receive feedback from you as well as from fellow learners.

10.2.3 Awareness-generating Sessions

If the focus of learning is to generate awareness then the methods used would be role-plays, small group discussion, case studies, simulation, learning games, structured exercises, etc. One's own experiences, both past and present and others'

experiences form an important source of learning. Hence the experiential learning methods provide an opportunity for learners to experience, share reactions and observations, reflect upon implications and consequences, discuss patterns and dynamics, develop practical and conceptual understanding and apply it to the real life situations.

Besides the focus of learning, there are some other important considerations for selecting methods such as who are the learners, what are their backgrounds? Is the knowledge and experience base of learners being used? Which methods are helpful in building an environment conducive to learning at a particular point of time? How can individual and collective learning be ensured, etc? Other factors that play an important role are time, space, competence of facilitators, group size, etc.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to Check Your Progress”.

1) Draw the distinction between methods, aids, equipments and techniques.

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10.3 PARTICIPATORY TRAINING METHODS/ TECHNIQUES

Participatory training has several methods which are in vogue in adult learning. We will discuss the following more popular methods in this section.

- Lecture
- Case Study
- Role Play
- Simulation
- Instruments
- Learning Games

- a) **Lecture:** The lecture method is an effective way to introduce new information or concepts to a group of learners. The learners always appreciate a concise, stimulating and well - delivered lecture. The lecture method is primarily used to build upon the learners' existing base of knowledge. The lecture must always be suited to the learners' level. Asking some relevant and effective questions can help elicit information. Thereafter, the adult educator will have to make constant efforts to situate the new information in the context of the training by continuously providing examples and illustrations to relate it to the learners' context.

Lectures are useful for conveying new information and concepts to the learners and for providing context so that learners can relate what has been learnt to a conceptual framework. Lectures are also good for stimulating and motivating learners for further enquiry and for presenting a specialized body of external information.

To lecture effectively, the lecturer needs to prepare for the lecture, become very familiar with the subject matter, identify and prepare supporting aids to illustrate the points. One needs to provide examples to link the subject matter to the lives of the learners and ask questions to check whether the learners are following the lecture. A good lecture provokes the learners to ask questions and note key points. It is advisable that the lecturer maintains eye contact with the learners to assess whether they are following or not, whether they are interested or bored. The seating arrangement has to be such that all can see the aids equally well and hear the lecture and maintain time stipulations. It is important to be aware of one's own body movements and facial expressions and speak clearly, loudly and use simple language. Given below are the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture method.

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Allows the presentation of facts, information and concepts in a relatively short span of time. • Makes possible interaction of learners with multiple resource persons with different points of view. • Is possible to use for illiterate learners. • A diverse range of supportive materials can be used to support the content areas, e. g. slides, charts, posters, etc. • A large number of learners can be accommodated at one time.	• The world view of the speaker dominates the knowledge. • It does not promote interaction in most cases. • The input may be too abstract if not related to real life situations. • The pace of learning is determined by the lecturer.

- b) **Case Study:** In the case study method, the group gets an opportunity to look at others' experiences in the form of a case. The learners reflect upon and analyze these experiences to derive new ideas. The learner's own experiences, values, feelings form the basis for analysis of others' experiences. The adult educator may present case studies in written or verbal

forms or even through the medium of films or songs, depending upon the background and experiential level of learners.

In order to use the case study method, the adult educator may present the case study to the group. One way of presenting the case study is to divide the group into smaller groups and give each group the task (question) to reflect and discuss. Then each group's views may be presented and consolidated in a collective session.

Among the reasons for using the case study method you may point out that the case study method helps to convey complex theoretical concepts in a simple way. It makes the group reflect on its own situation in the context of others' experiences, and it gives a chance to discuss complex situations. This exercise sharpens learners' analytical and diagnostic skills and exposes them to situations they might not ordinarily experience in their own lives. It exposes learners to similar experiences elsewhere to enable them to feel a sense of solidarity and validation. In addition, it helps in creating new knowledge through collective reflection, analysis and synthesis. Given below are the advantages and disadvantages of the case study method.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Case Study Method.

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Simple • Can be used with illiterates and relatively unsophisticated people. • Can be used for cognitive learning too. • Low cost, culturally appropriate.	• May be difficult to find an appropriate case study. • The case study may be too general to focus on a specific issue. • Case studies written by some one else contain the writer's perceptions, feelings and ideologies which may lead to distortion of the objective reality. • Hypothetical or prepared case studies may be too idealistic.

c) Role Play: One of the most common training methods is the role-play. Role-play is useful where learners share a somewhat similar experience, which is difficult to recall because of its emotional nature. You can also use it where the uniform possibility of recall is less likely among the learners. Role-play is a structured experience; it means that learning takes place from re-enactment of past experiences. It is a powerful training method if the focus of learning is to generate awareness.

The method of role-play is useful as it helps learners utilize their experiences of real life situations. The enactment is helpful in developing awareness at individual and group levels. Through role play it becomes easier to discuss complex social issues in a non threatening environment.

In order to use role-play effectively, you need to select a suitable role play depending on the purpose of learning and identify role enactors/performers. Next,

you need to prepare briefs and explain the situation to the learners and tell the audience all the points to be noted. Now is the time to set the stage and start the role-play. After the play you can consolidate and debrief.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Role-play Method

Advantages	Disadvantages
• It is energizing. • It helps the suppressed and illiterate to express their feelings. • It is a simple and low cost learning tool • It focuses on problems which are real. • It presents complex issues simply and in a short time. • It does not need materials/ props or advance preparation	• There is a possibility of the role play becoming entertainment which vitiates learning. • Participants can get too involved in their roles and later lose objectivity during analysis. • Acting can become an end in itself and participants can overact or distort the roles. • If points for observations are not clear, it may dilute the focus of learning.

A Role-play is used in a variety of ways. A small group enacts a role-play about a situation while other learners watch the role-play. A discussion follows that enactment. In this case, the role-play is similar to a demonstration where learning occurs through observation. The adult educators themselves, or a few outsiders or a handful of learners, with or without adult educators, can enact such a role-play.

You can also use role-play to stimulate discussion on complex issues. A brief enactment by adult educators or learners or both, can be used to stimulate further group discussion on similar issues and experiences that learners share. This method of learning is essentially group discussion where role-play merely acts as a stimulant or catalyst for the discussion that follows. Its use in this case is similar to an aid e.g. charts, video clipping, etc.

In certain situations, a role-play is also used to practice skills. For example, you can practice how to motivate adult learners by enacting different roles. The prime method of learning here is practicing and receiving feedback from learners and adult educators after that practice. You can also use a role-play as a re-enactment of past experiences. Learners may enact a past situation with which they are familiar.

d) Simulation: Simulation is a method based on 'here and now' experience shared by all learners. It involves assigning definite roles to each participant and having them act out a situation according to the given roles. It is carried on long enough to generate responses and reactions based on real feelings as participants need to genuinely 'get into their role'. However, learning takes place without any serious risk because the situation is after all 'make-believe'.

The original meaning of the method is derived from the situation used to train aircraft pilots. Since real life training is too risky, and any error during learning

would prove fatal, realistic conditions of air and pressure are created inside a 'simulator' cockpit, and the pilot learns how to fly.

You may use simulation to understand complex societal issues and to learn in a situation which is very similar to real life. Here learning takes place at different levels. Simulation involves "pre-simulation" phase in which you need to select a simulation according to the purpose of learning and develop a conceptual framework. Then you prepare a list of rules/ instructions and briefs for all roles and assign roles to different learners. Try to include all learners, as simulation does not require an audience, and define the situations and events in which the characters will interact. There may be more than one situation/ event.

Decide the location for simulation. The site/s chosen need to be as close as possible to real life sites of the chosen situations. You need to keep necessary props ready at hand, to be used for different roles.

For conducting a simulation, you need to assign roles, give each person the appropriate role brief. Ask the participants to study their roles and try to 'become' the role. It is not a good idea to let different roles study each other's briefs. Yes, you need to prepare name tags or some other appropriate means of identifying the different roles. Then brief the participants about the situation and let them start acting according to their interpretation of the role. Stop the simulation when appropriate, or when the essential part is over, or if it is getting out of hand.

In the post-simulation phase, it is better to give the participants time to get out of their roles. Then ask the participants to share their feelings by posing direct questions, for instance, "what happened to you during the simulation?" "how did you feel?", etc. You may try to draw parallels with real life while analyzing the patterns in the data and collate the participants' feelings. Finally collect necessary inputs and summarize the entire proceedings.

Following are the advantages and disadvantages of simulation method.

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Allows an exploration of real life situations, social processes and behaviors in a relatively non-threatening manner/ situation. • It allows for the study of very complex social processes. • It is entirely controlled by the learners' pace. • It involves activity and universal participation. • Learning takes place at the awareness level	• It requires that participants cooperate and internalize the roles. • It is a difficult method and requires an experienced and skilled adult educator to conduct it. • Mismatch of roles may lead to poor performances by the learners. • Critical skills are needed to handle feelings generated in the process.

- e) **Instruments:** 'Instruments' are usually in the printed format containing clear instructions and a series of questions, either with multiple choices, or requiring brief replies. Participants fill in the questionnaire individually or

in twos/threes for each other. There are instructions at the end of the instruments explaining how to examine answers, assign scores and tally them. The connotations of different scores are also clarified.

The purpose is to generate data about each learner. However, it is left to the learners to decide how to use this information. Some examples of instruments are the personality trait inventory, interpersonal perception form, T-P questionnaire for Leadership, FIRO-B, etc. The advantages and disadvantages of instruments method are as follows.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Instruments Method

Advantages	Disadvantages
• Can be a very effective method for learning more about one's own self through systematic self-examination, reflection, and in cases, feedback. • The learner does not feel external pressure or compulsion. • Learning takes place at the individual's own pace according to his/ her interest and inclination.	• Can only be used with a group which is highly literate. • Needs a certain amount of honesty and genuine interest of the learner to generate meaningful data. • Works better with people who can learn intellectually at the level of abstractions • Very difficult to design instruments.

- f) **Learning Games:** Learning games are seemingly fun activities involving all participants. There are rules and regulations and the games may or may not include a competitive element. You may use games to convey feelings and processes which are implied within the game being played, e. g. trust games, leadership games and so on. After the game is over, it is essential that the feelings of the participants are debriefed and consolidated; otherwise it will remain either an icebreaker or an energizer.

The reason for playing learning games is to explain group processes involving issues of trust, social relationships and so on. You can play the learning games by explaining the game and involving the learners in the game. After the game, you need to consolidate, debrief and derive learning. Given below are the advantages and disadvantages of learning games method.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Learning Games Method

Advantages	Disadvantages
• It is lively, fun and involves everyone's participation. • Complex issues can be explained in a simple manner. • It allows the participants to experience the matter under consideration within the course of the training itself, (also called here-and-now experience).	• Finding or designing appropriate games is not very easy. • The focus of the game must be clear to the adult educator otherwise debriefing will be confused. • May generate lot of feelings, thereby obstructing learning. • Entertaining without learning is not the objective.

Other Methods

Besides the methods discussed above, you may also look at the following other methods which are useful in some cases.

- Demonstrations
 - Field visits
 - Apprenticeship Practice
- i) **Demonstrations:** Demonstrations refer to methods in which the learners are provided with an opportunity to observe for themselves the object or processes that they wish to learn. It can be real-life or make believe situations or models. This method is useful in conveying complex information simply, as seeing and understanding is considerably easier than hearing and understanding. Examples include - demonstrating what a biogas plant or a sanitary latrine is, through a model, demonstration by the adult educator on how to conduct an interview, demonstrating how to conduct safe deliveries to dais (TBA) - through models, etc.
- ii) **Field Visits:** Field visits refer to demonstrations in practical situations, i. e. where the subject matter actually occurs or happens in real life. Some examples of field visits are as follows - taking the learners to a hospital in the course of health training, or taking learners to villages in the course of a Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) training, or taking community level workers to the block office for training on local government, etc. The emphasis again is on observing, asking questions and understanding.
- iii) **Apprenticeship Practice:** Apprenticeship and practice are methods of paramount importance for skill training. The difference between the two lies in that practice is done in controlled situations while apprenticeship is done in real life situations and is usually of longer duration. It is essential in both methods that the learner be supervised by the adult educator and given feedback. These two methods can be used for any skill. In the course of training, it is easier to incorporate practice, while apprenticeship can be an entire training in itself.

Check Your Progress

- Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.
- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to Check Your Progress”.
- 2) i) Mention three methods/techniques which you feel are important, useful or best for participatory training.

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ii) What are the advantages and disadvantages of Simulation method?

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10.4 TRAINING MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

When planning which training materials to use, the adult educator may consider the following questions.

- What materials are available?
- Will the material facilitate active learning?
- What can the training facility accommodate?
- Does the adult educator know how to use the material?
- Can the participants learn how to use the material?

Types of training materials include written materials, which are useful when imparting knowledge. If they are not available at the appropriate learning level, the adult educator may have to develop new materials. Examples of written materials are equipment instructions, lists for decision-making skills, and blank charts for record-keeping. While developing and using written materials, make sure that they contain only the information that participants need to know, and the materials are clear. Here, as layout is very important, you need to keep pages looking 'clean' and uncluttered and use language and diagrams appropriate to participants' level of knowledge. For example, use graphs if participants can read a graph. Audio-visual materials are useful for teaching knowledge and skills. Examples of audio-visual materials are:

black board	photographs
flip charts	overheads
charts and diagrams	slides
models	videos

While choosing audio-visual materials, you need to consider how the material would enhance active learning and if the material is appropriate to the knowledge level of the participants. Also consider how you will use the material and if it is

available during the training. You need to ensure that all the participants are able to see and hear the material.

In case the method requires any supplemental materials, ensure their availability. To show a film you need a screen or a blank white wall. To use a flip chart you may want to use different color markers. Make sure that the facilities are appropriate for use of the material.

10.5 ROLES OF ADULT EDUCATORS

Given the learning agenda, an adult educator has to play several critical important roles to ensure that the learners and learning process are at the centre of all training. The educator needs to ensure that there is adequate stimulation to critical analytical faculties of learners, and there are occasions to value, analyze, share and reflect upon the experiences of learners. In the process learners feel empowered and there is enhancement of their self-image. Try and create and nurture conditions of learning.

The adult educator also needs to keep in mind that these multiple roles are played not only during the training, but also prior to the training and after the training as well. Each of the roles during training and after the training requires a particular set of critical competencies, comprising three components, namely, knowledge, awareness and skills. An effective performance of any role involves the use of multiple competencies.

Roles of Adult Educator: You can now look at the roles of an adult educator.

