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EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

AND

THE RURAL WOMEN

VOLUME II

- Part One: PRACTICE
Project Background, Training Staff in Educational Approach,
Implementation at the Village Level
- Part Two: PROGRAM OUTCOMES
Evaluation Design, Findings, Conclusions

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Catherine D. Crone, Principal Investigator
Noreen Clark, Chief Consultant

PART ONE

PRACTICE

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, international development agencies have poured millions of dollars into educational programs focused on making out-of-school adults literate. Yet when we look at the statistics and the results of these efforts, we find that by and large, they have failed. Why?

Many factors may contribute to the failure of specific educational programs -- administrative structure, timing, teaching techniques -- and these factors will vary from program to program. But the dropout rates of programs whose primary focus is literacy education may provide us with the clue that will help us focus on a critical factor common to many failing programs: the learner's lack of motivation.

In the 1960s and early 1970s, nonformal, out-of-school educational programs were based on the assumption that literacy was a prerequisite for (or at least an integral part of) any educational activity if effective progress toward development goals were to be achieved. For is that not the purpose of making people literate: to enable them to acquire other skills and knowledge that will help improve the quality of their lives?

Policy makers and program administrators have seen literacy as a valuable and necessary tool that people require to function successfully in modern society. They have assumed that illiterate adults or out-of-school youth would agree; that having lost their literacy skills, or never having had the opportunity to become literate, they would be eager to take advantage of programs that promised them literacy and numeracy skills.

By the mid-1970s, however, it became clear that despite the considerable expenditures of funds and energy on literacy campaigns, large numbers of illiterate adults were not being attracted or retained by literacy programs.

Each program has specific and perhaps differing reasons contributing to the failure of large-scale literacy efforts. The basic difficulty, however, is neither program structure nor materials nor teaching techniques -- though these may be important. The basic error is in the assumption that most illiterate adults place a high enough priority on achieving literacy skills to put the time and energy into attending classes.

Most illiterate adults acknowledge the importance of reading and writing. But when they are asked why they do not attend the literacy class in the village, there are always good reasons: "Classes are at the wrong time," "I'm tired after working all day," "I have to bathe, take care of the children, help in the fields..."

In other words, though the importance of literacy is not denied, it is not given the priority by illiterates that it is given by program developers. Many illiterate adults do not make the same connection between cause and effect that policy makers do. The long term benefits of attending classes are not seen as sufficiently rewarding.

They may be right. Seen in the context of their own advancement, acquiring literacy may not be time-efficient; what time is available might be more productively spent in acquiring income/health/nutritional improvement.

No one would deny the need for illiterate people to have access to opportunities to learn. Access to literacy programs, however, is simply not enough for most rural adults. Since attendance in nonformal education programs is voluntary, it is necessary to look to the potential learner, the illiterate adult, to find out the reason for lack of interest. Programs in which World Education has been involved, suggest that the problem is not lack of interest in learning. Rather, it is the nature and content of what is to be learned and the benefit perceived by the learner that will make program participation seem appealing or unappealing. The key to motivation lies within the potential learner. We from the outside cannot move anyone to do anything. Initial curiosity may attract people to a program, but without true motivation and commitment, based on perceived and highly valued benefits, that curiosity will soon turn to disinterest and dropping out. Our experience tells us that motivation comes when people are given an opportunity to learn things that they see as critical and of immediate value to them in their everyday lives.

The question becomes "How?" We may find the answer in our original premise: that the basic purpose of educational programs is to enhance adults' ability to acquire the knowledge and the self-confidence required to become more productive members in family, village, and national life. It seems that we have been putting the cart before the horse. If we want adults to take steps to improve the quality of their lives, then we must help them solve some of those development problems they define as critical. Enabled to deal with such problems, they may also begin to feel that they need to acquire or improve literacy skills in order to continue to bring about lasting changes in their lives. Or they may not. But they will have been grappling with the conditions that concern us all.

Indeed, a basic premise being put forth here is that ultimately, development goals such as improvements in health, nutrition, agriculture, basic education, income, and so forth are shared by village residents, community development workers, educators and policy makers. But in order to achieve such development goals, education at the community level must address the needs of villagers in their order of priority -- not in the outsiders' order of priority. Only then will individuals be motivated to take active part in educational programs for development.

If we pursue education for development purposes from that point of view, then the challenge becomes how, without the use of literacy, to provide education that responds to the felt needs of adults who do not see literacy as a high priority.

In 1975 the Education and Human Resources division of AID gave World Education a grant to do some preliminary testing of an educational process with three essential conditions:

- that the learning materials not require literacy so that both literates and non-literates could use them: that they be low cost; and that they be easily produced locally;
- that the content of each session be determined by the learning group itself (literacy would be introduced only if the group saw it as a skill they wanted -- or needed -- to learn);
- that the educational methods involve participation, discussion, analysis, decision-making and, if required, group action.

This process was developed over a six-week period in several villages in the Philippines in collaboration with the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement. Evidence from that trial period was sufficiently encouraging for AID to fund a two-year program to develop and refine this methodology further and to determine the long-term impact of the approach on both the learning groups and individual participants and the extent to which it enabled individuals to achieve their goals.

The second phase, which is described here, was carried out in six villages in Kenya, in collaboration with Tototo Home Industries under the auspices of the National Christian Council of Kenya, and in six villages in the Philippines in collaboration with the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement.

It may be helpful to elaborate here on some other important principles and assumptions of the project:

- Women's concerns must be addressed without excluding the legitimate concerns of men. Learning groups are constituted based on existing group patterns in an area. Where women cluster together the learning focuses on them. When men are part of the cluster, learning issues include their concerns.
- Education is to develop self-sufficiency: this entails learning to use existing resources and increasing access to resources.
- Individuals control their own learning. Education succeeds when it stems from the participants' experiences and connects with their inherent ability to solve problems. Facilitating is a combination of teaching and enabling individuals and groups to remove the obstacles that impede their progress.
- Learning materials are used to help create a process where participants can share and reflect on their experience and consider new actions. They must also enable the needs of participants to be continually illuminated.
- Education at the community level must address needs in the order of priority of the learner. (During both Phase I and Phase II, the priority need stated most frequently was increased income.)

The educational approach that was used -- which we have termed the Self-Actualizing Method (SAM) -- followed this sequence of activities at the village level:

1. Village leaders were consulted and their cooperation and approval assured as prerequisites for initiating the program in their village.
2. A local person who met criteria set by the local agency was selected by the village to be trained as village educational "coordinator."
3. The project field staff -- both the village coordinators and the full-time "facilitators" most of whom were experienced community

development workers -- underwent intensive training conducted by the central staff. The training process that they experienced is outlined in Part One, Chapter II, Section E of this book and is described in detail in Appendix B, "The Fourteen Days of Training." The training covered needs assessment, instructional methodologies, materials development, field observation, and evaluation. As each of these was discussed, the trainees learned the process of developing the tools, then actually developed and field tested each one.

4. The village coordinator explained to the adults in the village that the program would involve a high degree of learner participation, both in the learning experiences (since there would be no traditional teacher to supply all the answers) and in the decision-making process (topics to be covered, program structuring). The coordinator also explained that literacy was not a prerequisite to participation, answered questions about the program, and invited the villagers to attend the initial sessions to decide for themselves whether to join.
5. In carrying out the needs assessment in each village, the field staff composed of facilitator and village coordinator found a common meeting place and initiated a variety of informal, information gathering activities by engaging the villagers in telling stories about pictures, reacting to taped, open-ended dramas, and answering projective questions.
6. In analyzing the data generated during the needs assessment, the project staff looked for common themes in learners' interests. Based on these themes, they developed initial learning experiences and materials that gave the learners the opportunity to determine which topics were of greatest interest and, given the local resources available, which were feasible to pursue.
7. Over a period of the next 14 months in Kenya and 16 months in the Philippines, the field team of facilitator and coordinator then conducted learning sessions, at times and places chosen by the learners as most convenient. In addition to providing new learning opportunities, it was intended that each session would serve as a needs assessment process for the subsequent one. That is, instead of designing the total curriculum in advance, the field team would plan one lesson at a time, thus being able to pursue a specific learning interest as thoroughly as the group wished and to change the focus of the sessions as the group identified new interests. It was assumed that these interests might include, for example, nutrition, health care, income-generating activities, or literacy.
8. In addition to choosing the topics to be covered, the learners helped decide the structure of the presentations. Examples of

issues for the group to handle included, for instance, the formation of small groups to pursue specific learning interests; the use of local technical resources and facilities; and an inventory of community resources.

9. Regular meetings with the central project staff assisted the field teams in responding to changing interests and in preparing materials. At these meetings, the field teams exchanged and developed new ideas and techniques with the aid of consultants.
10. As part of the ongoing evaluation, the field teams occasionally exchanged visits between villages, and the project director and field work supervisor made frequent field visits. Periodic staff meetings and in-service training workshops reinforced the field team's initial training.

Outcomes attributed to the program were documented in three major evaluations during the life of the project. In these evaluations, data were collected to determine to what extent the methods and materials used assisted villagers to achieve their goals and objectives. The formative evaluation system, which was in operation from the beginning of the field work, yielded ongoing data about the program operation, the educational approach and materials, and successes and difficulties encountered. The summative evaluation system, with midpoint and final evaluation for each site, yielded data concerning the impact of this project on both groups and on individual participants. These outcomes are detailed in Part Two of this book.

From the data generated through the various components of the system, we have gained insight into a number of issues. They are issues that face policy makers and administrators of nonformal education programs and other broad-aimed development programs whose primary purpose is to meet basic human needs and improve the quality of life.

We believe that the project findings, which are described in the pages following, will be helpful in shedding light on several of the critical questions facing development planners:

- What are the priority concerns of rural women?
- What is the impact of this kind of an approach on the lives of villagers? Does it bring about change in nutrition practices? health? agriculture? income generation?
- How do villager-defined problems correlate with priorities set by policy makers or educational planners?

- Are villagers more motivated to take part in and sustain interest in educational programs when village groups continuously define their own needs, interests, and problems and take responsibility for seeking solutions to them?
- Will participation in this kind of program and achievement of success as defined by the learner motivate that person to seek training in literacy skills?
- Does the improvement in the quality of a rural villager's life require literacy? Or can illiterate adults learn sufficient problem-solving skills to meet their needs to their own satisfaction without literacy?
- Can this educational process initiate the kind of self-confidence and self-sufficiency needed for groups to continue to meet and solve their problems even after the project comes to an end?

Specifically, we proposed to test three hypotheses:

1. that, when utilized over an extended period of time, the Self-Actualizing Method (SAM) would have significant impact on knowledge, attitude, and behavior change of preliterate rural adults.
2. that it would be possible to generate indicators that would show whether the program approach results in:
 - improved quality of preliterate rural adults' personal and social situations;
 - more effective contribution of preliterate rural adults to family and community life;
 - increased participation of preliterate rural adults in the development process;
 - fuller integration of preliterate rural adults into their national economies.

and that these indicators could be utilized in gathering cost and effectiveness data.

3. that it would be possible to implement the Self-Actualizing Method within the context of a program such that it would lead to increased local participation and to eventual assumption of responsibility for the program at the local agency and community level without significant outside support.

To conclude, the project premises appear to be borne out:

1. Rural learners in the project areas are motivated to learn what they themselves deem important, and these things have implicit and direct health outcomes which parallel generally accepted development goals.
2. It is possible to systematically organize and deliver education so that unique needs and goals of learners in different areas can be addressed--that is, to design education that is both situation specific and reaches large number\$ of people.

Catherine Crone
Principal Investigator

II. BACKGROUND

A. The Problem Addressed

Any educational program designed to contribute to community development puts into operation the planners' beliefs about both education and development.

The sponsors of the program described and assessed here had some specific ideas about weaknesses in traditional education. The self-actualizing approach* was one that we, an international group of development workers, selected in order to avoid these weaknesses. It may be useful to recount here the problems we sought to address.

First, we were concerned that education for development, despite occasional attempts to be holistic, generally addresses community problems with categorical, unilateral programs and services such as health, education, nutrition, agriculture and so on. We wanted to design an educational program that would genuinely integrate these concerns as they are integrated in daily life.

Similarly, we were concerned that most education tends to focus on one role or facet of a person. Women in particular are addressed specifically in their traditional female roles -- as mothers, or as housekeepers, or as potential contraceptive users. We wanted to design education that helped people, particularly women, to bring together and amplify the variety of critical roles they play: income producers, participants in community life, providers and users of health and nutrition services, and so on.

We were also critical of development programs that fail to account appropriately for the fact that most rural residents in the developing world cannot read and write. The methods and materials of most programs, in our view, either require that people be somewhat literate to participate, or approach rural people as unable to resolve problems and engage in community development precisely because they have no literacy skills. We knew from our own experience and the work of others that it is possible to involve people more fully in bringing about positive community change even when they have not yet learned to read and write. We intended that

*The term "self-actualizing" borrows from the language of Abraham Maslow who suggested that ". . . human needs are hierarchical. An individual must satisfy one category of need, real and/or perceived, in order to traverse to a higher developmental phase in his or her journey toward full human potential." This term as used here refers primarily to the idea that the learner best determines what he or she needs to know and in what order of priority particular learnings should occur. The term as we use it accepts Maslow's theory that, given the opportunity and ability to remove obstacles, it is the natural condition of people to grow toward their human capability. To our way of thinking education must create the needed opportunity and ability.

our program be unfettered by this requirement. We wanted participants to have a chance to use their innate intelligence and adult ability to confront and resolve problems.

In addition, we wanted to capture people's natural motivation for things that interest them. Traditional development programs impose the agendas of development workers. This frequently dissipates enthusiasm for learning. In this program, we intended to build on the interests of learners and to introduce related development concerns. Our experience told us that ultimately development workers and rural residents have similar objectives. Their views about how to reach these objectives, however, and their rank order of priorities, often differ. Our program would begin with what learners themselves deemed most important. And it would help participants see how their objectives are related to broader development objectives regarding health, nutrition, and so on.

Based on our previous experience, we knew that when people begin to be involved in activities to change their situations, that is, to resolve the problems they deem to be most pressing, there are "spill-over" changes that parallel development goals. We believed that we could identify indicators of change conducive to development that resulted from learners' efforts to address their specific and immediate concerns.*

Finally, we had observed that conventional programs with rural adults seek primarily to transfer technical knowledge and skills, but neglect the fundamental educational goal of teaching people how to learn. We set out to implement a program in which people would learn how to organize themselves, mobilize resources, and develop the capability to acquire not only a particular skill but the variety of skills entailed in learning how to learn. In simplest terms, we were interested in learning as a dynamic process. If rural people developed learning capabilities, they could apply these skills to various problems they confront.

Indeed, at the outset of our work, we developed a list of characteristics of education that would build this capacity; that is,

*The indicators we generated are described in detail in a separate volume entitled Education for Development and the Rural Woman, Volume 1, A Review of Theory and Practice With Emphasis on Kenya and the Philippines. New York: World Education, 1979. This important aspect of our work is discussed in Part Two of this volume which centers on program outcomes.

criteria by which to determine if an educational program fit our notion of self-actualization:*

- Village residents have a role in selecting the individuals to lead learning groups and in other ways take part in the educational program at the community level.
- The learning group leaders selected by the community use a variety of materials and approaches in a nondirective mode to involve village learners and stimulate consideration of specific problems determined by learners.
- Learning-group members select their own subject matter for learning, that is, what they need to know to solve problems.
- Learning-group members set their own group objectives.
- Groups design and participate in activities leading to the achievement of their objectives and the subsequent selection of new ones.
- Group members participate in the development of learning materials.
- Learning materials are group-specific or village-specific and not dependent on the written word.
- Group meetings are characterized by active discussion and analysis of problems by participants.
- Group learning activities are closely linked with existing resources, organizations, and services. Participants are members of other groups; providers of community services participate in project activities; and village leaders are consulted whenever appropriate.
- Groups have access to start-up funds for special projects.
- Group members participate in evaluation processes.

We have three aims in this book. The first is to describe how we mounted this educational experiment, what the program actually looked like, and what happened. Second is to enumerate our subsequent successes and failures, and to describe the impact of the project on participants

*A fuller discussion of these indicators will be found in the initial project document (Ibid.).

and the outcomes for communities and development. And finally, we will offer suggestions about how such programs might be more successful in the future.

B. The Host Organizations

As the organization interested in testing out the ideas discussed above, World Education knew that the first step was to find collaborators from among the many community-based programs known to World Education that might like to join with us.

World Education, New York. World education, founded in 1951, is a private organization that provides technical assistance to Third World development agencies. Our goal -- based on the conviction that development first and foremost depends on people -- is to strengthen the capability of planners, supervisors and front-line workers in local agencies so that they can assist community groups in meeting self-defined priorities.

The common thread that runs through all World Education technical assistance is participation. In working with local agencies, World Education staff and consultants use the same techniques that the agency will use to serve its own client groups. Thus, local staff are assisted in diagnosing their own needs and in deciding how best to respond to them. They learn how to translate their agency's broad mandate into programs based on the priorities and participation of local people. Field workers are helped to acquire a growing sense of achievement and confidence through training exercises and activities. In turn, they learn to promote the same feeling among community members -- self-confidence based on concrete results and measurable change.

It is evident that the nature of the organization providing education, the resources it commands, and the view of learning shared by its staff, shape any educational program. We knew that Tototo Home Industries in Kenya, and the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement were also committed to the premise that development is the process of people's learning to take charge of their own lives. They shared World Education's belief that only those development activities that foster a gradual, steady growth of confidence, participation, and control by local people will bring about lasting change.

Kenya: Tototo Home Industries. Tototo Home Industries of Mombasa under the aegis of the National Christian Council of Kenya, encourages cottage industries, helping women to acquire technical skills to improve their income earning ability. Tototo runs an urban workshop in Mombasa where women are taught dressmaking. It also has a rural focus. Women in villages along the coastal areas are taught how to make various handicrafts which then are marketed by Tototo in Mombasa and Nairobi. The staff members were interested in mounting the kind of education World Education

envisioned because they felt that while rural women were learning useful skills, they had not learned how to organize themselves to begin the kind of businesses that could really increase their earnings and bring change to their lives.

The Tototo Director was interested in seeing women move beyond handicrafts to activities that are more technical, and therefore more lucrative. Women had often talked with her about their interest in more ambitious projects, some related to earning income. The market is limited in Kenya, and she shared the women's feeling that handicrafts alone could not generate sufficient income.

She also believed that learning how to learn would enable women to organize themselves and mobilize resources for other kinds of community development projects as well. She did believe, however, that handicraft production could enable women to generate capital for more sophisticated projects if they could acquire the skills associated with planning and organizing.

Philippines: PRRM. The Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (PRRM) also agreed to implement and assess the education in collaboration with World Education. PRRM is a community development training center located in the Central Luzon Plain of the Philippines. For many years, PRRM had been creating innovative teaching materials and training local community workers to carry out health, agriculture, and literacy education. PRRM was especially interested in this program's learning approach because it sought to integrate income activities, health, nutrition, and other concerns, rather than focus on them individually.

PRRM works in partnership with other development agencies, and provides training assistance to other agency staff who work directly with men and women living in and around Central Luzon. PRRM's three "partner agencies" in this program were a governmental agricultural extension agency, a local private voluntary community organization, and the local chapter of an international voluntary agency working with children and their parents.

Tototo and PRRM would help World Education to see if the education planned could be adapted by organizations with different structures and experience. Working in two such disparate parts of the world would help us all understand if and how the basic educational ideas might be manifest in different cultures.

C. The Selection of Villages

The collaborating agencies -- Tototo, PRRM, and World Education -- agreed to work in six villages in each country. Twelve sites seemed to be a manageable number but large enough for us to see how various communities might adapt and use the educational approach. In both countries, the director and the field work supervisor were instrumental in village selection. In the Philippines, the final decision also involved securing the willingness of the three "partner agencies" to have PRRM become involved in their work in a particular village.

Project staff visited many villages before selecting the 12. Entry, in all cases, was made only after project staff had spoken with village or barangay headmen and elders, and received their support and approval. The project directors in both countries were trusted and held in esteem by the local communities. This trust made it possible for them to enter the villages and barangays freely and to discuss the project with residents.

Four criteria were set for village selection:

1. A group of residents within the community should agree to participate and select one of their number to be trained as a coordinator.
2. The range of villages chosen should reflect differing levels of service assistance from government and other agencies.
3. Sites should be varying distances from a town.
4. Village groups agreeing to take part in the program should have been in existence for varying lengths of time.

We knew that our sample of villages was not big enough to test in any definitive way the influence of each of these factors on education. Nonetheless, we felt the factors to be important enough to recognize and believed that if we accounted for them, we might see some indications, though not proof, of their significance. (Appendix A, "Baseline Report," includes a short case study of each cooperating village.)

D. Staffing: The Facilitators and Coordinators

The basic pattern used for staffing the program was the same in Kenya and the Philippines. The host agency selected a project director and recruited an advisory group of local development specialists to give the director guidance as needed. Each agency named an experienced field work supervisor to manage activities at the community level.

In Kenya, Tototo Home Industries hired three facilitators, each to work in two villages. In the Philippines, PRRM employed six facilitators

and assigned each to one village. Most of the facilitators had some development experience. They would work hand in hand as mentors with the "coordinators" -- representatives selected by village residents to lead learning activities in the village. The facilitators were paid by the host agency; the amount was \$ a month in Kenya (about \$ US) and P505 in the Philippines (about \$72 US).

Selection of coordinators proceeded after the villages were chosen and followed various patterns. Groups were informed that the project had no criteria for the coordinator other than that she or he be the choice of the members. In several instances, group members themselves selected or elected their coordinators. In several cases, this was done with the concurrence of the chief or barangay captain. In one or two cases, as we were to discover sometime later, the selection was imposed on the group by strong members or village leaders. In all Kenyan groups, the coordinator named was ostensibly a group member. In all Philippine groups, the coordinator was the son or daughter of a member. The Philippine coordinators were, as a group, much younger than the Kenyan coordinators.

Each coordinator was paid a small amount monthly by the local agency. The intention was to select an amount appropriate to what might be earned within the community, a sum that learners themselves might be able to pay coordinators to continue their work at the end of the program.

Together, the coordinator and the facilitator formed a working team, and we shall refer to them as the "field staff," except when a differentiation in their roles needs to be made explicit. They were the front-line workers. Their performance in the villages, as a team, would be critical to the implementation of the educational approach.

