Practical guidelines

Identifying target groups and differentiating sub-groups

A working party, "Rural Development", commissioned by the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation, has devised a method for producing a "reduced regional analysis" in which target groups are investigated according to a set procedure.

To analyse target groups, the following criteria are applied:

- possessions/occupation;
- household income;
- level of food supplies;
- level of risk;
- social structure;
- division of labour;
- norms and values.

This target group analysis provides the framework for a problem-oriented, differentiated analysis of target groups or subgroups from the point of view of extension. The characteristics of the total target population and the identification of more specific target groups on the basis of their general level of deprivation enable the extension organisation to assess how these groups will react to extension measures.

Already existing groups and other associations in a particular society/region are the starting point for project activities. Here an overall analysis to establish social statistics (reduced regional analysis) acts as a check. Indeed, it tells us whether starting project activities with existing groups is compatible with the overall project goal.

To obviate lengthy planning and preliminary phases, a project can, by specifically addressing people who **can be reached** and are **capable of being mobilised:**

- link up with communal activities already undertaken;
- tackle problems that have previously been ignored;
- appeal to groups that have not been touched by development activities.

Here too the analysis of social statistics acts as a check on whether the groups are representative of the target population and their problems.

With the **problem-oriented approach** (→ Chapter II.1) the following groups have to be differentiated in the **feasibility study:**

(1) **total population** of a region;

(2) **target groups,** i. e. all people encompassed by the development policy and the project's aims, even though they may fall into social categories rather than groups in the sociological sense;

(3) **subgroups,** i. e. groups within the target groups, who are defined according to observable criteria, for example, women with access to markets;

(4) **mediating groups,** i. e. existing active associations (neighbourhood help groups, savings clubs for men or women, cooperatives; groups already formed by the state extension service, etc.);

(5) **groups providing services,** i. e. the people who have to devise the extension programme, take responsibility for it and carry it out (government departments, research, training, radio, cooperatives);

(6) **indirectly affected groups,** i. e. individuals or groups in the population who are not specifically addressed by the programme. They may be cooperatives, traders, large-scale farmers, creditors or women, who in West Africa are traditionally the key figures in marketing crops and in East Africa are almost totally responsible for growing crops.

The main object of the feasibility study is the identification of such groups from the point of view of their potential and ability to take part in the extension programme. In particular, we have to look at factors that could further the autonomous spread of innovations. The larger extension projects will in many cases have to design specific measures for specific groups.

Investigation of channels of communication and contact reveals, for example, that women in strict Islamic societies can hardly ever be reached via the men. If the project addresses the women separately but only in domestic matters, this approach misses the realities of life in peasant society in most countries, because women are in fact very much involved in agricultural production. Thus changes to agricultural practice and ways of reducing physical labour have to be aimed just as much at women as men.

We should concentrate on the bottlenecks occurring in typical types of farm when we identify the various subgroups.

An example from Java:

The farm in question is small and short of capital (0.5 ha, 6 people). In this situation the farmer:

- is compelled to lease land;
- is dependent on landlords and mainly Chinese money lenders;
- is compelled to take another job to earn cash, e. g. porter, betjak (3-wheeler) driver in the towns;
- has a shortage of labour on his farm despite the high level of unemployment;
- has a poor and unbalanced diet because all the products that bring in cash have to be sold for consumption in the towns (beef cattle, eggs, etc.).

In this situation, raising the rice yield may seem to both the project and the target group to be a good starting point for development measures. But we still find typical constraints that enable us to divide the target group into subgroups with a common problem (in this case, producing more rice). Specific packages of measures have to be compiled for each of these subgroups.

By working together with the target group, we find it relatively easy to differentiate these sub-groups – on which we base the later analysis of farming systems – if we weigh **resource potential** against **constraints.**

Resource potential	**Constraints**
Reduction of total losses in the case of traditional varieties (during cultivation, ripening, harvesting, marketing, processing, preparation).	Training and level of know-how, labour available, pest control only if used by all farms, fertilising scarcely possible.
Introduction of new varieties	Increase in the farmers' burden of debt and rising land prices and farm rent, labour available, giving up subsidiary employment, marketing and credit facilities.

Resource potential (continued)	Constraints (continued)
Technical measures (fertilising, plant protection, use of machines, consolidation of plots).	In irrigated farming, fertilising only possible with participation of neighbours – same applies to plant protection, fish breeding not possible with plant protection, capital bottleneck, level of training and know-how, setting up a land registry.

A joint discussion of these interacting factors helps us to distinguish the following subgroups:

- farms that can introduce technical measures because of their low level of debt;
- farms that can systematically reduce their debt by introducing fish breeding, planting embankments, etc.;
- farms in existing village "cooperatives" (so-called water cooperatives) that can organise the use of machines (contract threshing, hand pumps, etc.);
- farms for which work must be created in such activities as water management, harvesting; farmers can therefore solve the problem of a lack of work on their own farms and at the same time earn extra cash.

Source:

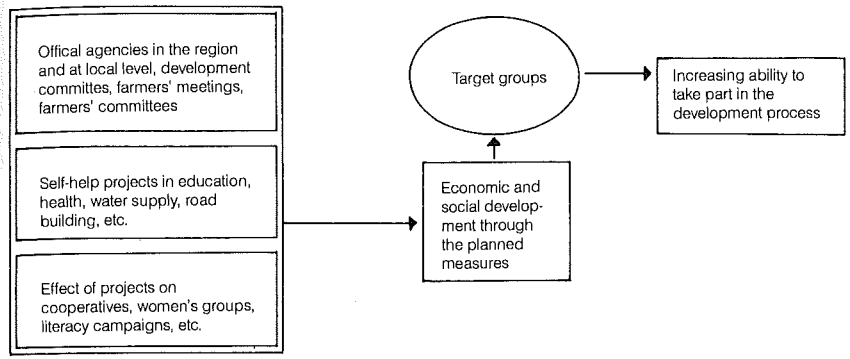
K. M. FISCHER, et al: Ländliche Entwicklung. Ein Leitfaden zur Konzeption, Planung und Durchführung armutsorientierter Projekte. Bonn: BMZ 1978, English edition Bonn: BMZ 1980

Compiled by:

Rolf SÜLZER

Participation of target groups

In the "Chilalo Agricultural Development Project" in Ethiopia an attempt was made to link the participation of target groups to the wider issues of rural development. The following diagram illustrates the theoretical links:



However, this situation was not achieved in the project, because the planners and the front-line project workers did not involve the target groups in the decision-making process. An evaluation of the degree of participation in the various areas of decision making revealed shortcomings. Thus the brief statement of results in → Figure 1 also shows where and how participation could be initiated. For this reason we show the analysis of the situation both as it was and as it should have been.

When involving target groups, we regard the following procedures as important:

1) in discussion, concentration on feasibility;
2) formulation of targets and measures and keeping a written record of them;
3) ensuring that all participants are informed about their duties and know precisely what they have to do.
4) direct testing and the implementation of trial programmes;
5) regular contact with decision makers and people with responsibilities (both in the subgroups and the service groups).

6) observation of the reactions of other people in the vicinity of the project;

7) consistent detailed planning and implementation of the programme after discussion (ideally without delay between decision and implementation);

8) constant supervision of operations and regular coordination with all participants.

Figure 1:

Influence of various groups in the decision-making process

Where the groups can participate	Population		Local leaders		Government personnel	
	Actual situation	Target situation	Actual situation	Target situation	Actual situation	Target situation
Initial decision on						
Target groups	None	None	None	None	None	P
Needs and priorities	None	P	None	P	None	None
Aims of the project	None	None	None	None	None	P
Location of the project	None	P	None	P	None	P
Cropping systems	None	P	None	P	None	P
Ongoing decisions on						
Needs	None	P	None	P	None	None
Project measures	None	P	None	P	None	P
Project locations	Requests	Requests	Influence	Influence	Influence	None
Reorientation of the project	None	P	None	P	Influence	Influence
Place/time of meetings	None	P	Joint decision	Joint decision	Influence	P
Criteria for participation in the programme	None	P	None	P	None	P
Selection of model farmers	5 local people propose	All local people propose	5 local leaders propose	All local leaders propose	Influence who is chosen	None
Selection and appointment of personnel	None	None	None	None	None	None

P = participation and shows where the involvement of each group is both possible and desirable

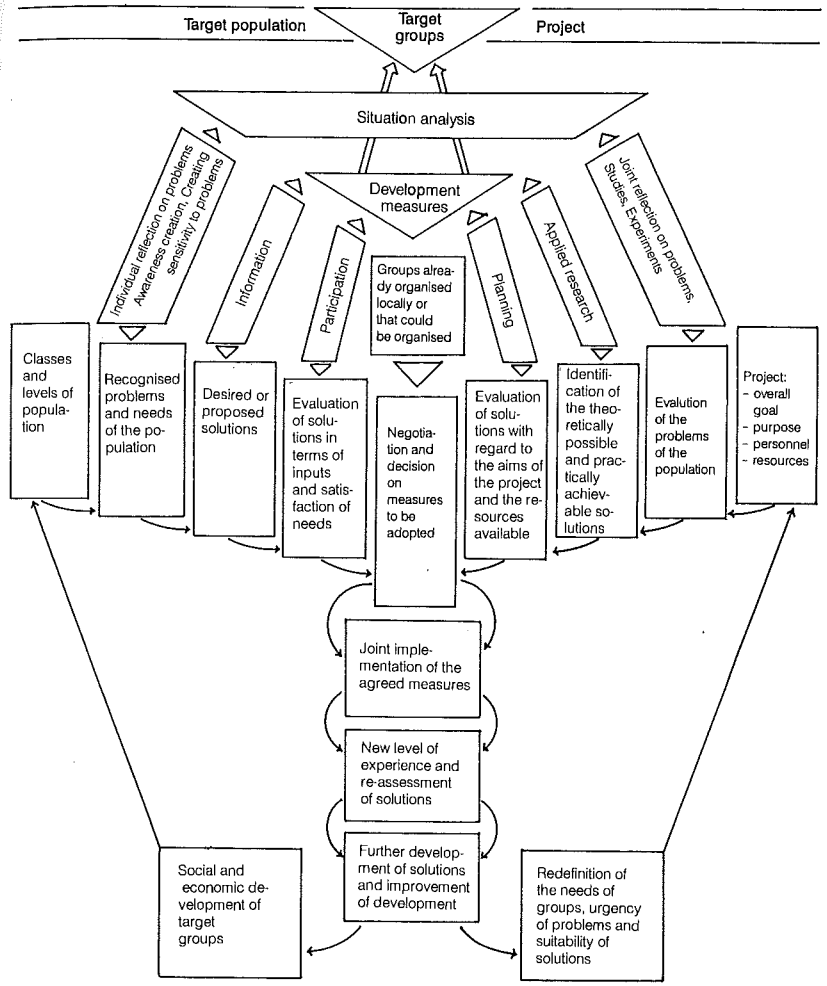
Source:

J. M. COHEN, N. T. UPHOFF: Rural development participation. Concepts and measures for project design, implementation and evaluation. Ithaca, N.Y. Cornell Univ. 1977, (Rural Development Monograph 2) pp. 204 ff.

Compiled by:

Rolf SÜLZER, Gerhard PAYR

Deciding on target groups and development measures



Source:

Volker HOFFMANN: Identification des groupes cible et des mesures du projet. In: LAGEMANN, HOFFMANN, RAUSCH, SCHREINER, YEBE: Evaluation du projet CARDER Atlantique, République Populaire du Bénin. Unpublished appraisal for GTZ, Eschborn, 1984.

Compiled by:

Volker HOFFMANN

How to select contact farmers

Since both individual and mass extension prove impossible in certain projects, we often find it necessary to make use of contact farmers. For individual extension there are too few advisers; for mass extension it is usually impossible to standardise and pass on the content of extension unless personal contact is made and the farmers are shown how to apply the measures. Thus the contact farmer should act as an intermediary between the adviser and the farmer. We now examine what determines the success or failure of the contact farmer.