Training designer and planner Assessing learning needs and evolving learning objectives. Planning strategy of training. Working out the detailed contents, sequencing them and choosing appropriate methods. Involving learners in the designing phase. Identifying and preparing resource persons. Preparing and selecting learning materials and aids. Preparing self and the adult educator-team. Delegating responsibilities for training.	Manager Mobilizing financial resources. Planning dates/venue. Scheduling logistics and required inputs. Providing administrative support. Ensuring communication with learners, resource persons regarding the venue, travel details, etc. Planning and co-coordinating arrangements for field trips, etc. Arranging for needed support systems at the venue (separate formations for men and women; arrangements for children accompanying mothers).
Facilitator Facilitating group processes, to keep the group together and let it grow (participation, communication, decision-making, leadership, conflict resolution, etc.).	Educator Providing new information and concepts. Eliciting learners' experiences and analysis by setting up structures, asking questions, etc.

Summarizing, synthesizing information. Appreciating and encouraging individuals and the group as a whole. Initiating discussions, articulating unsolved group issues. Creating a learning environment. Pursuing, nudging, pushing, cajoling, building their confidence so that participants can perform beyond their existing potential. Managing the heterogeneity within the group.	Synthesizing, consolidating and conceptualizing the new information and analysis. Directing, managing structured learning experiences -role-plays, simulations, discussions, etc. Using learning aids effectively video-camera, tapes, flash cards, audio -visual aids, etc.
Friend, philosopher, counselor and guide Being accessible to learners, listening to them, their anxieties, thoughts, problems, joys, by being a sounding board. Sharing one's own life experiences with the learners. Providing a sense of direction, by giving feedback. Developing a close rapport with learners and building their trust and confidence. Being a sounding-board when required responding positively and understanding the origins of the anxieties or problems of the learner. Setting up sessions to enhance the self-confidence and self-esteem of the concerned individuals, in an informal manner. Showing solidarity, holding hands, offering a shoulder to cry on, being sensitive to and responding to a crisis, if any.	Learner Paying attention to what others are sharing, being open to and accepting differing frameworks of analysis and perspectives. Seeking additional information, clarifications, asking questions. Acknowledging others' abilities and appreciating them. Accepting "learning structures" set up by others during the training, and supporting each learner.
Recorder and documenter Observing keenly the flow of content and processes taking place. Maintaining detailed notes on a regular basis. Involving learners in the recording / documenting efforts. Exchanging roles with co-adult educators and incorporating it into further planning of sessions.	Evaluator Planning evaluation/monitoring mechanisms. Involving learners in the evaluation process. Soliciting formal and informal reviews to assess every event and ongoing process. Matching feedback with objectives of the session and assessing if

Learning more in depth about individuals, group, learning process, etc. Using data for monitoring, evaluation purposes. Addressing additional issues of individuals and groups that may arise in the process.	learners are learning. Sharing reflections/analysis with co-adult educators and feeding it into further planning. Providing relevant feedback to the adult educator team and learners to facilitate the learning process.
Follow-up co-coordinator Communicating at regular intervals. Disseminating feedback from individuals and organizations to feed into the next training. Assessing future learning needs and planning additional events for the same Providing support through participation, involvement in designing, preparing strategy and materials, etc. Reflecting and evaluating the training outcome with co-adult educators.	Report writer Planning a reporting format (from learners' needs expressed by learners). Organizing all the needed information, notes, and flip charts for report-writing. Preparing separate reports for different constituencies, if need be (i. e. fund providers, learners, etc.). Disseminating it to both learners and wider audiences.

As is evident from the above table, the adult educator has to play multiple roles. This requires a very systematic, deliberate and planned process of training adult educators in the context of participatory training.

10.5.1 Systematic Preparation

The role of the adult educator in participatory training is much more radical and critical than the role of adult educator in traditional training. Participatory adult educator has to be much more resourceful, competent and creative to fulfill his/her task as facilitator-manager of the training processes. The adult educators need to systematically prepare to effectively play the multiple roles, fulfill the engrossing functions and shoulder the demanding responsibilities incumbent on them. Three key aspects of adult educator's training include i) learning the theory of adult learning, ii) developing skills as a facilitator and iii) self-development of the adult educator. In fact the third is the most important, since the other two are of no use in the absence of the third one. Let us talk a little more about this aspect in the next sub-section.

10.5.2 Understanding Self

It is important to understand the self in the context of participatory training. It is generally agreed that the self has three broad aspects. These three constantly interact with each other causing confusion or congruence depending whether they are in harmony or not.

- i) *The Cognitive Self*: This refers to our mental or intellectual capacities to store and process information, our memory and logical abilities.
- ii) *The Affective Self*: This refers to our emotional side, our capacity to feel and express emotions.

- iii) *The Behavioural Self*: This refers to our behaviour aspects, our actions, skills and expressed behaviour.

Understanding self is important for developing congruence between cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of self and for developing sensitivity towards learners and understanding their self development process. It is important for developing faith in others' capacity to learn, grow and change, and for building up the self-esteem of the learners into a realistic and positive self-concept. It is only when we personally experience the transformation of the self and a sense of personal growth, that we as adult educators in participatory training are convinced that others can also achieve the same.

Self development of your role as a facilitator implies different things. In reality, these different meanings may overlap, but it is useful to understand them distinctively. Here we will discuss some of the main implications of self-development.

Self-development implies developing a positive and healthy appreciation of one's capabilities, limitations and the self. It means overcoming the negative self-concept in some cases, and excessively unrealistic self-concept in others. Self-development means the art of acquiring internal control over oneself. In many cases, we depend on others to define ourselves. We need to develop our own definition of ourselves and not allow our definition of self-concept to be exclusively and totally determined by others. It involves creating a sense of initiative and self-control in each person. Self-development entails the development of the cognitive, affective and the behavioural aspects. This implies developing and sharpening our cognitive capacity, becoming sensitive to one's own emotions and feelings and developing the ability to articulate and express them and sharpening emotional capacities.

Self-development is to create a sense of congruence between different aspects of self. This implies an internal congruence and consistency between cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects. This also implies that our behavioural aspect represents authentically our cognitive and affective aspects and our actions are congruent with our thoughts and feelings. This is one of the major challenges in self-development.

Self Development has two important aspects, understanding one-self and changing one-self. Understanding one-self requires collection of information about "one's own self", whereas change of behavior requires self-disclosure. As adult educators, we need to develop "openness" in ourselves, and feedback and self-disclosure become essential in this process. Feedback from others and self-disclosure are reciprocal activities crucial for self-development. Let us learn in brief a bit more about feedback and self-disclosure.

Feedback is a verbal or non-verbal communication with a person or group which provides others with information on how their behaviour affects you. Feedback is also a reaction by others usually in terms of their feelings and perceptions, about how your behaviour is affecting them. Self-disclosure is a process of sharing of "me" with others. Feedback is information given to a person (or a group or an organization) about how one affects others. It helps one become more aware, both of one's strengths and weaknesses. It does not tell one what one should do, but it raises questions and helps one to decide whether to change

one's behaviour, so that one can be more effective and better able to achieve what one wants. If feedback is given in a positive way it can be helpful. But if it is given ineffectively, it is not only unhelpful, but can also be quite destructive.

10.5.3 Planning for Self-development

Planning for self-development usually involves identifying areas that require development. One can identify aspects about oneself that one would like to develop; for example, I want to reduce my aggressiveness or I would like to be able to say no without feeling guilty, etc. Prioritize these needs and assess their importance over the next few months. There may be several aspects that one would like to develop. It helps to assess what is more important and needs immediate attention. Choose one priority area to begin with. Identify obstacles in self and in environment. Then you can try and identify the factors that are likely to block the process of self-development. This could involve looking inside one's behavioural patterns, attitudes, temperaments, etc. The environment, other people, and situations can sometimes create obstacles in the process of self-development.

The next logical step is to decide how to go about improving an aspect of self. This includes detailed planning of activities to be carried out in order to achieve the goal. A time-frame also needs to be developed for this plan. You may seek others' help. Self-development plans invariably necessitate seeking help from other persons. It is rather impossible to develop oneself in isolation, all by oneself. We need the help of others, our colleagues, family members, etc. to be able to engage in self-improvement activities.

Any change process needs regular monitoring. In some form or other self-development process also needs close monitoring. You need to evolve a mechanism for such monitoring at the time of planning itself.

Proper feedback facilitates effective monitoring. Giving and receiving feedback is an important activity in one's professional life. You may keep in mind the following guidelines to prepare your feedback.

Guidelines for giving feedback

- Do be specific. Give examples and data. For example, "When you interrupted me just now I felt annoyed". The other person is able to make use of such information if s/he chooses to do so.
- Do describe your own feelings and reactions. For example, "I felt hurt." This is what you actually know.
- Do think of the needs of the other person and of what will be useful to him/her. Feedback should be constructive.
- Do speak only of behaviour, which the other person could change, for example, her/his habit of interrupting. This is within her/his control.
- Do choose the right time, climate and company to give feedback. It is most useful/effective immediately after the event.
- Do give feedback when the other person asks for it. Even better is to ask her/him exactly what s/he wants to know.
- Do encourage her/him to check with anyone else who was present about

the accuracy of the feedback. This can be done in a group. Feedback is more effective if it is received from several sources.

- Do ask the receiver if s/he understands what you are saying even though s/he may not accept it.
- Don't make general statements, such as, "I feel annoyed because you never listen to me." Unless you can give some specific examples, the receiver may not understand or believe what you are telling her/him.
- Don't describe the other person's feelings or motives or intentions. For example, "You wanted to hurt me". You do not know this: it is only your guess or interpretation. Such feedback will probably be rejected.
- Don't judge the other person's actions. For example "You were wrong to shout at me," Statements like this will only produce a defensive reaction.
- Don't make general evaluative statements about the other person's character. For example, "You are dominating and inconsiderate". The person who is told this will probably react defensively.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

3) What are the important roles of adult educators?

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10.6 LET US SUM UP

We highlighted key-training methods and materials used in the training process. We discussed the multiple roles of an adult educator. Finally we explained the need and process of self-development for an adult educator.

10.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- 1) The distinction between methods, aids, equipments and techniques can be summed up as follows.

Methods	Tools/ Aids	Equipments	Techniques
Refer to how subject matter is going to be dealt with in a broad sense, e. g. group discussion, lecture, role play, demonstration, etc.	Refer to the various supporting materials that are used in the course of training, e. g. slides, posters, film clips, models, etc.	Refer to the infrastructure which helps in utilizing aids i. e. over-head projectors, slide projectors, etc.	Refer to the variations of the method, e. g. under the broad heading of Small Group Discussion (SGDs), the method used could be plenary, brainstorming, fish-bowl, etc.

- 2) i) The three methods/techniques which I feel important, useful or best for participatory training are:
- Case Study,
 - Role Play, and
 - Learning Games.
- ii) Following are the advantages and disadvantages of simulation method.

Advantages	Disadvantages
- Allows an exploration of real life situations, social processes and behaviours in a relatively non threatening manner/ situation. - It allows for the study of very complex social processes. - It is entirely controlled by the learners' pace. - It involves activity and universal participation. - Learning takes place at the awareness level.	- It requires that participants cooperate and internalize the roles. - It is a difficult method and requires an experienced and skilled adult educator to conduct it. - Mismatch of roles may lead to poor performances by the learners. - Critical skills are needed to handle feelings generated in the process.

- 3) An adult educator performs different and important roles such as: Training designer and planner, Manager, Facilitator, Educator, Friend, philosopher, counselor and guide, Learner, Recorder and documenter, Evaluator, Follow-up co-coordinator, Report writer.

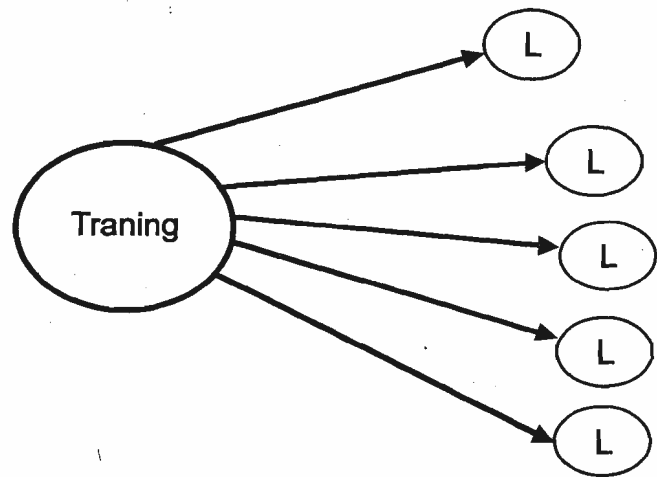


Figure 9.1: The Didactic Trainer → Learner Method

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/

In the conventional training:

- Relationship between the trainer and the learners is in the mode of teacher and students relationship.
- The trainer and the training institution have the responsibility of training.
- The trainer defines what the learners need to learn and how these learning needs can be met.
- Learners learn what the trainer teaches; have little knowledge about the topic and have no experience to share. Learning is simply a function of the capacity of the learners to learn and the ability of the trainer to teach.
- The trainer is considered important because she/he is assumed to be knowledgeable.

When we view this method from adult learners' vantage point we find that this method is not an effective training model. It disregards learners' knowledge and experience. Adults generally learn better and remember what they learned when they:

- Hear information,
- See demonstrations and illustrations,
- Discuss information and ideas, and
- Practice techniques.

Participatory training deals with adults and as such, has its theoretical base in the principles of active learning and adult learning.

9.2.2 Principles of Adult Learning

Adult learning takes place on the basis of certain principles which are as follows.

- Adults come to the learning situation with a well-defined perception about one's self. Low self-concept blocks new learning. Low self-concept may have been due to their perception of their past experiences of marginalisation. Building their self-concept can facilitate their learning.
- Adult learning is an emotional experience. The act of learning creates anxiety, stress, fear, frustrations or helplessness. This needs to be understood and handled with sensitivity.
- Adults usually come with an intention to learn. If this motivation is not supported they will withdraw. Learning improves when self-directedness is encouraged, when they identify what they need to learn and do. Therefore, the learning content needs to be derived from their needs, and methods must be based on mutual respect between the learner and the trainer.
- Adults are voluntary learners. They enter learning programmes to seek solutions to their immediate and personal needs and to accomplish things to improve their lives and to gain control over their lives. The here and now feeling must be respected and recognised to keep them motivated to learn. The solutions to their problems must come from their understanding and analysis and must be congruent with their life style and functioning.
- Adults learn best in an atmosphere of active involvement and participation. Learning is an active process conducted in an atmosphere of openness and encouragement. It is not just taking part in a pre-set programme; instead the learners participate at every stage from planning the agenda, choosing methods to self-evaluation.
- Adult education helps groups to organise, stay together and grow. People develop their creativity and insights when working with others to identify and solve problems. Collectively they recognize their knowledge, skills, interests and ability to act.
- Success reinforces learning. When people succeed in their activity, their satisfaction motivates them to get more involved. It is often best to begin with a small and immediate problem. Successful solutions of the problems will empower them to face problems and expand their vision of the future.
- Participation is difficult when there are financial, physical, or socio-political constraints. Learning takes place when learners are not under stress; when learning environment is safe and supportive.
- Different adults learn differently. This necessitates use of diverse sets of learning methods to enable the learner and the learning process.