E. The Training Plan

We agreed on a basic training plan, encompassing four fundamental goals:

1. to enable the field staff to carry out the kind of learning approach envisioned;
2. to enable them to create the kind of materials they would need to support the approach;
3. to enable them to assist group members to acquire and mobilize all available resources for their learning, and
4. to enable the field staff to help us collect the kind of data we would need to understand how the program evolved at each village site.

We had three primary challenges. First, to introduce the kind of holistic learning approach we envisioned to field staff who had not experienced it before. Second, to teach them how to implement the approach themselves, in their own villages with their friends and neighbors. Third, to win acceptance and cooperation for the idea that the entire process should be documented and assessed.

We planned 14 days of initial training. The Philippines project staff extended that by one week to reinforce several elements they considered especially important, and to give field staff a better chance to become acquainted with each other.

Training activities in both Kenya and the Philippines were held at conference centers where participants lived for three weeks. The field staff went home to visit families and friends at the weekends. Trainers -- staff and consultants from World Education, Tototo, and PRRM -- sought to create an informal and relaxed atmosphere. Few, if any formal approaches were used. The training team in each country consisted of the project director, the field work supervisor, two training and evaluation consultants and one evaluation consultant. The training alternated between field work at village sites and discussion and practice sessions at the conference center. Group meetings and site visits were conducted in Kiswahili (Kenya), Tagalog (Philippines), and English; small group discussions were often conducted in a local language.

In initial sessions, trainers used creative approaches to involve field staff in analysis of the purposes and characteristics of education for development and of development issues. In later sessions, trainees themselves practiced these approaches -- first with each other, and then with the group members with whom they would work. In this way, training evolved directly into actual work in the collaborating community. A topical outline of the sessions appears as Figure 1.

In order to illustrate the flow and emphasis of training, we have summarized in Appendix B the day-to-day activities using from time to time the ideas and thoughts expressed by members of the Kenya group. The activities in the Philippines followed the same outline and order of events. The activities in both countries were sprinkled with generous tea breaks, rests, exercise, and festivities. In each instance, we also had opening and closing ceremonies and several social gatherings that included people associated with the project. These are not indicated in the text but they occurred frequently and were an important factor in the general esprit de corps that was created.

In all, training of facilitators and coordinators in Kenya took 17 days (14 initial and 3 at midpoint) plus 10 to 12 days in-service training spread over the life of the program. In the Philippines, this was expanded by 7 days to incorporate additional exercises and discussions the project director chose in order to emphasize basic elements of the approach.

By the time the intensive training workshops were over, both facilitators and coordinators were -- for the most part -- confident that they would be able to use the participatory approach to learning in working with the village groups assigned to them. Most felt that they would be able to design materials that would move the villagers toward group goals. They understood the need for careful documentation of progress and problems, and were eager to begin.

Subsequent to the first two weeks of training, in-service training sessions were conducted in both countries. These generally were comprised of staff meetings no more than once a month nor less than every other month. The director, field work supervisor, and local consultants worked with field staff to help sort out problems they confronted over time. Frequently, these sessions focused on issues the field work supervisors identified as they reviewed the Facilitator/Coordinator Logs.

At the time of collection of midpoint data, after the project had operated for about six months, field staff again conducted interviews in the villages. Three days of additional training also took place during this period. The trainers reviewed with field staff their achievements and problems to date. Each demonstrated materials she had used with learning groups and each received congenial consultation and practiced making improvements.

III. IMPLEMENTATION AT THE VILLAGE LEVEL

There are four dimensions we will examine to understand how the educational programs, which the field staff had been trained to carry out, subsequently took hold or failed to take hold in the 12 villages and barangays.

- We will provide a few illustrations of the learning process in one village in Kenya as it occurred over the 15 months of the project. We will also trace from start to finish the series of learning activities in another site in the Philippines. This tracing of events shows how the "curriculum" in this approach evolves over time, how participants learn to organize themselves and mobilize resources for learning, and the kind of problems they face.
- We will briefly describe in narrative form the events, achievements, and problems in each of the 12 villages (Appendix C).
- We will review the learning topics and subjects that emerged across the twelve sites to get an idea of what concerns were of interest and considered important to learners.
- Then, using interview data, collected in on-going fashion during all phases of the program, we will analyze the effectiveness of the teaching aids and learning process that ensued from the points of view of the field staff and of the learners.

A. Tracing the Learning Approach: A success and a failure

The group selected to trace briefly is one in Bomani, in Kenya, selected because everything came together in this site to work for group success. The group selected to trace in some detail is Sinasajan one in the Philippines. It was selected because the facilitator/coordinator logs for this village were most complete. It also constitutes a good choice because the events occurring in this barangay illustrate both the potential of a learning approach based on group collaboration and the factors that can undermine it. The "life history" of this group reveals some intricate dilemmas associated with community development and some particular issues that were to emerge as problems because of the way the program was organized in the Philippines.

Briefly Tracing The Learning Approach in a Village Group in Kenya: Bomani. The group whose meetings will be highlighted here began working with Tototo Home Industries in late April of 1978 and members began to consider ways to address their primary interest: earning income.

Bomani is a village of over two hundred households about 145 kilometers from Mombasa. To reach the village one must leave the main thoroughfare and travel for about 15 kilometers on rough road. There is a small primary school and a nursery school. In the village proper there is a bar and a shop or two. A well is found at the center of town. The water is brackish and although it is used for cooking, many people buy drinking water, carried in to the shops from outside. The people of the area are farmers, although a few men go to a nearby town to work.

The women's group choosing to work with Tototo had existed for about five years. It was large, with 52 members, but not all were regularly active. The main project of the group was a small cooperative shamba (farm) on which a few members grew sim sim, cotton and cashews. Lack of water is a big problem here and there is no irrigation system. Without water it is not possible for members to do more farming and the group's success is largely determined by rain. Individual members had shambas where they raised both cash crops and maize for subsistence. Members, in groups, sometimes hired themselves out to do labor such as picking cashews or digging on someone else's shamba. No extension workers came to visit other than the health visitor in the adjoining village. The group sang harambee songs together and voiced hopes about starting new projects.

The coordinator in Bomani, a woman of about 27, was enthusiastic about the training provided by the program, and confident in herself and the group. She had completed primary school and also had had some previous training in adult education. She taught nursery school every day and had also organized literacy classes three days a week, which 10-20 members of the group attended. Her only qualms were whether working with the group would be too demanding, since, in addition to her outside responsibilities, she had four small children ranging in age from six months to five years.

The facilitator, who was 31 when the program began, was separated from her husband and living with her step-parents. She had no previous experience except casual labor and petty trading. Like the coordinator, she had enjoyed the training experience and had confidence in her ability to use the learning approach and materials in working with the group.

During the first meetings, over a period of several weeks, talk centered on handicrafts, expanding a cooperative shamba, or establishing a bakery. The group weighed the advantages and disadvantages of each. The bakery would be a big undertaking. The group was hesitant to tackle it even though it was an exciting idea. A shamba, which seemed easier, was a strong possibility. The field staff began to worry that momentum would be lost if the group failed to reach consensus. In the section that follows, we pick up the group at its 14th meeting. They have been meeting regularly for six weeks.

Meeting 14: The coordinator used a drawing to begin the discussion. It showed two groups of women. In one, members were sitting and talking. In the other, women were actively working together. The Bomani women (46 in all) began to describe what the women in each of the groups shown were doing. The women raised several points: some noted that in one group

the women were just talking and not getting much done; some said that in the other group, the women had joined together and were helping each other, but were limited in activity to a single purpose, and so on.

After a lot of conversation, the Bomani women decided that they must move from discussion to action and that they would go ahead and do two things to make the bakery a reality. One was for each member to contribute 30 shillings to amass some initial capital. The second was to improve their handicrafts so that Tototo Home Industries could sell more of them and members would have more money to contribute to their project. The women decided to take courage and push on with the bakery.

Meeting 16: In planning their bakery project, the members would have to anticipate many things. The coordinator hoped to help them consider in advance the factors that would influence success. Once again, she drew a picture of two groups of women. This time some of them were drawing water from a safe source and others were using dirty water from a lake. The group discussed the differences in what the women were doing and decided that they would have to get clean water for their project. This was particularly important to them because water in the area is often foul but they hoped to have the bakery approved as a commercial venture by the Ministry of Health.

The women talked too of the need for general cleanliness to attract customers, and of the need for latrines, which were required by health officials before the project could be licensed.

Meeting 23: By this time, the group had hired a fundi (builder) to handle the complex aspects of building, and had received help from NCCK's Kanamai Conference Center - which had an experienced baker and large ovens - in installing an oven and in training members to bake. The women had set the end of the month as their date to start baking bread. In this meeting, the coordinator showed the group a picture of an unfinished building -- a bakery with no windows or doors, standing deserted. "What will it take," she asked, "to go from this building to our goal of baking and selling bread?"

In the ensuing discussion, the women listed the tasks to be done to finish the building and made assignments among themselves. They also each agreed to contribute more money to buy bread tins. Time for baking was drawing near. The group realized that all 46 couldn't bake at the same time; they would need to organize themselves. So they created a timetable with teams of six, each assigned a specific baking day.

Meeting 27: Within two months, good bread was being produced, and the Bomani women faced a new problem -- marketing. At this meeting, the coordinator focused discussion by showing two pictures: one of a bakery with many, many loaves of bread, the second of village shops. The women concentrated on ways to send out the bread rather than to require that customers come to the bakery. They decided to deliver bread to each shop

in Bomani and to take it to shops in two nearby villages as well. "Someday," some of them said, "we may even have a bicycle for transport."

The group in Bomani numbered 53 by the end of the evaluation period (26 were followed for evaluation). It had organized and constructed a bakery with two ovens producing 250 loaves of bread per week. The bread was being sold within the community. Each member had learned to bake and was organized into a team that baked twice a month. In order to raise capital, the women learned to make bread necklaces which were sold through Tototo. A tea kiosk had also been constructed from which tea and bread were sold by group members. A sanitary latrine had been constructed next to the bakery and members had had necessary immunizations qualifying the group for license as a commercial bakery. Current bakery production was 250 loaves per week which netted the group 290 shillings.

At the literacy class, which had been organized by the coordinator before the project began, weekly attendance increased, with 20 to 30 members attending regularly.

In this brief example, we begin to see that skillful use of materials and the coordinator's effective leading of discussions, as well as initial group trust, active participation and equity in decision making lead to continued momentum and benefits for the group (See Appendix D, REPORTS Magazine #22, "A Bakery for Bomani").

Tracing the Learning Approach in a Village Group in the Philippines: Sinasajan. The population of Sinasajan was 1653 in 1978, including 278 families. Twenty percent of the families in the barangay raised cash crops as their principal livelihood. Eighty percent were engaged in rice growing. Ten percent owned their land. Sixty percent leased it and ten percent were tenant farmers.

There was a variety of extension services available in the community. Three agencies concerned with farming visited once a month. An agricultural extension worker visited the barangay once a week. Health services included a once a week visit by the Rural Health Unit which provided free consultation and sometimes gave out medicine. A private voluntary organization for children provided free medical and dental services on request for both members and non-members of its parents' group.

The initial meeting had been publicized by the barangay captain (the local political leader), and by the male president of the group, a parents' club of 15 members which had been operative for seven years. The first meeting was held at the club's usual meeting place near the center of the village. The group had already selected a coordinator who had then taken part in the PRRM training along with a facilitator assigned by PRRM to work with this group. This group was comprised of parents, individual mothers and fathers whose children were being supported in

school by the group's sponsoring organization. The support included school uniforms and fees, tuition and books. The group had its own meeting house where parents congregated once a month to discuss issues related to their children and the goat raising project in which nine members participated. The group had no projects beyond this.

Meeting 1: Although members already knew each other, the field staff felt it would be a good idea to begin the meeting with a warm-up activity that would give everyone the opportunity to express their ideas aloud to the group in an easy, comfortable way. It would also give members the experience of speaking out in the group and giving reasons for selecting something that interested them.

The field staff chose to engage members in a group game called "Get Me." Group members were asked to scout around the meeting place, select something they liked, and explain their choice to the other group members. There was much laughter and good spirit as everyone chose fruit, stones, a leaf, a can, or some other item to discuss.

After this game, the field staff spread about on the ground 25 pictures drawn to show people performing a wide variety of daily activities all practiced in rural Philippines but not necessarily in this village. Members were given ample time to look over the drawings, examine them closely, and talk among themselves about what the people depicted were doing and the relevance of such activities to them and to problems in the barangay.

Then the field team asked the group to select the pictures, if any, that showed things they were most interested in and might like to learn something about. Fifteen pictures were selected and group members gave their reasons for their respective and frequently collective choices. The field staff then asked the group to choose the picture that most closely represented what they would like most to learn about or do as a group. After an extended discussion, the group selected an activity known to be lucrative, if difficult: raising pigs. The team then asked the group if they would like to meet again in a few days to pursue this interest and members said they would.

Meeting 2: After beginning with singing, a traditional Philippine warm-up activity, and while it was taking place, the field staff put around the meeting place posters they had prepared showing different kinds of pigs, systems (individual and cooperative) for caring for pigs, and materials needed for a piggery project. After the group had studied the posters, the team played a tape recording for the group -- an open-ended drama about two women who raise pigs. One is knowledgeable about pig management, the other is not. The field staff then invited discussion on the fate of the two women and asked the group to consider in what ways the two women were different from each other. After a time, the

field staff asked the group what relevance the story held for them, and then members began to outline the kind of things they would need to know if they were to take on a piggery project.

The next activity was a planning exercise called "Building a House," in which teams construct a hypothetical village house and elements of planning are illuminated. During this exercise, the group discussed several ideas: the benefits of careful planning; pros and cons of co-operative endeavor and individual projects; the range of materials needed to begin; and the need to initiate action and mobilize resources. At the end of the discussion, group members agreed to scout around the barangay during the following week to discover what resources were available, if any, for the pig project.

At this meeting as well as the first one, many residents participated -- nearly 40, if all the curious passers-by who joined in the group are counted. The parents' club of 15 members was the intended learning group, but the meeting was open to the public. As a result, many residents stopped by to see what was going on, and most of those who appeared for this second meeting were convinced that PRRM was going to give them pigs, although this was not the case. The expectation was not unwarranted, however, since many agencies operating in the rural areas of the Philippines do give supplies to village residents. When it became clear during the second meeting that resources were to be found and mobilized by group members themselves and that no widespread giveaway program was in operation, the curious and those with minimal interest stopped coming. The fact that PRRM would not supply participants with pigs was fully discussed, as was the project premise of self-reliance and independence. By the third meeting, just the original group of 15, all members of the parents' group, were left.

Meeting 3: Because so many participants had expected handouts, the team felt it would be useful to underscore the program premise of self-reliance. For this purpose the team introduced a lively string game in which participants untangle themselves after recruiting specific assistance and information from other members. The team asked members how this game related to them, and a discussion followed. The group shared with each other ways in which the pig project could develop through self-reliance, and then identified sources they could tap to get materials they needed for the project. They decided to recruit the barangay captain to canvass, with the aid of the coordinator, three of the government agencies serving the community to discover how they might help out.

Meeting 4: Now that the larger group had settled down to its core of parents' club members, the team felt it would be a good idea to check again whether piggery was indeed their primary interest, or if some of the initial participants had swayed the decision in hopes of being given a pig. The pictures used in Meeting 1 were again discussed and members confirmed their interest in the project.

The facilitator-coordinator team, as in their own training, introduced "Broken Squares," a game requiring optimum collaboration among participants. In a discussion that followed, members reiterated the need for each one of them to take responsibility in the project. The coordinator reported that some assistance might be available from one government agency, but that this was not certain. The group decided to continue to search for assistance and determined that if even one or two pigs could be secured (either native or imported), they would organize a "dispersal schedule." This meant that an individual would care for a pig and when the pig had a litter, those piglets would be distributed to other group members.

Meeting 5: The team and group president reported that PRRM's partner agency, the sponsor of the parents' group, had expressed some interest in the pig dispersal project and would be willing to receive a proposal from the group. The team led the group in an exercise called "Sinking Boat" in which the participants are required to make decisions and set priorities. This process was then applied to the piggery project and group members outlined specific details of the way the pig dispersal would work. They agreed that, from a litter of eight, three piglets would be dispersed to other members, two would be sold with proceeds going to the club treasury, and three would be kept by the original owner. The team and president agreed to write down this outline in a proposal and deliver it to the parents' club's sponsoring agency the following week.

Meeting 6: The group now needed to make some important decisions. Their chances for assistance appeared good. The sponsoring agency said it could probably provide funds for the group to buy piglets. The team led members through another priority-setting exercise called "Traffic Policeman," which built on earlier exercises. As part of the exercise, members had to analyze the implications of choices the game forced them to make and to describe the criteria they used to make each choice.

The group then used this same procedure to make decisions about the dispersal project: Who should receive the first pigs? (Nine members were ready -- the criterion was that they had built or would build a pen.) What kind of pigs would be raised? (Four of them selected native pigs, three semi-native, and two hybrid -- the criteria for choice were the difficulty in managing each and a particular member's confidence to do so.) How would activities be coordinated? (The group selected three members to visit the nine people requesting pigs to determine if their pens would be ready to receive pigs by the following week. These three people would also coordinate the pig project and be responsible for seeing that plans were carried out.)

Meeting 7: The team led the group in a discussion that centered on the events of the past week, on visits to completed pig pens, and on the

arrival of seven native pigs the following day. During the week, the three appointed project coordinators had, with funds provided by the sponsor agency, purchased the required number of native pigs. Members agreed that those who were to receive pigs should sign contracts specifying their acceptance of the club's dispersal plan. Members who were to receive this first batch of animals signed the contracts, and the group decided to ask an expert on pig raising to their next meeting.

Meeting 8: A local resident experienced in managing different breeds of pigs was invited by the group to this meeting. She gave the members factual information and answered their questions about proper feeding, prevention and control of disease, daily care, and marketing. The group agreed to continue the session the following day, and at the end of that session they identified other individuals in a nearby barangay who could help if necessary. They also knew of a veterinarian living a few kilometers away who could be an important resource.

Meeting 9: After a month's break, by which time the nine sows were distributed and members had formed a daily routine of caring for them, the group met again. In the interim, the team heard that a government agency was making money available to community groups for special projects, and that because of its previous success, this group stood a good chance of receiving some funds for a second project.

The team again began the meeting by displaying the range of pictures showing people engaged in various activities. After much deliberation and discussion, members decided that they wanted to begin a poultry project and raise broilers for sale. With their previous experience in project planning, they moved ahead rather quickly. They decided to devote their next meeting to outlining a broiler production proposal. In the meantime, they would scout the community for resources that might be mobilized, send two of their members to a workshop being held by the government agency to describe its criteria for funding community projects, and set up sessions to begin three weeks hence on the care and management of broilers.

Meeting 10: The team began the session by introducing "The Impertinent PERT Chart." This exercise identifies eight major steps in planning. The group members used the procedure to plan their system for carrying out the poultry project. They decided that, initially, several people would care for the broilers under the club's supervision. Chicks would be given to other members when they had coops ready to receive them, and some proceeds from all sales would go to the club treasury.

*This planning activity is described in detail in From the Field: Tested Participatory Activities for Trainers, World Education, 1980.

Project coordinators were selected, and the group asked the team to write down their project plans, which would serve as a proposal to the government agency. Members agreed to carry on with the project whether or not funds were forthcoming from this particular agency. They also selected a local person knowledgeable about poultry to conduct care and management sessions. The group coordinator, who also knew a lot about poultry raising, was asked to lead these sessions.

Meeting 11: Members who had attended the government agency workshop reported that the group's project did fit the criteria described and that they had been encouraged to send in their plans. The team then showed the group a large picture of an egg ready to hatch. Group members reflected that the drawing represented their group in two ways: their project was about to come alive, and they would soon be hatching the broilers. Their discussion then focused on what the group needed to know in order to bring about the safe birth of both the project and the new chicks. They decided that the lessons on broiler production should cover the following: materials needed, feeding practices and types of feeds, common illnesses and their prevention and control, responsibilities of the caretaker, local sources of chicks, market outlets, and marketing. The group set the date for the first lesson and all agreed to attend.

Meeting 12: Group members convened as planned, but local experts invited to lead the session were unable to attend so members set another date.

Meeting 13: The team and group leader called this meeting a day or two later to show group members a letter from the government agency. It expressed interest in the club's broiler project, but stated that to qualify for funds the group would need to submit plans for conducting family planning classes as part of their project. This led to extended discussion. Most members felt the requirement was not relevant to them as they were "too old to worry about family planning," or already knew they "did not want any more children." They decided, nonetheless, that they needed start-up funds; if a family planning component were required they would try to develop one, based on the government agency's outline and using the same planning steps that had helped them with their broiler proposal. They also agreed that the coordinator should go ahead and begin the poultry management session by himself as soon as possible since the other resource people they had invited did not seem to be able to come.

Shortly after this meeting, Typhoon Khading struck the area, causing extensive damage. Activities in this barangay and others came to a halt for almost a month as people worked to rehabilitate their communities.

Meeting 14: To begin this meeting, the team led a discussion beginning with questions designed to help members assess their progress. They agreed it would be a good idea to reconsider and postpone poultry management sessions until they had developed the family planning proposal. They would devote the next meeting to this, and they asked

one member who had attended the government agency workshop to present some ideas to the group when they met again.

Meeting 15: The group member who had attended the government workshop presented ideas for family planning classes to the group, and plans were quickly approved. They agreed that the proposal of their plans to hold weekly discussions on various family planning topics should be written down and submitted to the agency. The group also decided that the poultry management classes could now begin under the tutelage of the coordinator. By this time, the coordinator had demonstrated that he could function well on his own and he assumed the lead role in the team. The facilitator (PRRM's staff member) began to withdraw and provided assistance only at the request of the group or coordinator.

Meetings 16-18: The coordinator reviewed with the group the five topics on broiler raising that they had outlined in Meeting 11. Using posters and drawings made by PRRM agriculturalists and PRRM artists, he led the group through discussions and demonstrations related to each of their five learning concerns. In a third session (Meeting 18) the group had a chance to ask additional questions.

Meeting 19: The group leader reported that money for poultry was probably forthcoming from the government agency, but that it might take several weeks. After some deliberation, group members decided to submit their proposal to one or two other organizations while waiting for a response from the first.

Then an on-the-spot decision was made after limited discussion: to cultivate mushrooms while waiting for the poultry project to be funded. Members asked the coordinator to contact a resource person from PRRM to come to the group and demonstrate mushroom culture.