Definition

In both the literature and projects many similar terms are used to denote this farmer but, when we examine their meaning more closely, we find that they fall into two categories: terms that stress personal contact and terms that refer to the farm situation:

1. Personal contact	2. Farm situation
Key farmer	Progressive farmer
Contact farmer	Model farmer
Key individual	Master farmer
Opinion former	Demonstration farmer

The concept of contact farmer applies to group 1 only. These are people who already have a multiplier effect within the community, who can be regarded as "central individuals" (on the analogy of "central locations"). The terms in group 2 indicate farms or farming systems that are already well ahead of the average farmer in a region or that are systematically programmed by the extension organisation to be so.

Conditions for success

Many surveys have shown that deliberately producing progressive individuals does not induce others to follow. A "radiation effect" only occurs in an established contact situation or in group situations. These are characterised by:

(1) possession of know-how that can be passed on;

(2) motivation to pass on know-how;

(3) ability to pass on know-how;

(4) positive relations between individuals and sources of information;

(5) trust in the credibility of the contact farmer and his technical competence;

(6) guaranteed regular meetings;

(7) groups that are relatively homogeneous as regards production potential, the mentality of the group, ability to comprehend, their system of values.

Reasons for the failure of group extension by contact farmers

(1) The "groups" are not groups in the sociological sense (→ see point 4 above) but a number of individuals with the same or similar characteristics (social category).

(2) "Contact farmers" are people who prefer to cultivate relations only with elites – especially in the non-agricultural sector.

(3) When they are chosen, their agreement to act as contact farmers is confused with their actual willingness to pass on know-how. There are no contractual obligations or social controls.

(4) Their originally positive relations with neighbours or colleagues are eroded by their advancement and replaced by mistrust.

(5) Contact farmers regard themselves as "representatives" of the others but pursue their own goals and distance themselves socially, and eventually also economically, from the group.

(6) They are not given preliminary advice, nor are they given ongoing back-up.

Finding contact farmers

Contact farmers have to be chosen with a great deal of care to ensure maximum benefit and to avoid negative effects. It is best to combine a variety of methods, since each has its own shortcomings. There are four possible approaches, each of which should involve the target group:

(1) grouping together farms with a similar resource base and similar constraints;

(2) observation and evaluation of gatherings and meetings;

(3) investigation of the contact situation by means of sociometric surveys (e. g. the situation analysis);

(4) appeal to the target groups to use their own initiative.

Grouping farms together

This method forms part of the situation analysis. Farms are categorised according to particular features in household and farm surveys; farms in similar problem situations are grouped together in types of farm.

Evaluating meetings

This method is sometimes used in the situation analysis too, but it can also be applied while the project is running. We observe which people meet at particular places, what topics and problems they talk about and whether people in similar farming situations meet each other. Observation is supplemented by asking well informed individuals about existing group relations.

Investigating the contact situation (sociometric survey)

This method involves asking people, in interviews and questionnaires, with whom they would cooperate, whom they would ask for advice, etc. The answers to the questionnaire are entered on a matrix with rows and columns for the names of everyone interviewed. It can be applied, for example, to village surveys. → Table 1 shows what this kind of matrix looks like.

The important factor is the choice of contact questions relating to the situation and the problem. Simply asking about prominent people proves to be unproductive – the question must refer specifically to problems. In the case of agriculture, the contact question could be: "Who would you prefer to cultivate a field with?" or "Who would you hire a pair of oxen with, etc.?"

The answer, entered in the matrix, is in this example: A and B have both named C. Since C has given A, they have chosen each other, indicating a close mutual relationship.

After examining the choices in a matrix, the best method is to illustrate the network of relations as in → Figure 1. The arrows show the direction of choices and the number of circles round individuals represent the frequency with which they are chosen.

Table 1:

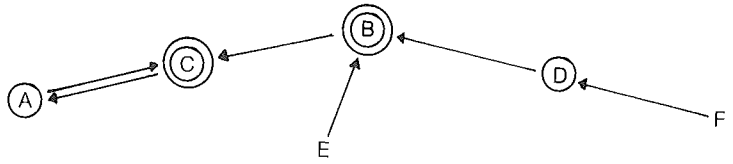
Evaluation of a sociometric survey in tabular form

The people making a choice	The people chosen					
	A	B	C	D	E	F
A			x			
B			x			
C	x					
D		x				
E		x				
F				x		

From a purely sociometric point of view, C would be the best contact farmer since he was chosen by A and B; B is mentioned by D and E and D by F as the individuals they would prefer. With this pattern, B would only be suitable if the A – C relationship allowed it, but this is clearly not the case.

Figure 1:

Graphic representation of relationships



Appeal to use initiative

The fourth way might involve asking groups to work independently in the preliminary phase of projects. The first groups to be helped are those that have formed themselves. The project and the groups commit themselves contractually to mutual obligations: the activities of the project and the contribution of the groups are laid down precisely in the contract. This approach depends on:

(1) the project's contribution and measures being made known on a sufficiently wide scale;

(2) the clear definition of which groups are to be helped by the project and under what conditions (target group definition);

(3) guaranteed measures for the groups in need.

This method – extension on request accompanied by the target group's own input – has often been tried out; for example, the Swiss development agency SATA operates according to this principle that requires the target groups to take a share, albeit a small share, in the financing of the programme. In Chile, approaches similar to the German ring extension method have been employed. Groups finance "their" adviser. This is common in crisis situations in all regions, examples being villages that employ teachers at their own expense, farms with cash cropping that join forces in one production unit and appoint their own adviser (→ B 4 also).

Final choice

These various methods should be combined to create groups and to select extension contact partners in these groups (contact farmers, etc.). Farm surveys are necessary to determine what measures should be applied and to categorise farm types. Surveys at meeting places and finding out how best to establish contact are important if extension strategy is focussed on individuals who do not enjoy general prestige but who do have a reputation as "good farmers" or even "good maize farmers", etc. Finally the appeal to people to use their own initiative shows what groups can form themselves and which people in the target group have to be approached as problem cases through individual advisory work as well.

The same problem is dealt with in working paper → F 9.

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H.W. SCHÖNMEIER: Agriculture in Conflict. The Shambaa Case. Bensheim: Kübel Foundation GmbH 1977, p. 288.

Compiled by:

Rolf SÜLZER, Gerhard PAYR

The methodology of extension talks

I. Introduction

"Giving advice is a difficult business," said Goethe, "and, when we see how the most promising endeavours come to nothing and how something quite absurd can have a happy conclusion, we recoil from wanting to give advice. Basically the man who seeks advice is often displaying his own limitations and the man who gives advice is displaying arrogance."

This statement recorded by ECKERMANN in his conversation with Goethe (12.3.1831) sets the tone for our discussion, because it is a widely held but erroneous view that the main task of the adviser in an extension talk is to give advice.

This paper deals with the basic questions of conversation technique between people seeking and giving advice. We do not refer specifically to agricultural extension in developing countries, but the psychological starting point for conducting discussions can easily be applied to other contexts including agriculture. Apart from farmers and advisers, we might apply the principles to conversations between advisers, married couples, parents and children, teachers and pupils, etc.

When we talk about discussion as a method, we tend to regard the technique, the superficial efficiency with which a discussion is conducted, as the central issue. In so doing, we easily overlook the fact that a conversation between two people consists of far more than simply seeking and supplying information.

The extension talk aims to:

- help in a situation of ignorance;
- help in conflict situations;
- help to overcome problems.

Thus, in terms of its function and methodology, there is a clear distinction between the extension talk and simple information, conversation, enquiry and interrogation.

The factors that determine the function and structure of an extension talk are that:

- the problem is recognised;
- the extension partner is given some insight into the causes of problems;
- solutions are worked out together.

II. Four basic functions

1. Clarification of the problem and its causes

The extension talk revolves round the attempt to clarify the problem situation and how it came about. During the dialogue we must never forget that the problem experienced by the farmer is in fact a part of his everyday life. The farmer's perception of a problem often does not coincide with what the adviser considers to be the heart of the problem. We often find that the farmer and the adviser either do not speak the same language or have different perceptions of reality or may have to contend with both disadvantages. Extension is only likely to be successful if we are able to see the world through the eyes of the extension partner. A discussion will not be fruitful unless there is at least some common ground between the different perceptions of reality (→ Chapter III.5 and III.7).

Problems are experienced subjectively, but for the person concerned they represent objective reality and as such determine his behaviour. These subjective perceptions will usually be quite different from the perceptions of advisers.

2. Grasping the nature of the problem

Extension practice has shown that all manner of difficulties can serve as the starting point for discussion. The extension partner sometimes has no understanding of his problem and simply feels a vague need to talk about it, although sometimes he is able to articulate his difficulties clearly and with precision.

The extension partner often has a feeling of agonising uncertainty or pressing disquiet that he can hardly express in words, let alone formulate as a precise question. In particular, deep existential issues affecting all aspects of human life are often so complex that they are beyond the powers of language. The client is looking for a way out of this confusion. He still does not know how this is to be achieved or whether his opposite number will be sufficiently patient and receptive.

Simply by his presence the adviser is offering support; by listening attentively he encourages the farmer to articulate his problems. The farmer thus expresses what has been on his mind – which may of course be right or wrong – but once he has given expression to what has been preoccupying him, topics can be taken further and dealt with in depth.

These two scenarios show clearly that there are many starting points for an extension talk. The adviser must keep the starting point in mind all the time if he is to offer genuine help to solve problems.

Clients perceive problems from a subjective point of view; thus the structure of problems and the clarity of perception will vary from one person to the next.

3. Understanding problems as an incentive to act

The extension discussion must be a phased process of clarification before the adviser can finally suggest solutions. This process calls for a high degree of concentration and patience on the part of the adviser. Often he thinks he is being helpful by providing an answer before the discussion partner has clarified his own thoughts on the matter. But this "help" is premature and jeopardises the further development of discussion. The man seeking advice appears to display a lack of ability, whereas the adviser is astute, has a quick mental grasp of problems and is therefore superior. The self-esteem of the farmer suffers as a consequence. Moreover, the premature attempt to solve problems runs the risk of distracting the farmer from the real problem and causing him unwittingly to abandon the path he had spontaneously followed – namely, the gradual identification of the causes of his difficulties (→ Chapter III.7).

The extension talk must be conducted in such a way that the client can himself gain an insight into the causes of problems and the overall structure of the problem situation. Only in this way will the client develop the psychological powers needed to take fully independent action.

4. Mobilising initiative and dynamic behaviour

Insight into the nature of problems automatically acts as an incentive to take independent decisions and actions. Solutions offered by the adviser can have the same effect when they are presented in such a way that they are accepted subjectively as solutions by the client. If this is to occur, the discussion must be conducted to ensure that the solution fits the operational frame of reference of the discussion partner. For example, adherence to a particular rotation – for which there are good reasons from the angle of plant protection and soil science – has to be fitted into the relevant frame of reference of the farmer, namely "long-term high yields". Similarly, technical language has to be converted into the everyday language of farmers – which must not be confused with manipulation of language (falsifying the message). Only if we take a farmer's operational frame of reference and his everyday vocabulary fully into account can the motivation and alternative strategies to overcome difficulties be developed.

The extension talk must be conducted in such a way that, simply by showing how issues are interrelated, the client's initiative and inner dynamism is stimulated.

II. Non-directive counselling even in technical extension work?

The approach described above is in keeping with the concept of non-directive or partner-centred counselling.

1. Even non-directive counselling exerts influence.

When we talk of non-directive extension or counselling, it would be a fatal mistake to assume that it excludes bringing influence to bear on the extension partner. → Figure 1 illustrates the extension process in a way that would satisfy both adviser and client.