The adult learning model applies the adult education principles to participatory training programmes. Learners actively participate when the principles and practices of adult education form the basis of the training programme. They learn quickly and retain new knowledge and skills. The implications of adult education principles for training can be summed up as follows:

Implications of Adult Education Principles

Adult Education Principles	Implications for the training plan
Adults learn best when they perceive learning as relevant to their needs.	• Provide “real life” situations and emphasize the application of learning to real problems. • Identify learners’ needs and what is important to them.
Adults learn by doing and by being actively involved in the learning process.	• Provide activities, which require active participation of learners. • Provide activities which involve the learners as whole people: their ideas, attitudes, feelings, physical being.
Adults have unique learning styles. They learn in different ways, at different rates, and from different experiences.	• Use a variety of training techniques. • Establish an atmosphere of respect and understanding of differences.
Participants bring relevant and important knowledge and experiences to the workshop.	• Provide opportunities for sharing information. • Discuss and analyze participants’ experiences. • Use participants as a resource and encourage them to participate and share their experiences.

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

9.2.3 Principles of Participatory Training

The salient features of participatory training principles are as follows.

- Participatory training is participant centered. The training rises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them.
- The learning not only imparts new knowledge but also generates awareness and builds skills.
- Learning is derived from the experiences of the learners. Experiential learning is crucial to participatory training.
- Participatory training requires a learning environment where learners and their experiences are valued and they feel psychologically secure and safe to unlearn, try their new ideas and share their experiences.
- Participation of learners in the entire training process is valued. Consequently they develop their own norms, values and take responsibility for their own learning.
- The role of trainer is very crucial. The trainer believes not only in the participatory principles, but demonstrates it as a way of life.

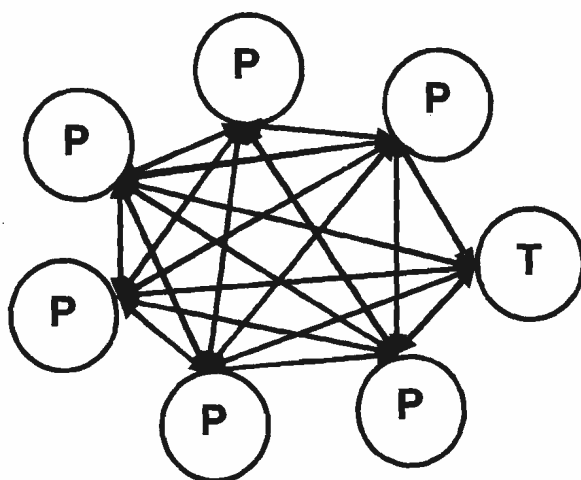


Figure 9.2: Active Learning Method of Participatory Training

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

Roles and Functions of the Trainer and the Learners in Participatory Training: Given below is a gist of the roles and functions of both the trainer and the learners in participatory training.

The Trainer	The Participants
• Is a facilitator	• Are members of a communication network
• Is a good communicator	• Feel at ease
• Works at the same level as the participants	• Participate actively
• Respects participants' ideas and experiences	• Share experiences
• Is supportive of the learning process	• Ask questions, make mistakes, and take risks as part of the training process
• Is an organiser of learning experiences	• Use the trainer as a resource, guide and mentor

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

9.2.4 Spheres of Influence

The training programme design is perhaps the most difficult task as factors outside the training sphere influence the interaction inside the training room. Interactions within training are influenced, enhanced or impeded by the wider spheres where training policies are formulated and decisions are made. For instance, the trainer who follows a bottom-up problem oriented conscientisation processes might face problems if operating in a highly centralised political framework. Figure 9.3 helps us to understand the ways in which interactions within a training room are influenced by the wider spheres outside the training room. An initiative in any one of these circles can cause ripples in both directions. When resources are scarce, institutional attitudes are rigid and directive; designing a participatory training programme can be full of constraints.

As someone involved in training programme you might be situated in any one or more of these circles:

- You might be a member of staff of an institution engaged to provide training.
- You might be an official of a govt department charged with the responsibility of planning training programmes.
- You may be an advisor working for an international agency with responsibility for collaborating with implementing organizations in planning and implementing training.



Figure 9.3: Influences of Wider Spheres on the Interaction inside the Training Room

Source: United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat), 1988: 27.

The preliminary identification of spheres and roles makes distinctions between levels of decision-making, when we consider the variety of steps in programme design.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

1) State salient principles of participatory training

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9.3 STEPS IN PARTICIPATORY TRAINING PROCESS

Participatory training process emphasises a systematic and comprehensive effort to design, conduct and evaluate a training programme. It comprises a series of steps in three distinct phases. The pre-training phase focuses on designing of the training programme. During the training phase, focus is on group facilitation, debriefing and consolidation, and creating a conducive learning environment. The post-training phase includes such steps as evaluation, follow-up and report writing. We will here first discuss the spheres of influence and then go on to pre-training, during training and post-training phases of the participatory training process.

9.3.1 Pre-Training Phase: Designing Training

This is the most critical and most creative component of the training programme. It comprises the following steps.

- a) Conducting learning/training needs assessment. What do participants want and need? What does the organisation want and need?
- b) Formulating objectives based on organisational and personal needs.
- c) Identifying content from the objectives.
- d) Sequencing the content. How to start a programme and end it? How to sequence the various content to develop the pace for learning?
- e) Choosing the methods.
- a) **Conducting Training Needs Assessment:** What is meant by training needs assessment? A training needs assessment is the process of identifying the requirements in a given situation, in this case, what the trainees in the workshop need to learn. If we are engaged in a programme of basic education and we want to promote a deeper commitment on this issue in the village education committee, then the members of the village education committee become the learners.

Why training needs assessment is vital?

- To develop long and short range plans of action.
- To help set priorities.
- To develop support and stimulate action.
- To design a workshop that will provide the participants with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed in their jobs.
- How is one to assess training needs?
- Identify the information needed.
- Identify the sources of information.

Broadly, there are three *sources* for identifying training needs of a particular group. Although they are independent sources for gathering information, you must consider them as complementary to one another in order to prepare a consolidated list of training needs. The three sources are:

- Job descriptions of the job or task that learners perform give insight into the learning needs of the group. The nature and requirements of their work become a source of information about their learning needs. This exercise can be done for each individual learner, for the entire group of learners as well as for an organisation as a whole. Make sure that the job description is complete and accurate (Add or revise tasks as needed).
- Existing records, documents and other such materials can also become useful sources of information. These records may be minutes of meetings, progress reports, performance review documents, etc. They can also be records of events and problems that a group of learners might already have worked on.
- Previous training conducted with the same learners and reports of the session could also be a source of useful information. Some time these reports may also have future learning need assessment.

Result of need assessment

- A needs assessment identifies the gap between the present situation and the desired situation.
- You can examine both present and desired behaviour, knowledge, skills and attitudes.
- You can collect data, which will be useful during the evaluation stage.

Given below are some Dos and Don'ts regarding need assessment.

Some Dos and Don'ts

Dos

- Make systematic and comprehensive design efforts
- Know the background and the needs of the participants

Don'ts

- Borrow standard formats and designs from others
- Fit session to requirement and availability of trainers, training institutions and resource persons' availability
- Organize materials and locations to suit the need of trainers, training institutions and budgets
- Identify content to suit the methods

Source: PRIA.1996. *Insights to Participatory Training*. New Delhi: PRIA (Mimeo).

- b) **Defining Objectives:** What is meant by defining objectives? An objective is a specific statement of what a participant must be able to do in order to demonstrate that he or she has achieved the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to complete a task. Each objective must be:
- Specific:* It must state exactly what the participant will do.
- Measurable:* It contains quantitative terms (e.g., numbers, percentages).
- Attainable:* It is possible for the participant to accomplish.
- Relevant:* It is related to what is needed on the job.
- Time Bound:* It states how long it will take to achieve the objective.

Why should we define objectives?

- All learning needs do not get fulfilled through a single training programme. We have to make a choice of those learning needs that can actually be addressed in a structured, systematic and planned training programme.
- Foci of learning can be classified in three ways.
 - i) The first is learning of knowledge i.e. gathering of information, concepts, and ideas. This is **“cognitive learning”**- it includes mental, abstract and intellectual effort.
 - ii) The second focus of learning is called **awareness where an emotional appreciation** of the issues is aimed at. It includes themes like motivation, commitment, values, emotions, (matters of heart), etc.
 - iii) The third focus of learning is to **build skills** in a specific area, for example, skills in vaccination. This framework of learning helps us to separate and clearly specify the objective of a particular training programme.
- Objectives serve to relate the content of the training to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes identified in task analysis, which is based on the desired job performance of the participants. They make planning and implementation of training focused, effective, and efficient. They are the standards used to evaluate the training.

How do we define objectives?

- Determine skills, facts and attitudes which learners already have and identify those they need to learn (expectations). In the training workshop stress only those facts that participants **MUST** learn to be competent in their work (see Figure 9.4). The objectives of training programme are directly linked to what the learners need to learn.
- Use active verbs when writing objectives.

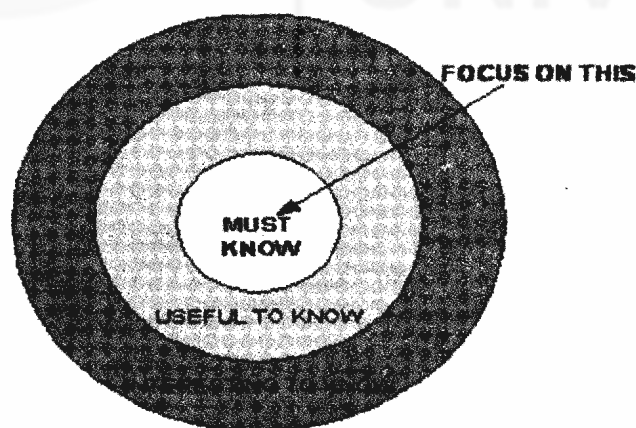


Figure 9.4: Focal Point

Source: www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

Here, you can look at an illustration given below regarding Participatory Training on Panchayati Raj.

Expectations of the trainees

- To acquire information and knowledge on Panchayati Raj System, 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act in rural development, empowerment of women and dalits
- Practical grassroots experience with gram panchayats
- Ways to communicate the essence of Panchayati raj system to rural masses

Objectives

- To develop an understanding of Panchayati Raj System with special reference to 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act and its role in community development and empowerment
- To sensitize the development workers to strengthen gram sabha and gram panchayat
- To develop an understanding of various low cost methods of communication to spread the message of Panchayati raj to marginalized sections of society.

- c) **Identifying Content from the Objectives:** Once we have derived the objectives of a particular training programme precisely, the next task in designing is to identify the content, which will help us to achieve those objectives.

In identifying the content, we once again need to look at:

- Who our learners are?
- What is their level?
- What is their starting point?
- What do they already know?
- How much detailed information can be given?
- Which combination of learning foci need to be emphasized with a particular group of learners?

For example, suppose a training programme to generate greater commitment towards education of the girl child among members of the village education committee has to be conducted. This would require an emphasis on creating awareness rather than skills because the village education committee is not directly responsible for teaching; that is the job of the teacher.

The elaboration of content in order to respond to each of the objectives of training requires considerable knowledge of the subject matter. Experts may have to be consulted. Yet, it must be ensured that the content is appropriate to the level of learners and not overly detailed.

- d) **Sequencing the Content:** Having identified different content areas, the sequence or flow of different contents needs to be specified. The important thing in sequencing is to determine how the entire training programme will flow from the beginning to the end and how one content area follows another.

There are several important considerations when determining a useful sequence. Logically sequenced content takes learners step-by-step from one pace of knowledge and learning to other. Sequencing of the content can be done in the following ways:

- First, the content related to the individual is dealt with followed by content related to the group, moving on to the community and then to the society. It is a micro to macro sequencing of contents.

For example, Micro-Macro Sequencing of Contents for a Sensitisation Workshop on Violence against Women can be illustrated as follows.

Day 1	Session	Method
9.30 am-10.30 am	Welcome Introduction	
10.30 am-11.00am	Tea	
11.00 am- 1.00 pm	Issues and challenges concerning women	Individual exercise and group discussion
1.00 pm- 2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm- 4.00 pm	Violence against women: personal experiences	Individual case studies and open discussion
4.00 pm- 4.30 pm	Tea	
4.30 pm- 6.00 pm	Video on strategies to combat violence against women	Video and open discussion
Day 2		
9.30 am - 11.00 am	Perpetuation of violence against women: Psychological and family analysis.	Case study and discussion
11.00 am-11.30 am	Tea	
11.30- 1.00 pm	Perpetuation of violence against women: Societal analysis	Case study and discussion
1.00 pm-2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm - 4.00 pm	Strategies to combat violence against women	Lecture
4.00 pm- 4.15 pm	Tea	
4.15 pm- 6.00 pm	Individual strategies to overcome violence against women	Individual assignment and group discussion

- Second, the sequence moves from society to community to the group followed by self. This is macro to micro sequencing. Look at another illustration below.

Macro-Micro Sequencing of Contents for a Sensitisation workshop on PRIs for first time Pradhans of Panchayats.

Day 1	Session	Method
9.30-10.30 am	Welcome Introduction	
10.30 am-11.00am	Tea	
11.00 am- 1.00 pm	Perspective on development and Participatory Development	Buzz group and lecture
1.00 pm- 2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm- 4.00 pm	73rd constitutional amendment- salient points	Lecture
4.00 pm- 4.30 pm	Tea	
4.30 pm- 6.00 pm	Video on PRI functioning	Video and open discussion
Day 2		
9.30 am - 11.00 am	Roles and responsibilities of Pradhan	Lecture
11.00 am-11.30 am	Tea	
11.30- 1.00 pm	Factors promoting and hindering functioning of Pradhans	Case study
1.00 pm-2.00 pm	Lunch	
2.00 pm - 3.00 pm	Presentation of group report and discussion	
3.00 pm- 3.30 pm	Tea	
3.30 pm- 5.00 pm	Plans for applying learning to own work	Individual assignment and group discussion

- Third, is a combination of these two sequences, where one starts with macro, comes to micro and then moves again to the macro level. The sequence flows from society to community to group to self and back to the group to community to society.
- e) **Choosing Methods:** The last step in the process of designing is selection of appropriate methods. In this area of work, we use learning-training methods as these address each focus of learning directly.