Meeting 20: Using a series of picture charts, the PRRM resource person and the coordinator took the group through the steps of mushroom planting and harvesting. Members asked the resource person to show how to prepare the culture and plant spores during the next meeting. The president and coordinator agreed to find the materials needed, particularly the hay necessary for the culture.

Meeting 21: As members arrived, the coordinator and the group leader informed them that there was not enough hay in the area to build a culture. They discussed this problem at some length and decided to postpone the mushroom project until after the planting season, when more hay might become available.

The facilitator (who was present for this meeting) and coordinator noted that this impasse, in their opinion, was the result of the group's failure to analyze all the implications of their choice of mushroom culture and to plan as carefully as they had done in the other two

projects. According to the facilitator's log, some members seemed to agree with this premise, as evidenced in their comments during the discussion to postpone the project. The group decided that they would tell the coordinator when they were again ready to tackle mushroom growing, but they set no definite time.

Meeting 22: Only three days later the group leader and coordinator called the group together to tell them that the government agency would give start-up funds for their broiler project. The coordinator then led a discussion reviewing the initial steps of the club's plan for buying and raising chicks and posing questions about how the plans should be carried out.

After some deliberation, the group made three major decisions: to scout for market outlets and other sources of stock; to identify the first recipients who would, as a criterion of selection, agree to build chicken coops; and to ask each recipient to sign a contract -- based on the piggery project contracts -- agreeing to abide by the policies outlined in the club's poultry proposal. Initial funds would enable five individuals to begin to raise broilers. If these were successful, the same government agency would donate funds so five more members could begin production. Three members volunteered to raise broilers at this meeting.

The coordinator and facilitator, however, noted a new hesitancy in other group members. They inferred from the discussion that this reluctance was due primarily to two things: members lacked the materials they needed for the project; and they were afraid of being the first and failing -- that is, they doubted that they could manage broiler production, and were afraid that their failure might prevent others from participating. Repairing the typhoon damage had forced most families to use all available resources to rebuild their homes; many had used up the bamboo they had set aside for chicken houses.

The coordinator and group president asked members to think over what had been discussed and to meet again the next day to identify two additional volunteers to begin the project.

At the meeting the following evening, no new volunteers came forth. The group decided, therefore, to proceed with the three volunteers, and the president agreed to visit them the following week to see how their coops were progressing. At this point some members expressed confusion over the requirements of the funding agency. How did they fit or differ from the group's own policies?

After a long discussion, the club president's wife agreed with the decision of the group that the president, who was not there, but who had the contact with the funder, should write down the new set of rules. They also agreed that after this task was completed, the president would inform the other group members about a good time for the next meeting.

Meeting 23: The club president reported that the funding agency had released the P5,000 capital funds (about US \$700) required for the poultry project. If they succeeded in the project with the initial amount, they would get another P5,000 additional capital.

The president and the coordinator led a review of the group's family planning proposal. They followed the format suggested by the government agency, which had the following components: Rationale, objectives, project setting, project implementation, project management staff, consultancy, evaluation, bar chart of activities, counterpart from the community, and project budget.

The group asked the facilitator-coordinator team to write the proposal in a form to be submitted. They also decided that they would review their policies for their poultry project in their next session.

Meeting 24: Since the club president and the coordinator were both absent, the facilitator led the discussion on the review of their policies. It was difficult to assess the problems in the absence of the president, who continued to have the most contact with the funder via the representative of PRRM's partner agency in this area. The participants had many questions they wanted him to answer:

1. Why were they given chicks and feed and not the amount of funds in cash? Why were they not given the responsibility and the accountability for the money, i.e., for the purchase of chicks, feed and other supplies?
2. Why did one recipient of chicks go directly to PRRM's partner agency to inquire why the club president had changed some of their policies? What was the suspicion?

They discussed the problem and agreed on the following:

1. They scheduled a meeting between the club president and the recipient who made the direct inquiry. The coordinator would also attend this session.
2. They called for a club assembly meeting to ask the president to explain and clarify the changes in their policies.

Meeting 25: The club president, who was supposed to render the report about the changes in their policies, did not arrive -- a very discouraging setback. (The disaffection between the coordinator and president and president and group members had become significant by this time.) In his absence, his spouse explained to the group what had been discussed with the partner agency.

After a long discussion stimulated by review of the policies, the president's wife agreed with the group's recommendation, again requesting that the president put in writing the new set of rules agreed by the funder and PRRM's partner agency.

Meeting 26: The club president reported on his meeting with one of the recipients of chicks. They realized that the reason the recipient had made direct inquiries of the partner agency was the president's failure to inform members promptly about the need for policy changes. The president also reported that only one major change was required by the funding agency and the partner agency: that no cash amount be given the recipients; instead, the chicks and all other supplies should be purchased and distributed by the club president. The group acknowledged this but made clear that the president should have discussed these matters with them.

The discussion moved on and the recipients agreed to scout the market for outlets because their broilers would be ready for marketing the next week. However, another problem was identified: each recipient would need at least four more bags of feed before they could market their chicks but they had no more funds. The president remarked, "That should be your own look-out now."

The president informed the group that those who were planning to be one of the next recipients for the second batch of chicks should now get ready with their poultry houses.

The group agreed to meet the following Sunday to work out their system of recording. Since the changes of their policies had still not been written down, the members again requested their president to do this.

Meeting 27: By this meeting, the first three recipients in the poultry project had harvested their birds. The changes of their project policies had been put in writing by the president and copies were distributed to members for their information.

The session started with the president's report on these policies and a recent meeting he had attended sponsored by PRRM's partner agency.

A member reported about the abortion of her pig. The group agreed to discuss their community pig dispersal project in their next meeting.

Meeting 28: The session started with a report from every member on the status of his or her pig. One reported that her pig had aborted. Another informed the group that her sow had delivered only one piglet. A third was ready to give back three piglets for distribution through the association. The group reviewed their project dispersal system as

the basis for the distribution or allocation of the piglets to prospective or qualified recipients. Among other things, members clarified for themselves that the extension of the pig dispersal to non-group members would be based on the following: The person should be a resident of the barangay, be capable of providing a pig pen, have at least the basic knowledge and skills in pig raising, and be willing to abide by the group policies.

At this point, three new prospective recipients were suggested but no agreement on them could be reached. Members agreed, however, that the litters intended for the club be taken care of by group members only, and that the existing earmarked litters for the club itself should be sold and the amount deposited in the club treasury.

Meeting 29: Following the previous meeting, the president had distributed piglets to the people named during the meeting although members had not reached final agreement on those names. Most of the discussion on this day revolved around the pig dispersal project; it also, however, branched off to an effort to delineate functions between the representative of PRRM's partner agency and the coordinator-facilitator team.

The tension between these workers had risen as had the tension between the group and club president. The president was frequently absent and often appeared to withhold information and act unilaterally. The following were arrived at:

1. Members commented that there had obviously been confusion about their decision at the last meeting since the club president had proceeded to distribute piglets to the people suggested; the members had assumed that the names mentioned were not final.
2. They also realized that some of them had believed that the coordinator and the partner agency worker had similar functions. It was agreed that the partner agency worker would be in charge of agency affairs; the coordinator would assist the partner agency worker and the group would determine their needs and how to effectively implement those projects that were outside of the partner agency-program domain.
3. The partner agency worker would take the lead role in conducting all group sessions and the coordinator would assist her.

This shift made clear the ascendancy of the partner agency representative and club president. The coordinator was relegated to a secondary role. The partner agency worker who attended this meeting, although it had not been her custom to attend meetings, suggested that they meet on the first Sunday of the following month to decide what project they would undertake next.

Meeting 30: During this session, participants were to identify a new project interest. The coordinator again distributed pictures of different activities to the 12 participants present and asked them to select what they would like to undertake. Two pictures were selected: duck raising and farming (palay).

When asked which of the two would be their priority, there was a moment of indecision. There was silence. The partner agency worker was asked what she thought. She said, "Since the beginning I have wanted you to take good care of ducks. I'll try to find out if there's still some amount left to finance this project." The group made their decision. Duck raising. They decided to meet on August 19 to formulate a plan of action.

By this time, during home visits made by the coordinator, several group members were questioning the handling of the poultry project finances. They doubted the club president's explanation of events. (Data collected later in the final evaluation stage supported the suspicion that the club president was reaping personal gain by manipulating project funds.)

Meeting 31: Few of the participants were present at this session and the president did not attend. He had also left orders that no learning sessions be conducted by the coordinator unless the partner agency's worker were present. No meeting therefore was held and no definite date was set for another. The coordinator stated that he would arrange with the agency worker and the club president to set a date for the next meeting. Although he subsequently made frequent attempts to do so, no group meeting has since been held.

At least three problem themes emerge from this tracer that were also observed in other village groups, particularly in the Philippines. It is useful to mention them here although they will be discussed in detail in Part Two. First, we see that the momentum and resources that can be mobilized by group effort can be subverted to an individual's self-interest if open communication and accountability do not occur. Second, we see that the agendas of some development agencies or workers are rigid enough to work against community people genuinely interested in development. Third, it is clear that developing group capability is a continuous process that must be continuously reinforced. The ability to address and resolve problems takes more or less time to develop, according to the existing level of trust and shared interests of a group.

We will analyze at some length these and other data describing the evolution of the learning approach and projects in the 12 villages. First, however, we will review the activities of the groups in general. In addition, while the tracer provides an in-depth, or vertical look at the process in one village, Appendix C takes a horizontal look at program activities across all villages.

B. Focus and Content of Group Meetings

As we discussed earlier, an important element of project program assessment was that in each of the 12 villages, facilitators and coordinators kept logs outlining the happenings in virtually every group meeting over the life of the program.

An average of 33 logs per group is available for us to review (Table 1). Two Philippine groups, in Rio Choco and San Augustin, ceased activities after about four months of operation, primarily because PRRM's partner agency objected to the role being played by facilitators and coordinators in those two barangays. In one Kenyan village, Chumani, the group disintegrated and activities stopped after seven months (and 40 meetings), in large part because of interpersonal problems within the group. The events surrounding the demise of program activities in these villages in both countries will be discussed at length in a following section. Although logs in these three communities were discontinued when the group meetings came to an end, project staff continued to collect other data at each site.

Classification of group meetings. As we reviewed the logs for both countries, we discovered that in all villages and barangays, each meeting could be classified as focusing primarily on one of three areas: group development; organizing for work and raising resources; or subject matter related to a particular skill or practice.

Meetings focusing on group development were those in which the facilitator or coordinator or members themselves encouraged the group to develop strength and commitment. Members were urged to cooperate, share ideas and resources, resolve group dissension or improve interpersonal relationships, increase intra-group communication, or cheer each other on when things seemed to be stalled. Many of these meetings strove to maintain enthusiasm and momentum so that group goals could be reached.

In the second category of meetings, organizing for work and raising resources, the field staff or members themselves helped the group focus on delineating tasks. They created work schedules and developed task assignments, made business or project decisions, and generated ways to raise the money, material, or expert assistance they needed to reach their goal. In these meetings members planned their activities, coordinated people and resources, and arrived at time frames for their work.

In the third category of meetings, dealing with subject matter, the field staff or members themselves assisted the group to explore the relationship of particular practices and skills to their group goals (or sanitation, literacy, nutrition were discussed, or the particular content and skills necessary to a group project may have been discussed and

practiced: care of pigs or chicks, skills of baking, beekeeping or farming, and so on.

Each group paid considerable attention to all three categories (group development, organizing for work, subject matter) bespeaking the important part each played in efforts to implement the learning process. No less than 11 percent of the meetings of any group was devoted to each category (Table 2).

If an overall rank order of frequency of type of meeting can be generalized, organizing for work ranks first, subject matter would rank second, and group development third. There were, however, differences in emphasis in each country. In Kenya more meetings in general were spent on group development and organizing for work than in the Philippines, while the Philippine groups devoted more meetings to subject matter than the Kenyan groups.

The decisions to focus on a particular category basically occurred in two ways: either the facilitator or coordinator planned with the group the content of the next meeting; or the facilitator or coordinator made a judgment that a certain problem existed or task needed to be accomplished within the group and determined the content.

The extent, then, to which meetings were devoted to group development, for example, was dependent on what the members and the field staff perceived to be the need at any given point in time for strengthening the members' ability to function as a group. This ability to analyze the status of a group as it evolved differed among the various facilitators and coordinators. Some developed a high level of perceptivity, others were much less able to see the dynamics that were occurring.

By presenting percentages of time spent by each group on each type of meeting we are not suggesting that there is an ideal split of time or number of meetings per category. Rather we infer from the data provided by the field staff logs that some attention was given to all three and that the amount varied according to group trust, strengths, weaknesses, and objectives at particular times.

When we look at the category of subject matter it is interesting to see the specific topics that emerge as relevant and important. Again it is useful to remember that the field staff were instructed and encouraged in their training to introduce community development concerns and issues when they related to group interests and objectives. In most instances, this process appears to have occurred. There is little doubt, however, that on occasion some topics were discussed that were not closely related to the group's work. This was generally done because the field staff or group members themselves believed it was "good" for some reason or another to introduce them. Beautification of homes and mushroom culture in the Philippines, for example, appear to be deemed important because they were espoused by official agencies and organization in the given areas.

Gardening and agriculture, diet and nutrition, and animal husbandry were studied in one half the villages in both countries. Family planning, literacy, health and sanitation, and banking were discussed in four or more Kenyan villages but not in the Philippines. Cooperatives were the subject in one Philippine village only and tailoring and dressmaking the subject in two. A wider range of topics was covered in Kenya. The greatest concentration in the Philippines was on gardening, agriculture and animal husbandry. In Kenya the greatest concentration was on health and sanitation and animal husbandry. (Table 3 lists the percentage of time devoted to specific subject matter by each group.)

Teaching Aids and Learning Discussion. Project teaching aids, that is, teaching materials that did not require that participants be literate, were developed by field staff related to every type of meeting; group development, organizing for work, and subject matter. A teaching aid to stimulate discussion, present an idea, or develop a skill was not, however, used at every group meeting. Frequently an issue or idea or problem introduced in one meeting was the focus of the next several sessions.

Teaching aids were used somewhat less frequently in Kenya than in the Philippines (see Table 4). Even the group using aids least (we are omitting those where project activities were terminated) employed them in more than two-fifths of its meetings. The most ardent aid-using group employed them in all but seven percent of its meetings.

The range of type of aids used was broader in the Philippines than in Kenya. Philippine field staff reported using charts, stories and problem dramas, pictures, case studies, and most often, games and exercises. Kenyan field staff reported using stories and problem dramas, photos, and most often, drawings. The Kenyan staff frequently used the tape recorder to present stories and problem dramas. The Philippine staff rarely used their tape recorders as teaching aids. The skill of facilitators in using teaching aids effectively varied greatly. Some in both countries became quite competent, one or two were excellent, and two or three used materials in a far less than ideal way.

Data collected by interview of staff and participants at the midpoint of the project are an important source for understanding the teaching aids and their effectiveness in the view of those using them.

From the perspective of the field staff. Facilitators and coordinators in the Philippines and Kenya were asked to report which teaching aid was most effective, what had worked best for them. The field staff usually deemed an aid effective when it led to an observable action that brought the group close to its learning objectives. Eleven of the 12 field staff members from PRRM and eight of nine from Tototo reported that the "best" aids were those that helped group members to take an action: those that had helped their group to make a decision, develop part of its project plan, or organize a work schedule. For example:

Philippines

I showed a picture of an egg ready to hatch. The group wanted a poultry project but didn't know where to get funds or what members needed to know how to do to keep hens. I asked, "What do you see? What will you do with this egg?" They said, "We need to know how to hatch the egg and care for the chick. Our project is like this egg." From the picture alone all the things needed for the project were discussed. Even the schedule was set and resource people were identified.

-- Facilitator

We did the "building of a House" exercise. It is to show how to plan, and we used it to develop the proposal for the piggery project. The exercise helped the group discover answers to questions posed in the forms of the funding organization.

-- Coordinator

The group did an exercise called "Cotton Blowing." Many must blow in order to keep the cotton in the air. They had to cooperate. They saw there was need to cooperate on the communal garden and they decided to organize a work schedule. They measured the garden and planned when each would tend it.

-- Coordinator

Kenya:

I used drawings that I made of two different groups of ladies. In one series of pictures the group moved to action and completed a project. In the other, the ladies just continue to talk. The women discussed how group one was cooperating and helped each other while group two just grumbled and discussed. This worked, I believe, because the next day when the women were to meet to work on the project they all came and collected makuti (dried palm leaves).

-- Facilitator

I used a picture from a magazine of women working on a group farm. There are no roads to the village and there needs to be a small path. The discussion ended in the group's decision to make a small path themselves. They were encouraged because women in the picture were using big heavy tools. The same picture worked in another village to have women clear away the grass that covers their road. Pictures of other Kenyan women encourage groups that they are not alone and can do things.

-- Facilitator

I used flexiflan figures and described two groups: one group helping themselves and another being helped but not helping themselves. The second gets stuck when the outside help leaves. The first completes the project. The group discussed how to organize themselves and they learned they cannot always rely on others but must help themselves. I think this was learned because work had stopped on the poultry house but after this meeting members began to work again.

-- Coordinator

Nine field staff in the Philippines reported that their best aids were group dynamics exercises. The group exercises were almost all the kind that encourage participants to draw analogies between a symbolic situation and their own actual situation. They were used primarily to help the group make decisions or collaborate more effectively. One exercise, for example, required a member to retrieve and light a cigarette with a matchstick using only one hand. This is almost impossible to do alone and one solution is to seek another member's help.

Two facilitators selected pictures as their best aid. One, the egg picture, has already been described. The other was a drawing of a multipurpose community center. The group had decided it wanted to build a center for the village. After viewing the picture and determining what their center should look like, members began to plan by listing all the materials they would need to collect.

One facilitator felt that a problem-drama was her most effective aid. This was a tape recording that described a wedding where the family fails to make careful plans and everything goes awry. The facilitator reported:

...the group realized the need to plan their graduation (a community event related to the completion of the dressmaking class) and to have a division of labor. Then they assigned tasks, and most carried out their tasks although some could not because of Khading (the typhoon).

In Kenya three field staff reported that their best aid was a tape. One tape told an incomplete story and participants supplied an ending. One described two businesses, one of which yielded higher profits, and the women in the story suggested ways to compute prices. One repeated back to the members the very problem they were experiencing as if it were of another group:

I recorded a speech explaining the problems that may fall on groups. I recorded my own speech but presented it to the group disguised as a speech made by a community development officer. The

group was experiencing problems such as misunderstanding, misappropriation of funds, and leadership conflicts. So by using the taped explanations on how to go about solving such problems I thought it would solve the problem, which it did. I think that making them aware that the problems they experienced also affected other groups made them positive towards an acceptable way of solving the problem. After listening to the speech, they said: 1) it is as if this officer was observing us, and since he didn't, then we should look at the problem peacefully; 2) those who were causes of the problems kept a low profile during the discussions and also ceased to be a source of the problem that the group was experiencing.

-- Facilitator

Three Kenyan field staff reported that what worked best was a simple drawing or picture. Three found that two contrasting pictures led to the best discussion.

In the Philippines, the 12 reported worst aids fall into several categories. Half were considered poor for the same two reasons that most field workers in Kenya gave: aids were not related to a group's interest, or the aid was unclear and did not make its point. Three facilitators/coordinators described the former situation:

...the planning exercise failed because the garden they were planting was not their real interest.

-- Facilitator

...only a few were really interested in the topic presented in the problem drama.

-- Facilitator

...they did not want to participate in the "Get Me" exercise. They were not so interested in the garden.

-- Coordinator

And these comments refer to aids that were not effective because their meaning was not clear:

...we were doing the string untangling exercise and most were disinterested. The point was not clear. The exercise seemed unimportant.

-- Coordinator

...even when I showed members the two women in the picture they still could not see them. They couldn't see what the picture meant.

-- Coordinator

I used "the Impertinent PERT Chart" for planning but the group didn't see why we must follow all the steps of the exercise. They wanted to jump to implementation.

-- Facilitator

Two field staff in the Philippines reported that no aid had failed, while four gave individual examples of ineffective aids. One reported that there were too many babies on hand and mothers could not put them down to take part in an exercise. One reported that the exercise she used did not work well because it required people to be able to "read a big map and most could not." Another said the worst aid was a game. While it was in progress, she made a joke and some members felt she was laughing at them. They became unhappy. Finally, a facilitator reported that the "Traffic Policeman" exercise, which requires decision making, did not work well because the president was not there and members did not like to make decisions without her.

In Kenya, the nine "worst" aids reported fell mainly into two categories: aids used by the facilitator or coordinator to impose an idea or solution on the group; and aids that were unclear, that is, the women could not understand them or misunderstood the "meaning" the facilitator had in mind. Two facilitators describe situations where they were imposing solutions:

I wanted to find out where people go for traditional dances and how they use those dances. I recorded a Kayaka song mainly sung during recreation but the instrument is also used during special occasions such as chasing away the evil spirits from the sick. The problem was that the participants talked about witchcraft instead of traditional dances. For instance, they reported the witchcraft that they believed existed. I took the view that they not worry about it, but they would not agree. So I almost got myself rejected by my group.

-- Facilitator

And these incidents are examples of unclear aids:

I used pictures to explain feeding of chickens; one showed fat chickens, one thin chickens. The women did not understand because they could not see the difference in the chickens. They thought the thin ones were just free-ranging chickens. So I had to explain and point out the differences and tell what the intention of the pictures was.

-- Facilitator

One that didn't work was a drawing of a farmer and her big house and a drunkard and her ramshackle house. The picture was not clear, the message was not understood. I had to tell them what this meant for them to get the point. Drawing was vague.

-- Facilitator

The teaching aid most favored among the Phillipines field staff is clearly the "group dynamics" exercise, which was both used more frequently and mentioned more often as the most effective. This type of exercise intends to create a situation that helps members to understand more about the processes of decision making and collaboration. Kenyan staff preferred drawings.

Philippines staff members, like their Kenyan counterparts, felt that successful aids were those that led to discovery and movement toward group goals, aids characterized by discussion, decision, and action. Although field teams in the Philippines reported group dynamics exercises as their most effective aid, participants themselves report they remember and learn most from pictures, as we will see later.