The illustration shows clearly where influence is exerted (indicated by the word **"induction"**). From the point of view of extension methodology and extension discussion technique, the question is simply what form this induction is to take. Influencing the client is a good idea, but the question remains as to how it should be done. In our scheme the method of non-directive counselling gives attitudes, strategies and techniques that should allow the extension partner maximum scope to think through and clarify his own situation.

As well as the objection to influencing people, there is another objection connected with technical extension work. This criticism usually takes the following form: "This non-directive counselling work may well be effective where interpersonal problems of a predominantly psychological nature are dealt with – after all, this method was developed by psychology – but we are giving technical advice and therefore we are working under totally different conditions."

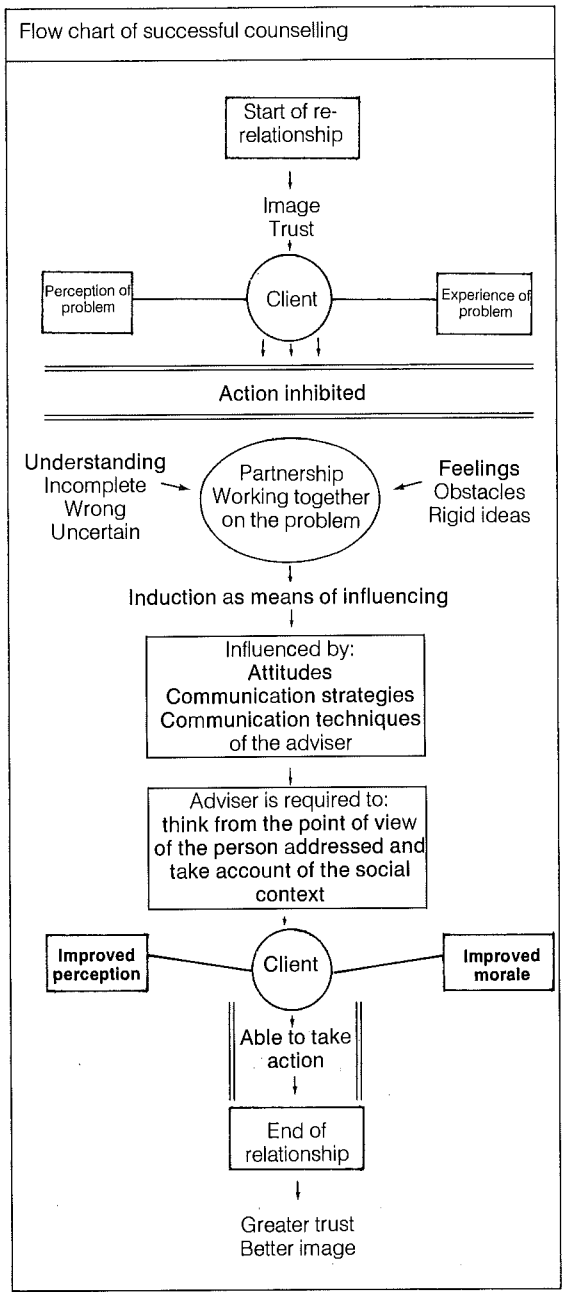
It is certainly true to say that technical extension operates under quite different conditions. The adviser is an expert in a particular subject and he is consciously sought by the client. Despite the partnership approach, the levels of know-how and experience of the adviser and farmer remain unequal and characterise the extension situation. The consequence, in our view, is simply that in technical extension non-directive and directive discussion phases should alternate. If directive technical extension is used exclusively, it is highly likely to end in failure.

When the expert with his specialist technical knowledge is approached for advice, he must never appear reluctant. As he points out particular circumstances and gives information to his client, he naturally takes the initiative and directs the extension discussion. This is quite normal. At this stage there is no immediate threat to the client's sense of responsibility for his actions. The general question – when should an adviser use the non-directive method; when is a directive approach appropriate – is answered in the next section with the help of a phase model from → Chapter III.7.

2. The method of conducting a discussion varies according to the functions of the discussion in the problem-solving process

The definition of extension adopted in this handbook (→ Chapter I.2.1) regards advisory work as non-material help in the search for solutions to problems. Since we have earlier recommended an approach to problem solving (Chapter III.7), we

Figure 1:



will now use our recommendations to illustrate the phases into which the extension process can be divided.

When the client and the adviser meet, the first step is to **find out** what **the issue** really is. It may be that the client sees his problem clearly and consciously seeks out the extension officer or the adviser. But it is equally possible, and sometimes desirable, for the adviser to approach the client first, in order to draw his attention to current developments and the problems these could create for him.

A farmer may increase his **awareness of problems** by thinking back and realising that his conditions have deteriorated or by looking to the future and hoping that his circumstances will improve. He measures his situation and expectations by comparing himself with other people and the situation in other locations.

It is vitally important to **register and analyse the prevailing situation** before the search for solutions begins. With our problem-solving approach, this takes place in several phases. The client describes his situation, which is naturally his subjective perception of his circumstances. He may overlook important factors or he may, in the opinion of the adviser, interpret situations and interrelations in an unusual way, so that the adviser will want to discuss and examine his perceptions. Occasionally problems can be solved simply by changing the perception of the client.

Once the situation has been examined, the **search for realistic,** attainable **targets** begins, bearing in mind actual needs, followed by the attempt to define the problem.

As far as possible, a non-directive approach should be used throughout the examination and analysis of the client's situation. So that we can understand his personal position and appreciate his experience and degree of comprehension, we have to give him as much support as possible and encourage him to think about his circumstances and express his own opinions.

In the **search for targets,** the adviser may have to point out that in his professional judgement certain targets are impossible to attain. His expertise is again called for when problems are defined. But more important is the methodological point that problems should not be given final definition too soon and the adviser should think for as long as possible in terms of several parallel definitions. **The final definition of the problem contains more than half the solution,** and which solution is the right one should not be decided hastily at the stage of problem definition.

The expert is always needed when **the search for solutions** begins, especially if he can propose technical solutions that are not known to the client. In the **choice between alternatives,** the expert should also point out possible risks and consequences that the client might overlook. On the other hand, the final choice is a purely personal decision and must be made freely by the person who will later bear the consequences on his own.

Unfortunately, most advisory sessions end with the preparation for decision making. Thus both the usual **post-decision conflicts** and the inevitable **problems of implementation,** when the decision is put into practice, receive scant attention. Much effort and time spent on extension up to the point of taking decisions is often wasted, because no advice and further support is given when the solution is being carried out. Extension workers find it particularly frustrating that they hardly ever receive feedback about the success or failure of their advisory work.

If the advisers observe the process of problem solving, they can usually see if a positive **result is achieved.** This then enables the client to **evaluate the result** for himself. Only if the solution to his problem is felt to be positive is the danger of relapse eliminated. In this case, extension can be regarded as successful.

If the adviser finds that solutions are regarded as a failure, he can at least try to find a more satisfactory way of tackling the problems. In fact, if the adviser goes through the whole process in this way, he is much more likely to learn from mistakes and gain genuine experience which he can pass on to the next client.

3. What basic mistakes should be avoided in an extension talk?

Every difficulty that a person cannot overcome on his own without professional advice reduces his self-confidence. Thus an extension partner is very sensitive to the remarks and reactions of the adviser. Subconsciously the client is intent on warding off further damage to his self-esteem. Unsubstantiated criticism, bias, disapproval, moralising reprimand, demonstrations of superiority and playing down difficulties all provoke defensive reactions. At the very least they give rise to helplessness, discouragement, resignation or aggression rather than the initiative to overcome difficulties and modify behaviour.

Every individual is a complete personality in any situation. Thus a person feels more impelled to mobilise his inner resources to overcome difficulties, the more he is treated with consideration, i.e. the more he feels he is respected as an individual human being.

This is why a good adviser avoids all kinds of manipulative techniques in extension discussions, such as:

- refusing to put his cards on the table, not being straightforward, using rhetoric, showing off and trying to impress, putting people down;
- moral judgements, value judgements, praise, criticism, taking sides, admonishing, reprimanding;
- laying down the law, sophistry, penetrating questions, premature proposals to solve problems, persuasion, a final piece of advice.

So we conclude our contribution by not giving advice. Instead, we take a quick glance at philosophy. Labels can be empty sounds; reality is the product of deeper communication. "No discussion can touch the essence of things or people. Discussion is merely a way of comparing and adjusting horizons and perspectives. That is in itself an admirable achievement and one can hope for nothing more than many good, honest discussions" (Bruno Baron von Freytag Löringhoff).

Further information can be found in checklists → F 11 and → F 14.

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Compiled by:

Volker HOFFMANN, Gerhard PAYR

Laying out and using plots to demonstrate crop rotations

Demonstration plots are an especially good method of showing how yields are affected by new varieties, different plant intervals, the use of fertiliser and pesticides, etc. These plots are either laid out and tended by the advisers themselves or sections of farmers' fields are chosen for demonstration purposes with the farmers continuing to cultivate them.

In the first case the amount of time involved is a disadvantage. It is therefore usually better to mark out sections of the farmers' fields for demonstrations (using poles and unplanted strips to indicate the edges of plots) (→ Chapter III.14).

Maintenance of soil fertility is a key issue in many extension programmes. Target groups have often lost their familiarity with traditional soil-conserving land-use systems and methods, like shifting cultivation and mixed cropping, on account of the pressure of a rising population and the introduction of nonadapted "modern" techniques. By means of demonstrations, target groups have to be shown why appropriate rotation systems and adapted cropping techniques are necessary and how they are applied.

In many cases demonstration plots can be established which are used, under the supervision of the field adviser, for practical demonstrations and field days. These plots are ideal for demonstrating rotations, the benefits of which can only be seen over long periods of time.

→ Figure 1 illustrates how such a rotation demonstration plot might be laid out.

1. Basic intention

The basic intention is to place the right and wrong cropping systems and practices side by side on a small plot. This is done by cultivating half the garden correctly (Mr Right) and half incorrectly (Mr Wrong). In addition, two plots are reserved for demonstrating new crops and varieties. Be careful: in some Asian countries the use of "Mr Wrong" would not be the best way to approach extension work. We also have to bear in mind that when demonstrating the wrong alternative we run the risk that the farmers will misunderstand the experiment's aims and feel their inappropriate behaviour has been confirmed (C 1).

2. Area, position and number

The plan in → Figure 1 shows the relative size and positions of the plots:

Figure 1:

Plan of a rotation demonstration

Mr. Right		Mr Wrong
250 m^2 groundnuts	1	250 m^2 cotton
250 m^2 cotton	2	500 m^2 maize
250 m^2 maize	3	
150 m^2 sunflowers		150 m^2 soya beans

Rotation Mr Right	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Plot 1	Groundnuts	Maize	Cotton
Plot 2	Cotton	Groundnuts	Maize
Plot 3	Maize	Cotton	Groundnuts

- An area of about 2 500 m^2 is necessary for rotation plots.
- The subplots should not be so small as to emphasise the model nature of the garden.
- There should be a grass strip of about 7 – 10 m between the fields of Mr Right and Mr Wrong; this area is needed for demonstrations and field days.
- A noticeboard giving explanations should be erected so that advisers do not have to be on the spot all the time.
- The rotation plots should be arranged in such a way that they can be easily inspected from the roads and paths.
- The number of demonstration plots is dependent on the settlement density, the aims of extension, the number of farms that can be used for demonstrations and the resources available.
- When the plots are being created, costs are incurred for renting land, erecting a strong fence, workers' wages, production inputs and making a noticeboard. Income from the sale of crops produced on the land is low.

3. Demonstrations and results

In plant production the methods and the results cannot normally be observed at the same time, but in demonstrations methods and results have to be shown side by side. → Figure 2 gives some examples.

If we demonstrate all the recommended measures at the same time, the different results can certainly be seen, although we have to accept that it may be impossible for observers to decide which results are linked to particular methods.