If the focus of learning is knowledge, concepts and information, it can be best provided through what is known as the lecture method. The other methods of acquiring new knowledge could be demonstration, field visits, etc.

- For literate participants, reading materials can also be provided. But the quality, level and appropriateness of those materials need to be ensured.
- Other aids like flip charts, posters, transparencies, etc. may also be used. But essentially the purpose of a lecture, either by one person or by a panel of persons, is to provide additional information, new knowledge and concepts to the group of learners.

When **the focus of learning is awareness**, the existing experience of learners can be utilized. Methods appropriate for awareness have been called **structured experiences** because they make structured use of either the past or the present experience of learners or others.

- Group discussion as a vehicle for learning is one such example. Learners in a small group share their experiences and critically analyse them to develop new insights and appreciate the issues involved.
- Exercises and simulations generated during the training programme are other examples of structured experiences. These make use of the experience generated during the training itself.
- Role-play is another example of structured experience. It encourages the learners to enact a part of the reality they have observed or experienced. Role-play also promotes awareness.
- The case study method is useful in situations where other people's experiences are used for the learning experience of a group. The case study may be written, oral, audio, or audio-visual.

The third **focus of learning is the learning of skills**. No skills are learnt without practice.

- Apprenticeship is a long-standing method of learning skills. Be it playing on a sitar or repairing of scooters, in both cases the model of practice is apprenticeship. During the training programme itself, methods should be such that allow practicing of skills by the learners.

Certain methods are more suited to achieve certain objectives. For example, you can see below the interrelationship of certain methods and objectives.

Inter-relationship between Objectives and Methods

Imparting knowledge	Developing skills	Changing attitudes
Lecture	Demonstration	Discussion
Reading	Practice	Practice
Case study	Case study	Case study
Audio visual	Simulation	Simulation
Presentation	Role play	Role play

The choice of the learning method is a crucial determinant of an effective training programme. Following the above steps, a time schedule is set. Ideally the length of the training programme is determined by assessing how long it would take to achieve the training goals. However, in reality a number of constraints affect the decisions such as willingness of the employers to release their staff, and willingness of the trainees to be away from their families if the training programme is a residential one. Therefore, important consideration would be the time given to the project work in the field, theoretical study and simulated practice in the training centre. Participatory learning depends upon the availability of materials. Sometimes the programme planner will have to prepare learning materials; and provide learning resources where they do not exist such as a library or information resource centre. Resource persons are identified if needed. It is important that

resource persons have experience of field practice as well as academic knowledge and teaching expertise. Unless we have this we shall not be able to engage in problem solving, reflective, experiential mode of training. You cannot tap and share the experience of others if you yourself lack it.

Considerations for selecting a method for developing skills

- Who are the learners and what is their background?
- How to create a conducive-learning environment?
- Availability of physical infrastructure, material and other resources.
- Size of the learning group and facilitator.
- What are the trainers' capacities and competence?

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

2) List out the steps in Pre-training Phase.

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9.3.2 Post-Training Phase: Follow-up and Report Writing

Post-training phase can be divided into follow-up and report writing.

- a) **Follow-up of Training:** Follow-up of the training programme is essentially meant to continue the process of learning initiated during the training programme. Each training programme creates a set of knowledge and ideas, which learners try to implement in their own situations. These efforts may require further support as follow-up.

Everything that is done by learners and trainers after the training programme does not constitute follow-up. Follow-up is any process of intervention and support provided to an individual and/ or group, to further enhance their learning process, for a specified period of time, following the training programme. Thus follow-up implies activities carried out to support the learning process after the training programme within a given time-frame.

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

- Follow-up provides support, encouragement, knowledge and resources needed to implement the learning the learner acquires during the training programme;
- It helps to define additional learning needs during the period immediately after the training programme. It helps to continue the learning process by bringing out new learning needs;
- Follow-up is also used to assess the training programme and its impact on the learners, their work and their organisations. This helps the trainers in designing future training programmes;
- Follow-up provides an opportunity for the learners to consolidate their own experiences acquired during the training programme;
- In a broad sense, follow-up can also be used strategically. If training has larger objectives of social change, follow-up can be used in a strategic way to: a) Foster a feeling of solidarity among the like-minded activists and the organization; b) Sustain the process and efforts of cadre building and formation of networks; and c) Strengthen formation of small groups and facilitate a process of building a larger and stronger organization.

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

Some possible methods are:

- Face to face interactions among learners themselves and between learners and trainers. For example, field visits by other learners or trainers to a site, meetings of only the learners, as well as along with trainers, meetings of all learners or a sub-group. It may also involve conducting advance training, providing additional learning material, providing opportunity for apprenticeship, etc.
 - The choice of the method should depend on the needs of the learners and availability of resources. Illiterate, rural and urban poor learners may require greater use of direct methods; project holders may be satisfied with indirect methods only. A combination of direct and indirect methods is generally very effective.
 - It is important to plan a follow-up deliberately and consciously. It does not happen automatically. Broad follow-up plans should be considered at the time of developing the design of the programme. Details of the follow-up can be again worked out at the end of the programme, along with the learners.
- b) **Report Writing:** Generally, report writing is considered a time consuming and boring job. It is a common feeling that the report is only useful for administrators or researchers. Report writing however is a basic tool, which provides information about the event, the objectives, content, process and methodology. Report writing is important as it helps maintain records of an event and can later give rise to new ideas on reflection. Reports are also a part of the organisational memory and follow-up strategy.

Types of Reports: Although there are no specific types of reports, for the purposes of training they may be broadly classified into:

- Process-based training report
- Data-based training report and
- Research-based training report

The process-based report is meant to help one understand the event in detail. Along with quantitative data the main emphasis of the report is to provide its audience the elements of methodology used by the trainers in achieving the objectives. It also explains the methods and techniques used in such a way that the readers can develop the skills themselves. Most of the case-study types of training reports fall under this category. The style of presentation of this type of report outlines both process and contents in detail. This type of report is useful for those who are trainers or those who would like to see how a particular training programme was facilitated, and how a particular method was used in achieving a particular objective.

The data based report is a report that informs the readers about the event. It presents the objectives of the training and outlines the content of the training with the types of methods and materials as well as the resource persons in a precise form. This kind of report stresses more on factual data. These reports are generally meant for the donors, government departments, administrators, etc, because of their interest in knowing the type of people involved, the outline of the content, and the use of funds for the event.

The research-based training report emphasizes the how and why of a training event. The objective of this report is to identify some of the basic learning that is used by the trainers in attaining a particular objective. The analysis of the methodology is used as a basis for this kind of research report. Researchers use such training reports to study different aspects and methods of training used by the trainers. Sometimes such reports are also prepared to evaluate the effectiveness of the training programme and whether such a training model can be used in future. At times, a report may be a combination of all the three types.

The structure or format of the report depends upon the audience at whom the report is directed. The style of presentation should also meet the needs of the audience. While writing the report the following questions should be considered:

- What were the objectives of the training?
- How was the training planned?
- What were the subject / content areas?
- How were these subjects/ content areas developed?
- What were the methodologies used by the trainers?
- What was the result of the training?

After answering these questions, then the next step is developing the structure of report. Various aspects need to be considered:

- Objectives
- About learners \
- About trainers
- Approach of training
- Main themes and subjects
- Materials and methods used
- Process - the happening
- Evaluation
- Critical analyses of process by the trainer

You can use the following tips on report writing.

- Take detailed notes during the training programme.
- If possible write a brief- report daily.
- Make a record of the important activities conducted during the training on a regular basis, while the training is going on.
- Record the behavioural aspects of the trainees during the training.
- Capture processes along with the contents.
- Keep one set of learning materials for reference.
- Note details of presentations made by groups.
- Write in a simple lucid language and try to write the report soon after the completion of training.
- Seek inputs from your co-trainer/co-facilitator.

9.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have described concepts, principles underlying adult learning and participatory training. We found that the conventional training programmes adopt a trainer centric approach where the trainer is a central point around which the entire process revolves. The learners adopt a passive role. Participatory training, on the contrary is participant-centered. The training arises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them. Participatory training, premises on the principles of participatory research, aimed to bring about changes in attitudes, behaviour and functioning of learners by bringing changes in their perception of their abilities and needs; it also empowers the learners by providing them information and equipping them with appropriate skills and means to use information in relevant context. We have also described the steps in participatory training process in three different phase viz., pre, during and post training.

9.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- 1) The salient features or principles of participatory training are as follows.
 - Participatory training is participant centered. The training rises out of specific needs of participants as articulated by them.
 - The learning not only imparts new knowledge but also generates awareness and builds skills.
 - Learning is derived from the experiences of the learners. Experiential learning is crucial to participatory training.
 - Participatory training requires a learning environment where learners and their experiences are valued and they feel psychologically secure and safe to unlearn, try new ideas and share their experiences.
 - Participation of learners in the entire training process is valued. Consequently they develop their own norms, values and take responsibility for their own learning.
 - The role of the trainer is very crucial. The trainer believes not only in the participatory principles, but demonstrates it as a way of life.

- 2) Pre-training phase: Basically it refers to designing training and comprises the following steps.
- Conducting learning needs assessment. What do participants want and need? What does the organization want and need?
 - Formulating objectives based on organizational and personal needs.
 - Identifying content from the objectives.
 - Sequencing the content. How to start a programme and end it? How to sequence the various content to develop the pace for learning?
 - Choosing the methods.

9.6 REFERENCES

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www.rhrc.org/resources/general_fieldtools/toolkit/.

UNIT 11 LEARNING ENVIRONMENT OF PARTICIPATORY TRAINING

Structure

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Learning Environment
 - 11.2.1 Small Group Facilitation
 - 11.2.2 Group Processes
- 11.3 Participation
 - 11.3.1 Decision-making
 - 11.3.2 Problem-Solving
- 11.4 Leadership
 - 11.4.1 Leadership Styles
 - 11.4.2 Factors Affecting Leadership Behaviour
 - 11.4.3 Role of the Leader
- 11.5 Conflict Resolution
- 11.6 The Unconscious Processes of Groups
 - 11.6.1 Role of Group Members
 - 11.6.2 Facilitation of a Group
- 11.7 Debriefing and Consolidation
 - 11.7.1 Important Considerations While Conducting Training
 - 11.7.2 Trainer's Role and Behaviour
- 11.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.9 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 11.10 References

11.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit is about the phase of training when actual learning takes place during the training programme. Learning environment consists of a team of multidisciplinary participants. They bring with them different perspectives on their roles in the task of working with adults in different communities. Section 11.2 will familiarise you with the concepts and issues of group process in participatory training. Different forms of participation are highlighted in Section 11.3 describes. Section 11.4 discusses the role of leadership during the training period. You will learn about conflict resolution in the section 11.5 and about unconscious processes of groups in Section 11.6. In Section 11.7 we will explain the process of debriefing and consolidation.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the nature of ways in which learner groups perform;

- Discuss the nature of participation of adult learners;
- Critically examine the issue of leadership in the course of actual training;
- Analyse the concerns in conflict resolution; and
- Discuss group processes and deal with the processes of debriefing and consolidation.

11.2 LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

We need to know the ways in which groups perform while learning, and also the processes that facilitate participatory group learning.

11.2.1 Small Group Facilitation

One of the key components of participatory method is the emphasis on multi disciplinary teams of learners. By working as a group the team members can approach situations from different perspectives, carefully monitor each others' work and carry several tasks simultaneously. The trainer needs to know the ways in which groups perform.

When several people come to work together, they are not necessarily a productive team. Before people in the group function well together, they must pass through several stages.

Initially people come together, sometimes as strangers and as colleagues, to create a new group for some stated purpose. In this forming stage they are still a collection of people, each with their own agenda and expertise and with little shared experience. As they become familiar with one another they enter a stage of brainstorming, where personal values and principles are challenged, roles and responsibilities are taken, and group objectives of working together becomes more defined. As the individuals begin to understand their roles in relation to others, they establish a shared vision, develop a clear identity and group specific norms of behaviour. This is the stage of norm-building. As the norms have been established the group becomes ready to focus on output, they enter the stage of performing. It is in this stage that they begin to act as a team, willing to take significant risks and try out new ideas on their own.

Participatory training makes it imperative that learners work as part of a group. A small group is able to share experiences, provide feedback, pool ideas, and generate insights and analysis. It is basic to experiential learning. Learners may also plan collectively for change action. In a group, both content related and process related behaviour occurs. The content aspect relates to what group does. It includes key objectives, the learning agenda and the topics of learning. It is concerned with how the group achieves its objectives, how it moves through its agenda and how it communicates its content.

Insights into group processes are important in order to facilitate critical learning. In sub-section 11.2.2 you will learn about the group processes. Continuous monitoring of the processes helps the trainer to revise the pace of training, select methods, and many a time also logistics as well as physical setting.

11.2.2 Group Processes

Communication is an integral part of group processes. Similarly active participation is also a key element of group processes. Since participation is the essence of participatory training, you will learn about it in detail in Section 11.3. Here we will talk about the direction, mode and reception of communication.

Communication: Communication within a group deals with the spoken, unspoken, verbal, non-verbal explicit and implied messages that are conveyed, exchanged relating to information, ideas, values and feelings. To understand the various exchanges while they occur one has to consider various aspects of communication such as direction, mode and reception.

- a) **The direction of the communication:** It includes the following.
- i) **One-way and two-way communication:** One-way communication relates to a situation where one person conveys the message and the other passively receives it. Two-way communication implies a situation where not only do the two parties talk to each other but that they are listening to each other as well. It helps in clarification of doubts, confusions and misconceptions. Both parties understand each other well and give feedback to each other.
 - ii) **Communication networks:** By observing who talks to whom, one can understand the communication networks and the existing hierarchies between the group members. If we plot our observations, we may see the following patterns.

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

Communication can also take place horizontally. Those in inferior positions tend to talk up to the other person, demonstrating humility or submission. Those who assume a superior position tend to do the opposite. In a position of relative equality, as between good friends, communication can occur horizontally.

- b) **The mode of communication:** We are used to equating communication with conversation or through exchange of words. A great deal of what we express and understand does not get expressed through words. We also communicate non-verbally through gestures, expressions, changes in voice. In fact we communicate very little through words. Non-verbal expressions form a greater part of our communication. While non-verbal signals are translated unconsciously, we can make our communication effective by becoming aware of the non-verbal communication process; becoming conscious of the signals we are transmitting and ensure that our non-verbal expressions match our verbal pronouncements.