It is difficult to be certain why some aids work better than others to stimulate discussion and lead to action. We can make only tentative observations from such a small number of responses. Clearly, if a drawing or picture is not recognizable to the viewer it will not "work." If a chicken looks thin but not sick, the viewer will not assign the meaning intended. Similarly, if an aid is used to moralize about things that may not be self-evident, it is likely not to work. Not all drunkards have ramshackle houses nor sober people big, important houses. Indeed, in a community with limited economic opportunity, drunkenness may be the least of a long list of factors associated with poverty. These aids are examples of attempts to depict distinctions and subtleties that may be difficult to present visually in an easily understood way. In addition, when an aid is used not to elicit the learners' ideas but to sell those of the teacher, when it is used to manipulate the group to a predetermined conclusion, the material -- regardless of how well drawn or explicit -- ultimately does not work well.

Learning aids work because they are used successfully, not because of inherent characteristics. Nonetheless, the examples of "best aids" encompass two or three basic characteristics: they present a problem currently experienced by the group as a group; and they depict situations where the decision that is needed rests with the group. In other words, success is directly related to what the group decides and does, and is not contingent on someone else's decisions. In addition, the materials present situations where learners have an opportunity to "project," to compare another situation with their own. Analyzing the problem of the people in the drawing or on the tape becomes a means for

recognizing the problem as one's own. If the aid is directly related to a learning interest, is clear in its analogy, is of immediate and recognizable use -- that is, if it provides a basis from which to plan, make decisions, or take other important actions -- it is likely to be successful. These essential qualities appear to be criteria of success. Indeed, when field staff selected materials in order to reflect these qualities, the teaching aids came closest to those espoused by the self-actualizing approach: aids that lead to discussion, decision and action.

When asked to enumerate specifically the advantages and disadvantages of using teaching aids, field staff offered ideas for the most part consistent with the analysis above. These ideas are summarized below.

Advantages:

- Teaching aids are most useful when introducing a new idea or topic.
- They start a discussion and help members to express their ideas.
- They increase the participation of members in open discussion.
- They elicit insights from participants and help members see what's occurring in the group.
- They enable members to share ideas related to the same thought or problem.
- They help members dictate what should be done rather than the facilitator doing so.

Disadvantages:

- Teaching aids may suggest and give importance to activities group members really do not want to engage in and they may agree to something from politeness.
- Sometimes it is hard to find aids that fit the problem of the group.
- They may not adequately reflect an idea the facilitator has in mind and thus confuse the group.
- Some exercises are difficult to use and their relationship to a group problem may not be clear to the group.
- If introduced when a group discussion is already active they can be distracting.
- On occasion, aids direct the discussion; people will discuss the topic even if they actually are not interested in resolving the particular problem.
- One might plan to use an aid but when meeting time comes it may no longer be appropriate.

From the Perspective of the Village Participants. A question was posed to 77 of the participants in Kenya and 106 in the Philippines about the use of the teaching aids. It was posed as a critical-incident query: "The facilitator or coordinator sometimes uses pictures or stories or tapes in the group meeting. Can you tell me about one you remember and what, if anything, you learned from it?"

In asking participants to recall one particular teaching aid, we intended to discover two or three things. One was whether teaching aids were mentioned frequently enough for us to infer that group members recognized them as a part of the learning process. If, for example, no one could describe any aid or recall its significance, we might conclude that materials played a relatively unimportant role in group processes. Another was to identify, in the range of subjects and topics reflected in discussions initiated by the aids, which ones appear to be important enough for participants to remember. We also wanted to learn about the nature of successful aids. Which ones -- if memory is an indication of impact -- had impact on most participants?

Responses to this question illuminated things in addition to the subjects and nature of aids each person remembered. In every group a particular learning material tended to be remembered by several group members. There are probably a number of reasons why this is so. For example, certain teaching aids may have generated strong involvement because they hit on a problem most members recognized as immediate and important. Another explanation may be that a particular teaching aid led to a group commitment and as a result stood out in a person's mind. Still another reason may be that certain aids were particularly clear and delivered a single, clear message. Remembering an aid did not seem to be related to the sequence of use, that is, some mentioned had been used recently, others months before. So we feel safe in concluding that it is something other than the order of their use that leads to recall.

In general, responses in Kenya (See Table 5) revealed descriptions of nine types of aids. Twelve participants, or 15 percent, said they could not remember any particular teaching aids at all. The most prevalent of these responses were qualified by such statements as "I have not been able to attend meetings," "I am old and my eyes are poor," "I don't remember such things." A few women also stated that "no aids have been used," or "I have seen drawings and heard tapes but I did not learn from them."

Thirty participants, or 39 percent, referred to what we might call subject-matter teaching aids. Seventeen women recalled pictures or stories through which they learned things related to animal husbandry: raising rabbits and poultry. Five women remembered discussions related to cleanliness and sanitation that were stimulated by pictures. Four said they had learned something about child care from teaching aids. Three described aids that led to family planning discussions, and one woman mentioned adult literacy.

Thirty-five responses, or 45 percent, referred to group-development teaching aids. Eighteen women described aids that had "taught" them that cooperation was essential to achievement. These responses included such statements as the following: "The picture emphasized the need for our group to wake up and start working on a project." "I learned it is important to work hard, work together, cooperate." "The pictures helped me to learn how to work in a group, to work together so as to accomplish our tasks quickly." In the main these aids seem to be motivational. They led to discussions about ways in which members could collaborate, and implicit in these discussions was the message that it is good to work together.

Seventeen women referred to aids that helped them make business or project decisions. These aids fall into the category we call organizing for work. Responses alluded to the importance of the pictures, stories, and tapes in helping group members to analyze a situation and make choices. Included were ideas suggesting that pictures helped groups to make the decisions: to "sell our (farm) products and get money for contributing toward the building of our nursery school," to begin a poultry project, start a poultry project "as farming does not do well in our soil," to "build a bakery as a group," to "get a permit so as not to be chased by the police," and so on. These aids were used to illustrate a juncture that the group had reached and assist members to select a path to follow.

In the Philippines, fourteen percent of the members of the six groups could not describe any learnings from a teaching aid (See Table 6). Eleven percent could not describe an aid at all and/or claimed not to attend meetings. One-third of the participants reported having learned from aids that addressed particular subject matters. These aids had to do with "teaching us to clean up our houses and gardens," "to care for native pigs," "to plant a communal vegetable garden," and so on.

Over half the participants (53 percent) described aids that centered on aspects of group development. Fifteen percent remembered learning from the teaching aids that they could select the things they wanted to do as a group. Twelve percent described aids that led to a group discussion about ways to earn money, to increase income. Fifteen percent said that aids had taught them to collaborate -- to tackle problems collectively and find ways to cooperate. Five percent recalled aids that helped them discover how to get assistance or materials, or helped them to analyze the implications of a problem they were confronting.

There is no doubt that in both countries teaching aids played an important part in the learning approach. In the main, facilitators and coordinators understood the concept of how aids were to be used although the level of their skill in using materials effectively varied. The great majority of participants could recall aids and describe their learning significance. Eighty-five percent of both Kenyan and Philippine participants could do this.

Interestingly, although the majority of staff in the Philippines judged group dynamics exercises to be most effective, 61 percent of the participants identified pictures as the aids they could best recall that led to learning. Twenty-five percent identified group exercises, one percent chose a song and one percent a story. Eleven percent of the respondents reported that they did not attend meetings and/or could not remember any aid being used. Teaching aids recalled fell into three categories emerging in the group meeting logs discussed earlier: those that concern group development, organizing for work, and those that concern subject matter.

The Role of Facilitators and Coordinators. In such a complex learning approach, the field staff have several responsibilities. In both countries staff were able to describe the various dimensions of their role although the emphasis was different in each.

The way field staff assist groups to move from decision to action will vary. In order to learn how staff members viewed their role and to determine how they placed emphasis, we asked them to describe incidents that illustrate their most important contribution to the learning group and to its project. The responses generally fell into two categories: actions within the group, and actions directed toward those outside the group who are influential to group success. In the first category, field staff in Kenya described four kinds of contributions:

- helping the group to get organized and develop systems for working together;
- enabling the group to find alternatives when they can see none;
- intervening when there are problems in cooperation or interpersonal relationships;
- helping members recognize problems getting in the way of their progress.

In the second category -- actions directed toward those outside the group -- field staff reported three major kinds of contributions:

- bringing in outside resource people;
- enlisting the assistance of village and political leaders;
- helping members find needed expertise, markets, and materials.

The answers of Philippine field staff were strikingly similar, indicating much uniformity in the way Philippine staff members both perceived their roles and carried them out. These responses described a slightly more narrow range of responsibilities than the responses of the Kenyan staff. Almost all field team members in the Philippines said

their role was to facilitate discussion, to help members get organized, set priorities, and do the planning necessary for carrying out projects. They also reported helping members to find resources, making needed contacts for materials and expertise, and coordinating with other organizations.

The attention the Philippine field staff gave to coordinating with other agencies is obviously different from that given by the Kenyan staff. PRRM cosponsored each village group with a "partner agency." On the one hand, it required greater efforts to harmonize and coordinate, since the partner agency and its representative were involved with the groups in each phase of the activities, and were not just providers of resources at certain points in time. Because all the groups in the Philippines were originally organized by these partner agencies, they had a long history with the groups and it was up to PRRM staff to make more effort to coordinate.

When Philippine field staff were asked to describe what person had been least helpful to the group, the difficulties of coordinating with partner agencies became apparent. Five field staff identified the worker from the cosponsoring agency as the least helpful person to the group; only one mentioned the partner as most helpful.

The majority of staff in both Kenya and the Philippines understood the multifaceted role they were to play in this learning approach. The most effective among them carried out the full repertoire of functions listed above. The less successful tended to fulfill only one or two.

Participants View the Learning Process. In order to understand the dynamics in the groups created by the learning process, we asked participants what meeting they enjoyed most. We were interested in knowing what motivated people to attend and participate in group activities.

In Kenya, the great majority, 94 percent, made positive remarks. Thirteen percent of the women made general statements, the most typical being "I like all the meetings because there are always some good discussions," and "All are equally enjoyable." (See Table 7.)

The rest, whose responses are perhaps more useful, discussed specific meetings, often in some detail, and four themes emerged from their descriptions. Fifteen percent attended and provided or promised some sort of assistance: when the agricultural extension person brought rabbits, when the home economist taught women how to bake a cake; when Tototo-Kilemba project staff advised a group on developing handicrafts.

Seven percent of the women, on the other hand, described the most pleasing meeting as one in which the interaction among group members was the subject under consideration: "When we were discussing that in group work we must be faithful to each other, trust each other," or the meeting that "encouraged me on working hard together with other members."

The rest of the women in the Kenya groups were more pragmatic. Thirty percent described a meeting that clearly had to do with increasing a member's income. These descriptions were of three kinds: meetings where a group agreed to develop an income-generating project; meetings where money from activities was distributed; and meetings where the members agreed to contribute money to be given each week to a different member (this is a common practice among Kenyan women). Rating these income-related meetings as the most rewarding underscores the project premise that family finance is the learning interest most closely held by rural women.

The remaining 29 percent of the group described a variation on this theme. These women talked about meetings in which members decided to take an action, and more often than not these decisions were related to money: "the meeting when we decided to open a bank account... putting the money in a safe place," "deciding to keep poultry for the second time," "deciding to open a small shop," "when making necklaces was adopted as a project," and so on. These descriptions differ from those specifically mentioning income in that the reward appears to rest with the fact that the group agreed on an action to take. In general, well over half the core group -- 59 percent -- were made happy by meetings where the discussion ended in a decision to take an action that will clearly move members toward their goal -- a goal that is, at least in Kenya, generally related to an increase in income.

Only six percent made negative statements: "I've not been very much interested," or "I attend very few meetings," or "I can't remember any meeting."

Responses to the more general question, "What incident made you happiest to be a group member?" fell into three categories and echoed the above observations. Ten percent of the women were not happy to be a group member or claimed they did not attend meetings. Twenty percent mentioned an event that demonstrated the economic benefits of group membership: "When it comes my turn of getting money." "When I'm given money for handicrafts." "When I get some money from the project." and so on. Forty-eight percent described, as the incident that made them happiest to belong to a group, an event that was a major one in signaling movement towards the group goal: "When the oven was put in." "When we delivered the firewood." "When we agreed to build a shop." "When we were given the rabbits." "When the project started." Twenty-two percent expressed happiness at the opportunity for interaction with others: "I get the feeling of belonging." "When our group is really cooperating." "Seeing my friends working together." "When we all participate." "The unity of being with others." According to these responses members are not complacent or passive and they connect satisfaction with a sense of momentum. They clearly recognize which group decisions are important in progressing. An important reward for participating is moving toward a goal and sharing that goal with others.

The responses in Kenya and those in the Philippines were somewhat parallel, yet at the same time there appear to be major differences. (see Table 8) Nine percent of the participants in the Philippines reported that they did not enjoy any group meetings (this includes those who claimed not to attend regularly). Six percent said they enjoyed all sessions and slightly less than five percent described singular aspects of the meetings that they enjoyed, including one person who most enjoyed receiving commodities. This reveals a somewhat confounding variable in trying to assess the rewards to participants for taking part. Each of PRRM's partner agencies provided commodities to group members. These generally took the form of food and school tuition for children, but may include other items needed by families. Obviously this practice runs counter to the strict self-help approach espoused by the learning approach. In two barangays it is possible to make a fairly clear separation between PRRM and commodity distribution and members apparently understood that participation in one neither detracted from nor enhanced one's standing in the other. In two other barangays, partner agency employees were trained as facilitators and it is impossible to separate completely the policies and practices of one organization from the other. Residents need not have taken part in project activities to qualify for commodities from PRRM's partner agency, but there is no way to tell the extent to which the doles from that organization might indirectly have attracted participants.

In a third situation there has been no separation of PRRM and partner agency meetings, although the field staff is recognized as independent from the partner organization. Indeed, in the two barangays concerned there was some competition and strain between the team and the partner agency representative as a result of other conflicting organizational policies such as who should determine learning objectives and select subjects. In these two villages attendance appeared to increase on days when commodities were distributed. In addition, the facilitators were withdrawn from these two villages at the partner agency's request, and meetings then appeared to be held only when there were commodities to distribute. Although there is little to suggest that individuals participated in project activities specifically in order to receive commodities, there is no way to tell if participation in such things as tailoring and dressmaking classes might have been less had the partner agency not kept to its regular schedule of giving out commodities. One indicator that commodities were not the prime motivator, of course, is the number of individuals who did not enroll in classes and apparently knew they would continue to qualify for doles. Nonetheless, it is difficult to judge the extent to which distribution of commodities influenced participation in the Philippines.

Twelve percent of the Philippine participants describe as the most enjoyable sessions the one where group members agreed on their common interest and decided to act. Thirteen percent stated that the best meeting was when the members were doing something to move the project

along, for example, planning or actually carrying out a group task. Seven percent most enjoyed being shown how to do something -- keep poultry, raise pigs, grow mushrooms. Five percent most enjoyed meetings when an outside person gave members assistance or information, while nine percent felt happiest when visitors came to observe the group. No Kenyan responses mentioned observers or visitors in this same way. Only six percent in the Philippines enjoyed meetings in which there were income-related decisions or activities --a significantly lower percentage than that reported in Kenya (30 percent).

Another area of apparent significant difference between Kenya and the Philippines is that of social events -- that is, cooperating and being part of the group -- as the group activity they liked most. Almost one-fifth of the Philippine respondents described social activities as the most rewarding. Six percent liked in particular the social events related to graduation or other festivities. Thirteen percent enjoyed meetings when there were singing and games (exercises).

There is a uniformity between the two project sites, however, in the appeal that making decisions and taking action had for a large number of group members. Well over half the Kenyan participants (59%) and almost one-third of the Philippine participants (31%), enjoyed most decisiveness and action. Again, this bespeaks the presence and importance of momentum in the process.

C. The Context for Assistance and Support from Other Agencies and Officials

In moving from decision to action it is clear that the group as a whole and individuals must mobilize a variety of resources. We asked field staff what person had been most helpful in this regard. Three of the nine Kenyan staff named a Tototo-Kilemba staff member, two coordinators named facilitators, three named a community resident who donated materials and one named an extension worker. Among the Philippine staff, three field staff stated that barangay officials had been most helpful, while four reported that they were least helpful. Two felt the group president had helped the group most. Others mentioned as most helpful were a group member (twice), the president of the local cooperative (once), and a facilitator or coordinator (twice). Two staff mentioned individual group members as least helpful.

Indeed, in neither country did staff view representatives of other agencies or government officials as primary sources of assistance. It was important to us to know over time what kinds of assistance and material were available to each group as a result of the government and other services in their areas. We thought, for example, that more frequent and diverse services might augur toward more success for a group in reaching its goals as their presence would literally mean a bigger resource pool. We also were interested in keeping track of other events in a village above and beyond those of the program so that we could be sure it was primarily the program and not some other agency that accounted for any changes we might see. Therefore, we asked the field work supervisor to record every external event in each community during a twelve-month period.

In Kenya, an average of four types of services were accessible over the year in each village. The frequency of availability, however, differed greatly. In Shimoni, which was difficult to reach, in seven of 12 months no outside services were offered, whereas in the city of Mombasa, between one and three extension services were available every month.

We have charted the external events in the Philippines slightly differently since it is to include the partner agencies of PRRM which were frequently in evidence in the project barangays (Table 10).

As mentioned earlier, it is sometimes difficult in the Philippines to distinguish project activities from routine activities of PRRM's partner agencies. To help clarify this problem we have listed in Table 10 only those occasions where PRRM makes evident that partner agencies were in an area on their own business only and not as part of the project. The external events in the Philippines were fairly evenly spread over the 14 months comprising the life of the project.

In Sinasajan, nine of the 10 reported external events were organized by PRRM's partner agency. Group members did not receive visits or services from any other agencies. If other agencies were active at any time in this barangay, their presence was not noted by the field work supervisor. This means that group members had no information or awareness that other workers were there. The same pattern occurs in Balingog East, where six of ten external events were those of PRRM's partner agency. In these barangays, we infer the partner agency was the primary provider of services, materials, and assistance to the project group beyond PRRM. In a sense these barrio groups appear to have a particularly unilateral relationship with the partner agencies.

In all Philippine barangays distribution of commodities was relatively frequent. By distribution of commodities we mean the free provision of items such as dry milk, cereal, infant formula, clothing, school supplies and the like. An average of over one-third of occurrences were associated with the distribution of commodities. There was a low of 20 percent of external events related to commodities in Sinasajan and a high of 54 percent in Mapangpang. In almost all instances the chief provider of foodstuffs and other materials distributed to group members was PRRM's partner agency. This, we infer, means that the relationships between the barangay groups and PRRM's partner agencies were likely influenced by the extent to which members valued and wanted to receive commodities. Generally, qualifying to be a recipient of goods was determined in line with a specific agency's policies and criteria. In other words, it is probable that the fact that these agencies were primary commodity providers affected the time and attention that their representatives received from recipient group members. It is also probable that the influence of the agency representative on group activities was concomitant with the level of desire of group members to receive commodities.

This situation is significantly different from that of Kenya where no individual group members (save five in Ngamani) received commodities from any agency or organization.

Another difference regarding the relationship between village groups and provider agencies is that in the Philippines the groups were actually organized and "sponsored" by PRRM's partner agencies. In Kenya, the groups (save one) were "pre-existing": they had come together for their own purposes -- social, community development, or other -- and were not formed by an outside organization.

It seems safe to generalize that although differing agencies and organizations deployed personnel in villages and barangays, no community enjoyed access to a continuous comprehensive range of service. This is neither surprising nor unusual as this is both the situation and dilemma in rural areas of most developing countries. It does mean, however, that project personnel were the most prevalent and regular workers in each area during the project period.

D. Problems Encountered

We have used two major sources of data to describe problems confronted by staff and group members themselves in the implementation of the learning approach: the facilitator/coordinator logs; and the responses of staff and participants to evaluation interviews.

In completing the log after each group meeting, field staff were asked to enumerate the problems facing the group that were either voiced by members or observed by staff. In order to get an idea of the range of difficulties, we reviewed every log and categorized each problem into broader areas. We noted both the frequency with which a problem was mentioned and the village that experienced it.

The number of times a problem was mentioned may not help us understand what factors inhibit success. A problem occurring only once might have even greater impact on success than one occurring more often. Nonetheless, noting the frequency gives some idea of the persistence of problems and serves as an indication of groups where a particular problem became chronic.

A mention of a problem means only that the field staff was aware of a difficulty. Our list therefore does not account for those problems others may have been aware of while staff members were not. This weakness is addressed somewhat by the responses of participants to questions about group problems; however, it is not completely overcome. A reportable problem -- that is, one listed on the log -- was one serious enough for the staff to call it to the attention of the field work supervisors and the data collectors. Therefore, we assume that each problem listed was considered important by staff members and in their eyes it held important consequences for the group. We look at the problems compiled from the group meeting logs in two ways: we review which villages mentioned which problems; and, we note the extent of the particular problem, that is, how many villages reported it.

Problems in Kenya. In reviewing the data that follow, which deal with the difficulties and problems faced by the groups over the course of the program, it may be helpful to bear in mind that of the six villages in Kenya, four had a high degree of success. They were Bomani, Mukoyo, Ngamani, and Shimoni. One -- Likoni -- met with limited success. And one -- Chumani -- disintegrated, after seven months and 40 meetings.

Problems mentioned most frequently in Kenya were lateness and difficulty finding critical resources (Table 11). Almost all village groups experienced these problems. Other difficulties mentioned frequently and confronted by half or more of the groups were periodic lack

of cooperation among members and poor attendance during the rainy season. Although one or two villages generally account for the high frequency of mention of these problems, each was reported at least once by half or more of the villages.

Chumani and Likoni account for almost all the reports of staff failure. The villages reporting the greatest problem with lateness were Shimoni, Chumani, and Mukoyo, with separate reports on each of six group meeting logs. The problem however, was felt and mentioned by every group. Five groups experienced problems with attendance at some time during the evaluation period although three reports was the high for this problem (Table 12). Likoni reported a problem of attendance at project associated activities such as tasks related to the group business, literacy courses, and the like. Chumani and Ngamani also experienced this problem. At some point almost every group in Kenya had a problem with illness (Table 13). And for Shimoni and Ngamani in particular, rain inhibited attendance at group meetings.

In two villages, Likoni and Chumani, five reports stated that field staff failed to fulfill their stated responsibilities. This was mentioned just once in only one other village and was not a persistent problem in other areas (Table 14).

Similarly, persistent problems between facilitator and coordinator were not evident except in Chumani. At some point in time every group but Shimoni experienced lack of confidence in a facilitator or coordinator but this was reported only once or twice.