4. Possible uses

- Demonstration plots must be easily accessible. A noticeboard must present, in the local language if possible, the most important facts and figures (comparisons of yield, varieties, fertilisers and implements used). The adviser can also chalk up on the board his most recent observations and other information.

Figure 2:

Possible topics in a demonstration of plant production

Fields of the progressive farmer (Mr. Right)	Fields of the inefficient farmer (Mr. Wrong)
Demonstration of method	
– Early cultivation of fields – Correct plant intervals – Use of improved implements – Keeping to a rotation – Tested seed – Early weeding – Mulching with harvest residues – Use of compost – Early harvest – Improved harvesting techniques – Composting harvest residues	– Late cultivation of fields – Plant intervals too wide – Use of traditional implements – No particular rotation – Poor quality seed – Late weeding – No soil cover – No fertilising – Late harvest – Traditional harvesting techniques – Burning harvest residues
Demonstration of results	
– All seeds germinate – Good plant growth – Low level of pest infestation – Little competition from weeds – Loose, moist topsoil – Soil fertility maintained	– Not all seeds germinate – Poor plant growth – High level of pest infestation – Much competition from weeds – Hard, dry topsoil – Soil fertility in decline

- At regular intervals the adviser demonstrates cultivation techniques and changes made to them.
- These rotation plots are an important item on the programme of field days.
- If there are target group organisations and contact farmers, the advisers should keep them informed about the possibility of giving demonstrations and, if required, produce and distribute leaflets.
- The functionaries of groups and contact farmers can then carry out demonstrations themselves.
- Women and children must be encouraged to attend demonstrations. Similarly, school teachers should be invited to bring their classes along.
- Wherever possible the advisers should work with the research stations to measure yields, so that cropping techniques can be assessed.

5. Experience of rotation plots

- To show the effects of rotations, demonstration gardens have to be a long-term undertaking, but their success can sometimes be jeopardised by farmers demanding the return of their land, poor supervision and the lack of interest on the part of senior advisers.
- It is important to protect gardens from domestic and wild animals. The gardens often have to be fenced off with barbed wire.
- It is important to continue showing farmers which techniques are correct and which are wrong. The differences should be unambiguous and instantly recognisable.
- Signboards have to be erected if demonstration plots cannot be inspected from roads and paths.
- It is essential to demonstrate rotations on soil of uniform quality that should also be typical of local conditions in terms of nutrients, water balance and soil type.

For general information the reader is referred to → C 5.

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Demonstrating the use of portable sprays for pest control

1. Content and aims of the demonstration

- operating and servicing a portable spray for pest control;
- explaining the need for pest control;
- making up spray mixtures;
- the demonstration serves to enable farmers to see the point of pest control, to gain some experience in operating sprays and to motivate them to buy sprays for the following cropping season.

2. Preparatory work

Target group

- farmers who have never worked with a spray;
- drawn from one village;
- no more than 8 – 12 people in each group.

Location of demonstration

- the field of a good cooperative farmer in the target group;
- the demonstration field to be within easy reach of the village.

Timing the demonstration

- in the relatively slack period after weeding;
- repeating the demonstration for the same group after three weeks;
- starting the demonstration each time at 9 am.

Demonstration aids and extension aids

- a well prepared back spray;
- tools to dismantle the spray;

- the liquid to be sprayed;
- instruction sheets on how to operate the spray;
- approximate proportions for making up the mixture;
- board or felt board;
- pictures of pests or models in casting resin.

Technical preparation of the adviser

- going through the operating instructions of the spray;
- practising the demonstration under the guidance of the senior adviser: taking it apart, repairing it, care and operation of the spray; the cost-effectiveness of pest control; getting, storing and using insecticides; safety measures when working with poisons.

3. Carrying out the demonstration

The demonstration takes about 2 – 3 hours. After welcoming the participants, the adviser explains briefly why portable sprays should be used to combat pests:

- using illustrations and insects prepared in casting resin, description of the pests and the damage they cause;
- discussion of the loss of yield and income through pest infestation with the help of illustrations, blackboard and felt board;
- the reasons why it is necessary to use pesticides to combat pests;
- brief explanation of the effects of poisonous insecticides and information about the danger to people and domestic animals.

When he explains the backspray the adviser should not go into details of its components and how it works. It is important to restrict the explanation to essentials only:

- First, the correct spray concentrations have to be demonstrated, for which the recommended receptacles and mixing buckets are needed. In demonstrations substitutes for the insecticides can be used. After mixing the correct concentration, the liquid is poured into the spray and then pressure is produced by pumping.

- After adjusting the spray nozzle, the adviser goes at walking pace through the field, pumping all the time.
- Masks or a cloth over the face must be worn as protection against poisonous substances.
- Immediately after the demonstration, the participants should be given the opportunity to try out the spray for themselves.

Then a semi-circle is formed round the adviser, and the farmers are given the chance to ask questions:

- At this stage it is important to deal with the farmers' questions very carefully, because farmers make their decision to accept or reject the innovation at this point.
- After answering questions, the adviser should demonstrate basic servicing and such operations as cleaning the nozzles, opening and closing the tanks, fixing the hose connections and greasing moving parts. The farmers should practise these operations as well.
- The adviser must tell the farmers exactly how much the spray costs. Since many farmers can only buy a spray with credit, the conditions for granting credit have to be explained: cropping a minimum area, filling in an application form, adhering to schedules.
- If brochures or leaflets are available, they should be handed out when the demonstration is finished.

4. Follow-up work

These demonstrations are backed up by other activities like field days, exhibitions, training contact farmers, poster campaigns or film shows. Once the decision has been taken to acquire a backspray, further extension measures have to be carried out:

- demonstrating how to establish the degree of pest infestation by using a counting board (to help non-numerate farmers a small board with holes, pieces of wood and coloured bands should be used. A marker is removed every time a pest is found. If used along a prescribed row of plants – for example, 50 paces long – the coloured band reached indicates whether spraying is necessary and how it should be done);
- avoidance of harmful effects on people, animals and plants by correct sealing and storage of containers;

- calculation of the amount of insecticide required on the basis of area or degree of pest infestation;
- carrying out the less demanding repairs and servicing;
- drawing up a spray plan and keeping a record of pest infestation and the amount of insecticide used.

A model calculation of the time spent on demonstrating a portable backspray is given in → G 7.

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Programming field days

Programming field days must be prepared systematically. A programme has to take into account changes occurring during a cropping season. Thus a programme may stay the same for 2 – 4 weeks and such issues as establishing erosion control strips, animal sheds or the allocation of fields in a rotation may well be on the programme for the whole season. But the advisers must also be ready to include in the programme of a field day an unexpected case of pest infestation, the effects of fertilising, the use of a machine that has only just become available, etc.

1. Checklist for the preparation of a field day

Content

- What is to be communicated?
- Is the content currently relevant to the target groups?
- Have target groups taken part in deciding the content?
- Is the content intended to be effective in the short, medium or long term?
- Is the content in keeping with the overall development target?

Participants

- Must the group be homogeneous (criteria of homogeneity)?
- Have the participants been informed about the date of the field day?
- Have the time and place of the meeting been fixed?
- How can the participants be informed if the field day has to be postponed or cancelled?

Programme

- Have all the people on the farms, in research stations, etc., been informed and prepared?
- Is the day's schedule realistic?

- Has information material been prepared on the issues that are likely to arise?
- Have equipment, models, display boards, etc., been prepared?

Transport

- Is it necessary to provide transport?
- Is transport available on the appointed day and has it been booked?
- Can the places to be visited be reached by the transport available?
- How many people can be transported?
- Can the participants be expected to make a contribution towards cost?

2. Programme planning

→ Figure 1 shows how a field day could be planned. We have intentionally devised a simple programme comprising a wide range of items, because this is what is usually encountered in practice. The programme is comprehensive because it needs to cover in a short time locations that are geographically close together with a variety of issues of current value and interest to the participants. Such a wide variety of topics can naturally do no more than arouse interest – it cannot bring about full understanding or changes in behaviour. This is the role of follow-up advisory work.

4. Evaluation of field days

Field days are a good opportunity to observe the reactions and problems of farmers. But, before this can occur, advisers must note their difficulties and questions. The adviser must ascertain whether the issues raised apply to the majority or only to particular individuals. The evaluation of field days meets the following specific aims:

- identifying problems in the target groups;
- examining extension topics and methods;
- deciding where to put the emphasis in the further training of advisers;
- estimating adoption rates for the following season;

- improvement of field days and coordination with other extension methods;
- improving the preparation of advisers for further field days. Advisers must consider the target groups' problems with senior staff and specialists in discussions and training seminars and think out suitable solutions and responses.

Figure 1:

Example of a field day programme

Time	Place	Activity	Remarks
7.00	Binga, adviser's house	– Participants meet – Adviser explains programme – Departure by lorry	Keep to schedule Return probably between 12.30 and 13.30
7.15 8.40	Binga, research station	– Inspect rotation experiments – Inspect the station's model farm – Demonstration of composting – Demonstration of a maize peeler – Departure	Maximum 35 participants Discussion of each item on programme Have illustrations ready on the station
9.00 10.30	Chisangu Peter Mwale	– Visit to a farm with integrated stock keeping – Farmer and adviser introduce the farm – Demonstration of mulching – Demonstration of intercropping – Demonstration of a new hoe – Demonstration of poultry keeping – Continue journey	Prepare farm data Note farmers' questions Conduct discussion so that the farmer has to provide answers Have maize, groundnuts, plants and hoe ready Discuss egg marketing and feeding
11.00 11.15 12.00	1 km from Bangu Bangu	– Inspection of a badly eroded maize field – Inspection of a communal cashew nut unit – Demonstration of intercropping – Discussion with village committee – Tea break – Return home to Binga	Discussion of causes of erosion and protection measures Inform village committee Prepare cashew data 50 g tea for the committee Distribute brochure
   13.00	Mwona Binga	– Short stop on the journey at the rice field of farmer Timothy near Mwona – Return and farewell	Point out excellent protective embankment

In conclusion, we list a number of questions that farmers put to advisers at field days:

- Why don't small farmers get credit?
- Why does the price of fertiliser go up practically every year?
- Why does the farmer get less for 1 kg wool than for 1 kg groundnuts?
- How can farmers pay back loans when drought causes the harvest to fail?
- By how much can we raise the yield if we use improved seed?
- Why can't we see any increase in yield even though we have been using the recommended rotation for two years?
- What are the correct plant intervals for millet and cassava?
- What must I do to qualify for a further training course?

Since farmers expect clear answers to questions like these, advisers should think about them and similar questions and prepare their answers in joint discussions well before the field day.

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Example of extension work at markets

Agricultural advisers should always be present when the farmers go to market to sell their produce.

Their general duties are:

1) to check whether the products brought to market by farmers are correctly sorted into prescribed qualities;
2) to help farmers in disputes and disagreements with the market personnel and credit assistants;
3) to report serious problems like late opening of the market, defective scales, irregularities in payment for farmers' produce, shortage of sacks for the produce, etc.

Special extension programme

1. Demonstration of a new portable spray:

- explaining how it works;
- dismantling and cleaning the spray;
- farmers trying it out themselves (→ E 7, → G 7).

2. Information on how to buy a new spray:

- subsidised cash price: 150 Shs.;
- subsidised credit price: 200 Shs.

When bought with credit, a downpayment of 50 Shs. has to be made to the credit assistant. The remaining 150 Shs. are then paid in two instalments of 75 Shs. in the following year. The benefits of cash sales should be made clear to the farmers. Applications for cash and credit sales should be prepared and checked by the adviser and then passed on to the credit assistant.

3. Demonstration of cotton picking sacks

- The amount of cotton picked can be increased by 50 % when picking sacks are used.
- They make it much easier to grade the cotton according to quality.
- Cotton picking sacks can be bought for 10 Shs. each at the market.