Communication in the non-verbal mode

- Using our bodies - through gestures, posture, facial expressions, eye movements.
- Using our voice - laugh, yawn, scream, whisper.
- Using our skin - touch, pat, push.
- Using distance - sitting close, standing very far, sitting on a higher seat, standing behind a table.
- Using clothes, hairstyles, perfumes, jewelleryes, accessories to make certain statements about ourselves.
- Using silence - convey a range of emotions as disapproval, shock, hurt, joy, togetherness.

Source: PRIA. 1998. *A Manual for Participatory Training Methodology in Development*, p.23. New Delhi: PRIA.

- c) **Reception of Communication:** Besides putting across our own ideas and points of view, it is also important to listen carefully to others. When people are talking to each other, it does not mean that they are also listening to each other. Listening is based on hearing and understanding what others say to us. It is only possible only when we pay attention to what is being said. There are certain guidelines for effective listening.

Guidelines for effective listening

- Concentrate on hearing-we think four times faster than the other person can speak, so our thoughts tend to stray.
- Listen with an open mind
- Pay attention and understand what is being said-listen beyond the words, understand the feelings, emotions, what is being implied. Be alert to non-verbal messages.
- Do not predict what the speaker is trying to say-do not jump to conclusions.
- Do not pretend to have understood when you have not. Clarify your doubts, and request the speaker to re-explain.
- Do not become defensive and do not argue or interrupt.
- To ensure that we are listening attentively we should from time to time restate, repeat and summarise what we think is being said.

It is helpful to understand barriers to effective communication at both personal and situational levels. There are barriers to effective communication.

Barriers to effective communication:

At the personal level

- Our values, opinions, prejudices and attitudes
- The tendency to speak or react before thinking

- Stereotyping people-making quick generalizations
- Use of words and phrases with personalised meanings
- Lack of trust

At the situational level

- Physical well being and mood of the individual
- Differences in the backgrounds and context of the learners
- Differences in the language spoken

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi. PRIA.

As a participant observer in a communication process you can do the following for analysis and promoting effective learning.

Select a 30 minute period of communication and note down answers as per the checklist given below and then analyze the direction and mode of communication in this example.

Checklist for observing communication

- Who talks? For how long? How often?
- Who talks to whom? To the group as a whole or to some people in the group?
- Who talks after whom? Is it encouraging or challenging?
- Who interrupts whom? Are some people interrupted all the time?
- Do the members listen to each other?
- What non-verbal messages are being conveyed?

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

1) i) What are the guidelines you should keep in mind for your effective listening?

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ii) What will be the focus of your observation and listening if you want to analyse the direction and mode of communication in group processes?

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11.3 PARTICIPATION

Participation is a fundamental process within a group. If members do not participate, the group ceases to exist. Mere physical presence and being vocal does not mean that participation has taken place. Levels and degrees of participation vary. Some members participate actively. They are talkative, demanding and volatile. Some, on the contrary, are withdrawn, quiet and passive but they listen very carefully. There are different factors that affect members' participation.

Factors, which affect members' participation

- The content and task of the group - is it interesting, important and relevant?
- The physical atmosphere - is it physically, socially and psychologically comfortable?
- The psychological atmosphere - is it accepting or non-threatening?
- The level of interaction and discussion - is adequate information provided for everyone to understand? Is it at the level everyone understands?
- Familiarities between group members - do members know each other from before?

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

It is important to identify and tackle indifferent and uninvolved members who are there in a group but actually not there. They can potentially damage the group.

If you want to analyse participation of each member of the group in a session, you can do the following.

In order to observe nature of participation, select a particular session of group interaction among participants of an adult learning group at your adult learning centre and write down the answers as per the checklist given below and then analyse the quality of participation of each member of the group.

Checklist for observing participation

- How much talking is done by the leader? How much is done by others?
- To whom are questions usually addressed - the group as a whole or to particular members?
- Do members appear interested, bored, and self-conscious?
- Is formation of pairs and sub groupings taking place? Are they discussing issues other than those addressing the group task?
- Are quiet members encouraged to speak? If yes, who has encouraged them?

You can make out the nature of participation if group members participate democratically in decision-making processes of the group.

11.3.1 Decision-making

Decision-making within a group takes place in one or more of the following ways.

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

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

Pairing: Two individuals joining forces make a decision. One floats the idea, other seconds it and the decision is made on behalf of the group.

Minority group: The clique makes the decision and the rest accept it.

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

Consensus: This is essentially a minimum consent by all. It is important to differentiate between a true and a false consensus. True consensus occurs when everyone has contributed to the discussion, all angles have been considered and everyone is in full agreement. This type of consensus, though desirable is not always possible. What can be aimed at is that everyone feels they have had the opportunity to put forth their views and influence the decision, it was a good and open discussion, and they are prepared to act on the decision taken.

Field Illustration of Decision-making

In development training for village water and sanitation committee members (fifteen in numbers) of Ramgarh village of Uttar Pradesh, the group was given a task of making a village sanitation plan. It was observed that the village Pradhan, representing the strong Rajput section of the village, took all the key decisions in the plan. Six more men of the Rajput community supported him in his decision. The suggestions of the five women in the committee were not given much significance. Nor were the dalit men given much of a role in the decision-making. Dissatisfaction and discomfort in the group were clearly evident.

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

Hints for observing decision-making process

Select a session that you have in your adult learning centre. Observe the decision making as per the check list given below and analyse the nature of participation in the session. Write down the results of your analysis on a separate sheet of paper.

Check list for observing decision-making process

- Does anyone make contributions, which do not receive any kind of response or recognition? What effect does this have on the member?
- Does anyone make a decision and carry it out without checking with other group members? For example, she/he decides on the topic to be discussed and immediately begins to talk about it. What *effect* does this have on other group's members?
- Who supports other member's suggestions or decisions? Does this support result in the two members deciding the topic or activity for the group? How does this affect other group members?
- Is there any evidence of a majority pushing a decision through over other member's objections? Do they call for a vote?
- Is there any attempt to get all members to participate in a decision? What effect does this seem to have on the group?
- Is the decision made by consensus? Are differences fully explored? Is there unanimity or full agreement?

11.3.2 Problem-Solving

Most groups find themselves unable to solve a problem because they address it at a superficial level. After that they find themselves blocked because they cannot figure out why the problem occurred and how they can tackle it. For effective problemsolving they may pursue the following procedure.

Clearly define the problem: Collect additional information, from elsewhere if necessary, and analyse it to understand the problem further.

Look for solutions and the normal sequence of events. Sometimes it pays to deliberately think of 'wild ideas; which are apparently not relevant. The objective should be to generate as many ideas and suggestions as possible.

Choose the appropriate alternative. This will involve resolving some conflict. Collaborative and consensus based resolution is preferable rather than forcing a choice. Considerable discussion is needed to evaluate the various alternative solutions on the basis of constraints and available resources.

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

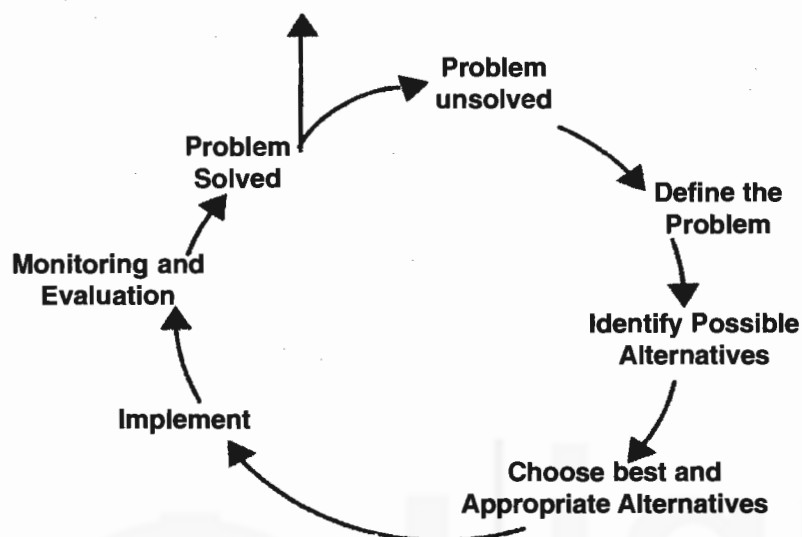


Figure 11.1: Steps in problem solving

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under “Answers to Check Your Progress”.

2) i) What are the factors that affect participation of members in a group decision-making process?

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ii) What are the different ways in which decision-making is done in a group?

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iii) What steps would you follow in solving a problem?

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11.4 LEADERSHIP

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

11.4.1 Leadership Styles

Leadership styles may be classified on the basis of the behaviour of the leader:

- **The Autocratic Leader:** who imposes his own will with very little concern for the members' needs, opinions and preferences. Such a leader has great concern for accomplishing the task but little or no concern for the members.
- **The Laissez-faire Leader:** who has little or no concern for the task at hand, but is concerned about the people, letting them act according to their own wishes.
- **The Democratic Leader:** who is concerned equally with the task and the people. In the ultimate democratic tradition, the leadership function is shared between members of the group.

11.4.2 Factors Affecting Leadership Behaviour

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

- **Within the leader:** Is the leader convinced about sharing authority? Does she/he have confidence and trust in the rest of the group - a sense of security? What is her/his value system?
- **Within the group:** Are members willing to take responsibility? Are they mature and interested? How cohesive is the group? Can they act together? What is the degree and level of involvement? Is there a sense of autonomy or of dependence?

- **Within the situation:** Is there a time constraint? Is there a crisis? What is the nature of the problem the group is working on? What is the intrinsic nature of the organisation within which the group exists? What is the overall environment?

11.4.3 Role of the Leader

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

- Raise the members' awareness and motivation
- Increase the readiness of members to accept responsibility
- Develop group work and group morale
- Convince the group that they can affect change
- Further individual members' needs for growth and development.

Field Illustration and Observing Leadership process

In a training workshop of trainers for Anganwadi women workers from ten Anganwadi centres from four districts of Himachal Pradesh, the facilitator observed that from the group of ten women workers, two women wielded high influence on the group, at different points of a group exercise. One took lead in initiating the task, ensuring that the group completes the task on hand, with less focus on the member's participation. The other worker's focus was on ensuring that each member got a chance to contribute to the group discussion and also complete the task. The task-oriented woman was knowledgeable about the task and did most of the talking, getting attention of most members of the group. The people oriented woman however spoke relatively less. There was no apparent conflict between the two women, reflecting an effective instance of shared leadership. The facilitator did not make any external intervention, as she observed the effective functioning of the group due to the perceived leadership of the two women.

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

Hints for observing the pattern of leadership

Select a session that you have in your adult learning centre. Observe the pattern of leadership among the participants as per the check list given below:

- Which members are highly influential? That is, when they talk, do the others listen?
- Which members do not wield much influence?
- Do you see any rivalry in the group? Is there a struggle for leadership?
- Who are the members trying to assume leadership? Do they rely on coercion, expertise, formal authority, and personal qualities?
- How is the designated leader behaving? Is the style autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire?
- How are people reacting to the leadership?

11.5 CONFLICT RESOLUTION

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

The differences arising out of information, facts and knowledge are easy to resolve. Confusions about roles, co-ordination and responsibilities can also be sorted out in the group. The most difficult conflicts to resolve (they perhaps never get resolved) are those arising out-of differences in values. The most important thing that can be done in these situations is to understand the real causes for differences.

Why is conflict resolution seen as a process? Because conflicts do not go away, each conflict resolution also feeds into the next conflict in a group. It is, therefore, useful to see conflicts as a series of differences in a group, each with some link to the next. How the group deals with conflicts affects the manner of its functioning. There are different ways in which conflicts in a group can be possibly dealt with or resolved.

Ways to deal with conflicts in a group:

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

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

Bargaining: Negotiate to arrive at a compromise, bargain for gains by both parties.

Forcing: Push a party to accept the decision made by some leader.

Problem Solving: Confront the differences and resolve them on a collaborative basis.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

3) i) How would you classify leadership styles?

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ii) What are the ways in which you can deal with conflicts in a group situation?

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11.6 THE UNCONSCIOUS PROCESSES OF GROUPS

The various processes mentioned do not provide information about how or why things happen the way they do. In order to understand this, one needs to consider some unconscious processes that occur within groups, or emotional undercurrents, that produce interfering or destructive behaviours.

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

- **Dependency** - Members look up to the authority to tell them what to do. They are lost without the authority figure and seek security from it.
- **Counter-dependency** - Members resent authority, their behaviour reflects hostility towards authority.

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

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

- **Fight** - Disagreeing, asserting dominance, attacking whatever is believed to be responsible for stress, trying to get one's own way.
- **Flight** - staying out of discussion, daydreaming, changing the topic of discussion, making irrelevant remarks, and cracking jokes continuously.
- **Pairing** - forming dyads, triads or subgroups that are not task oriented, in which members protect and support one another.

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

11.6.1 Role of Group Members

A variety of behaviours are seen in-group-members.

Task role behaviour: Some group members many tend to be 'all business', they try to set task objectives, they process information necessary for the task and they push for completion of the group assignment. Behaviour of this type is often referred to as task-oriented role behaviour.

- *Initiator:* S/he takes the lead in making suggestions about new goals and procedures of operation. S/he defines the constraints of the problem and is instrumental in seeing that the group makes progress in accomplishing its task.
- *Information processor:* This individual seeks and gives information and checks the accuracy of the information available. S/he seeks the opinions and values of group members so that they may be incorporated into the task processes.
- *Summarizer:* S/he helps the group in its task by processing information into more compact forms. This may be done by restating and summarizing the group's information into forms, which may be more meaningful to the group. S/he helps by clarifying and elaborating on the thoughts of the groups. S/he helps to orient the group with respect to its goals.
- *Evaluator:* S/he subjects the output of the group to tests such as practicality, logic and morality. S/he tests to ensure that the output meets the objectives and purpose of the group.

Maintenance role behaviour: Some behaviour is directed towards maintaining group harmony and cohesiveness; encouragement is given, communications are fostered and conflicts are mediated. This is referred to as maintenance role behaviour. This behaviour maintains the vitality and functioning of the group, whereas task-orientation behaviour is focused on the solution of the problem or achievement of the task established for the group.