There were no extensive or persistent problems reported with either teaching aids or methods (Table 15). On occasion, one or two groups were disinterested in discussion and/or visitors disrupted the planned agenda but these were not frequent occurrences.

Mobilizing resources. When it comes to mobilizing resources, Shimoni reported on four logs that a serious problem was finding money for the group projects (See Table 16). Four other groups experienced the problem but reported it less often. Shimoni and Mukoyo reported most often that they faced difficulty in securing critical resources; Shimoni is the only group reporting that needed expertise was unavailable. In Likoni, Ngamani, and Mukoyo, promised assistance failed to materialize on at least one occasion and in Likoni, Bomani and Ngamani, staff felt at least once during the evaluation period that group members were relying too heavily on outside assistance.

Group momentum. There were several obstacles to group momentum reported on the meeting logs reviewed, as seen on Table 17. In Chumani, there was one report that group members believed the group project had been imposed on them by the representative of an official agency. This problem of imposition was not mentioned by any other group.

In Likoni and Ngamani, members ran into technical problems with their projects. The problem of poultry illness was relatively persistent in Ngamani and difficulties transporting wood occurred at least twice in Likoni. Keeping up with project tasks was a problem in Likoni, Bomani, and Mukoyo from time to time but was not reported as persistent. Members in Likoni and Bomani on two and three occasions raised serious questions on how group funds were being handled. This problem was not reported in other villages.

From time to time, members in three groups expressed their fear in their own ability to carry out project tasks, and in Bomani, Mukoyo, and Ngamani, they failed to do so on one or two occasions.

Group dynamics The process occurring at group meetings was sometimes a problem. In Likoni and Shimoni, members expressed their feeling that decisions were not being made by all members (Table 18). The greatest lack of cooperation among members is reported by Chumani. Reports from this village are much more frequent than those from the three other villages -- Bomani, Likoni, and Shimoni -- which reported poor cooperation as an occasional problem. Chumani logs also reported a fair number of occasions (four) when group goals were not clear nor agreed to. Only Mukoyo and Shimoni also reported this problem and each made two reports. In Ngamani, Shimoni, and Chumani, there was at least one occasion when the group split as a result of failure to agree on a dimension of the group project. And Shimoni reports one period when a decision previously agreed to by the group was changed. No others reported this problem.

Table 19 in effect summarizes these problems to present those which were most evident in each village. These are likely the significant problems faced by a given group by virtue of the fact that they were the most persistent. Likoni's and Chumani's most persistent reported problem was the failure and refusal of coordinators to assume their responsibilities. Lateness at meetings plagued Shimoni. Rain inhibited attendance in Ngamani, and Mukoyo faced frequent difficulty obtaining needed resources for the group project. Bomani alone did not report a major problem, that is, one occurring four or more times over the evaluation period.

Problems in the Philippines. There is some symmetry in the problems reported by logs from the Kenyan and the Philippine sites and some major differences. Overall, one group, in Mapangpang, had high success. Three had limited success -- in Labney, Sinasajan, and Balingog East -- and two groups in Rio Choco and San Augustin ceased to function as part of the project after several months.

Most frequently cited problems. Low attendance was the problem mentioned most frequently in the Philippines, and was a periodic difficulty for five groups (see Table 20). In three villages there was dissension

between the members and the officers they had elected. In two of these villages this led to fear of the groups to make decisions without the presence of their officers. In four villages a major problem was that decisions made were later rescinded. In one village this was a chronic problem. Two villages felt a lack of support by their local officials. And in three villages problems arose between PRRM representative and partner agency representatives.

Attendance. Five villages reported that rain and typhoon were inhibiting factors. Sinasajan reported this problem most frequently. And Sinasajan and Balingog East are the two of four villages where low attendance at associated project activities was considered a problem. Balingog East reported that continually changing membership was a problem (Table 21).

Staff-related problems. There were in the Philippines sites, as in Kenya, problems with staff, but they were of a somewhat different configuration (Table 22). In only one village, Balingog East, were there reports that staff failed or refused responsibility. And only in that same group were there reports that members lacked confidence in the coordinator. Three villages experienced problems between group members and group officers. This was somewhat persistent in Labney and Rio Chico and emerged near the end of the evaluation period in Sinasajan. This problem was not reported as a chronic one in Kenya.

In three villages, periodic problems arose between partner agency representatives and group members; this will be discussed more fully later. In two villages, Rio Chico and San Augustin, members felt a loyalty split between PRRM and the partner agency. They were "confused" about which representative and which approach to follow. This issue will also be discussed further in a following section. And in the same villages a problem was reported at least once between PRRM representatives and partner agency representatives.

Teaching aids. As in Kenya, few technical problems with teaching aids were reported. There were two reports of unclear aids and a report from one village that meetings were disrupted by children and by drunkenness (Table 23).

Mobilizing resources. In three villages, Sinasajan, Balingog East and San Augustin, there was the periodic problem of people expressing that they expected doles or handouts from project staff. Sinasajan and San Augustin reported a problem raising needed money. And Rio Chico and Labney reported being unable to find critical resources. In Balingog East one log reported that members were relying too much on assistance they expected to come from outside the group. There and in San Augustin there were reports that local leaders did not lend needed support to the group project. This was a persistent problem in Balingog East (Table 24).

Maintaining group project momentum. It was not always easy to maintain group momentum (Table 25). The Sinasajan group reported running into technical problems and that members expressed that they lacked the confidence to tackle project tasks. Balingog East also experienced the latter problem. Mapangpang alone reported that members on at least one occasion failed to accomplish tasks that they agreed to. And in Labney and Balingog East, members at least once expressed that they were losing heart because the group was taking too much time to achieve its goals.

Group Dynamics. Several intra-group problems were also evident in the Philippines. At least once, members in Mapangpang told facilitators and coordinators that they felt a decision that had been made was not participatory. There and in Rio Chico, Labney and Sinasajan, decisions made by the group were changed in a following meeting. This problem arose relatively often in Labney. It was also Labney where members reported a persistent fear of making decisions when the officers, who were frequently absent, were not there. Mapangpang reported this problem only once (Table 26).

Most persistent problems. One or two problems were reported in most groups as persistent. In Sinasajan a chronic problem was low attendance. Rio Chico faced the difficulty of dissension between officers and members. Members in Labney faced ever-changing decisions and schisms between officers and members. Balingog East lacked local support and lost confidence in their coordinator who refused or failed to assume his responsibilities. San Augustin faced problems between PRRM representatives and partner agency representatives, and only Mapangpang reported no persistent, chronic problem (Table 27).

Problems as Voiced Directly by Participants. The data from facilitator/coordinator logs obviously report in the main what staff feel, see, and hear members express. Of course during meetings, group members will not always directly state to coordinators or to others something that may be bothering them.

Another important source of information, therefore, about problems in implementing the learning approach is the responses of individual participants themselves when asked specifically about obstacles to learning and achieving group goals.

"Worst Event" -- the Participants' Perspective: Kenya. Each of 77 participants in Kenya was asked to report the incident that had been "worst" for the group. Interestingly, there was generally one event with enough impact for several members to report it. Individuals within a particular group tended to describe similar events (Table 28).

Eleven percent of the group members claimed that no time had been "worst" for the group, no incidents had caused problems. Another 10

percent described singular events, that is, incidents not mentioned by any other person. There were patterns, however, in the responses of 80 percent of the participants. Twenty-three percent described an impasse when the group could not continue due to lack of funds or when members feared to go ahead because of the economic costs or risks. Statements typifying this problem included: "When we talked of consulting a fundi (builder) but when the time came for the fundi to be informed there was no money." "How to get money to finish the nursery school building." "When we didn't have money to buy iron bars for the oven."

In the four villages where women reported this type of problem, the lack of money appeared to be overcome one way or another. But there is little doubt a large number of participants saw obtaining finances as a major hindrance. For 27 percent of the women, the worst event was experiencing an economic loss, either directly or indirectly. These reports came from three villages: one where the group initially lost money on a firewood project, one where two hens in the poultry project died, and one where rabbits supplied by a government agency died after their arrival in the village. In each case, the women did not know how to rectify a deteriorating situation or did not take steps quickly enough. Some of these responses included statements such as, "When the rabbits started dying it looked to me like it was a very bad beginning. This made me feel very bad." "The death of the two hens." "The rabbits involve a lot of work and yet they don't pay because they die." "The loss we got on the first sale of firewood." There is little argument that for individuals with limited resources, loss of money or income opportunity is a significant and critical incident.

Thirteen percent of the respondents described as the "worst time" an event that had occurred before the Tototo-Kilemba project began. All but one of these reports were from the same village: a previous unsuccessful project and the losses -- monetary, personal, to group spirit -- that it caused. Interestingly, a major deterrent to progress of this particular group, in the view of project staff, was the fear, suspicion, and lack of confidence engendered among group members as a result of the reported failed project and two other unsuccessful ventures some years earlier. These responses add support to our general observation that just as success leads to further success, failure frequently leads to inaction -- a benign form of failure. In other words, a significant barrier to success for learning groups is fear of failure.

The balance of responses, 15 percent, fell into two somewhat similar categories. Seven percent of the women described an incident where they or another member failed to live up to group expectations: "Some members talk about another when sometimes she cannot afford cash contributions." "She was told she hadn't fed the poultry a good diet." "My handicrafts were returned as dirty and too small." The remaining eight percent described incidents that are essentially a variation on the same theme,

a time when someone benefited at the expense or potential expense of the group: "A husband complained the bakery is where it is because that is the leader's location." "Some members made their own bread...the bakery should be used to make bread for sale by the group." "When a member was given 90 shillings (from the group contribution system) then stopped attending."

These responses suggest that, as we would expect, group norms -- positive and negative -- are apparent and members exert influence over individuals to keep them in line with expectations. In addition, it is expected that members use group resources appropriately and benefits accrue to all members equally. This underscores that continuous maintenance of effective group process is an aspect of a successful learning group and, therefore, an ongoing concern for facilitators and coordinators.

"Worst Event" -- Participants' Perspective: Philippines. In the Philippines, of the 106 respondents 12 (11 percent) did not respond to the "worst event" question, and over half (51 percent) reported that there had been no bad time or worst event for the group (Table 29). It is likely that Philippine politeness and the desire not to offend accounts for the large number of people who claim no problems occurred. Of the remaining 38 percent, nine percent said the worst incident involved a member's failure to follow group policies or meet group expectations: for example, when one or several members misunderstood how group funds were to be used, violated an agreement on how to use project products, or didn't participate or follow through with tasks assigned.

Eight percent said the destruction wrought by Typhoon Khading constituted the worst event, and seven percent said that discontinuing group meetings was the event that was worst for the group (these eight individuals live in villages where facilitators were withdrawn and coordinators were to work under the direction of the representative of the partner agency). Finally, seven percent report that their worst time was when the group discussed a problem but failed to take action to solve it.

One person directly mentioned the difficulty between facilitator and representative of the partner agency, and two reported that irregular attendance was a problem. Three said lack of unity and disagreement within the group had been the worst incident.

Unlike Kenya, there was no prevailing pattern in the majority of responses regarding the major problem confronted by the group. As mentioned earlier, it is more likely that participants chose not to discuss a problem than that no problems were experienced. We found some similarities to Kenyan problems in the answers of those who did respond. For example, group norms related to how members are expected to behave are quite strong; when these are infringed upon, members view the in-

fringement as a serious problem. On the other hand, no Philippine participant of the significantly less than half who reported problems mentioned any difficulty in going ahead with their project due to lack of resources, or any real or potential loss of money by the group. These were the "worst events" most frequently described by Kenyan participants.

The Perspective of the Administrators. The views of project directors and field work supervisors regarding program implementation are made available to us in the two extensive interviews we conducted with them at midpoint and endpoint of the evaluation period and in the quarterly reports they submitted over the life of the project. Let us first discuss some issues common to Kenya and the Philippines.

Variance in staff abilities. Administrators in both countries found that their staff members, that is, facilitators and coordinators, varied significantly in their levels of ability. This was evident in at least three ways. First, some coordinators were more able than their designated mentor, the facilitator. In effect, in one or two cases the village representative turned out to be more effective than the staff person to whom he or she was apprenticed. Second, some staff members were excellent at one aspect of their work and poor at others. Several did not fully develop the range of skills needed for this particular learning approach. Some could lead a good discussion, for example, but were not able to help a group organize for action. Third, the skill with which field staff used materials was inconsistent. Some were able to diagnose group problems and use materials appropriately and effectively. Some were not. Although several became very skilled in using teaching aids analytically, one or two failed to do so at all. As a result of these gradations of skill, administrators had to give continual support to certain staff members. Some required little effort, some considerable.

Salary inequities. Occasionally money squabbles arose from staff members who felt they were more qualified than their pay or title reflected. A kind of judgement and maturity is needed to unknot problems, to intuit which materials to use and when to use them expressively, didactically or analytically. This judgement did not seem to be tied to a person's education or previous experience. As a result, these conventional ways to determine job titles for staff proved ineffective.

In the project hierarchy, facilitators were hired based on education and experience and they ranked over coordinators. In one or two instances administrators found they had to handle situations delicately when the coordinator functioned more successfully and confidently than did the facilitator.

Group expectations. Another problem experienced in both countries was the expectation by group members that the project would "do things" for

them in the way most other programs did. This was particularly acute in the early stages of program implementation. Group members in Kenya on one or two occasions complained to administrators that staff were shirking their responsibilities. "She won't go to get the license for us," for example, was a criticism from one group. "He expects us to do everything," complained another. Some groups in the Philippines were unhappy because PRRM did not give them pigs or chicks. The philosophy of building self-reliance was to be carefully followed by all facilitators and coordinators. Initially this was a problem for some village participants although it tended to dissipate -- especially in those groups with particularly able facilitators or coordinators.

Finding resources. A problem in mobilizing and coordinating needed resources emerged for administrators in both countries. The major sources of technical information and skills were other agencies and organizations. The intention of the program was to build the capability of groups to identify and gain access to available services and expertise; that is, to locate it and put it to use. This was not always easy. In most areas, the administrators were able to establish effective relationships with other agencies. In some instances, however, this did not occur and had an effect on group projects. Problems of coordination, for example, included difficulties in getting resource people to come to the village when they were needed, convincing agencies that groups fit their criteria for assistance and persuading agency representatives to provide assistance as determined by the group rather than to impose agency programs and services on the group. Two examples of the last point: an official agency in Kenya sent rabbits to a village group when members had not asked for them; duck-raising was chosen as a project by a group in the Philippines because an agency representative pressed for it. This outside assistance sometimes confused the groups ("Shall we raise rabbits or chicks?") or was ultimately ineffective because the members were not genuinely interested in pursuing agency objectives.

Other Variables. There were also variables over which administrators (or anyone else) had no control. Rain frequently interfered with plans. In the Philippines two major typhoons struck and in Kenya an extended period of mourning took place after the death of the first president of the country. In certain barangays and villages there were fasts, cholera outbreaks, drought, and other events that had to be accommodated in the plans and schedules of the project staff. In both countries there were unexpected increases in costs.

Problems arising in Kenya. In Kenya, the problem of unequal ability and unequal pay between coordinators and facilitators was particularly acute. In Kenya as well, administrators felt that the lack of seed money for groups was a problem. They believed that progress of group projects was impeded by the length of time it took to locate relatively small amounts of money. The staff decided to earmark some funds for

group projects and gave some as loans, some as gifts. In a later section we will assess the influence of this practice on success of the group projects. Nonetheless, in the view of Kenyan administrators, providing small amounts of money or material usually served to unstick groups where progress had stalled.

Problems in the Philippines. The practice of providing startup funds was not employed by PRRM, but administrators in the Philippines experienced a variation on the theme. Each of PRRM's partner agencies provided money and/or goods to the village groups they had organized. Provision of these commodities appears to have influenced the "loyalty" of group members to the given agency and its representative and the willingness of members to accept agency programs and services unquestioningly. These doles undermined the program's principle of developing self-reliance in the view of Philippine administrators. Indeed, as mentioned earlier, one barangay group in the Philippines discussed the issue and members actually asked PRRM's partner agency to stop giving them commodities. The process, in the view of group members, was causing dissension and frequently the commodities were not used. Although PRRM's partner agency concurred with this request and discontinued the practice, a few weeks later a government agency's new program in the barangay included provision of commodities to the same group.

There was another level of problem with partner agencies. We have fairly solid reason to believe that in at least one instance, a partner agency representative (since replaced) and an officer of one of the barangay groups, had an arrangement by which each benefited from manipulation of commodities designated for distribution to the group. In all, the administrators in the Philippines found that this practice of gift-giving worked significantly against project objectives.

The most outstanding difference between Kenya and the Philippines in administrative arrangements was PRRM's decision to work with partner agencies. This was in the words of the Philippine director "both a hardship and a blessing." In two barangays, where the collaboration was highly successful, the experience persuaded the partner agency to institute the learning approach throughout its programs. Work in the two barangays continues and other agency representatives are being trained in the approach. In those barangays where collaboration was not successful, at least two levels of problems were encountered. One level of problem was where the program ran counter to objectives or policies of the partner agency and resulted in the decision by one partner agency to ask PRRM to remove the facilitator. The reason: the facilitator was encouraging members to make their own decisions, rather than engaging them in the lessons dictated by agency policy and annual work plans. The other level of problem occurred where the program interfered with the agenda or goals of an individual agency representative. This problem is illustrated by the situation where a representative of one of PRRM's partner

agencies developed a special and confidential arrangement with an officer of one of the barangay groups and they manipulated funds to their own benefit. The open communication and group decision-making espoused by the learning approach jeopardized this arrangement.

PRRM experienced at least four kinds of difficulties with partner agencies:

1. PRRM was not always privy to partner agency decisions or actions and this made coordination difficult.
2. Some agency representatives as individuals had different agendas, arrangements, and feelings of obligation to barangay residents than had PRRM staff.
3. Some partner agency policies, goals, and objectives were not served by the PRRM project.
4. Some partner agency personnel were made uncomfortable and suspicious by the extensive data collection entailed in PRRM's evaluation methodology, fearing that the data would somehow be used against them and their work.

Factors in Program Implementation. From study of the preceding descriptive data, we may infer several things that influence the implementation of the learning approach. It is helpful for us to organize our discussion of these into four segments: administrative factors; methodological factors; intra-group factors; and contextual factors. The inter-relationship among these four factors worked for or against group success.

Administrative Factors: Doing too much or too little. A paradox in which Tototo-Kilemba and PRRM administrators found themselves caught was doing too much or doing too little for village groups. Administrators were the ones who gave ongoing guidance to facilitators and coordinators and who advised them in handling problems that confronted groups. Frequently the temptation was to provide a group with the answer, service, or resources it needed rather than hold back and struggle through the growth of the group's ability to secure these for itself. Knowing when to provide assistance that would trier a group's capacity to move forward, without making it dependent, proved difficult. Administrators in both countries developed to a remarkable degree the faculty to judge what kind of assistance and how much would be "growth-producing" for which group.

It is difficult to know if other administrators could develop their perceptivity and leadership to such a degree. Aside from the personal qualities that enabled these particular administrators to give such effective leadership, the strength no doubt was also associated with the

fact that administrators had relatively few facilitators and coordinators to guide, and could visit and keep abreast of events in each group. If the approach were to be replicated on a wider scale, staffing would need to be organized in such a way as to ensure that supervisors maintained this kind of close and personal involvement with learning groups, particularly in the early stages of their development. Over the life of the program, especially in Kenya, facilitators and coordinators themselves significantly improved their ability to make judgments about when and how to assist groups with answers, services, and resources. Initially, however, these judgments were arrived at after thorough discussion with the supervisors and were enacted under their guidance. This facet of administration was crucial.

Finding resources. Another aspect of administration that pushed for or against group success was the administrators' ability to coordinate effectively with other agencies providing resources and services. It was the project director and field work supervisor in both countries who made the important contacts and persuaded agencies to collaborate in the self-actualizing approach. This was often a delicate endeavor.

The project staff "owned" no development resources or money nor did they have technical expertise in agriculture, animal husbandry, and so on. Their expertise was in helping groups to organize and implement their own learning projects. Technicians and material had to come from agencies whose function it was to provide them. The problems of coordinating efforts of these needed resource providers were of two kinds: getting agencies to provide experts and material the group needed; and preventing agencies from providing experts and materials that groups were not ready to accept or could not use effectively.

Administrators faced other problems in channeling resources. In some areas several agencies were providing services. The administrator had to encourage representatives from each of them to coordinate with each other to respond appropriately to groups. In other areas, however, there were few if any services. In these cases administrators had to convince an agency to provide services to an area. In one sense, project administrators were ombudsmen or advocates for the village groups, a function they shared with field staff, who also helped members locate and mobilize needed resources. At the organizational level, however, it was the administrators who worked out collaborative arrangements and persuaded agencies to provide services to the groups.

The potential for conflict ran high because group goals and needs at any given moment could differ from the goals and needs of provider agencies at that point. Some agencies were highly flexible and readily organized their services to respond to the group. In most cases their agencies felt the project was consistent with their organizational objectives. This was particularly true in Kenya. Some agencies, however,

had other objectives that had to be met and by which their programs would be judged. These agencies could not be flexible and tended to look on this program as a threat to the accomplishment of agency goals. This was particularly the case in the Philippines. On the flexible end of the continuum were the agency representatives who became full-fledged collaborators with project staff and consulted with them frequently. On the rigid end of the continuum were those who demanded that our staff cease working with "their" groups.

Administering a self-actualizing approach is significantly different from managing a conventional learning program. It is less a matter of deploying people and material efficiently and equitably than it is of determining the nature of resources and assistance most crucial to developing in others competence of a group at a given point in time. It means interesting other agencies in providing appropriate resources and assistance.

Methodological Factors. There is little doubt that the use of learning aids not dependent on literacy skills and use of group dialogue as the primary learning method significantly increased the potential for interaction and problem-solving within a group. Participants enjoyed the group learning activities and acquired specific and particular information and skills. When materials were used well they helped to bring groups to decisions and actions. They were often the stimulus to moving a project along; catalysts providing the spark that moved to maintain momentum.

Problem solving. There were several problems associated with use of the aids and dialogues as stimulus to problem solving. True group dialogue, that is, critical explorations of the social, political, economic factors creating the problem, is difficult to achieve. The teaching aids were to present a problem the group was experiencing; discussion was to enable the group to see the dimension of the problem, to see it in its context, to discern action to take. The questions underlying the learning process were these:

- What problem do we confront?
- Why does it exist?
- What would help to resolve it?
- What do we need to know?
- What do we already know how to do?
- How can we learn the things we don't know how to do?
- What is our strategy or plan?
- Which of us will do what tasks to implement the plan?
- What outside resources and assistance do we need?