4. Grading groundnuts

To get the maximum price for groundnuts, the following points have to be taken into account:

- The red skin on the shelled nuts must not be damaged.
- The colour and size of the nuts must be uniform.
- Crushed, misshapen and rotten nuts reduce the quality grade.
- To prevent the poisonous effect of aflatoxins when they are consumed, the nuts must be dried for a sufficient period after harvesting.

5. Fertiliser vouchers

Since farmers cannot save enough during the cropping season for the cash purchase of mineral fertiliser, vouchers can be bought at markets and then exchanged for mineral fertilisers from December onwards. The adviser must tell farmers about this method of buying fertiliser.

6. Campaigns

When campaigns are being run, every market is visited once a week by the loudspeaker van and a lorry with tools, models and illustrations. The adviser concerned is given the dates of these visits in his weekly programme. It is his duty to be present on such occasions.

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Preparing and running local agricultural exhibitions

At local exhibitions extension back-up can be provided by:

1. Extension service display stand

- Illustrations and posters should be as traditional as possible to ensure that the message is understood by the target population. Figures and text should be kept to a minimum.
- Solid objects are better than illustrations or photographs. Being able to compare objects is best of all. Thus we can easily explain the difference in yield from traditional and improved farming methods by piling up the sacks. When a new crop is introduced, each visitor could be allowed to take samples of the seed.
- The visitors should be allowed to touch and try out all the demonstration objects, including tools.
- Another possibility might be to make scale sand-table models of farms. But we must first check the level of comprehension of the target groups and how they are likely to react.
- An adviser must be in attendance at every display stand to answer visitors' questions and to explain the objects on display by means of a felt board, blackboard, etc. The use of loudhailers is recommended for this work. The adviser chosen for this job should be technically well qualified and an uninhibited individual.
- A record should be kept of the names and village of the visitors, so that follow-up work can be carried out by the adviser.
- The more attractive the display stand, the more interest it will arouse. We should not hesitate to use such proven means of attracting attention as little badges, balloons or boxes of matches carrying advertisements. We could also exhibit an unknown animal or organise a guessing game with prizes (how many grains of rice in a glass or the exact weight of a sack of groundnuts) (→ C 2, → C 3).

2. Media room (tent, school, community centre, etc.)
A room or tent that can be darkened can be used in a number of ways:

- **film shows:** it is advisable to show a combination of entertainment and instructional films;
- **slide shows** with recorded commentary: the same recommendation applies as in the case of films;
- **dances:** if possible new dances should be created with symbolic agricultural themes;
- **songs and music:** there is even more opportunity than in the case of dances to follow tradition but also to include instruction, or to compose new pieces.
- **theatre:** depending on local tradition, there are many ways in which theatre can be used to demonstrate agricultural problems and show different aspects of agricultural life.
- A **media tent** can be shared with firms, but details of the programme must be coordinated in advance.

3. Demonstrations

Practical demonstrations are an essential ingredient of all agricultural exhibitions. The kind of demonstration determines whether it is held on the exhibition site or in the vicinity. As many currently relevant demonstrations as possible should be carried out, giving the visitors every opportunity to operate a backspray, pull sowing equipment along, start up a water pump, to lead a team of oxen, etc.

4. Competitions

Competitions are popular and an attraction. The prospect of winning a prize is an important incentive for many people to visit an exhibition. There are two kinds of competition:

- exhibiting and giving prizes for agricultural produce;
- competitions involving physical performance like ploughing, hoeing, digging up groundnuts, etc.

The focus of agricultural exhibitions is usually the display of crops, animals, domestic and craft products. When shows of this kind are being organised, the following points should be noted:

- The advisers should tell the farmers some time before the exhibition what products may be displayed and in what form and quantity.

- Only farmers and rural craftsmen in the extension territory should be allowed to take part in the competition.
- Advisers, officials and their families should not normally be allowed to take part in the competition, although they are fully entitled to exhibit.
- The prizes to be awarded for each product group should be announced in advance. The prizes should be neither too grand nor too small. In most cases, a fairly large number of small prizes is preferable to a few expensive prizes.
- The composition of the panel of judges can be a problem. It should be left to the organisation committee to choose the judges. Then the adviser must ensure that the judges are familiar with the standards and assessment criteria that have to be applied.
- A system must be worked out for recording and identifying the items to be put on display (plants, animals and craft products).

Similar principles apply when judging the performance of competitors taking part in ploughing, ox-cart racing, etc. An effort must be made to ensure these competitions are happy occasions and good fun. Tests of skill in general can prevent agricultural competitions becoming too serious.

Enough time should be left for awarding prizes, which should ideally be performed by a dignitary who is held in high esteem by the farmers. At the prizegiving ceremony, the relevant adviser for each category should be presented.

Sometimes it is possible to combine elements of an agricultural show, a field day and a demonstration (→ E 6, → E 7, → E 8).

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Establishing a school garden

Teaching programmes to create awareness of the environment in rural regions are greatly helped by the observation, experiments and demonstrations that can be carried out in school gardens. The following points should be considered when school gardens are created and used:

1. Position

A school garden should be located as near as possible to the school. The soil should be suitable for a variety of crops. It should be at the disposal of the school for at least a few years.

2. Size

The labour input has to be calculated when the size of the garden is decided. About 20 – 30 m^2 per pupil are required.

3. Type

It is not advisable to prepare and cultivate small plots "incorrectly" in a school garden to demonstrate the difference between the right and wrong methods. Experience shows that people often become confused and no longer know what is right and wrong. However, it is a good idea to cultivate a section of the garden strictly by traditional methods. In this way the teacher and adviser get to know the traditional methods, to use them and to form an opinion about them. The parents also appreciate it if their children learn the "good old ways" and not just modern techniques.

4. Crops

Only those crops should be cultivated in the garden that can be grown by all farmers now or in the immediate future. But there is no reason why a corner of the school garden should not be clearly marked off for experimenting with exotic plants, demonstrating the excessive use of fertiliser, the effects of insufficient watering, etc.

5. Cropping plan

The advisers and teachers should work together to draw up the annual cropping plan, which should always include a rotation.

6. Means of production

If production inputs cannot be obtained through the school authorities, projects can often get fertiliser, spraying equipment, etc., as a gift or by taking out credit. It is important to ascertain needs, to order and distribute production inputs at the right time.

7. Schedule and operational plan, records

Deadlines for sowing, fertilising, weeding, harvesting, etc., should be displayed in the classrooms and shown on charts. A record must be kept of work already carried out, observations and notable incidents. This information is important if there is a change of teacher and is also essential teaching material.

8. Duties of the adviser

Advisers must inspect the gardens regularly and if necessary point out to the teacher where work needs to be done. If special measures have to be carried out, like pest control and watering, the adviser can demonstrate the use of spraying equipment to the teachers and pupils. If problems arise in school gardens that the teachers cannot solve, they should turn in the first instance to the adviser.

9. Use of the garden

The main function of school gardens is to give practical relevance to teaching and to acquaint schoolchildren with improved techniques, but they can be put to other uses as well, for example school field days. They also have a demonstration effect on the adults in the locality.

The crops produced in school gardens can be sold and the money used to finance the school, books or excursions. Model kitchens set up to use the crops from the gardens are an ideal way of teaching practical domestic science.

10. Misuse of gardens

Sometimes school gardens are used as means of raising funds to run the school. In most cases, this is asking far too much of school children. Similarly, making schoolchildren work in the private gardens and fields of teachers is a practice that should be condemned.

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Evaluating training events

Training events should always be adapted to the specific conditions of a location. In this sense, what is required of a training event is also required of evaluation, namely that the special conditions of the social situation and the environment are taken into account.

Evaluation and self-criticism help the Animateur to assess the effectiveness of his work. A poor Animateur judges his work in terms of the hours the participants spend with him, without trying to find out whether the training he gives has actually had any effect on them.

He measures the success of his training only in terms of quantity, just as a farmer thinks of his sweet potato harvest in kg per hectare. But training in the true sense of the word is more even than increasing the "amount of awareness" – it is a question of changing the quality, the character and the pattern of awareness. This forces us therefore to work out criteria to register this qualitative change in the awareness of groups or individuals.

Because the success of training cannot be quantified (or perhaps it can, but only in the long term), we have to evaluate training carefully and regularly. We evaluate a training event by assessing the teaching aids used, the role of the Animateur and the reactions of the participants during and after training.

I. Evaluation of the teaching material

We distinguish between three types of criteria:

1. Socio-cultural, pedagogic and psychological criteria

   - Which of our senses is the teaching material directed at? Material that appeals to more than one of our senses makes it easier to take in and store information in our memory. Thus we perceive in a variety of ways, and an abundance of associations working together with our memory creates links with other topics, problems, observations, past experiences, etc.

   - Does the teaching material also appeal to the emotions? If there is something in the information that touches the emotions, it makes a deeper impression on the minds of the participants.

   - Can the participants identify with at least some of the teaching material? If they can identify, it will be easier for them to discover parallels between their training and their own situation.

- Does the teaching material allow the participants to discover problems for themselves? Does it encourage dialogue and group discussion, or does it reduce them to mere consumers who only listen and watch?

- Does the teaching material encourage the participants to relate what they see to their own situation, and does it stimulate their imagination and ability to see problems? The more the teaching material "allows projections", the less danger there is of its being prescriptive and inhibiting creativity. Good material is creative in the sense that it helps people to formulate and develop ideas and to see the links with allied problems.

- To what extent does the teaching material conform with the culture of the country? The more it is in keeping with the local culture (songs, poems, theatre, etc.), the better it will be understood. The teaching material should not be something alien and imposed from above but should be an integral and integrating element.

- Can the participants recognise and understand the information that the teaching material is intended to communicate (pictures, photographs, slides, films, etc. → E 13)?

- To what extent does the teaching material present a challenge, compel the participants to take a stand and formulate their problems? Does it motivate them to solve their problems?

- Do the materials address a real problem? Do they refer to problems clearly enough for the participants to recognise them as their own?

2. Target criteria

- Is the material intended to develop awareness, to create sensitivity to problems, or is it material that helps to find a solution to a precise problem that has already been defined by the participants?

- Is the material targeted towards a special group (men, women, farmers, old people, children, etc.)?

- Do the people take part in training sessions regularly, occasionally or rarely?

- Is the teaching material aimed at people with a particular level of education (illiterates, primary school, secondary school, higher level schools, etc.)?

- Is training carried out in the open or in a special centre?
- How many people take part in each training session?

3. Logistical criteria

- cost of purchasing and maintaining teaching materials;
- mobility (transport in the field);
- possibility of combining with other teaching materials;
- time for devising and making the materials;
- time for preparing a training session;
- availability of the materials in the hands of field advisers;
- the provision of technical equipment;
- level of education required of the Animateur;
- Does the material provide the Animateur with a central theme and to what extent does it suggest the methodological approach?
- How easily can the material be reproduced and copied?

II. Assessing the role of the Animateur in the training process

It is up to the Animateur to exploit the teaching material to the full. If he is not thoroughly acquainted with his material and its potential, he will not make the best use of it, and his efforts will be of little benefit. Whether the training session is a valuable experience or a waste of time depends on the Animateur and his use of the materials, and for this reason his performance must be assessed.

1. Use of the teaching materials

- Has the Animateur mastered the topic he is dealing with? Is he aware of the complexity of the problem?

- Is the Animateur capable of exploiting the full potential of the teaching material? Does he know how to handle the material correctly?

- Does he speak loudly enough for all to hear and understand him?