- *Encourager:* S/he acts to elicit the contributions of others by agreeing with others and accepting their ideas. S/he tries to promote group involvement through praise of their work and acceptance of others' ideas.
- *Harmoniser:* S/he leads in the efforts to reconcile differences of opinion and to settle conflicts. S/he acts to relieve tensions when conflict arises.
- *Compromiser:* When involved in a conflict s/he often offers compromises by yielding on her/his position in order to maintain group harmony.
- *Gatekeeper-expediter:* S/he acts to facilitate communication. Her/His behaviour is designed to elicit or deny participation to members. S/he helps to reduce tension and conflict by directing communication into safe channels.

Individual behaviour: Individual behaviour is not oriented toward any group function but is directed toward the resolution of a person's own needs. This is

different from the other behaviours discussed above, in that it is not relevant to the functioning of the group, while the others are relevant. Gross differences between individuals in a group or individuals not identifying with the task can often lead to a pattern of individual behaviour which is detrimental to group work. The differences could be on the basis of temperament, attributes, values, background and so on and the behaviour exhibited includes:

- *The aggressor* - deflates the status of others and expresses disapproval, attacks the group;
- *The blocker* - tends to be negativistic and stubbornly resistant;
- *Recognition seeker* - calls attention to him/herself, through boasting, acting in unusual ways;
- *The dominator* - tries to assert authority and superiority by manipulating the group members;
- *Help seeker* - attempts to gather sympathy from other group members;
- *Self confessor* - uses the group opportunity to express personal, non-group oriented feelings and ideas;
- *Playboy* - displays lack of involvement in the group processes by being cynical, nonchalant; and
- *Self-interest pleader* - speaks for grassroots, “marginalised” to cover his/her own prejudices in the stereotypes which best fits his/her present needs.

11.6.2 Facilitation of a Group

A group cannot function effectively on its own initiative, it needs to be facilitated. Facilitation can be described as a conscious process of assisting a group to successfully achieve its task while functioning as a group. Facilitation can be performed by members themselves, or with the help of an outsider. In order to facilitate, it is important to understand fully the areas that need to be facilitated.

Facilitation may be required for:

- Effective performance of the task and maintenance functions;
- Processes like participation, communication, decision making and leadership;
- Effective resolution of issues like inclusion, influence and intimacy, smooth transition of the group from one stage to another; and
- Accomplishment of the task.

To facilitate effectively the facilitator needs to:

- Understand what is happening within the group; and
- Be aware of his/her personality and how s/he comes across, and, the know-how to facilitate.

Diagnosing a Group: The process of finding out what is going on in a group may be called diagnosing. It is an essential skill of a facilitator. S/he can help solve the problem only if s/he is able to diagnose what it is that is going wrong. Diagnosis involves understanding the causes, including influential factors, that may exist outside the group (e. g. history of past relationship between members).

Examples of problems and their causes

Problem: Everyone does not participate or show an interest, few remain silent.

Possible causes may be:

- The goal or task is not relevant to everyone.
- Some members are insecure.
- Some members are dominant on the basis of caste, class, education or sex.

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

Possible causes: Existence of different value systems that become more important than the task of the group. Existence of differences/ conflicts between individuals that existed prior to the formation of the group.

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

- Encouraging;
- Bringing the conversation to the point;
- Mediating and peacekeeping;
- Maintaining order; and
- Requesting.

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

Some Essential Skills of Facilitator

In order to facilitate the learning process the facilitator needs some basic skills:

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

Observation: the ability to see what is happening; to understand nonverbal clues, to monitor the group's work objectively.

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

Diagnosing: the ability to define the problem, to synthesize diverse data and form a working hypothesis to choose intervention and action.

Supporting/encouraging: the ability to provide verbal and non-verbal indicators of encouragement, affirmation, appreciation and caring - to assist in a joint search for solutions.

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

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

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

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

11.7 DEBRIEFING AND CONSOLIDATION

Debriefing and consolidation following an experiential learning situation are very necessary. If the learners have gone through a moderate to intense emotional experience, it is necessary to allow them some time to get out of that emotional framework otherwise they can get too involved and carried away.

The trainer follows a broad theoretical framework related to the learning objectives and the content area. It forms the basis for debriefing and analysis. The objective is to put the debriefed information into this theoretical framework after analysis and additional information. It is essential that it be situated in/related to real life.

- Debriefing consists of eliciting from the learner or learner-group their feelings, emotions, experiences and whatever else the trainer might feel is necessary.
- The debriefed information must be noted down publicly (published).
- The trainer must provoke analysis on the information presented, enabling the derivation of broad principles (processing).
- The debriefed information needs to be put into a real life context, so that people can relate to it in a broader framework (generalising).
- Wherever necessary the trainer must provide additional information for the learners to arrive at the broad principles (generalising).
- The debriefed information needs to be put into a real life context, so that people can relate to it in a broader framework (application).

As a trainer it is important to note that one must complete the debriefing cycle in all the structured experience methods. An outline of steps involved in debriefing is provided.

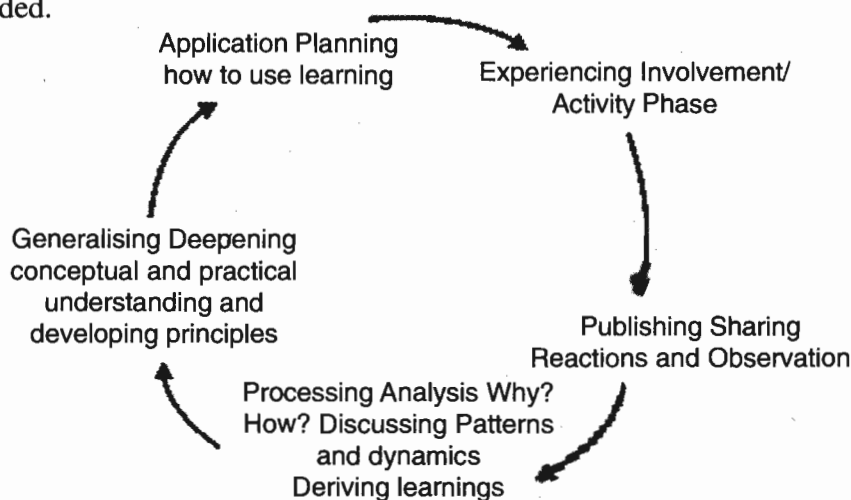


Figure 11.2: Steps in debriefing

Hints for carrying out a debriefing exercise

Select any last session of the workshop in your adult learning centre and as per the following scheme of questioning, carry out a debriefing exercise

A Scheme for questioning

- What did you see? How did you feel? What did you say during discussions?
- These questions help in bringing out the participants' perceptions and experiences. The information gathered is noted down on the black board or on chart paper.
- Why did you feel the way you did? What did you say? What did you do during the discussions?
- These questions enable participants to analyze the reasons and causes behind their behaviour, perceptions, and experiences.
- Do such situations occur in real life, when? Has it happened to you?
- Questions like these try to relate the experience to reality and try to draw parallels with real life.
- Why do you think this happens?
- This is an attempt to analyze and derive principles and conclusions, which form the core of the new learning. It may be necessary at this point to provide additional information.

Source: PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

11.7.1 Important Considerations While Conducting Training

Even where a high quality design has been prepared, all physical arrangements have been made, learning materials readied, the real challenge in promoting learning comes during the training itself. In conducting training expertise in the subject-matter is important. It is very necessary to make sure that the trainers along with all the resource persons deal with the subject matter well. This is, of course, conventional wisdom too. In most conventional training programmes, the trainers are experts in the given subject and bring a depth of knowledge to the learners. But beyond the expertise in the subject matter, there are several other significant considerations while conducting training within the framework of participatory training methodology.

Conducive learning environment: The first consideration relates to creating a conducive learning environment. Participants often come to a training programme with fears, doubts, expectations and confusion. Some are informed about the purpose and programme of the training, and some are not, some have been forcibly sent, some have come because they thought that the programme would be useful to them. As a result, the first task in a training programme is to prepare participants to become learners.

Energy level of participants: Participants should be excited about learning. They need to be encouraged to become active learners. Energy levels may be stimulated through a variety of interventions, change of pace and methods, through some energizers (like songs, physical exercises, etc.).

Psychological comfort and safety: Another important aspect of the learning environment is a sense of psychological comfort and safety. Adults learn when they find that they have a reasonably comfortable learning environment. This is particularly relevant when the new information and learning challenges one's deep seated attitude, emotions and values; a change of behaviour, skills, and readjustment may be required.

Psychological safety can be significantly enhanced by promoting mutual co-operation and trust within the group, by building a level of rapport and confidence between learners and trainers and by ensuring risk taking by participants where mistakes may be committed in the process of learning (without fear of penalty).

Building self-esteem: Learning is influenced by a variety of emotions. It can be fun, pleasurable, exciting; it can be painful, or create fear and doubts. The self-esteem of learners has a tremendous impact on how they learn. When learners have low self-esteem, they do not feel confident about their ability to learn and to speak out. A learning environment can contribute to the enhancement of their self-esteem, in ways that they can pursue learning.

Homogenous and heterogeneous groups: There is no learning group where all the individual learners are alike. In fact even where strict criteria and screening procedures have been used for selection of learners for the training programme, individuals differ in their style of learning, pace of learning, their self-esteem, etc. This heterogeneity can both be a constraint as well as a resource within the learning group. It is important to recognize and understand this heterogeneity in order to facilitate individual or group learning.

11.7.2 Trainer's Role and Behaviour

In participatory training methodology, a distinction has been made between a facilitator and a subject matter expert. A subject matter expert is the trainer who provides knowledge, concepts and builds skills on the subject matter at hand. The role of the facilitator of the learning process is very different. This role needs special preparation and is a major challenge in participatory training. Interventions aimed at strengthening the learning environment, monitoring the learning process, adapting the pace and depth of coverage, etc. all require skilful facilitation. Therefore, one of the first challenges of conducting a successful training program is preparation of the trainers to be facilitators.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

4) i) Write in brief about variety of behaviours seen in groups.

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- ii) What are the essential skills that a facilitator in a group is required to possess?

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- iii) In addition to the trainer's role, behaviour and the expertise in the subject matter, what are the other significant considerations that determine the framework of participatory training methodology?

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11.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have described the learning environment of participatory training. Learning environment has a team of multidisciplinary participants. They bring with them different perspectives on their roles in the task of working with adults in different communities. We learnt about the nature of participation in participatory training. We discussed the role of leadership during the training period. We learnt about conflict resolution and group processes. Finally we learnt about the process of debriefing and consolidation.

11.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- 1) i) Following are the guidelines I would keep in mind for my effective listening in a group process.
- Concentrate on hearing - we think four times faster than the other person can speak, so our thoughts tend to stray.
 - Listen with an open mind.
 - Pay attention and understand what is being said - listen beyond the words, understand the feelings, emotions, what is being implied. Be alert to non-verbal messages.

- Do not predict what the speaker is trying to say - do not jump to conclusions.
 - Do not pretend to have understood when you have not. Clarify your doubts, and request the speaker to re-explain.
 - Do not become defensive and do not argue or interrupt.
 - To ensure that we are listening attentively we should from time to time restate, repeat and summarise what we think is being said.
- ii) If I have to analyse the direction and mode of communication in a group process, I need to pay attention to different people and the processes involved in the group. Basically the focus of my listening and observation will be on the following, as they would help me to analyse the direction and mode of communication in a group.
- Who talks? For how long? How often?
 - Who talks to whom - To the group as a whole or to some people in the group?
 - Who talks after whom? Is it encouraging or challenging?
 - Who interrupts whom? Are some people interrupted all the time?
 - Do the members listen to each other?
 - What non-verbal messages are being conveyed?
- 2) i) There are various factors that affect participation of members in a group decision-making process. The important of these factors are:
- The content and task of the group - is it interesting, important and relevant?
 - The physical atmosphere - is it physically, socially and psychologically comfortable?
 - The psychological atmosphere - is it accepting or non-threatening?
 - The level of interaction and discussion - is adequate information provided for everyone to understand? Is it at the level everyone understands?
 - Familiarities between group members - do members know each other from before?
- ii) In a group decision-making is done in different ways. In majority of the situations decision-making in a group happens in one or more of the ways given below:
- The plop:** A decision is suggested by one individual, to which there is no response and the decision is adopted. 'Plopping' usually occurs in a new groups, when a number of members have equal status, or when one member is overly aggressive.
- Self-authorised:** The individual who assumes authority makes a decision. The others find it easier/ convenient to accept the decision than to reject it. The essential difference between this and the 'plop' is that the 'plop' is not tendered with authority but gets adopted by default, whereas in this case the decision is tendered with the assumption that it will be adopted.
- Pairing:** Two individuals joining forces make a decision. One floats the idea, other seconds it and the decision is made on behalf of the group.

Minority group: The clique makes the decision and the rest accept it.

Consensus: This is essentially a **minimum** consent by all. It is important to differentiate between a true and a false consensus. True consensus occurs when everyone has contributed to the discussion, all angles have been considered and everyone is in full agreement. This type of consensus, though desirable is not always possible. What can be aimed at is that everyone feels they have had the opportunity to put forth their views and influence the decision, it was a good and open discussion, and they are prepared to act on the decision taken.

Vote: The decision depends upon the number of people adhering to it. Vote may be taken by a show of hand or even by ballot. This is followed when other ways fail in decision making.

- iii) Problem-solving is a vague process. One needs to follow definite steps to solve a problem. I will follow the following broad steps in solving a problem:

Firstly, I will clearly define the problem.

Secondly, I will look for different solutions that may have any relevance to the problem.

Thirdly, I will evaluate the various alternative solutions on the basis of constraints and available resources and choose the most appropriate one from the available alternatives.

Finally, I will implement the solution through a plan, and evaluate it to assess how best the problem is solved by it.

- 3) i) Leadership styles may be classified on the basis of the behaviour of the leader:

The Autocratic Leader: who imposes his own will with very little concern for the members' needs opinions and preferences. Such a leader has great concern for **accomplishing** the task but little or no concern for the members.

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

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

- ii) I will follow one or more of the following ways to deal with conflicts in a group:

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

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

Bargaining: Negotiate to arrive at a compromise, bargain for gains by both parties.

Forcing: Push a party to accept the decision made by some leader.

Problem Solving: Confront the differences and resolve them on a collaborative basis.