Facilitators and coordinators were trained to guide the analysis. Their subsequent ability to do so varied greatly. Some, indeed, undertook discussions to get information so that they, as leaders, could decide what the group should do. Some led discussions in which no critical analysis occurred at all. These were vague and ambiguous and decisions made were not connected to any real examination of the problem. Some had concluded before any dialogue what the group needed to do (e.g., the group needs to begin an income-generating project) and led members immediately to making choices among apparent options ("should we raise chickens or pigs?") rather than exploring the problem. Some became skillful in assisting group members to engage in critical analysis of problems and develop effective strategies.

Working as a group. Field staff needed to help the group learn to work together, resolve interpersonal conflicts, maintain open communication, develop trust, keep group spirits up, and so on. Initial training attempted to build the field staff's skill in positive group dynamics. Their ability varied greatly. This was due in part to the level of confidence of the facilitator or coordinator in her/his own interpersonal skills and the level of confidence group members had in him or her. There is little question that the group's confidence was influenced by the maturity, though not necessarily age, of the facilitator and coordinator. Young project staff members could experience success with their groups if they were mature and able to carry out their functions well. Being nearer the age of group members and being able to carry out the range of field staff's functions, however, appeared to be relatively more important in engendering confidence and enabling the group to collaborate effectively.

Achieving small successes. An aspect of the learning approach was to assist groups to achieve smaller successes leading to larger ones. This, as expected, proved highly motivational. Immediate or short range goals were identified (e.g., finish the poultry house, raise 1000 shillings, send four people to learn to bake bread) and their accomplishment created enthusiasm and momentum to carry the group to the next goal. In this way groups become self-propelling. Often they needed only minimal outside assistance and as long as that assistance was well timed and responded specifically to what the group needed, the momentum continued. An initial success was critical to eventual success. It was better (as in the case of Shimoni) to take a long time to agree on strategy and develop the courage to act and experience success than (as in the case of Chumani) to agree to a project in haste, fail to mobilize enthusiasm or resources, and fail in the initial endeavor.

One group (Likoni) enjoyed its initial success and chose to go no further. This was the exception. Others experiencing initial successes (e.g., Bomani, Mapangpang, Ngamani, and Sinasajan) moved on to other, generally more ambitious goals.

It is clear that the three most important skills to be learned by field staff to carry out this kind of learning approach are creating

dialogue and critical analysis of problems, facilitating group interaction, and setting explicit attainable, short-range objectives en route to the major goal.

Intra-Group Factors. The nature of the group itself appeared to be an important influence on success. The four most successful groups (Bomani, Mapangpang, Ngamani, and Shimoni) in terms of the relative magnitude and difficulty of their projects had several characteristics in common. Geography. They were the four hardest-to-reach villages, the most rural. They were also groups of long standing in their villages. The Bomani group, for example, had been together for over 10 years. None of these groups had been organized or "put together" by an outside agency representative. Outside agencies may have worked with the groups but they had been formed by the members for their own (as opposed to an agency's) purposes. Generally speaking, the members liked each other, trusted each other, knew and accepted each others' strengths and weaknesses. Generally speaking, virtually all the women in the immediate vicinity belonged to these groups. In three of these groups, the coordinator was a respected member. In Mapangpang the coordinator was the daughter of a valued member. And in each case, the facilitator was older than the coordinator and well-known to the group before the project began.

In all three groups where project activities terminated early, the members had been organized by representatives of assistance agencies. Although some members knew and liked each other, many were officially but not socially part of the group. In all three groups, members described themselves and were described by project staff as among the more well-off (e.g., more husbands were employed) in the population. There is some evidence that less well-off individuals in the community were not encouraged by members to join these groups. Where they were members, they were in a minority. These groups were less cohesive, that is, members did not function as a group beyond the activities of the organizing agency.

All groups were initially resistant to the program's basic premise of self-reliance and wanted the field staff to do things for them.

The ultimately successful groups responded relatively quickly to making decisions in their own behalf. The less successful groups tended to wait for direction from outside and to agree to activities when they were not actually committed to them. In some places this was due to a feeling of obligation toward organizing agency representatives or leaders. In some it was due to a certain kind of politeness: it was all right to agree because the issue at hand really wasn't important. In some cases there was fear that gifts and commodities might cease if decisions did not come from agency representatives or leaders.

Initial resistance to self-reliance dissipated most quickly for those groups whose members began to make headway toward their goals and recognize the success as a function of their own effort and effective assistance. The nature of the ongoing assistance that groups subsequently

received then became a major determinant of their ability to develop toward self-reliance.

The more successful groups could engage in more open communication and indeed question and challenge their leadership. The less successful, likely due to factors enumerated above, tended not to openly question decisions or actions.

Contextual Factors. In several ways the learning method itself, which is built on group problem solving and group dialogue, appeared more easily adaptable to some settings than to others. This point will be discussed at length in a later section, but should be mentioned briefly here. When the context in which the group operated was already more open, that is, when members could, by virtue of custom and accepted practice, question group officers or even leaders in the community, the problem-solving approach took hold quickly. This was the case in the majority of the Kenyan groups. Where the context was more hierarchical -- where custom, accepted practice, or necessity required that group members defer to officers or village leaders or other authority figures and not openly question their views or actions -- it took much longer for the learning approach to mature, that is, to be characterized by the openness needed to identify problems collectively and reach the level of analysis that might bring collective efforts to their resolution. Indeed, in at least two barangays in the Philippines this level of openness was never reached.

The case may well be made (as will be discussed in Part II) that the changes that the approach stimulated in the Philippine context were harder to document and harder to achieve. To move from raising no questions of those in authority to raising questions with all the attendant risks may be in the long run a relatively more significant outcome than more observable acts such as establishing projects and engaging in new health practices. Nonetheless, in some settings, primarily those in Kenya, the approach seemed to fit and flow more easily with established norms of behavior. In some settings, primarily in the Philippines, the approach encouraged a pattern for addressing problems that was new for many group members. It encouraged questions and group analysis of problems when it was customary in most sites not to engage in open inquiry.

The context for giving and receiving assistance, as has been discussed previously, differed significantly in the area of the Philippines and the area of Kenya where the program took place. In both places, development services, as is almost always the case, are organized categorically. One division of government provides agricultural extension services, another health, another business, another nutrition, another literacy and so on. In both countries, committees or councils of local leaders exist which are to plan with assistance agencies to help agencies address village development needs. In Kenya, however, the extension workers of one division of government are expressly mandated to coordinate local level assistance provided by all government agencies and to ensure that the assistance responds to local need. Although the system

works less than perfectly, agency representatives generally expect to cooperate with these extension workers when they visit communities. This pattern of assistance may have made "provider agencies" in Kenya more willing than those in the Philippines to cooperate with field staff to adjust their assistance to fit group requirements since government policy encourages an interdisciplinary approach and responsiveness to self-help efforts.

The extent and pattern of self help were significantly different between the two countries. This difference constituted another contextual factor influencing success of groups in reaching their goals. Harambee (self help) is a widespread practice in Kenya while bayanihan (mutual help) is known but not widely practiced in the Philippines.* Aid given to Kenyans by official agencies is specifically designed to recognize harambee efforts. Although there are some problems with this policy, it serves to reward and encourage collaborative effort. Assistance is given to groups and to communities, that is, to collectives of people who demonstrate that they can work together for development. As a result, it is not uncommon for a group to own land, animals, or equipment as a group. In rural areas this arrangement most frequently occurs informally, not subject to official or legal rules and regulations. Larger undertakings such as fishing or farming cooperatives also exist and adhere to official policies and requirements. Joint ownership and management in poultry business, bakery, and nursery school are not unusual.

In the Philippines, in the main, official assistance is given to individuals. Commodities are frequently provided to families at the village level through a group -- a women's club for example. But services are ultimately directed at individuals rather than toward group development. Official policy encourages cooperatives. These are managed under government regulations even when they are "pre-cooperatives" and involve only small numbers of people. Under these regulations the group owns shares and jointly manages the cooperative but it is almost always a formal process. Independent activity, however, is much more prevalent. Group membership may be a vehicle for acquiring resources but ownership and management are on an individual basis.

In Kenya, the learning approach emphasized group collaboration to reach group goals. They appeared to be consistent with established patterns for giving and receiving assistance. In the Philippines, the approach was complementary to policies focused on establishing formal cooperatives. Where a cooperative was not the interest, the group was generally used as a vehicle for achieving individual ends (pig or poultry raising, mushroom culture, tailoring and so on).

* One recent estimate is that only three percent of the Philippine population engages in bayanihan.

E. Summary of Conclusions : Kenya

There are several significant findings regarding achievement of the program as it was carried out in Kenya:

- Participants significantly increased their collaborative efforts for income generation.
- Learning activities, in the main, were ongoing; that is, participants continued moving from one project to another.
- Participants developed technical skills to a level of competence that enabled them to generate income. These skills were poultry-keeping, baking, firewood selling, or construction-related.
- Participants learned planning, problem solving, management and organizing skills.
- Participants learned to use community banks for their money.
- Participants increased their intake of protein food (i.e., eggs and poultry).
- Participants' children increased their intake of protein food (i.e., eggs).
- Participants increased their involvement in community projects -- contributing more time, money, and labor.
- Participants held more leadership positions in the community.
- Participants established projects that significantly increased family income or had the potential to increase family income.
- Participants' confidence significantly increased. Specifically they were more confident in their ability to earn income, to contribute to community development, and to achieve their own personal goals.
- Participants raised significant amounts of money as capital investment in their projects.
- Participants provided access for others in the community to new goods and services.
- Participants changed their relationships with service providers and officials, becoming more active and directive about assistance they required.
- Participants in three of the Kenyan villages showed an increased interest in obtaining literacy skills in order to manage their businesses, after participation in Kilemba. A simultaneous national literacy campaign may have influenced this interest.

- Participants' priority interest in five of six villages was to earn money.

Related findings help to describe in general how the process of the Kilemba project yielded these outcomes:

- The more skilled the facilitator/coordinator in the learning approach, the higher the global success of the group.
- The more successful the project undertaken by the group, the greater the group's confidence at the end of the program.
- The groups that grew most in confidence achieved most success.
- Small gifts from the sponsors at critical points in time were associated with groups' confidence.
- A group's ability to raise outside resources was associated with success.
- Spouses supported and assisted group projects and did not perceive them as disruptive.
- Spouses saw direct personal benefit from the groups.
- Village leaders, nonparticipants, and spouses all perceived the groups as positive role models.
- Participants of higher lifestyle (income, education, status) showed more significant change than those of lesser lifestyle, but both changed positively.
- Nonparticipants of higher lifestyle were more able to take advantage of new goods and services provided by group projects, although those of lesser lifestyle also took advantage of these.

PART TWO

OUTCOMES OF THE PROGRAM

I. EVALUATION DESIGN

In general terms, our program evaluation addressed the following question: Does a self-actualizing approach -- one based on learner-determined priorities, active learner involvement, and community support for learning activities -- yield outcomes that build the capability of individuals and communities to achieve development goals? Primary consideration, if we were to answer this question, had to be given to what indeed would indicate to us that learners had increased their ability and that learning outcomes paralleled development goals. We were, at the root of things, interested in behavior change. We wanted to know how the programs in Kenya and the Philippines enabled participants to act differently, to engage in practices more positive for themselves and their communities.

A. Key Indicators of Success

Our first task, therefore, was to generate a list of indicators of key variables. We believed we needed to enumerate before the program began those changes, given the program settings and intentions, we might see occur -- things we would want to account for in the evaluation plan. We undertook three steps to accomplish this task. First, we reviewed previous research and the development literature related to Kenya and the Philippines. This allowed us to identify changes other educators and development specialists had documented and deemed relevant in the two countries. The second step was to talk at length with staff members in both countries to determine what they believed would be reasonable and appropriate to expect from the approach as it would be carried out in each country. The third step was to have the resulting indicators reviewed by project consultants in Kenya, the Philippines, and the U.S. to discern which of them could be measured in some way in an evaluation scheme.*

We agreed that we should select indicators that would be easy for program evaluators, staff, and learners themselves to observe and report. The indicators would be considered gross measures of achievement. We were interested in what groups would achieve that would benefit individual members, the group as a group, and the community in general. We focused on observable and reportable behavior change rather than on changes in attitudes.

We also agreed that the extent to which certain indicators would be observable at a given site would depend on the impact of the learning project that groups chose to undertake in that village. As a result, some indicators may be evident at some sites for some or all of the participants in a particular group. One village or person may achieve on one indicator while another may not because learners selected different learning projects and the learning had differing impact on participants.

*This three-step process is described in Education for Development and the Rural Woman, Volume I, World Education, 1979.

To give us a basis for comparison we decided to collect data on a common list of indicators in each village even though we knew that they would not in the end be applicable in every case because of differences in projects and differences in the nature and extent of learning within groups and between groups. The behaviors we anticipated would change as a result of the program--that is, the indicators that we agreed would form the core items for our data collection effort--were as follows:

- Group members would join or develop one or more income-generating endeavors.
- Individuals would participate in these income activities over time.
- Group members would adequately learn the specific skills of the income endeavor to a level of competence that enables generation of income, e.g., poultry raising, beekeeping, handicrafts.
- Participants would develop skills associated with income endeavors, e.g., participate in a savings plan, become a credit guarantor, develop an accounting/budgeting system, participate in literacy learning, develop systems for organizing and managing activities.
- Individuals' incomes would increase by participation in these economic activities.
- Individuals would identify and use local resources in carrying out their projects.
- Individuals would transfer planning, organizing and managing skills from one specific project to another.
- Status of the participants' children would change positively; children would enroll in school; their general nutrition would improve; they would receive available health services (e.g., immunization).
- Participants would form or join mutual assistance groups or cooperatives for child care, food buying, income activity, etc.
- Participants would assume or be given leadership positions in the village.
- Status of participants' dwellings would change positively: home improvements would be evident, general sanitation practices would improve, etc.
- Participants would learn and use appropriate agricultural techniques.

- Participants would learn and use appropriate animal husbandry practices.
- Individual would increase their participation in community-sponsored development activities; they would contribute time, money or labor to water projects, school projects, etc.; or they would initiate development projects of their own.
- Participants' expressed views of their own abilities to contribute to family and community life would change positively.
- Participants' expressed confidence in themselves as parents would increase: confidence to provide for children in general, to provide adequate, nutritious food, and to provide sanitary living conditions
- Participants would act on certain basic health and nutrition principles: they would eat protein-rich food (e.g., eggs, poultry, legumes); seek immunization; keep water supplies clean; safely dispose of waste, etc.

Our documentation of project outcomes would focus on these items.

We also agreed that there might be related outcomes we could expect as a result of the kind of community relationships the learning approach encouraged. The educational process itself attempts to build and strengthen the learning group's position within the community as well as its members' ability to contribute to development. We, therefore, enumerated indicators of the program's eventual success in mobilizing community support and effecting community change:

- A majority of participants would regularly attend learning-group meetings.
- A majority of group members, in their own view, would experience more success than failure in reaching their personal learning objectives.
- The group, in the view of village leaders, would experience more success than failure in reaching group objectives.
- Village leaders would assist and facilitate group projects and activities.
- Spouses of participants would see benefit in project activities.
- Spouses of participants would assist and participate in group projects and activities.

- The group would develop its own ability to use the educational process, independent of outside project planners.
- Group members would continue to work together after the participation of outside planners and coordinators had ended.

B. Data Collection

We decided on two basic ways to collect data regarding these indicators. The first way, as has been described, was through what we might call our fieldwork, that is, the system of facilitator and coordinator logs and related staff reports collected over time at each site. The second way was through surveying of participants. We conducted intensive interviews with a sample of participants on three separate occasions: before activities were underway, at midpoint, and at the conclusion of the program. Village groups varied in size. In the smaller groups we tried to interview every member, generally 10 to 12 per group. In the larger groups, we drew a random sample of names from the group roster as it stood after three group meetings and drew it in such a way to ensure that at least one half the membership was interviewed.

We were also interested in changes we might see among program participants at endpoint as they might compare to nonparticipants. In both countries, staff decided that it would be useful to compare participants with nonparticipants in their own villages, but not to try to find matching groups in adjacent villages as comparisons. The situations and dynamics in each village were considered unique. It was thought highly unlikely that any one village group could be found that was representative of a group in another village, or that we could account for the many differences other than the learning program which may cause different outcomes in different villages.

In both countries, therefore, we decided to collect data from nonparticipants in the same villages. In Kenya, however, the decision was made to identify nonparticipants and collect data from them only at the end of the program. The reason for this was the staff felt that in the small villages where the program would operate, it would not be acceptable to identify nonparticipants before the fact. Residents who had not previously participated with groups might well join or lend support to group activities. To single out people by interview as "not members" at the beginning of the program might offend some and endanger the group's chances to achieve a supportive community atmosphere for the program. In addition, given the dynamics in the community, nonparticipants would be likely to declare themselves participants if encouraged by an initial interview. In Kenya, therefore, nonparticipants were identified and surveyed only after the program ended. Nonparticipants were selected at random from houses adjacent to participants' houses, where residents were known as not participating. A number of nonparticipants equal to one half the number of group members was sought at each site.

In the Philippines, staff saw no barrier to interviewing nonparticipants before as well as after the program. Group membership was

seen as fairly well set and staff believed no disruption or negative feelings would result from identifying nonmembers at the outset. As the barangays tended to be relatively populated, many people were not members of the same groups and were used to the idea of someone in a village belonging to one group while her or his neighbor might belong to another group. In the Philippines, therefore, nonparticipants were interviewed at the beginning and end of program activities. Nonparticipants were selected by visiting houses adjacent to those of members of the cooperating village group. Here too, we sought to interview a number equal to one half the number of group members (see Table 30).

As both experience and previous research has illustrated, one spouse is a powerful influence on the actions of the other. We wondered if the learning approach would elicit the support of spouses of participants and of other influential members in the community. Would it result in cohesion or be divisive to families and communities? We therefore selected spouses' names at random from the rosters of group members and interviewed them at the end of the program to try to answer these questions. We tried to survey at least one-third of the husbands or wives of participants. We also interviewed several spouses of nonparticipants in each village in order to get a perspective of support for the program in the larger community. They were selected at random for this interview (See Table 31).

At each site in Kenya the chief or sub-chief was interviewed at the completion of the program. In the Philippines, each barangay captain or his deputy was interviewed. At all three evaluation points, extensive interviews were conducted with each facilitator and coordinator and each director and field work supervisor.

C. Analysis of Data

Data collected on facilitator and coordinator logs were compiled by hand. Each complete set of logs, an average of 33 per group, in one sense constituted a group "life history" of events, problems, and accomplishments. Logs provided information on at least four dimensions of the program. First, each set was analyzed by program consultants; the information provided, augmented by other program reports, was the basis of the narrative descriptions of program events presented in Section One and Appendix C.

Second, because increased confidence was one indicator of program success, logs were analyzed for confidence exhibited by each group. We determined that four behaviors could be considered to be representative of confidence: willingness to take a risk; willingness to confront a problem; willingness to raise a question; and willingness to discuss a difficult issue. Program consultants reviewed the logs to identify incidents where each group acted with confidence or lack of confidence. These incidents were catalogued according to the month of the program to give some indication of increasing or decreasing confidence among the membership over time.

Third, logs provided descriptions of session objectives, learning methods and materials, participant attendance, and resources acquired. Data regarding each of these factors were compiled by hand. Review of learning materials and methods enabled us to identify and connect learning activities decided on in a group--for example, learning how to weigh and measure flour--with outcomes in the group--for example, most members being able to bake bread. The results of this kind of analysis were presented previously in Part One.

Fourth, logs were reviewed for problems described by field staff in implementing their tasks. These were compiled and categorized and were discussed earlier in Part One.

Data collected through midpoint interviews were also processed by hand. Interview questions (Figures 2-4) were primarily open-ended and focused on the learning process as it was experienced by learners and field staff. We compiled responses to questions, categorized them inductively and then computed simple frequencies and percentages. We selected anecdotes representative of commonly held points of view or experiences from the extensive materials to serve as illustrations.

Data collected in the pre- and post-program interviews were compiled and analyzed by machine. Data were punched onto IBM cards, and in most cases transferred to disks. We analyzed data by computer, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Change scores for pre- and post-responses to each questionnaire item were computed. We used

the McNemar Chi Square to determine the statistical significance of pre- and post-changes. Differences between responses of participants and nonparticipants were also computed and again the Chi Square was used to identify if differences were statistically significant.

In addition to change scores, we were also interested in whether any combination of factors might account for changes among participants rather than participation in the program, or if certain factors in addition to participating in the program enabled greater changes. To explore these questions we formed a lifestyle index from questionnaire items and cross-tabulated it with other questionnaire items related to program outcomes. We did this for both participant and nonparticipant data. The index was created by giving respondents one credit for each of the following characteristics:

- (1) having attended school for any number of years;
- (2) having lived in their community for a substantial period;
- (3) having any income-generating activity on an individual basis;
- (4) having any income-generating activity on a group basis;
- (5) holding office in a community organization;
- (6) having as their main source of income their own salary, their husband's salary, or cash crop farming;
- (7) having a latrine near their residence;
- (8) each language they read; and
- (9) each language they write.

In the case of the Kenyan participants, Philippine participants and Philippine nonparticipants, the before program scores were used to measure lifestyle. In the case of the Kenyan nonparticipants, before program scores were not available so after program scores were substituted. We determined the amount of variance on several of our indicators accounted for by lifestyle among both the participants and nonparticipants in key evaluation variables.

Finally, we were interested in what factors or conditions pushed groups toward success. How did certain actions on the part of program administrators, group members themselves, and other lending assistance, influence success in a given village? We took three steps to explore this question. We asked program administrators and consultants to rank order each village on its global success, that is, the extent to which they believed the group achieved its own objectives and achieved

accepted development goals. These ranks were collapsed into one rank order for each country. We also computed the amount in shillings or pesos that the members had been able to raise outside the group for investment in their projects. We also totalled the amount of loans and of gifts from the project which had been made by the program administrators to help groups through difficult times. We then employed the odds ratio and its 95% confidence interval, a statistical test which is particularly effective for analysis of data when the number of cases is small. Using this test we were able to determine the relative significance of a variable such as loans or gifts on the global success of a group, and the relationship between such a variable as global success and items in our survey data, for example, increased confidence of a group. We also used the odds ratio procedure to analyze data collected in interviews with spouses to determine differences among and between spouses of participants and spouses of nonparticipants on demographic factors and specific questionnaire items, such as views on program effectiveness, the type of encouragement they give their spouse, and so on.