- Does the whole group understand the language spoken by the Animateur?
- Does he use gesture and facial expression to emphasise what he is saying?
- Does the Animateur encourage discussion? Does he know how to lead a discussion? Is he able to draw attention to important points during the discussion and then to summarise them?
- Can the Animateur make constructive use of the negative reactions of the group?
- Does the Animateur help the participants to identify with the teaching material, for example with characters in a play?
- Does he make it easier for participants to project themselves on to the teaching material?
- How does he help them to see parallels between the teaching material and their own problems?
- Does he use enough concrete examples to help them to discover parallels between discussions and their actual situation?
- Does the Animateur ask the right questions at the right time?
  - questions to establish the level of group development;
  - questions to encourage the participants to follow ideas presented and to discuss them;
  - questions that encourage them to think more deeply about what has been said;
  - questions to check whether they have followed the discussion;
  - questions that force them to formulate problems;
  - questions that enliven discussion.

2. The relationship between the Animateur and the group

- How does the Animateur introduce himself to the group? Does he emphasise his position as a state official? Does he make a point of his official nomination? Does he line up the participants so that they can listen to his

monologue or does he allow a group discussion to develop, like a conversation in which he also takes part as the recognised authority, a position deriving from his intelligence, experience and the good example he sets for everyone around him.

- Does the Animateur maintain his reserve and an "artificial" distance between himself and the group? Are there any signs that he is nervous of the group or that the group undermines his confidence?
- Does the Animateur mix with the group, and is he acknowledged as a member?
- Does the group pay attention to the Animateur simply because he has a position of power in the hierarchy and they are afraid of the consequences if they do not listen to him?
- Do people listen to the Animateur because he convinces his listeners that what he says is true, intelligent and authentic?
- Is the relationship between the Animateur and the group based on mutual trust or mistrust? How does mutual trust manifest itself?
- Does the presence of the Animateur make the group unsure of itself?
- Do the members of the group feel at ease in the presence of the Animateur? What indications are there?
- Does the Animateur create "negative uncertainty" in the participants, so that they lack the confidence to express themselves freely, or simply say what the Animateur wants to hear?
- Does the Animateur create "positive uncertainty" that acts as an incentive to express their own thoughts?
- Can the Animateur devote enough time to his group?
- Is he open and flexible enough to go into the ideas and thoughts of those taking part in the discussion?
- Is he sufficiently acquainted with the locality where he is working?

3. The Animateur's capacity to appraise his own performance (the ability to question what he is doing)

- Is the Animateur able to accept criticism and to turn it to constructive use?

- Is he sensitive enough to interpret the reactions of the group of individuals correctly? Can he draw conclusions from their reactions?
- Is he capable of self-criticism?
- Is he capable of modifying his own behaviour in the light of reactions by the group?

4. Ability to use initiative to solve problems

- Has the Animateur enough imagination to make use of the resources available when solutions are proposed and to integrate them into existing structures (solutions that lend themselves to advice)?
- How does he handle solutions proposed by the group?
- Is he willing to cooperate with other functionaries to work towards solutions?
- Can the Animateur fit a proposed solution into the wider context (national, worldwide) and assess its advantages, disadvantages and consequences? Can he make the group more aware of these issues?
- If the Animateur has practical skills, would he be able, for example, to hold a demonstration of proposed solutions in the same way as dealing with a training topic or a problem awareness course?
- Has the Animateur organisational ability and planning skills?

III. Evaluating the reactions of participants during and after training events

This aspect of evaluation is the most important since it records the actual results of training. It is a question of spotting and interpreting the indicators that tell us the results of training. What are these indicators?

- apathetic silence after a question or proposal;
- mechanical repetition of the "Animateur's" words;
- talking among themselves about other topics;
- questions that have nothing to do with the topic;
- questions that are asked to curry favour with the Animateur;

- remarks that have nothing to do with the topic;
- remarks to catch the attention of the Animateur;
- provocative questions (to catch the Animateur out or make him look ridiculous);
- provocative, disruptive behaviour;
- surly silence;
- ostentatious and provocative silence;
- aggression towards the Animateur and others;
- scepticism;
- critical questions;
- provocative but constructive remarks;
- questions that genuinely seek to add to their knowledge;
- a sense of expectation in the participants;
- questions that call for answers;
- questions that seek to deepen the subject matter;
- remarks that advance the subject under discussion;
- comments that make proposals;
- participants make use of ideas derived from previous discussions;
- participants begin to make demands on their environment;
- participants become creative, discover their own potential;
- they begin to make use of their newly discovered potential;
- participants give reasons why this or that is the real issue;
- they realise that a problem is linked to other problems in their environment;
- they develop initiatives that have been created by their own needs;

- they ensure that problem-solving measures are continued;
- they now feel the need for emancipation;
- they begin to see their needs and solutions, their very existence in a wider context (national, continental, worldwide).

These various reactions and responses can occur at any point during the development of groups.

This is not a comprehensive list of indicators that need to be interpreted, because all groups develop their individual ways of expressing themselves, acting and reacting. Thus it is the job of the Animateur to extend the above list.

When we interpret these indicators, we must always take account of the particular circumstances under which training was carried out. The participants do not react to training alone; there is a host of other factors that give rise to reactions in the group. The Animateur must therefore investigate the reasons for a particular reaction. If a group reacts to the training session itself, it is obviously important from the point of view of evaluation. If something else causes the reaction, it interests us because we may want to incorporate it in our training programme.

To interpret a reaction properly, we must always ask why, how and when aspects of training had an effect and what that effect was. In other words, we should try to relate the effects to the particular conditions of the training session (role of the Animateur, the teaching materials, etc.). In this way we are given valuable clues as to how training can be improved.

Source:

Ernst GABATHULER: Evaluation d'une session de formation. Projet Agricole de Kibuye, Service Animation et Formation. Rwanda. 4. 1979.

Compiled by:

Volker HOFFMANN

Pre-testing pictorial material

What one man takes for granted can be surprising to the next man, which means it can prove costly to leave things to chance when using media. This is why it is **imperative to pre-test** picture material. In most cases it can be done relatively easily with just a few basic test procedures.

A "free test" on a small number of individuals is often sufficient. Each individual is shown the whole picture and asked: "What can you see?" We can learn a lot from the order of what they say, what they omit to say and also from following their gaze and observing facial expression. If they have no further comments to make, we can ask: "Can you see anything else?" Finally we ask: "What is the whole picture trying to say?"

Sometimes, especially when a large number of copies or expensive pictures are planned, it pays to go further than this necessary routine check and to test more intensively. We now give details of how to tackle more thorough testing of pictures.

Even **before the first drafts** of pictures have been created and sample photographs taken, some basic questions have to be asked. They must be answered conclusively not later than the preliminary testing stage:

- Who is the message trying to reach (target groups)?
- What message is to be communicated (content)?
- What is the message trying to achieve (aims)? Is it supposed to inform, train, create problem awareness, indicate solutions, induce a change in behaviour?
- Are pictures the best method, and what kind of pictures should we choose (→ F 12)?
- Are the target groups familiar with the medium, what are the conventions regarding pictorial illustration, what colour preferences exist, etc.? Are there any local artists, how do they work, what do children's drawings look like, etc.?
- How is the message received by the target group? Is the situation depicted realistically for them, do they agree with any value judgements, are the proposals considered meaningful?

Discussions with colleagues, experts and representatives of the target groups can provide much useful information on these issues. The artist or photographer should take part in discussions as early as possible.

Then an "aide mémoire" should be drawn up that describes the use of pictures as a teaching aid; aims, content, method, medium, sequence, combination of picture and text or pictures and the spoken word, etc.

Following these guidelines (very much like a script), the first sample pictures are made and have to be tested. If the pictures contain many details, it is sometimes helpful to test in two phases:

1. Are the elements of the picture recognised and is their significance understood? For this kind of testing, the rest of the picture is covered and the same question asked about each individual element: "What is that and what does it mean?" Responses should not be corrected and no explanation given, because that would interfere with the second part of the test.

2. Has the total picture been understood? Now the subject's interpretation of the whole might enable him to correct wrong interpretations of the parts. Conversely, he may have interpreted the parts correctly but nevertheless still cannot understand what the total picture is saying.

If a series of pictures or elements are shown, we have to check whether they have been understood. In the case of single pictures, we asked, for example: "What is going on here?" or "What does this picture tell us?" Now we ask: "What is happening in these pictures, what does the whole series tell us?"

A small and if possible mixed group is best for initial testing. The test subjects can then help each other to interpret the pictures. The next step is to show the pictures to individuals representing the categories in the target group (for example young women, old men, illiterates, farmers, craftsmen, etc.). It is easier to undertake this test with people who are accustomed to pictures – it is obviously more difficult if they are not familiar with the kinds of pictures being tested.

Representative samples and quantitative results of testing are a waste of time and money. It is not helpful to know what percentage of the test subjects have misunderstood. As far as possible we should simply remove from pictures anything that could lead to misunderstanding. It is better to keep on modifying the picture and then testing it again.

Who should test pictures?

It is not advisable to let outsiders carry out this vital work. We should avoid using interviewers, as well. On the other hand, it is most important that the artist or photographer and those responsible for the technical content are present in all cases. Thus they can learn from their own mistakes and have another chance of making direct contact with their target groups. If they take part in the test, they are more likely to accept the need to modify their own work.

A series of pictures should, if possible, still be amended even if it has been reproduced in large quantities. If a participatory approach is used, we get a good deal of feedback about the pictures and they can therefore be improved.

If the tester is still unsure how to ask his questions, he can write down a few guidelines. Such guidelines are particularly helpful in group discussions to ensure that he does not lose the thread. We now give an example of relatively detailed discussion guidelines.

Example of discussion guidelines for use in picture testing

The pictures should be hung up one at a time. Only one element of each picture should be shown and the following questions asked:

1. What can you see here? What does it mean?

The same question is asked for every detail of the picture. No comment is to be made on the intended message of the picture.

After dealing with the picture detail by detail, the whole picture is shown and the following questions asked:

2. What can you see, what does the picture mean, what message does it have for us?

3. Is the picture telling us to do a particular thing? If so, what?

4. Can you express the message of this picture in your own words?

5. Are there people in this picture who remind you of friends or who look quite different from your friends? If they are different, what are the major differences?

6. Does this (a detail in the picture) look like yours or is it different? If it is, what are the differences?

7. Is there anything in the picture that disturbs or annoys you or that could offend friends and neighbours? If so, what and why?

8. Is there anything about this picture that you particularly like? If so, what and why?

9. Is there anything in this picture that is not clear? If so, what?

10. Have we forgotten anything important in this picture? If so, what and why?

11. Is there any message in this picture that you find hard to believe? If so, what is wrong?

12. Are there any particularly pleasing colours in this picture? If so, which colours?

13. Are there any colours in this picture that you do not like? If so, which colours?

14. What could we do to improve the picture?

With group discussion, a note should be made at the end of the test of how many people and what categories have taken part. If the pictures were shown to individuals, we should keep a record of the test subjects' age, sex, religion, language and level of reading ability.

These features will have to be recorded for the various categories within the target group.

We have naturally given only a very general example of discussion guidelines. They can be shortened, amended or supplemented according to the aims, content, target group and situation.

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Compiled by:

Volker HOFFMANN

Circulars for advisers

Circulars for advisers aim to provide the following:

- organisational, technical and methodological information on the current programme (**up-dating function**);

- further training by giving information about measures that are not directly related to current programmes (**training function**);

- information of a personal nature like births, football matches, photographic clubs, etc. (**social function**).

Circulars help field advisers and their superiors to communicate with each other. They are usually issued monthly and distributed and explained at programming discussions. We often find the following typical weaknesses in the production, distribution and use of circulars:

- The lowest level of advisers have frequently had inadequate schooling and technical education so they often find it difficult to read technical texts, especially when circulars are written in a European language and pay no heed to the level of understanding of the readers.

- They are often produced and distributed late and irregularly.

- The content is often decided by senior staff without any direct involvement of advisers or even the representatives of the farmers. Technical information not infrequently takes the form of directives that are not regarded by the advisers as "assistance".