4) i) The variety of behaviours that can be seen in groups can be summed up as follows:

- a) **Task role behaviour:** Behaviour of this type is often referred to as task-oriented role behaviour which may be performed as *initiator, information processor, summarizer, and evaluator*.
 - b) **Maintenance role behaviour:** This behaviour is directed towards maintaining group harmony and cohesiveness in which encouragement is given, communications are fostered and conflicts are mediated. This behaviour is performed as *encourager, harmoniser, compromiser, gatekeeper-expediter*.
 - c) **Individual behaviour:** This behaviour is not oriented toward any group function and the behaviour exhibited includes the forms like *the aggressor, the blocker, recognition seeker, the dominator, help seeker, self confessor, playboy, self-interest pleader*
- ii) To facilitate the learning process the facilitator needs some basic skills which include *listening, observation, sensitivity/empathy, diagnosing, supporting or encouraging, challenging, openness and modelling*.
- iii) In addition to the trainer's role, behaviour and the expertise in the subject matter, the other significant considerations that determine the framework of participatory training methodology are: *conducive learning environment, energy level of participants, psychological comfort and safety, building self-esteem, and homogenous and heterogeneous groups*.

11.10 REFERENCES

- PRIA. 1998. *A Manual for Participatory Training Methodology in Development*. New Delhi: PRIA. P.23.
- PRIA. 2002. *Participatory Training. A Book of Readings*. New Delhi: PRIA.

UNIT 12 PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Research
 - 12.2.1 Conventional Research (CR) Paradigm
 - 12.2.2 A Critique of Conventional Research
- 12.3 Emergence of Participatory Research (PR)
 - 12.3.1 Roots in Adult Education Practices
 - 12.3.2 Role of the International Council of Adult Education
 - 12.3.3 Participation in Development Programmes
- 12.4 Key Features of Participatory Research
 - 12.4.1 Participatory Research Process
 - 12.4.2 PR Concepts
 - 12.4.3 Outcomes of PR
 - 12.4.4 Methodology of PR
- 12.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.6 Answers to Check Your Progress
- 12.7 References

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Unit 12 will familiarise you with the concepts and issues of participatory research. In Section 12.2 you will get an exposure to a critique of the conventional research paradigm. In Section 12.3 you will understand the historical context of participatory research. In Section 12.4 you will read about the key features of participatory research.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this Unit, it is expected that you would be able to:

- Critique the conventional research paradigm;
- Discuss the historical context of of participatory research; and
- Describe characteristics, concepts, outcomes and methods of participatory research.

12.2 RESEARCH

The word *research* literally means 'to investigate thoroughly'. It refers to a systematic process of inquiry through scientific methods to discover, interpret, revise facts about a given subject or a problem and thereby generate a new body of knowledge. You may ask as to what happens to the knowledge generated by social research. We will first look at its conventional use and then come to alternative uses.

12.2.1 Conventional Research (CR) Paradigm

The knowledge generated is used to develop general laws about the facts. The thrust of scientific methods such as experiments, comparison of case studies, observation and survey methods is to develop objective and quantifiable knowledge. The research situations are controlled in such a manner that no unaccounted for or spurious influences can invalidate the conclusions. Observation, rather than experience and abstract conceptualisation are central parts of the research process. As such, researchers attempt to be neutral, objective and value-free in their data collection and analysis.

Most types of formal research generally follow certain steps, which are based on a process of problem formulation, hypothesis construction, 'instrument' construction (usually some form of interview or questionnaire), collection of data, analysis and interpretation of data. The order of steps may vary depending on the subject matter and researcher.

Researchers have a responsibility to communicate their findings to add to the existing body of knowledge about their subject. Written form is most aptly suited for communication of findings to other professional colleagues, thus publication of research findings in scholarly journals is deemed to be the most important form of communication. Once approved by other experts in the field, this knowledge is then added to an existing body of knowledge within academia and is taught to new generations of students.

Most social science research carried out all over the world is related to either of two purposes:

- First, the need and desire of administrators and policy makers to gather information from and about those who do not make decisions in order to make decisions for them. Government, donor agencies, and institutions generally conduct policy research. The professional experts and consultants are the researchers. The objective is research for policy making.
- Second, the purpose of research relates to new knowledge generation and researchers' own economic and professional needs. Academic research is conducted at and by academic institutions and universities. Researchers are generally the subject experts and students. Summarizing and packaging the findings in ways that can be consumed by journals, books, seminars, and international conferences does not only lead to greater access to research funding and but also to the researcher's career advancement. Researchers who presume an ethical obligation to disseminate their findings to the general public through other avenues must work doubly hard to do so, with very little professional reward.

The conventional research paradigm by and large corresponds to the description given above. Researchers who deviate from it can suffer professional ostracism, financial restrictions, and public criticism.

Questioning the notion of traditional social research, being value-free, universal and objective, there are those who challenge the objective approach advocated by mainstream conventional scholarship. They promote the idea of active engagement with social causes. Over the years there has come about a continuous

debate between those supporting conventional research and such modes of alternative methods of research as participatory research, feminist research, etc. In order to fully grasp this significant discourse, let us first examine the main issues of the debate between conventional research and its alternative, participatory research.

12.2.2 A Critique of Conventional Research

The control over the process of knowledge production and its use and dissemination often reinforces, amongst the have-nots, the feelings of powerlessness, ignorance and self-blame. We can look at the critique of the conventional research paradigm in the following four categories.

- i) **Absolute Critique:** In conventional social science research, knowledge-generation is the key purpose. There is a wide gap between available knowledge and its utilization. This lack of utilization of generated knowledge leads to research that cannot be used to improve our social, economic, and political systems. For instance, survey research is not conducive to subsequent action. Research alienates respondents, or at best treats them as sources of raw information. The abilities of people to investigate their own realities are likewise not stimulated or developed. Further, influenced by the research paradigm of natural sciences, social science research also assumes that there is one truth about social phenomena. It is difficult to present a realistic representation of any social phenomenon by believing in one truth.
- ii) **Purist Critique:** Many social scientists assume that their research is neutral. Under the guise of achieving objectivity, rigour is maintained by the researcher's control over the focus and methods of inquiry. However, survey and interview questions, consciously or otherwise, reflect the researcher's own values and ideology. Professional researchers know all and they control the entire process of research. Therefore, respondents often experience survey research as alienating, dominating, or oppressive in character. The attempt to achieve objectivity by maintaining a strict separation between the researcher and the subjects is also problematic. Firstly, researchers share essential humanity with their subjects; they are, therefore, subject to same laws that they are attempting to understand. Secondly, the sheer presence of another person has impact over the research 'subject', or the people under study. Therefore, despite researchers' best efforts to be objective, controlled social reality is always a distortion.
- iii) **Rationalist Critique:** The rationalist critique questions excessive reliance on thinking, observing and conceptualising as main modes of knowing and researching. The researchers tend to oversimplify social reality. The overemphasis on thinking and conceptualisation in the conventional research paradigm intends to reduce subjectivity, but as a result, the feeling and acting processes have been largely neglected. When compiled in clear data sets, charts and graphs, the information gathered through conventional survey research masks the complexity, the richness, and the contradictions inherent to human experience.

The conventional research methods are not consistent with the principles of adult education, which is rooted in an especially strong concern for social

justice and equality. These principles include: programmes should be based on adult needs; adults are more able to articulate their learning needs than children; although adults' ways of learning change with age, the phrase 'too old to learn' is a fallacy; adults often work out quite complex learning strategies to achieve desired goals on their own.

The conventional research paradigm only supports two of the four types of adult learning processes: reflective observation and abstract conceptualisation. The other two modes of learning, concrete experience and active experimentation, are de-emphasized. This limitation constrains the classical research paradigm in two ways. Firstly, those persons who are not comfortable in observation and conceptualisation modes of learning do not easily enter the research profession. Secondly, even those who are strong in these two modes and engaged in research, lose some of their insights by denying or neglecting the other two modes.

- iv) **Elitist Critique:** The development of modern institutions of knowledge production has de-legitimised people's own knowledge - the popular knowledge. Trained and exclusive experts and their institutions have become sole pursuers of knowledge. By conducting research to evolve new insights and theories, they subtly yet powerfully regulate the modern knowledge industry. Papers, books, journals, seminars and conferences as the only legitimate modes of dissemination of knowledge, systematically deprive the ordinary from participating in the process of knowledge production and distribution. As most research findings are communicated in written form, it is researchers, journal editors, and publishers who essentially control the outcome of research. Those who assist the research process as respondents or subjects, that is, those who are researched, have no control over the research and its outcome. The dominant research paradigm tends to ignore ethical issues in that the providers of information are denied any control over it, and political issues in that like 'knowledge is power', the research process further enhances the power of the elites. (Tandon, 2005).

In spite of the above critiques, it is important to remember that numbers or statistics in and of themselves are not the key problem. In fact, mostly they are useful because quantitative statistics summarize social information in a form that is convenient and can be readily transferred and disseminated. Accurate statistics around poverty levels, or illiteracy rates, for example, are important information for people to gather knowledge about their own communities. But it is equally important to be concerned with more fundamental questions around process of knowledge creation such as: who has the right to create knowledge? Who controls that knowledge? Who will benefit from the research? How is that knowledge used? Hence you can appreciate why we insist on adult educators' awareness of the significance of participatory research. Let us now deal, in detail, with participatory research.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

- 1) List out the broad categories of critique on the conventional research paradigm.

12.3 EMERGENCE OF PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH (PR)

Participatory research (PR) evolved as an alternative system of knowledge production by challenging the premise of conventional social science research methodology. The premise is that social science researchers can approach research sites in a neutral, objective, and value-free manner. Instead, participatory research recognised average people as researchers themselves, in pursuit of answers to the questions of their daily struggle and survival.

12.3.1 Roots in Adult Education Practices

The discourse on participatory research needs to be understood in a historical and humanitarian perspective. By the late 1950s and the early 1960s, the research paradigm reflected North American and European models of research, which derived from empiricism and positivism, and paid rigorous attention to instrument construction, as well as statistical precision and replicability. Participatory research, as alternative perspectives on research methodology, grew out of a reaction to approaches developed in North America and Europe.

Participatory research attempted to find ways of uncovering knowledge that worked better in societies. It grew from the practice of adult educators in the countries in the geographic South, particularly in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, and their critique of classical research methodology. These adult educators working with oppressed people realized that rise of specialization, and professional expertise had lead to the devaluation of both popular knowledge and alternative systems of knowledge production.

In early 1960s Latin American social scientists, stimulated in part by the success of the Cuban revolution, began exploring more committed forms of research.

Paulo Friere (1972) and his colleagues in Latin America developed widely influential concepts for adult education among the urban and rural poor. He developed a theoretical framework, which shared the basic premise of adult education that adults should have control over the content and form of their education. His dialogic approach to adult education engages individuals in critical analysis and organized action to improve their situations. In these dialogues, educators and “students” move toward a critical consciousness of the forces of oppression and the possibilities for liberation. One of the most useful roles Paulo Friere played was to bring some of the current ideas of Latin American scientists to the attention of people in other parts of the world. His work on Thematic Investigation (1973), first in Brazil and later in Chile, was an expression of this search.

Paulo Freire’s work on conscientization reinforced the notion that socially marginalized people could be involved in the production of knowledge. Building on the premise that ‘knowledge is power’, the participatory research approach assisted socially marginalized people to critically investigate their reality, analyse it, and then undertake collective action to bring about constructive changes in their lives.

At the Tanzanian Bureau of Resource Allocation and Land Use Planning, Marja-Liisa Swantz and teams of students and village workers were involved in questions of youth and employment in the Coastal region and later, in studies of socio-economic causes of malnutrition in the Central Kilimanjaro region. A visit by Paulo Friere to Tanzania in 1971 was a stimulus to many social scientists that otherwise might not have been as impressed by the existing experience of many adult educators or community development workers.

It was also during the seventies that Participatory Action Research (PAR) gained impetus from Fals Borda’s work with grassroots groups in Columbia. Borda’s aim was to legitimize “popular knowledge” and develop a “science of the proletariat” with which the masses could conduct their own struggle for social transformation. Both PR and PAR focused on the importance of learning and organising, as vehicles for empowerment. Conscientization, which includes process of collective action and reflection by the people, was an important component for achieving empowerment.

While the specific term “participatory research” developed in the developing world, the concerns PR attempts to address were present in rich countries as well. Therefore, while the terminology may be different, consciousness around the limitations of the classical research methodology in a world of immediate and urgent problems was growing in Europe and North America as well. Several examples of participatory and action-oriented research traditions in Europe and North America are illustrated in the box 12.1. It is important to note here that while PR may at times appear identical to action research in the use of methodology; there are two significant ways in which PR is different. First, the ideological stance and emphasis on making the researcher’s value-premises explicit are generally not mentioned in the action research approach. Second, action research is at times being undertaken without the participation and control of the actors in the situation. In essence, then, action research becomes another method in the exclusive control of the social researcher (Tandon, 2005).

Box 12.1: Examples of Participatory and Action-oriented research in Europe and North America

- Recognition of relationship between class position and unequal distribution of wealth and power could be found in the early work of Frederick Engels with the working classes of Manchester.
- In Switzerland, researchers in curriculum development adopted methodologies from political research to suit their needs.
- In Canada, methods of evaluation along action research lines for community development work were developed.
- In the Netherlands, the National Institute for Adult Education pioneered in participatory research through its evaluation of the British adult literacy.
- In Italy, Paolo Orefice and colleagues at the University of Naples applied the methodology to their investigation of community and district “awareness” of power and control.
- In the USA, the Highlander Centre in Tennessee used approaches similar to participatory research for years, most recently to deal with issues of land ownership and use (Hall, 1984).

12.3.2 Role of the International Council of Adult Education

With the support of the International Council of Adult Education (ICAE), many researchers around the world are formally and informally experimenting with and developing different aspects of participatory research. You may like to read below some of the guidelines that have emerged from these efforts to date.

- A research project — both the process and results — can be of immediate and direct benefit to a community (as opposed to serving merely as the basis of an academic paper or obscure policy analysis).
- A research process should involve the community, or the expected ‘beneficiaries’ in the entire research process, from the formulation of the problem and the interpretation of the findings, to the planning of collective action based upon them.
- The research process should be seen as part of a total educational experience, which serves to determine community needs, and to increase awareness of problems and commitment to solutions within the community.
- Research should be viewed as a dialectic process, a dialogue over time, and not as a static picture of reality at one point of time.
- The object of research, like the object of education, should be the liberation of the human creative potential and the mobilization of human resources for the solution of social problems.
- Research has ideological implications and researchers are not value-neutral. Research that allows for popular involvement and increased capacities of analysis can sometimes make conflicting action possible, or necessary. For example, as the research unfolds, it may be necessary for the researcher to choose to side with one group or another within the community (Tandon, 2005).

ICAE has encouraged and supported the formation of networks of Participatory Researchers since 1977. It summarized the following characteristics of participatory research.