D. Problems with the Data

We confronted few problems in collecting baseline and midpoint data in either country. Project field staff were the data collectors, and they were familiar with village and barangay settings and comfortable in conversation with rural people. Field staff were trained and deployed in teams to collect data in villages other than those where they were directly working with a group. Similarly, few problems other than logistic ones emerged in collecting facilitator/coordinator logs and other program reports. Field work supervisors continually stressed the importance of staff carefully completing and submitting logs and lent their full assistance when it was needed.

We experienced little difficulty in collecting endpoint data in Kenya. As during the baseline collection period, it took approximately two weeks per village at endpoint for field staff to locate and interview participants, nonparticipants, spouses, and chiefs. Although arduous for staff (some interviews had to be conducted by moonlight so as not to interfere with normal work routines and some spouses had to be sought at their place of employment), respondents were forthcoming. Many told staff that the interview itself was interesting and, for several, an enjoyable event. We found subsequently an acceptable level of consistency and stability in the Kenya survey data.

However, we experienced several major problems associated with endpoint data in the Philippines and these problems severely constrain our ability to make judgments about the program there based on survey responses. There is no consistency or continuity in the pre to post responses of the Philippines participants to the survey questionnaire. The instability of our data set can be seen in two primary ways. First, the normal association of pre and post responses that we would expect to be exhibited whether or not change had occurred, did not emerge in the data. Patterns of answers of the same individuals pre and post are inordinately inconsistent. Second, events that we had witnessed and documented on the weekly logs and in other program evaluation materials either were not reported by many individuals, or their reports did not conform to our verified observations.

Program staff in retrospect have identified two main causes of the unreliability of Philippine post-survey data: the first is a high degree of suspicion on the part of respondents and the second is what some other Philippine researchers have called the "show-case" response, that is, presenting oneself as needy.

Suspicion. The Philippine administrators decided to train local university students as endpoint data collectors rather than use facilitators and coordinators; administrators felt the press of work could be better handled by a larger number of people. In addition, PRRM had been co-

operating closely with the local university and wanted to continue to involve its staff and students in program activities. About 30 students were trained and sent in teams of four or five to participating barangays where they were introduced to residents by PRRM staff. The rural barangays in Central Luzon where the program was carried out have historically been areas of political unrest. We were to learn that during the final evaluation period there was much activity at the local level among those critical of government. In an effort to quell this local activity, the government quietly deployed law enforcement teams to many barangays to keep the peace; in some cases this included incarceration of residents. Traditionally, university students in Luzon have been involved in organizing and encouraging local opposition activity. We believe that village residents were frightened by the fact that law enforcement people might be in the area, and uncertain about the role and presence of the university students assisting PRRM. As a result they tended to be suspicious of interviewers and indeed may have held back or adjusted their responses based on their own ideas of what was safe and not safe to discuss.

Presenting Oneself as Needy. As has been described at length in Part One, providing commodities to residents by official and voluntary agencies is a practice of long standing in Luzon. One reason for this vigorous giving has been widely discussed in the country. As Luzon has been historically the area of political unrest, agencies have poured more and more resources into that area in part to keep down the level of dissatisfaction. Residents in rural Luzon barangays are accustomed to receiving assistance. In part, this assistance is justified to the people as provided to them because they are needy. Residents associate being needy with the assistance they receive. As a consequence, we believe, respondents to the endpoint questionnaire may have tried to present themselves as needy, that is, to adjust some of their responses to paint a picture of need.

There is still another reason put forward by staff for inconsistency in data; however, this explanation accounts for only two villages. Several participants in these barangays reported to program staff after the fact that representatives of PRRM's partner agencies in these locales had discussed the evaluation with them before final data collection. The representatives cautioned participants not to give answers that would cast any negative light on the agency or its representatives. In such a situation it is highly likely that participants felt pressured and constrained during their interviews.

The factors described above make us reluctant to trust Philippine survey data. We believe the qualitative data from logs and other program reports provide more reliable information about program outcomes. We were able to exercise much more control over these data; they were collected unobtrusively over time. Therefore we will lean primarily on

these data for our following discussion of findings. In Kenya, we will draw from both survey and field work data, as we believe them to be equally reliable and internally valid.

II. FINDINGS: PROGRAM OUTCOMES

In reporting the data describing outcomes of the self-actualizing program, we will discuss results in three ways:

1. the impact of the program on participants as individuals,
2. The impact on groups, that is, the collective of participants in each village;
3. the impact on others in the community: spouses, leaders, and non-participating residents.

We will also report Kenya and Philippine data separately and, as described previously, we will draw heavily on fieldwork data in the case of the Philippines.

A. Program Impact on Participants in Kenya

There were very few significant differences on individual demographic items between participants and nonparticipants at the Kenya sites. In Chumani participants represented a wider range of ages than nonparticipants, none of whom was over 30. In Chumani, as well, participants differed from nonparticipants according to religion. While some nonparticipants claimed to be Muslim or have no religion, no participant made such a claim. All participants in Chumani were married with no co-wives, while several nonparticipants were single, divorced, or had a co-wife.

In Mukoyo almost two-thirds of the participants had lived in the village 10 or fewer years and three quarters had lived there 16 or fewer years. All nonparticipants had been born in Mukoyo. On all other demographic dimensions participants and nonparticipants were similar at each site.

When lifestyle factors are considered in combination, that is, our lifestyle index as described in the previous section, there was no difference between participants and nonparticipants except in Chumani and Mukoyo where the participants' lifestyle is somewhat higher.

There are two useful ways to look at the Kenya survey data on participants. The first way is to look for changes among participants as a whole on indicators of interest. The second way is to look at views and practices of participants related to the indicators at the end of the program as they compare to views and practices of nonparticipants.*

* Differences reported here are significant at the .05 or better level unless noted (95 percent confidence limits).

Changes Among Participants as a Whole: Kenya. Tables 32-39

present pre and post scores for participants on the indicators discussed below.

Health and Nutrition. Wherever possible, field staff encouraged group members to eat protein rich foods. Indeed, the poultry and egg projects in two villages created new access to these foods for people in the areas. Participants were more likely to report that they ate chicken twice or more times a week after the program than before. There was a marginal trend for children to eat eggs at least twice a week or more after the program than before (Table 32). There were no changes related to eating other protein rich foods: fish, meat, legumes.

There were no statistically significant changes in the population as a whole related to the other health behaviors: owning a latrine and boiling drinking water. Although field work data illustrate gains in specific villages on some specific health practices, no population-wide change emerged regarding a health practice. Neither were there significant differences in the population on individual health knowledge items which included a list of healthful things to eat and healthful practices. The participants had scored very high--95-98 percent correct-- on these knowledge items in the baseline survey and again scored very high at endpoint.

After the program participants were as likely to rate their state of health "fair" as "good," whereas before the program their modal rating was "good" (Table 33). Program participants experienced several events that probably influenced them to move their ratings downward. Some had physical examinations because of their learning project or contact with field staff, some had exposure to healthy role models for the first time in the person of field staff, and most discussed aspects of illness in group meetings. These events may have caused some participants to reform their definitions of health and become more critical of their health status.

Community development. Participants reported a higher degree of community participation after the program (Table 34). Their participation increased related to harambee (village self-help); that is, they contributed more time, money, or labor to community activities and more participants came to hold leadership positions in village councils or organizations.

Literacy. In three villages coordinators were asked by their groups to teach literacy in order that they could keep accounts. In two villages the coordinators were paid an additional small amount to do so by the Ministry of Social Service. Participants were more likely to report that they could read their own language after the program than before and there was some tendency to report that they could write more (Tables

35 and 36). As will be discussed in the next section, one village appears to account for most of this change. Although the National Literacy Campaign was initiated during the Tototo-Kilemba program, teachers sent by the national campaign did not arrive in the program villages until after the program evaluation. Nonetheless these data must be considered very cautiously as individuals may have known about the campaign and may have been persuaded by this knowledge to respond in the affirmative. Group members claiming to read and write could be accounted for on coordinator's literacy class rosters.

Income activities. As would be expected, given the choice of learning projects, participants engaged in significantly more income earning activities on a group rather than individual basis after the program (Table 37). They were more likely to raise poultry and less likely to engage in subsistence farming after Tototo-Kilemba. Participants were also much more likely to report that their own salary was the main source of their income as opposed to reporting no income, husband's salary, digging (subsistence farming), or so on (Table 38). These participants apparently not only learned income generating skills but came to see themselves as "earning people." Participants were also more likely to have opened bank accounts after the program.

Confidence. One of the indicators on which we have seen the most dramatic change in Kenya is global confidence. The expressed confidence of participants increased fourfold (Table 39). Global confidence comprises confidence to earn income, to attain one's goals, and to participate in harambee. These expressions of confidence no doubt resulted in largest part from participants having the experience of some success. This is evidence for the program theory that undertaking smaller manageable steps builds faith in one's own ability. In the following section, we will discuss at greater length the integral relationship of confidence and success.

Participants Compared to Nonparticipants. Comparing participants with nonparticipants is a somewhat risky business. The major reason is that in small, closely knit villages like those at the Kenyan coast, the effects of a program can touch everyone in a village; in a sense there is no such thing as a nonparticipant. The comparison is made even more complex because we do not have pre-program data for nonparticipants and do not, therefore, know where they were in terms of views and practices prior to Tototo-Kilemba. Nonetheless comparing the data we do have gives us hints and clues as to where the program may have been particularly effective and least effective.

In addition, as one might expect, when questionnaires are completed at field sites some data are missing. This could pose a problem when we look at village data by specific items if it resulted in numbers too small to enable our statistical tests to be accurate. In reporting

the data above we took missing data into consideration and reported only those results where we felt the problem was not evident. However, in reporting village-by-village data for both participants and nonparticipants, missing data is much more of a problem. As a result of missing data, we frequently saw either no significant differences, or differences on items that did appear significant simply because there were insufficient data for one group or another (that is for participants or for nonparticipants). There were only two items where village differences appeared significant. Missing data were not a problem. In Shimoni it appears that at end point participants ate more chicken than did nonparticipants. It is possible that in Shimoni members allowed each other greater access to poultry than was allowed to nonmembers. The number of nonmembers in Shimoni is relatively small and these nonmembers, as discussed previously, live farther away from the village than do the group members. It may be that lack of access because of distance was a reason for the difference. In Ngamani and in Mukoyo participants are somewhat more likely than nonmembers to eat eggs. In reviewing lifestyle data by village we see that it is only in Mukoyo and in Chumani where there is any significant difference between participants and nonparticipants. In these villages lifestyle of participants is higher. As lifestyle is associated with egg eating in general one infers that in Mukoyo the higher lifestyle of members accounts for the difference in egg eating. In Ngamani the difference in egg eating between participants and nonparticipants is marginal and here it may well be that participants allowed somewhat greater access to their own members than to nonparticipants. Tables 40 through 49 present the data described in the narrative below.

Health and Nutrition. At the time of final evaluation, participants in general were not more likely to eat eggs or chicken (we used the measure two or more times a week) than were nonparticipants (Tables 40 and 41). We do see an increase in the consumption of chicken and eggs among participants, and participants were much more likely than nonparticipants to raise poultry by end point (Table 42). We would infer that nonparticipants either ate more chicken and eggs to begin with, or more likely, that they also increased their consumption by end point, since the learning projects that established new sources of poultry made eggs and chicken available to everyone in the village.

On the other hand, participants were much more likely to report that their children ate eggs two or more times a week than were nonparticipants (Table 43). It is highly likely that the fact that nutrition and child health were discussed in the Kilemba group meetings encouraged participants to feed eggs to their children. There were no differences between participants and nonparticipants on other health or nutrition items.

Lifestyle. As discussed at the beginning of this section, we wondered if a woman's lifestyle caused her to participate in the program and if lifestyle rather than project activities accounted for differences we might observe. Lifestyle, as described earlier, refers to those factors that suggest a person's income level, education level, and status in the

community. Although we found no significant differences in lifestyle between participants and nonparticipants, we wondered if even very slight pre-existing differences may have been associated with greater confidence among participants. We felt that perhaps even small differences between the groups might have contributed to the participants' significantly higher levels of confidence. Even when pre-existing differences are accounted for, however, participants had more confidence after the program than did nonparticipants (Table 48). This is also the case for having opened a bank account (Table 49). Participants at end point were more likely than nonparticipants to have opened a bank account regardless of lifestyle.

We did see that lifestyle was associated with other indicators: eating eggs and chicken and taking part in income-generating activities. In every case, however, the association was seen both among participants and nonparticipants. Lifestyle accounted for higher consumption of protein foods and greater involvement in income activities for both groups.

Community Involvement. At the time of final evaluation, participants held more village offices and contributed more time, money or labor to community projects than did nonparticipants (Table 44). As discussed earlier, participants significantly increased their community involvement pre to post. Nonparticipants may also have increased their community involvement, yet it remained significantly below the level of participants; only one participant scored above zero on the community involvement index.

Income Earning. Participants engaged in significantly more income earning on a group basis at end point than did nonparticipants (Table 45). They also were much more likely to have opened a bank account (Table 46). No differences were seen between participants and nonparticipants on other money-related items such as giving or receiving credit or loans.

Confidence. As discussed, participants' confidence in themselves to produce income, reach their objectives, and contribute to community life increased greatly (Table 47). The difference between the level of confidence of participants and nonparticipants at the time of the final evaluation was significant, with participants exhibiting much higher levels. We know participants increased significantly pre to post on these items. We also saw significant final differences between the level of involvement of participants and nonparticipants in income activities. We were able to see that the program was particularly effective in enabling participants with a higher lifestyle to engage in income-generating activities. That nonparticipants with a higher lifestyle were less involved in group and individual income activities indicates that the program and not lifestyle alone accounted for differ-

ences. This finding does not mean the program was ineffective for participants of a lower lifestyle level but that the combination of program and lifestyle pushed toward more income activity. This may well be the case because individuals with a higher level of lifestyle are likely to have more resources to use for these activities.

We saw no differences between participants and nonparticipants when it came to the extent that adults eat chicken and eggs. We do see that eating these protein foods is associated with lifestyle. We know participants significantly increased their consumption pre to post and that program learning projects created a new source of poultry in areas where they were established.

Subsequently, we are able to infer that it was likely nonparticipants of a higher lifestyle who were able to take advantage of these new sources. Again, this does not mean individuals with lower lifestyle did not take advantage but that higher lifestyle accounted for consumption of more protein food.

This is not the same for the extent to which children eat eggs. This is associated with lifestyle both among participants and nonparticipants, however, there is a difference between the two groups. Participants' children increased their intake pre to post and ate more at endpoint than children of nonparticipants. For participants we are able to infer that feeding children eggs involved lifestyle, having a new source, and encouragement from the program. Nonparticipants, even when they were of higher lifestyle and had a new source, did not feed their children eggs as extensively as participants.

When we looked at the relationship between lifestyle and attendance by participants at Kilemba group meetings, we saw no association. That is, having a higher or lower lifestyle was not associated with attending more or fewer meetings. Neither was high or low attendance related to gender, education, age, religion nor marital status of participants. Participants who attended fewer meetings were more likely to be those who were farmers either of subsistence or cash crops. Low attenders were also more likely than high attenders to keep livestock. Otherwise there were no statistical differences between the two groups.

B. Impact on Village Groups Kenya

When we look at results of the program survey village by village, we are able to understand even better the ways in which the Kilemba program had effect or did not. There are two ways we will examine the data describing each village: first, by comparing village participant groups with each other; second, by reviewing which village participant groups by themselves exhibited statistically significant changes pre to post on the indicators.

Village Groups Compared with Each Other. Given both pre-existing differences among cooperating village groups and differences in the way the Kilemba program took hold at each site, we expected to see, and indeed did see, significant differences village by village. At this point we will review the survey data for each place and urge the reader to keep in mind the description of program events and problems discussed in Part One.

In discussing each village group we will describe how the participants as a collective compared with participants in the other villages at the beginning and at the end of the program. We will only report data which proved statistically significant.*

Bomani. The Bomani learning project was building and operating a bakery. Before the program, Bomani was higher than average in community participation; did more than average individual earning activities; and did handicrafts and poultry in groups more than average. After the program, Bomani was less likely than average to do handicrafts and poultry -- or any earning activities -- individually, did more group earning activities, and had more confidence after than before the program. Bomani women obviously gave up individual income activities for group ventures as a result of Kilemba.

Chumani Chumani, the reader will recall, is the village where the group of participants tried poultry and rabbitry and eventually disbanded. Before the program, Chumani was less likely than other Kilemba groups to do individual earning activities. After the program, Chumani was lower than the average of Kilemba groups in confidence, higher than average in the number of individual earning activities and earned more as individuals after the intervention than before. On the other hand the village undertook fewer than average group earning activities and had below average change in community participation.

Shifts in individual income-earning activities may well be associated with the addition of handicraft making which the women took on as a means to raise capital for their poultry project. Members, as reported by Tototo staff, learned to produce fine crafts. These crafts were not sold through Tototo-Kilemba but may have been sold elsewhere. The group

* At the .05 or better level.

in Chumani did not succeed in establishing a group project and appeared to have difficulty in any group endeavor. The relative low level of confidence and community involvement is likely associated with the very limited extent to which the Kilemba program took hold.

Likoni. Likoni is the village where women began and continued to operate a successful firewood business but moved to no additional learning projects. Before the program, Likoni was less likely than the average of Kilemba groups to do individual earning activities, and was also less likely than average to do handicrafts and poultry in groups. After the program, Likoni was less likely to do individual earning activities in general; and did fewer group earning activities than average: Likoni participants, however, had a greater-than-average gain in confidence.

In Likoni the success of the firewood business appears to have developed confidence among the members.

Mukoyo. Mukoyo is the home of the group that built the nursery school. Before the program, Mukoyo members were above the average of Kilemba groups in community participation. After the program, the Mukoyo group was more likely to do handicrafts and/or raise poultry individually, less likely than other groups to do earning activities in a group; and had a greater than average gain in confidence from before the program to after the program. The fact that the Mukoyo group initially had more members than other groups who were involved in community activities may in part explain the group's success in mobilizing so many resources for building their school. The lower-than-average level of group earning is no doubt related to the fact that members chose the type of learning project they did rather than to start a business--the choice of all other groups.

Ngamani. In Ngamani group members began poultry and egg production. Before the program, Ngamani did fewer than average individual earning activities. After the program, Ngamani did fewer than average individual earning activities, and fewer than average earning activities in groups. Members were less likely to do individual earning activities after the program than before but were more likely to do group earning activities after the program than before.

Ngamani also had a greater than average change in community participation from before the program to after the program.

Shimoni. In Shimoni, members began a poultry and egg business. Before the program, Shimoni was lower than the average of Kilemba groups in community participation; was more likely than the average of other groups to do individual earning activities; and was less likely than average to do handicrafts and/or poultry in groups. After the program, Shimoni was higher than average on confidence compared to other groups;

did fewer than average individual earning activities; and was more likely than the average (in fact, most likely) to do handicrafts and/or poultry in groups and was more than average in group earning activities. Members also had greater community participation after than before the program and were less likely to do individual earning activities after than before Kilemba.

Shimoni was more likely to do handicrafts and/or poultry as a group activity after than before the program. The gain in Shimoni in community participation from before to after the program was above average as was the gain in confidence.

These participants also put their efforts primarily toward group endeavors as a result of Kilemba. Handicrafts became a way to raise capital for their poultry project and their subsequent success yielded both increases in confidence and in the extent of members' involvement in community activities in general.

Significant Changes in Particular Villages. In some cases, particular sites appear to account for much of the change seen in general among Kenyan participants. In other words, when we look at some indicators, we see statistically significant differences* for single villages. This, for example, is the situation for Shimoni: we see a significant difference in the ability to read the local language. In Shimoni, Ngamani, and Bomani, we see change in the number of group members who opened bank accounts.

In Shimoni, Ngamani and Likoni, participants were more likely to feed their children eggs twice or more times a week. In all villages but one (Chumani), participants were more confident that they could contribute to harambee. In all but one (Ngamani) they were more confident that they could earn income. And in three villages, Shimoni, Likoni and Mukoyo, their confidence that they could attain their personal goals increased significantly.

*at the .05 level or better

Group Confidence - Group Outcomes on Specific Indicators. We believed a learning process entailing development of a group project through the kind of joint discussion, decision and action encouraged in the Kilemba program would increase the members' chances of experiencing success. We also believed that the experience of success itself, and of engaging in dialogue and action, would develop group and individual confidence. This confidence may well be seen, we reasoned, in the way members as a group responded to problems and opportunities over time, as well as in the expressions of confidence of individuals in their own ability.

We decided, therefore, to review the meeting logs for signs of group confidence or lack of confidence. We decided to use as indicators of a group's confidence the members' willingness or unwillingness to take a risk, confront a problem, raise a question, and discuss a difficult issue as reported in the logs. In no way did we think that these would be complete, definitive, or sensitive measures of confidence. They did, however, provide us with another way to observe the process occurring in groups and to see in a very general way collective confidence as evidenced in group decisions increased pre to post-Kilemba. Each log was reviewed to identify incidents, that is, major moments in the project, where members exhibited or failed to exhibit confidence. These were compiled for two time periods: the first six months Kilemba operated in the field and the second six months it did so. The percent of incidents where the group was willing to behave in a confident way was then computed. For example, in the first six months, out of 21 incidents the Bomani group took the confident course of action on 16 occasions, that is, in 76 percent of the incidents. In the second six months, of 18 incidents, in all of them, or 100 percent, Bomani exercised confident behavior. This illustrates an increase, or upward trend for the Bomani group from 76 to 100 percent.

Four groups -- Bomani, Shimoni, Ngamani, and Mukoyo -- increased in confidence behavior while Chumani and Likoni decreased (Table 5G). Likoni was most confident at the beginning stages of the program. This was the group that experienced early success and did not continue on to additional learning projects. Chumani exhibited the lowest level of confidence in the early program stages relative to other groups and by the later stage, exhibited virtually no group confidence at all. The greatest increase in confidence behavior was in the Mukoyo group which had next to the lowest numbers of confidence behaviors early on. Shimoni and Ngamani increased by the same amount over time, and Bomani, which showed next to highest confidence behavior in the first phase, also increased in the second.

These data of group confidence behavior are relatively consistent with the individual reports of confidence by members in response to the survey questions.