- Since field advisers are not consulted regarding content and production, the circulars mostly do not meet the technical requirements of current programmes.

Since these are common faults, we now suggest ways in which to improve the preparation of content, distribution and use of circulars:

(1) Circulars should never be produced without involving the target groups and the field advisers. If direct participation is not possible, they must be involved at least indirectly (by talking over content at advisers' discussion sessions and by providing a special column for advisers' contributions).

(2) Circulars should always be issued at project and district level, thereby ensuring that they offer practical guidelines for advisers in regions of the same kind and with the same type of organisation.

(3) Great care must be taken to make the content of circulars clear and comprehensible. The messages must be geared to the lowest level of advisers.

(4) Circulars should ideally appear once a month and cover all extension activities and complementary measures like credit and marketing.

(5) Even with unsophisticated methods, the layout and printing of circulars can be made attractive. Little drawings, bold type, readers' letters, family news and anecdotes can all contribute to lively presentation.

(6) Wherever possible, circulars should be written in the local language. This point is particularly important when representatives of target groups are addressed.

(7) Circulars must be explained at the weekly training sessions for advisers, so that they all have the same information for implementing programmes.

(8) When senior advisers go on field visits, they must check that circulars are being correctly used. Testing the advisers' level of expertise by means of questionnaires, however, is only recommended when it is done voluntarily and does not become a part of the appraisal of advisers' performance.

(9) We recommend issuing folders in which a year's circulars can be kept.

(10) Regional handbooks can be based on circulars, and later circulars can refer the reader to such handbooks.

In → G 6 there is an example of a circular for advisers.

Compiled by:

Gerhard PAYR, Rolf SÜLZER

How to prepare and deliver a speech in the context of mass extension

During campaigns advisers, alone or in the company of politicians and leaders, have to address large crowds of people at village meetings. We offer the following advice to help them structure their speeches at mass meetings more effectively:

(1) The content of the speech must be up-to-date and interesting. The adviser must bear in mind the composition of his audience when he prepares his speech.

(2) The audience must be told at the beginning what points the speech is going to cover.

(3) People with little education can only take in a limited amount of information. Thus speeches should be limited to one basic theme and be guided by local practice regarding language and duration.

(4) Speeches should not begin with apologies for mistakes and misunderstanding.

(5) The speaker must always try to speak to his audience as individuals and not at them.

(6) The speaker must be able to justify what he is saying. Only if he can defend his own assertions will he be credible and self-assured. The key to this kind of performance is conscientious preparation.

(7) The speaker should address his audience in a loud, clear voice. He should avoid violent gestures but, on the other hand, not behave too casually. If he is going to use a loudspeaker, it should be checked in advance to make sure it is properly adjusted.

(8) Interesting examples and anecdotes can give speeches a lighter touch, but the speaker must not exaggerate or be too intent on putting on a good performance.

(9) A speech must not be learned by heart – hardly better than reading from a script. The speaker should try to express himself as freely as possible, using only keywords for reference.

(10) Advisers should not be too formally or ostentatiously dressed. In a harvest campaign, a field adviser wearing a dark suit and tie would create a barrier between himself and his audience.

(11) Direct personal attacks on people, whether present or absent, must be avoided. The same principle applies in the discussion that follows. Also advisers must not allow themselves to be provoked by irritating questions.

(12) Before he starts, the speaker must decide whether questions can be asked during or after his speech. With all speeches, enough time must be left for discussion and, although it is wise to impose a time-limit, discussion should not be stopped if important problems are brought up.

(13) When the speaker comes to the end of his speech, he should summarise the most important points.

(14) If copies of the speech, brochures or leaflets have been prepared, they should not be handed out until discussion has finished, to avoid unnecessary interruption.

Bibliography:

"Extension Training Bulletin" of the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources, Nigeria. No year given. No place of publication.

Compiled by:

Gerhard PAYR, Rolf SÜLZER

Structuring group sessions to identify problems

The object of such discussions is to structure the knowledge of the participants and to "visualise" it (to make it visible), so that problems can be identified and their importance assessed, and finally solutions can be found. In practice we adopt the following approach:

1. Compiling a list of problems

It is best to begin by compiling a list of all the problems known to be associated with a particular issue. The question is introduced in written form and if necessary discussed in advance. Then there is a pause for thought with everyone maintaining silence. Thus everybody has the chance to sort out the problems he knows of and to define them in his own mind. He should then write them down legibly in the form of keywords on cards that are collected on a pinboard. It is worthwhile to compile the list in a plenary session. This method prevents talkative individuals from dominating the discussion, and information cannot go astray.

2. Sorting

The next step is to structure the problems, not with the intention of evaluating but of categorising them in problem areas. The frequency of problems is an initial indicator of relative importance.

3. Supplementing the list

Once categories of problems have been established, we can see whether the initial list was complete or whether we should add further categories or aspects of problems.

4. Discussion

We now discuss the various categories of problem to establish their relative importance. For this stage, it is advisable to create small groups of 4 – 6 people. It is the job of these working groups to discuss the problems thoroughly, to reveal further aspects and to decide on and give reasons for an order of priority. This process should be recorded on pinboard charts or demonstration blocks (flip-charts).

5. Presentation

After the small groups have worked on the problems in the different categories, the results are presented to the plenary session. Thus the assembled group has a chance to comment on the results before they are re-examined as the starting point for the formulation of solutions. → E 17 gives more details about moderation and visualisation techniques.

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Compiled by:

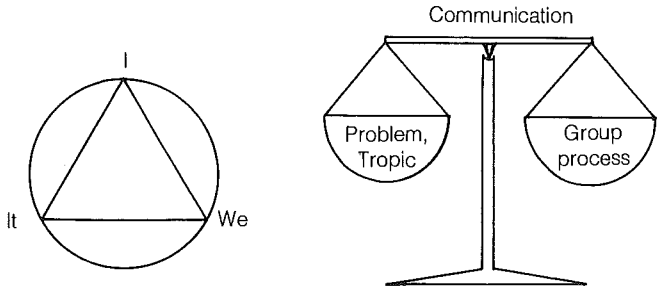
Volker HOFFMANN, Rolf SÜLZER

Using visualisation to improve group communication

The most common way of communicating in groups is by word of mouth. However, when the oral method is used, the following problems often occur:

- some people contribute more than others and some get no chance at all to make a contribution;
- the memory is overtaxed, people cannot retain everything, there is a lot of repetition, misunderstanding, waste of time and losses of information;
- the more factual communication is impeded, the more problems of personal relations between the participants come to the fore. Ostensibly factual topics are misused for personal attacks or defending oneself;
- It becomes increasingly difficult for the discussion leader to keep the group to the point.

By means of visualisation and suitable techniques of moderation, everyone is more able to take part and the job of leading the discussion becomes easier. Thus, if the materials and techniques of visualisation are properly used, better results can be achieved in a shorter space of time.



The aim of visual communication is to achieve a better balance between the various aspects of group communication. In "topic-centred interaction" we speak of the tension between "I", "We" and "It", with "It" referring to the factual information, the topic itself. By analogy, the issue could be, for example, the balance between the problem or topic and the group process – a balance that has to be achieved by the appropriate methods of communication.

If we apply the materials and techniques of visualisation, the four essentials for comprehension in communication automatically come into play:

- simplicity, comprehensibility;
- brevity and conciseness;
- structure and good organisation;
- further stimulation.

Simplicity and comprehensibility are achieved when people are asked to express themselves in a few keywords on a small card, and this is also automatically conducive to brevity and conciseness. To make sure that everyone has understood, the cards can be read out later and if necessary explained and commented on.

Structure and good organisation of visual material result from the arrangement of the cards on a pinboard or wall chart and from the choice of suitable colours and shapes for the cards.

Further stimulation arises from the choice of materials and how they are combined in visual composition plus the act of presentation in which all the members of the group are involved. Thus there is variety, there are changes of scene and visual links between information and the individuals providing it. The group dynamic, far from disrupting the group session, now encourages and stimulates communication – it gives the visual method that little bit of extra impact.

The aims, content and methods of visual communication in groups are shown in → Figure 1.

→ Pictures 1 – 5 show further aspects of the visualisation approach and the rules we have to apply. The posters try to demonstrate, through the manner of their own visualisation, the correct application of the rules and recommendations they present.

The technical and material input required by this kind of visual technique is frequently overestimated. Even if the services available are used and fully prepared materials are bought, the costs are insignificant compared with the other costs involved (the participants' work time, possibly board and lodging), and they are easily outweighed by the time saved and the far greater effectiveness. If there is reluctance to spend money on materials, or if expensive imports and the expenditure of foreign exchange are to be avoided, local materials can easily be used instead. Wrapping paper, waste paper, wax crayons or felt-tip pens, drawing pins and boards covered with corrugated cardboard instead of proper pinboards all serve the same purpose. We can even manage without a pinboard at all, if we use strips of adhesive tape to fix the cards on blackboards and to move them around.

Figure 1:

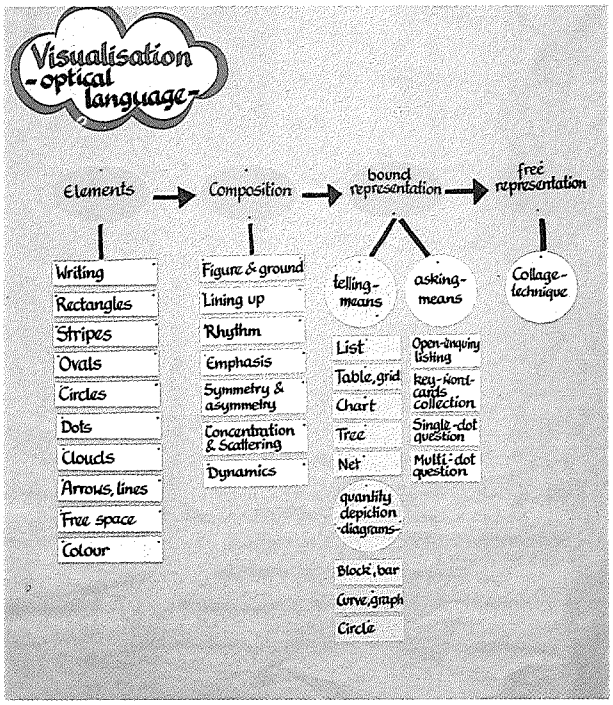
Visual communication as a means of problem solving in groups

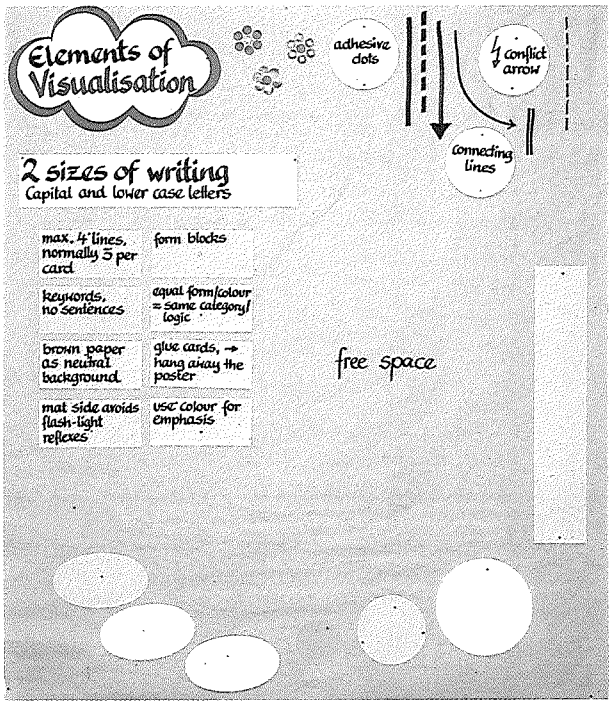
what	how	why
Defining the problem Analysing the problem ↓ ↑ Working out alternative solutions ↓ ↑ Evaluating and taking decisions ↓ ↑ Putting into practice Planning	In each case: – compiling – explaining – substantiating – evaluating – categorising Alternating between: – individuals – small group – whole group Visual presentation with cards of various shapes and colours on pinboards	More participation More interaction More clarity In stages Structured Categorised Comprehensible External memory bank Can be checked Can be corrected Reorganise Supplement Remove Change Can be documented

Visual techniques also make it easier to keep a record of discussions. If good materials are used and technically sound work is done, the record can simply consist of photocopying photographs of wall charts. As an alternative, the details are simply noted down in a written record.