- Participatory research is an integrated activity that combines social investigation, educational work, and action.
- The political impetus originates in the community or workplace itself.
- The ultimate goal is fundamental structural transformation and the improvement of the lives of those involved.
- The workplace or community is involved in the control of the entire process
- The awareness in the people of their own abilities and resources is strengthened and mobilizing or organising is supported.
- The term “researcher” can refer to both the community or workplace persons involved, as well as those with specialized training.
- Outside researchers are committed participants and learners in a process that leads to militancy rather than detachment (Tandon, 2005).

12.3.3 Participation in Development Programmes

In addition to its influence from the field of Adult Education, PR also drew strength from debates around participation in development programmes. Several encouraging developments occurred through international dialogues between participatory researchers and development practitioners, including expanding definitions of poverty to include such concepts as deprivation of education, human rights, dignity, and autonomy, in addition to access to basic needs.

As the newly independent nations began to deliver development programmes to their people, two trends began to emerge by early 1970s. First, a blind reliance on theory, models and experts was displacing the knowledge and experience of those “being developed”. Second, the process of “delivery” was displacing a sense of “ownership” of local communities with Governmental control and supervision. It is to challenge such approaches to development that Mwalimu Julius Nyerere (then President of Tanzania) commented that people could not be developed; they alone could develop themselves. These ideas and emerging experiences from the ground then began a trend whereby participatory development approaches and methodologies began to be evolved in field practices of programmes and projects around the world in late 1970s and in the decade of 1980s. There has also been a growing recognition of the validity of popular and indigenous knowledge, and a rising international commitment to community members’ participation in development and evaluation initiatives. There has been increasing pressure from policy makers, development managers, and civil society groups to keep people at the centre of development initiatives and thought.

12.4 KEY FEATURES OF PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH

The underlying assumption of PR is that ordinary/oppressed people are knowledgeable about their social realities and are capable of articulating this knowledge. With this assumption, promoters of PR argue that it is a process of knowing and acting. Let us now discuss participatory research process.

12.4.1 Participatory Research Process

As mentioned above, people engaged in participatory research do two things simultaneously. They enhance their understanding and knowledge of a particular situation and take action to change it to their benefit. Knowledge for the sake of knowing is de-emphasized; knowing is linked to a concrete action. This enhances the quality of knowledge and informs the basis for action. This is the starting point of PR. We note the following characteristics of the PR process.

Initial Motivation for PR: Since PR is initiated in the context of the actual reality, which the have-nots intend to change, an existing problem provides the initial motivation for engaging in the research process. In situations where people are already aware of a problem and articulate enough about it, they may initiate a PR project themselves. They may or may not use the resources of experts, such as the knowledge of researchers from outside. In other situations, some outsiders - be they activists, educators, facilitators, community animators, or researchers - may provide the initial problem focus. However, the involvement of people living the reality of that problem, even if it begins with an external push, is a necessary element of the participatory research process.

Extent and Nature of People's Participation: While participation of people in processes of knowing and acting is a necessary part of PR, the extent and nature of this participation varies considerably. Where initiative to engage in a process of PR comes from the people of the situation, their participation is quite widespread. In most such cases, they take part in the methodology of data collection, analysis of data, planning, and taking action. In other cases, where initiative comes externally, the participation of people from the situation is initially limited, but tends to increase in scope and depth as the process moves on. They may not be as much involved in methods of data collection and analysis as they may be in planning and taking action. The people in the situation must have control over the process of knowing and acting. It is easier to obtain control when initiative comes from the people themselves. In cases where there is an external initiative, it is a slow process by which the people begin to control the research process.

Emphasis on Qualitative Method of Data Collection: The methodology of PR attempts to reduce or eliminate the limitations of classical research. While it does employ methods of data collection which are prevalent in classical research, it also emphasizes qualitative and factual methods, which are otherwise considered not so scientific. The methodology of PR, however, stresses inter-personal communication among different parties and demands clarification of the motives of the external party, if any.

Focus on Collective Analysis: Participatory Research is always 'collective' in nature; the process requires groups of people to engage together. The most important step in this context is collective analysis of a given situation. This is a significant distinction from classical social science research, which is typically an individual effort. Participatory research is a collective enterprise and this is reflected in its different steps.

Networking among the Have-nots: A characteristic of PR has been the creation of organizations among the have-nots. Many marginalized people, in the Asian context and elsewhere, are unorganized and isolated. The process of PR brings

such persons together; collective sharing, analysis and action generate strong connections between them. Over a period of time, these connections grow into organizations of the 'have-nots'.

PR as a Learning Experience: The process of participatory research is an educative experience for those engaged in it. The people in the situation become aware and more knowledgeable through their engagement. They become more knowledgeable about methods of knowing and analysis; they become aware of their situation and possible way to change that situation. It is this component of learning-for-all that makes Participatory Research a distinct approach.

PR as Collective Action for Change: Participatory research is a way of taking collective action for bringing about three types of change, namely,

- Development of critical consciousness of both researcher and participants;
- Improvement of the lives of those involved in the research process; and
- Transformation of fundamental societal structures and relationships.

12.4.2 PR Concepts

Those involved in participatory research make use of several concepts and we note here some of those that are regularly used.

Conscientization: People are active agents in the research process. People, if involved in an analysis of their realities; develop the understanding and the capacity to act to improve that reality.

Useful knowledge: PR is concerned with useful knowledge, i. e. knowledge, which enables people to solve their problems and improve their lives.

Control and empowerment: Knowledge about the existing oppressive reality and control over the process of knowledge generation and the end-result is empowering. When people participate in determining their own future, they become empowered.

Outsiders as facilitators: Outsiders often initiate PR interventions. However interveners adopt the position of facilitators, catalysts or change agents rather than positions of dominance. Their role is to initiate a participatory process and take steps to ensure that the control local people and groups have over that process steadily increases.

Action-orientation: Focus is on people acting to solve practical problems. These actions then lead to the generation of practical knowledge.

A vehicle for change: PR is instrumental in bringing about change at an individual level and it also emphasises the importance of collectives of individuals in understanding and transforming social reality. The process of collective discovery and decision-making enables individuals to accept change more readily. PR has promoted the use of mobilization and community organization strategies, particularly amongst oppressed sections of society.

See Box 12.2 for a brief case study that illustrates some of the above concepts.

Box 12.2: A Case-study

In Orissa, India, people have suffered for years under the power of moneylenders to whom they had mortgaged their fruit trees on which they had to survive. Slowly, through the influence of Participatory Research people realized that the law did not bind them to these moneylenders. It is not merely this knowledge that freed them, but the fact that they acquired it together in a group. The process of learning was one of reflection on their situation and the realization of their strength in unity. This slow reflection and realization of their strength helped them to stand up to the money-lenders, free themselves from their clutches and eventually gain ownership of their trees.

Source: Tandon, Rajesh (Ed) .2005. *Participatory Research. Revisiting the Roots*. New Delhi. Mosaic books.

12.4.3 Outcomes of PR

Because of the outcomes it generates, PR has become synonymous with processes of liberation of the people. For example, the involvement of poor, marginal farmers and landless agricultural labours in PR has resulted in enhancing their self-confidence and ability to take collective initiatives in their common interest. We may here note some of the key outcomes of PR.

Refined capacities: The active participation of ordinary people/the oppressed enhances self-confidence about their capacities to analyse the situation and develop solutions.

Appropriation of new knowledge: The ordinary people/the oppressed learn to appropriate, incorporate and re-interpret the knowledge, produced by the dominant system, for their use. New knowledge is built on the existing knowledge. As people begin to appreciate what they already know, they are more open to seek new information. This desire to seek new knowledge is enhanced if it is done in the context of concrete problems that the people are facing. People are motivated to create and use new knowledge whenever they see its relevance in solving some concrete problems of their daily lives.

Creating informed options: The process of collective analyses of given social settings provide many alternatives. As part of the process of data analysis, options are debated on the basis of concrete information. As a result, people are able to accept and reject options on an informed basis. This creates a sense of 'empowerment', which is based on the confidence that information has been understood and interpreted.

Liberating the mind: Finally, PR liberates the minds of the oppressed by helping them to reflect on their situation, regain their capacities, to analyse and critically examine their reality and to reject the continued domination and hegemony of oppressors.

Increased ownership: The PR process puts emphasis on the active participation of the ordinary/oppressed people in generating their own knowledge. They learn to take responsibility for their own learning. It is this active focus, which constitutes a powerful impetus for people to exercise control over their own lives.

Empowerment: When people learn to value their own knowledge, produce as well as use new knowledge, are enabled to reflect on their situation of powerlessness and ignorance, and develop the capacity to participate rationally and critically in public life, they are empowered. Empowerment, thus, operates within three dimensions:

- *Personal:* developing a sense of self and individual confidence and capacity and undoing the effects of internalised oppression. (*Power within*).
- *Relational:* developing the ability to participate, negotiate and influence the nature of relationship and decisions made within it. (*Power to*).
- *Collective:* Individuals work together to achieve a more extensive impact. This includes collective action based on cooperation. (*Power with*).

Ideological commitment: It should be clear from what you have read above that PR is not value-neutral, but is ideologically committed to the weakest sections. It has a necessary relationship with social transformation and action, while social science research has conspicuously avoided any active involvement. The very act of involvement in the process of analysing a given social setting creates a sense of ownership of that knowledge, and a willingness to transform that problem in social setting. The people are able to take concrete actions as part of their involvement in participatory research.

It is apparent that PR has made valuable contributions throughout the world as it has been effectively used in different sectors to bring about improvements in villages, urban slums, tribal habitats, and in countless other social settings. In all these efforts, particularly in Asia, PR has confined itself to micro situations (for example in a neighbourhood, slum, or squatter colony) and concerned itself with the 'have nots' (landless labourers, migrant workers, tribal people, women).

For obvious reasons you too would be interested in knowing a little more about PR, especially about its methodology. Our next sub-section deals with PR methodology.

12.4.4 Methodology of PR

PR focuses on inter-personal communication among different stakeholders. A number of qualitative methods as group discussion, role play, public meetings, community seminars, fact finding tours, photo story, popular theatre, education camps are used. It also employs classical methods of data collection such as open-ended survey. The use of methods depends entirely on local condition and situations. According to ICAE (1981) the method serves to promote:

- Production of collective knowledge; the investigation and presentation of a social reality by the groups living it, with the sense of ownership of group information;
- Collective analysis; the ordering of information in ways useful to the group in examining their reality;
- Critical analysis; using the ordered information to determine the root causes of the problems and issues apparent in the community, with a view to finding solutions for them;
- Building of relationships between personal and structural problems as part of collective problem solving process; and

- Link reflection with action, taking time to ask Who? What? Why? Where? When?

See Box 12.3 for a case study that applied PR methodology and obtained a fruitful outcome.

Box 12.3: An Example of the Use of PR Methodology

Research team of Vrikshamitra was working on a mission of conscientising the people about their problem in 1981. The researchers were touring on bicycles in 20 villages in District Gadchiroli of Maharashtra in order to come into direct contact with the people. *Mendha (Lekha)* was one of the villages selected by the team on the cycle tour. *Vrikshamitra* set up in the village *Sahayog Shibirs* (discussion groups) where the entire range of issues was discussed and debated several times. A common platform to discuss each and every issue pertaining to the village proved a boon to them. They felt that the entire process of village meetings, discussions, questions and answers, and again new questions emerging from those answers, was an educational experience for them. Then as a matter of strategy, for every problem confronting them, they used the group discussion forum. The reflection and analysis led the villagers to decide action to transform their social reality. Knowledge of rights as emerged from discussions in *Sahayog Shibirs* in village *Mendha (Lekha)*, Ghadchiroli district, Maharashtra, made the local citizens aware of the exploitative issues. As they gained control over knowledge, they organized and mobilized to fight against corruption, and contemplated the ways of developing strategies to negotiate for higher wages. They became aware of minimum wage and exploitative practices of contractors. Formation of organization led the tribals to demand collectively for higher wages. The above case illustrates the way participatory research created a sense of empowerment and organization amongst tribals.

Source : PRIA. 2000. *Doing Research with People*. New Delhi: PRIA.

Check Your Progress

Notes: a) Space given below the question is for writing your answer.

- b) Check your answer with the one given at the end of this unit under "Answers to Check Your Progress".

2) i) What are the characteristics of the Participatory Research process?

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ii) List out some of the key outcomes of PR.

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12.5 LET US SUM UP

Since all of us have been involved in research at some point in our academic career, it is important for us to reflect on the kind of research we carry out. As a matter of fact, it does not prove to be useful to enter into polemics about one or the other method of research. In fact being eclectic in approach and taking the best from all sources is always a more wise choice. All the same, in order to be clear in one's mind about implications of the choices we make, it is better to keep in mind the distinctions between various approaches and therefore it is very much in order as a conclusion of Unit 12 to talk about the differences between Conventional Research (CR) and Participatory Research (PR). In broad and general terms, PR lays emphasis on authenticity as opposed to scientific validity of the information in CR. This is for two reasons: firstly, knowledge about a social setting is not equivalent to the information obtained from it. Secondly, the social generalization of information is not as important; since people are trying to change their own circumstances first, not address problems at a more general level. Key differences between PR and CR are delineated in Figure 12.1.

Indicators	PR	CR
What is the research for?	Action	Understanding with perhaps action later
Research for whom?	Local people	Institutional, professional, personal interests
Whose knowledge counts?	Local people	Experts
What is the basis of selection of problem?	Local priorities	Funding priorities, institutional agendas, professional interests, choice of methodology
Methodology chosen for?	Empowerment, mutual learning	Disciplinary conventions, objectivity & truth

Who takes part in the research process?		
• Problem identification	Local people	Researcher
• Data collection	Local people	Researcher
• Interpretation	Local concepts & frameworks	Disciplinary concepts & frameworks
• Analysis	Local people	Researcher
• Presentation of findings	Locally accessible & useful	By the researcher to other academics or funding bodies
• Action on findings	Integral to the process	Separate; May not happen
Who takes action?	Local people with or without external people	External agencies
Who owns the results?	Community (people) & The researcher	Researcher
What is emphasized?	Process	Outcomes

Figure 12.1: Main Distinctions between CR and PR

12.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

- 1) Following are the broad categories under which the critique is done on the conventional research paradigm: i) Absolute Critique, ii) Purist Critique, iii) Rationalist Critique, iv) Elitist Critique.
- 2) i) The characteristics of the Participatory Research process include: a) Initial Motivation for PR, b) Extent and Nature of People's Participation, c) Focus on Collective Analysis, d) Networking among the Have-nots, e) PR as a Learning Experience, f) PR as Collective Action for Change.
- ii) The key outcomes of PR are: a) Refined capacities, b) Appropriation of new knowledge, c) Creating informed options, d) Liberating the mind, e) Increased ownership, f) Empowerment, g) Ideological commitment.

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