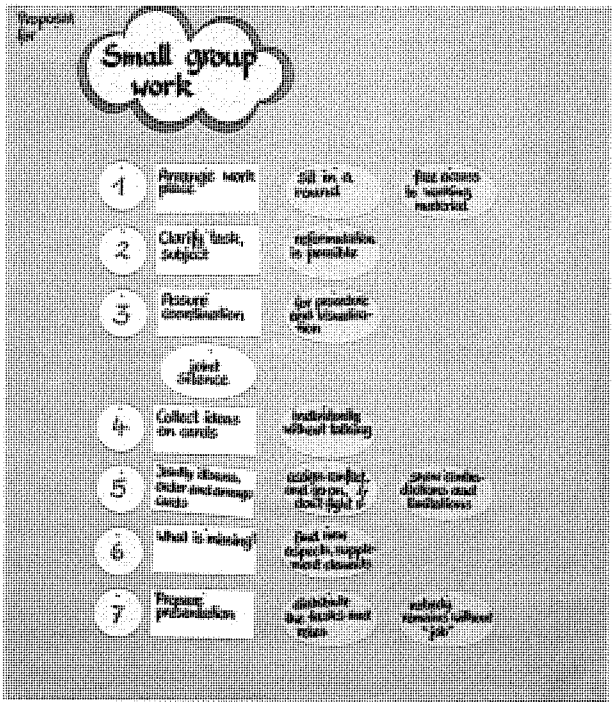
It is hoped that this contribution, in conjunction with paper → E 16, will arouse interest in the techniques of visual presentation. Detailed further reading and relevant training opportunities are available for anyone who decides to apply these methods and experiment with them.

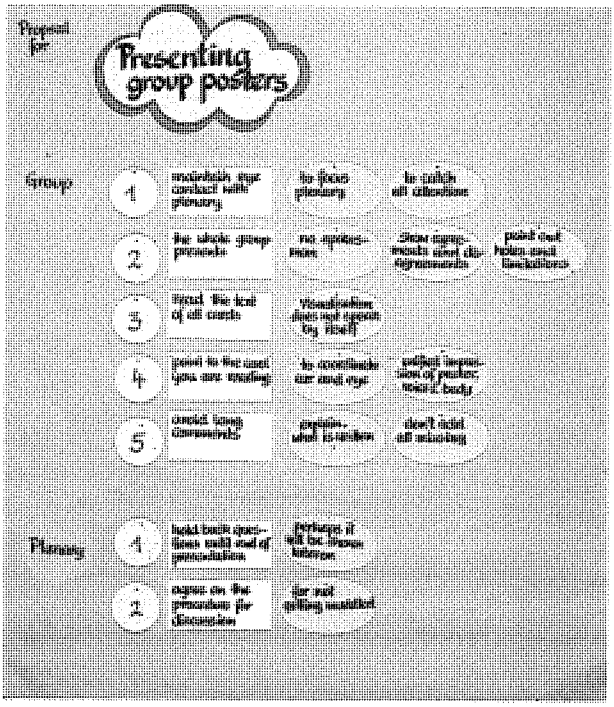
Pictures 1 and 2:



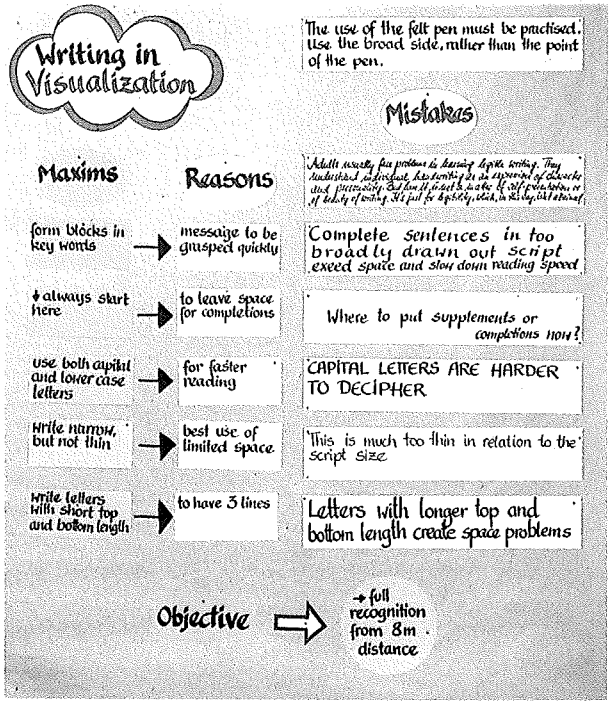


Pictures 3 and 4:





Picture 5:



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Suggestions for setting up participatory external evaluation missions

Every so often, external evaluation missions descend on projects out of the blue, like natural disasters. They come to assess important phases of projects while they are still running. They are dispatched for this purpose by the organisation implementing or financing the project. For this reason, projects have scarcely any defence against such visitations. All they can do is hope that at the end all will be well, that the expert appraisers will be benevolent and overlook any serious weaknesses, will not report too critically on faults or will refer to them only in terms of general proposals for improvement. Of course, these hopes are not always fulfilled, and external evaluation can turn into an explosive situation. The project workers (and usually the experts, too) are subjected to a month of excessive strain and many opportunities to benefit from the evaluation visit are lost through insensitive behaviour.

We know from experience that a different approach is possible. The following principles and methods are therefore our recommendations for these occasions:

- The underlying principle of the evaluation mission should be teamwork using "ZOPP" (Objectives-oriented project planning), moderation and visual presentation techniques.
- The terms of reference of the evaluation mission should have been agreed by both the organisation sending the experts and the project.
- The work of the evaluation mission should be primarily problem-oriented and not recommendation-oriented. It should concentrate on perceived problems and their assumed causes and should guard against proposing instant solutions and recommended courses of action.
- The evaluation mission should comprise the nominees of both the sending organisation and the national sponsoring organisation of the project.
- All important aspects of the project to be reported on by the evaluation mission should be covered by an expert (or certain areas of activity should be specifically excluded from the report).
- The leader at least of the evaluation mission must be familiar with ZOPP, moderation and visualisation techniques, and he should introduce the other members of the mission to the fundamentals of these methods at the outset. When evaluation has commenced, he must be on hand to give practical assistance.

- After this introduction to basic work techniques, the members of the evaluation mission should begin to study project documents and papers individually.

- At this stage, the evaluation mission's members and selected project workers can be formed into specialist groups to work on particular technical problems. The composition of these groups can change in the course of evaluation and should be determined by the technical experience, the areas of responsibility and the information background of the individuals to be included.

- The work of evaluation should continue, alternating between individuals, specialist groups, the whole evaluation mission and special meetings of the evaluation mission with other project workers.

- The specialist groups should draft an initial plan of action and decide on the first steps to be taken in their investigations. These plans should be coordinated and displayed in wall newspapers for all to see.

- The work programmes should be continued and adapted to the increasing level of information. The leader of the evaluation mission should coordinate all steps and methods with the project management. He should make sure that information travels in all directions and that everyone can see what is going on.

- For practical as well as psychological reasons, it is of the utmost importance not to begin the process of evaluation with the search for problems but to start with the aims of the particular phase of the project and by listing the positive preconditions which the project work can build on. These include the natural resources and the socio-economic project environment, the achievements of the target groups and the achievements of the project.

- After three weeks at the latest, the evaluation mission should have reached the stage of prioritising the project's problems.

- It is advisable to discuss the "problem hierarchy" in a 4–6 day ZOPP workshop and to develop it further into a project planning matrix for the next phase of the project. All directly involved project workers should take part in the workshop.

- The evaluation report, the offer and the negotiations about the next project phase should then be based on this jointly produced and agreed project planning matrix.

- After the ZOPP workshop, the organisational, staffing and financial consequences of the project planning matrix (based on objective criteria) are

discussed in smaller groups. Evaluation personnel, the project management, project sponsors, the organisation implementing the project and the financers should all be adequately represented. As soon as binding decisions are made, the people affected by them should be informed.

- The evaluation report describes the process of evaluation, the steps taken and the methods of investigation. The presentation of results follows the material already produced in the form of wall displays and visualisations through to the project planning matrix for the next phase of the project.

- Where compromises cannot be found, the people concerned should be free to have their differing views recorded in the report. However, this should only apply where there is a serious case of disagreement. It is primarily the members of the evaluation commission who should make use of this right if they feel they want to bring a particular view to the attention of the organisation commissioning the report.

Where the methods of moderation and visualisation are used, it has become established practice to keep a written record of deviating views or conflicting results (→ E 17).

If this approach to external evaluation is used, there is more chance of the proposals for the next project phase being regarded by all concerned as a desirable and practicable step towards a better future. They will therefore be able to identify fully with the proposals and they will do their utmost to turn the plans into reality.

Source:

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The use of vehicles in extension organisations

Since the costs of fuel and materials are constantly rising, it is essential to take good care of motor vehicles and to use them economically. We now give some advice on how to look after and make the best use of vehicles.

Vehicles are a source of prestige and a rare convenience, especially when vehicles in the private sector are scarce and expensive. Thus the way in which they are used can give rise to envy, rivalry and dissatisfaction in the organisation.

It is therefore all the more important that the regulations are clear and felt to be fair.

1. Vehicles at headquarters

- Journeys have to be planned on a weekly and daily basis. One person at headquarters must be given responsibility for this planning. The vehicles, their readiness for use, the routes and the purpose of the journeys should be displayed for all to see.

- To ensure that vehicles are used to best effect, it is advisable to set up a pool at headquarters.

- Journeys should be planned to cover several different jobs.

- A logbook must be filled in regularly before and after journeys. If the next driver notices anything wrong, he should report it to the vehicle administration before he sets out on his journey.

- Official vehicles should be driven mainly by professional drivers, to increase the useful life of vehicles and to ensure that faults are spotted early and repaired.

- When vehicles are used for private purposes, the social customs of the country have to be observed. Private use must not get in the way of work and should not give rise to unfair advantage. The display chart makes the use of vehicles sufficiently public to create social controls. Any costs involved should also be paid according to local custom; perhaps they can be covered by labour or payment in kind. Abuse of the system should be prevented by making the user personally liable for the vehicle in his charge.

- A check must be made to ensure that servicing is carried out regularly (logbook, stickers).

- The loan of vehicles to other institutions should be kept to a minimum.

- If vehicles cannot be repaired and serviced locally and are known to be out of action for long periods, serious thought should be given to setting up a repair department.

- Headquarters should guarantee the supply of fuel for use in the field, paying particular attention to the regularity of supplies and proper storage.

2. Transport at field offices

- Government credit should be made available on favourable terms so that advisers can buy bicycles and motorbikes. They are more likely to be treated properly if they are privately owned. Lump sums or mileage payments are another way of encouraging private purchase.

- So that they are always ready for use, bicycles and motorbikes must be checked for roadworthiness once a month.

- Motorcyclists in particular must receive regular training in vehicle maintenance and must be told why it is so important to have vehicles serviced at the appropriate intervals.

- It is advisable to establish a stock of spare parts and tools at field office level, so that small repairs can be carried out on the spot.

- Since newly appointed advisers often do not have a bicycle, each field office should have a few available for use until they can buy their own.

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