When we look at the several questions related to the level of confidence of group members by village pre- to post-Kilemba, we see, in general, statistically significant increases in all sites except Chumani. Despite the events in the Likoni logs which show a decrease over time in

confidence behavior as judged by evaluators, the members appeared to feel more confident as measured by positive expressions of their own abilities. These expressions were likely based on the early success the group experienced.

Global Success. We also see that increase in group confidence was linked to the "global success" of a group. Global success is the program planned rank of the relative order in which groups achieved their own goals and the extent to which those reflected generally accepted development goals. The ranking assigned the Kenya groups was: 1-Bomani, 2-Shimoni, 3-Ngamani, 4-Mukoyo, 5-Likoni and 6-Chumani. We see that this rank order is the same as the rank of relative confidence behavior shown in the later stages of program activities. These data help to show the integral relationship of confidence to success and vice versa and the critical importance of the confidence building aspect of the Kilemba approach.

The rank order of global success of villages was also exactly the same as the rank order of coordinator skill in using the SAM approach as evaluated by program administrators and consultants. Coordinator skill was rated based on his or her ability to carry out the various facets of the role described in Part One. The more skilled the coordinator was in using the approach, the greater the likelihood of global success.

In order to see the relative effects of raising outside resources and of providing small gifts and loans at given points in time, we used the odds ratio procedure described previously. We saw some interesting correlations. Our observation of the critical dimension of confidence was again supported. Global success was positively correlated with the level of confidence of participants after the program. Those who grew most in confidence were the most successful. Gifts from the sponsor (Tototo) correlated positively with confidence. The gifts in the main were very small (Table 51). It is quite likely that it was the timing of the gift and what it signified to the group that was influential rather than the size of the gift. Such gifts were deployed when groups were stuck and no doubt were seen as an expression of the sponsor's confidence in the group to succeed, and this likely served to build members' confidence in themselves. Loans, gifts, and raising outside resources all correlated positively with global success. The latter had the strongest association. A group's ability to raise outside resources was highly correlated with the success of the group's project. The Kenya groups clearly shifted to more group activity as they recognized their ability to cooperate and saw in very concrete ways the fruits of collaboration.

C. Family and Community Outcomes: Kenya

To this point we've considered primarily the impact on group members of participation in the Kilemba project. What about the benefits or drawbacks of such a program from the perspective of spouses and others in the community? Are there certain characteristics about some individual that make them more encouraging of their spouses' involvement in

such a learning program? What about the value of the group's projects for individual families and for the community at large? To begin to answer these questions, let us first look at responses of spouses of Kilemba participants and spouses of nonparticipants.

Spouses. We have responses from 41 Kilemba husbands and 20 husbands of nonparticipants (Table 52).

On almost all dimensions, there were no statistically significant differences between husbands of Kilemba participants in the six villages: not in age, education, religion, employment (although Chumani husbands were most employed), level of community participation, kind of support given groups, and spouses' views of benefits of participation. There were, however, significant differences on some variables. Husbands in Chumani were more likely to read and write their own language, Kiswahili, and English as well. Husbands in Mukoyo and Romani were most likely to attend group meetings, while no husbands in Shimoni or Chumani ever attended a meeting. In Shimoni, many husbands were fishermen and unlikely to be in the village during meeting time. Similarly, many husbands in Chumani were employed outside the area. Chumani husbands were the only ones to state that their wives were not succeeding in their efforts.

As one sees, husbands in the main were supportive of the groups' efforts and saw family and community benefits proceeding from them.

There were no differences found among nonparticipants' spouses according to which village they lived in. Four-fifths of these husbands approved of the program in their village and wanted their wives to join. Three-fifths of the husbands believed the Kilemba group was reaching its goals and said they had actively encouraged their wives to join a group.

Husbands of Kilemba program participants differed significantly from those of nonparticipants in several ways. They were somewhat older and had higher levels of education. They were more likely to be Christian or to practice traditional religion, and they were more likely to be members of a village group, committee or organization. Further, they were more likely to think the Kilemba groups were succeeding.

According to spouses' responses to the questionnaires, we see that a significant majority believe the program benefited their families and them as individuals. The majority of wives discussed group meetings with their husbands and many husbands gave assistance to the group. This may have been as minimal as "allowing my wife to attend" or as involved as helping with heavy work, or as in one case, guarding the group's chicken coops at night. Indeed, other spouses in the community were generally positive about the program and its community benefits. Nonparticipants themselves, that is, women who did not take part, were also quite positive about Kilemba. The term nonparticipant, however, as described earlier, is tenuous in three villages in Kenya. In Shimoni, the only nonparticipants were women who lived too far or claimed they were too old or too sick to participate. In Ngamani most nonparticipants

were women who lived a great distance from the core group. In Bomani, women who did not participate were eager to. The Kilemba group had become "too big" (53) in the members' view. These nonparticipants were being helped by the group coordinator to organize a second group.

In the other three villages there were different reasons for nonparticipation. In Chumani, there was no real group activity to join because of the difficulty women experienced in getting started. In Likoni, the group seemed fairly well defined by its members who were not so interested in recruiting others. This was definitely the case when business began to flourish. In Mukoyo, the size of the nursery school effort and its relative cost was actually a reason for some members' leaving and for others' staying away.

Benefit to Families. An important question is whether membership in Kilemba groups benefited participants as individuals and as family members. There are several ways to view benefit in this regard. One would certainly consider increased confidence in the ability to provide for one's family a benefit. Changes toward eating more protein-rich food would be a benefit, and so on. However, since it was generally consistent that participants in the Kilemba program stated that the problem they faced was lack of money, and they sought to alleviate this problem in their learning projects, it seems appropriate to define benefit as the extent to which the program aided members toward resolving this specific problem they identified.

First, let us consider the extent to which participation in the program yielded income or would yield income for group members. To do this we will review each project separately. It must be noted that in only two villages, Likoni and Ngamani, had members actually shared directly in any proceeds from their businesses at the time of final evaluation. In these places, profits were equally distributed. In the other two villages, Bomani and Shimoni, profits had been reinvested in the group projects. Mukoyo will be discussed separately as it was a project with a different intention.

Likoni. In this group, the firewood project was yielding net proceeds of more than 200 KSh a month (approx \$30 US) with potential for greater volume. There were 11 active members sharing proceeds and each took her turn at work two days per month. The net profit to each member per day worked was about 10 KSh (approx \$1.30 US). The annual return to a member at this rate would be 220 KSh (approx \$30 US). If the group members were to realize a 20 percent increase in their business, the annual return would be almost 280 KSh (about \$40 US). This increase was highly likely and would entail no additional time spent per person per month. Using a figure of 1750 KSh (approx \$250 US) average annual per capita income in Kenya, one sees that a program participant could earn through her project 16 percent, or about one-sixth of the average Kenyan income.

Ngamani. At the time of final evaluation, Ngamani members were realizing net proceeds of 1050 KSh (about \$150 US) per month. The 28 members each

worked the equivalent of one day a month tending the chickens and coops. This meant a return to each member of about 38 KSh (about \$5.00 US) per day worked, and an annual income of 456 KSh (approx. \$65 US) for the equivalent of 12 days worked. The market for eggs in the area was very good. Were production to double (from three to six trays per day) the annual yield per member would be 912 KSh (\$130 US) with little increase -- only about a half day -- in time per month. If production were to triple, which would be possible given the available market and the increasing skill of group members, the annual yield per member would be about 1368 KSh (\$195 US) for the equivalent of 24 days work.

Shimoni. Members in Shimoni at the time of final evaluation were not yet sharing profits but were using them to prepare for business expansion. The potential for individual earning, however, was very high. There were 25 members of the Shimoni group. Proceeds from egg selling at the time of final evaluation netted 580 KSh (\$83 US) per month. Each member worked one day a month and earned 22 KSh (\$3 US). This would provide an annual income of 267 KSh (\$38 US). Members also took home a ration of eggs each week. Each egg was worth about 3 KSh (40¢ US) which would constitute a savings in the food budget. Potential for marketing eggs in the area was very good and the group was expecting to increase production significantly.

Bomani. There were 53 Bomani group members, each of whom worked two days a month at the bakery. At endpoint, all proceeds were reinvested to cover the costs of having the tea kiosk built, and other bakery capital expenses. Net monthly proceeds at the time of final evaluation were 1160 KSh (\$165 US). Once members began to share profits, this level of business would yield an annual return to each member of 264 KSh (\$38 US). Should production double, which was well within sight, a member could earn 528 KSh (\$75 US) per year for four days work per month. If a third oven were installed, and production tripled, the women could earn 792 KSh (\$113 US) per annum for about five days work a month.

The figures suggest that earnings realized by groups were in amounts large enough to make a significant impact on the family budget. Depending on the group to which a participant belonged, individual earnings could yield as little as one-sixth of the per capita Kenyan annual income (1750 KSh or \$250 US) to as much as one-fourth. Potential annual return based on firm and conservative projections suggest a range from one-fourth to three-quarters of the per capita income.

Mukoyo. The one village where the learning project was other than income-generating also appeared to yield benefits for family and community. The Mukoyo nursery school was conceived of as a child center by the group. Here they would expand their group lessons on child care to others in the community in addition to providing school work for children. The nursery school operated on the basis of fees families paid per child. This is customary procedure in Kenya, and the school is open to all members of the community. Nursery school is the first step to formal education in the country and children must complete it to move on

to later forms. The institution of such a school has significant impact on the families in the area as it directly affects the future of their children.

Benefit to Communities. The process of development has two aspects. One aspect is the development of human resources. A second aspect is the provision of essential services and the development of the physical means of production. Development is an interaction of human and physical resources in producing the desired goods and services to improve the quality of life. To produce beyond mere subsistence, people must develop advanced tools and skills. One of the most important functions of education is therefore to facilitate the acquisition of new skills, both manual and mental, and behavior and values that are conducive to productive work and improvement of life situations.

Therefore we must consider whether or not the Tototo-Kilemba program yielded outcomes enhancing these broader aspects of development. There are several ways to consider this issue. It can, for example, be separated into two elements. One has to do with the learners as community residents who are at once the means and ends of development. The other has to do with the community structures and services that are the means of development.

- a. Were human resources developed, that is, were capabilities developed that would assist people to improve the quality of their lives and help to resolve village problems?
- b. Did the configuration of relationships and services in the community change positively, that is, did the program help bring change in the community structures that would enable and support individual and collective change?

We see through responses of those outside the groups that in the main, the efforts of five of the six Kilemba groups were accepted in their villages and not perceived as disruptive. Indeed, most individuals outside the groups saw group effort as directly beneficial to the community.

There are four ways, described to a greater and lesser degree by members themselves, and by project staff, spouses, and village leaders, in which the impact of Kilemba learning projects on the wider community can be categorized:

- a. Provision of products and services

Each of the five completed projects provided access to new goods and services for village residents. In most cases this was access to food: poultry, eggs, bread. In one case, access was to fuel and in another, to schooling for children. Each was perceived as needed and complementary to community life.

b. Transferable skills

The skills learned by group members were those which could be (and in most instances already have been) transferred to new situations. Women learned how to learn. They learned how to organize, plan and manage, seek resources, develop working relationships, demand services, and teach each other. They also acquired technical skills (poultry keeping, baking, construction). The former kind of learning can be applied to other problems or opportunities. In Bomani, for example, the bakery women proceeded to new activities: a tea kiosk, and organizing a new group for poultry keeping.

c. Role models

The successful groups provided models in their villages of what could be accomplished. The prestige and status of members in their own view, in the view of their spouses, and of village leaders has increased. This is of particular note as each project village was a place where community development programs historically had not taken hold. The existence of a successful group with a visible product of its work was considered by most individuals as a valuable example of "how to do it" for others in the locale.

d. Change in community relationships

Ultimately, perhaps the most significant impact of a development program is the extent to which it changes the structure of relationships within an area. It is clear that a major problem confronting the rural poor is their relative powerlessness in the face of people and systems that purport to serve them.

The lack of change is not attributable to the recalcitrance of people but to the inadequacy of systems intended to enable people to achieve. Therefore, a most important consideration regarding the worth of the Kilemba project is whether or not it assisted women to establish and elicit more productive relationships with representatives of services and government. In four of the five projects, there is little doubt that the group members acquired new political skills that resulted in different relationships. At a minimum, groups established relationships with village leaders where none had existed. In the most complex projects (bakery and nursery school), members won assistance in large part by learning how to demand service and by presenting themselves as a constituency to political leaders. By learning to demand service, women shifted the traditional pattern in which agency representatives come to a village and tell residents what they will do for them, to a pattern where groups called in representatives and told them how they could best assist the group. This pattern was very evident in Bomani, Mukoyo, Ngamani and Shimoni. In effect, group members moved from a passive relationship with service providers to an active one.

Summary of Conclusions

There are several significant findings regarding achievement of the program as it was carried out in Kenya:

- Participants significantly increased their collaborative efforts for income generation.
- Learning activities, in the main, were ongoing; that is, participants continued moving from one project to another.
- Participants developed technical skills to a level of competence that enabled them to generate income. These skills were poultry-keeping, baking, firewood selling, or construction-related.
- Participants learned planning, problem solving, management and organizing skills.
- Participants learned to use community banks for their money.
- Participants increased their intake of protein food (i.e., eggs and poultry).
- Participants' children increased their intake of protein food (i.e., eggs).
- Participants increased their involvement in community projects -- contributing more time, money, and labor.
- Participants held more leadership positions in the community.
- Participants established projects that significantly increased family income or had the potential to increase family income.
- Participants' confidence significantly increased. Specifically they were more confident in their ability to earn income, to contribute to community development, and to achieve their own personal goals.
- Participants raised significant amounts of money as capital investment in their projects.
- Participants provided access for others in the community to new goods and services.
- Participants changed their relationships with service providers and officials, becoming more active and directive about assistance they required.
- Participants in three of the Kenyan villages showed an increased interest in obtaining literacy skills in order to manage their businesses, after participation in Kihemba. A simultaneous national literacy campaign may have influenced this interest.

- Participants' priority interest in five of six villages was to earn money.

Related findings help to describe in general how the process of the Kilemba project yielded these outcomes:

- The more skilled the facilitator/coordinator in the learning approach, the higher the global success of the group.
- The more successful the project undertaken by the group, the greater the group's confidence at the end of the program.
- The groups that grew most in confidence achieved most success.
- Small gifts from the sponsors at critical points in time were associated with groups' confidence.
- A group's ability to raise outside resources was associated with success.
- Spouses supported and assisted group projects and did not perceive them as disruptive.
- Spouses saw direct personal benefit from the groups.
- Village leaders, nonparticipants, and spouses all perceived the groups as positive role models.
- Participants of higher lifestyle (income, education, status) showed more significant change than those of lesser lifestyle, but both changed positively.
- Nonparticipants of higher lifestyle were more able to take advantage of new goods and services provided by group projects, although those of lesser lifestyle also took advantage of these.

D. Program Impact in the Philippines

As discussed earlier, comprehensive assessment of the Philippine program is impossible because of the unreliable post-program survey data. Tables 53 through 68 show survey information related to the core items for evaluation. These illustrate few post-differences between project groups and comparison groups and few differences pre- to post- among participants.

There were one or two interesting differences between participants and nonparticipants before the program began. We feel baseline data is reliable, as it was collected without the problems confronted at endpoint. These shed a little light on the people who took part in the Self Actualizing Method (SAM) compared with those who did not. Participants in SAM were already more involved in income related activities pursued on a group basis (47% of participants vs. 13% of nonparticipants). Nonparticipants were much more active in keeping poultry as an income activity which they pursued independently, not in a group (72% of nonparticipants vs. 46% of participants). While well over half the participants -- 60% -- reported that they engaged in subsistence farming (where palay was not sold as a cash crop), slightly more than a quarter (28% of the nonparticipants) reported subsistence farming. Almost twice as many participants belonged to one, two, or three community groups or organizations than did nonparticipants (43%). Participants also reported being more able to read than did nonparticipants. They had both more children and more children in school than nonparticipants.

Community Participation and Confidence. The above data suggested that SAM participants were more group oriented at the beginning of the program than were nonparticipants. They earned more income in groups, belonged to more organizations, spent less time in subsistence farming, were more literate, and had more opportunity for connection with formal institutions in the barangay such as the schools. Table 53 illustrates that SAM group members participated significantly more in their communities after the program than did nonparticipants and the level of participation of SAM group members changed significantly from before to after the program, if we are willing to accept the post-program survey data regarding this questionnaire item. However, the level of participation of nonparticipants also increased significantly pre- to post- and SAM members were more active originally.

As increased confidence is an important anticipated outcome of this kind of a learning approach, and as we have fieldwork data from the facilitator logs as well as survey data, it is interesting to review confidence findings. Again, when considering survey results, we do so only after calling attention to its statistical unreliability. Pre- to post-confidence reported by group members increased significantly according to survey data. A corresponding trend among nonparticipants was only marginally significant. Nonparticipants were slightly more confident than participants before the program (not statistically significant). Tables 54 and 55 illustrate that there were no differences after

the program between either group. This finding holds even when lifestyle is considered. In sum, if we use these data, we see that there is some small evidence that participants grew more in confidence pre - to post-SAM than did nonparticipants.

Field work data, however, show a definite increase in confidence behavior in three of the four Philippine barangays where the program continued to endpoint. Table 57 presents graphically the observed confidence behavior in the first and second half of the program period. Sinasajan, Labney and Mapangpang all exhibited more group confidence in the second half of the program period than in the first. The Balingog East group, based on data from log reports, did not change in confidence behavior.

In the four barangays where groups continued to participate, SAM members succeeded in implementing projects which yielded them income. Income related projects were the learning choices in all four villages.

Income. In Mapangpang a group of 27 women established a sari-sari store. The shop served barangay residents. It operated under the rules for pre-cooperatives, which members learned during a special course they organized and conducted. Nine members bought shares, initially, and other members gradually bought as they could afford to. The first supplies of stock for the store were purchased by funds raised through a community dance and proceeds from the sale of products from a communal garden. Sales increased initially from 100 to an average at endpoint of about 300 pesos per day. The store is managed by two individuals hired by the group. Shareholders earned 150 P each at their first distribution of proceeds (less than one year after initiation). (The Philippine government estimates that a family of six needs 5000P per annum for subsistence. World Bank 1978 reports the per capita income of Filipinos is 2409P -- US\$344.) It is likely that the figure of 200P is closer to what each shareholder will actually receive as they earn or save money through patronage refunds. This amount is equivalent to about eight percent of the per capita Filipino income. As the business does not interfere with other activities, this can be considered direct profit (less the initial cost of 10 pesos per share). This is comparable to one month's salary. In addition, as members control the price of goods, they cut five to eight percent off the cost of those goods if purchased from another vendor. This additional saving varies from family to family with the amount of goods purchased.

In Sinasajan, 16 members began two projects: poultry raising and pig dispersal. Classes in the care of each were conducted. Three members began care of 200 birds each after funds were raised from a national organization. A first harvest of chicks was realized. The group president then took over care of 300 additional chicks and reported a loss on the first harvest to the funding organizations. Most group members preferred not to be involved with poultry at this point and another group effort was begun. A pig dispersal project was established with nine pigs purchased with funds raised from individuals and from a community agency initially supplied to nine members. Thirty-two piglets

were born by endpoint and seven of these given to the remaining group members. The relative value of this first litter of pigs, according to breed, can be illustrated as follows:

Nine Sows (One native pig died)
Eight females survived

Breed	Semi Member	Imported Member	Native Member	Semi Member	Semi Member	Imported Member	Semi Member	Semi Member
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	4 fem. 3 males	aborted	1 male	4 fem. 4 male	2 fem. 3 male	3 fem. 1 male	3 fem. 4 male	abort.

Litters -- Total: 16 females, 14 males

		<u>Pesos Earned</u> <u>If sold at six months</u>	<u>Pesos Earned</u> <u>If sold as piglets</u>
Females	Imported	1500P	300
	Semis	1000	150
	Native	750	120
Males	Imported	1200	300
	Semis	800	150
	Native	600	120

The monthly cost of feeding piglets and older pigs is as follows:

	<u>Piglet</u>	<u>Grown</u>
Imported	46P	322P
Semi	33	168
Native	33	168

If, for example, member #6 sold two female piglets and one male after two months, she would realize a profit of 624P. If member #1 sold all her piglets after two months, she would realize a profit of 588P. To keep a pig until it is full grown, particularly an imported breed, is costly, and indeed can result in a loss to a family if food is not carefully rationed and the best possible price obtained. Members fare best by selling piglets early. When this is done, pig raising can yield significant profit.

In Balingog East, a group of 28 participants planned and implemented a tailoring course. A total of 19 individuals from the barangay completed the course. One graduate was sent by the group for advanced dressmaking training and she subsequently conducted a course for six children of group members.

The fee for the original lessons to each member was 35P. Three sewing machines in the barangay were available to group members. The

labor costs saved to a family per item of clothing (trousers, simple dresses) averaged about 35P. Therefore, for each item needed the family saved a significant amount by having a member sew instead of buying the services of a dressmaker or ready made clothing. If a family of six needed six pieces of clothing in the first year, they would save 175P (labor, less 35P fee).

The Balingog East group also established a pig dispersal project beginning with three pigs which had not yet given litters at endpoint.

In Labney, the group members started a fermented fish selling business. The fish was sold at a comparable cost to that sold at market. The main advantage to the group was the convenience of the staple and whatever travel amounts were conserved by not having to go to town for the product. A small profit was realized but this amount was not to be shared among members but contributed to the group fund. The profit was actually taken in loans by several members and at endpoint had not been repaid.

In Rio Chico and San Augustin, 19 and 9 members respectively took part in dressmaking classes which would yield family savings as described in Balingog East. In these sites program activities ceased before midpoint.

Spouses. As in Kenya, the majority of spouses of members and nonmembers both were favorable towards program activities. Table 68 illustrates that over half the members' spouses had directly given assistance to the groups. Approximately three quarters felt the group was achieving some success and had discussed group meetings with their spouses. Over 80 percent felt the groups benefited their communities and three quarters felt they had personally benefited.

Spouses of nonparticipants were somewhat less enthusiastic but in the main were positive. Spouses of participants differed from those of nonparticipants on several dimensions. More of them were members of barangay groups or organizations, fewer of them claimed to be employed and more of them claimed to encourage their spouses to take part in groups and organizations.

Community. One aspect of the program fully explored in the Philippines was the potential for its expansion. Over the life of the program, the staff has shown that a variety of individuals and agencies can be trained to use the SAM learning approach. Groups in three additional barangays were started and in the initial program villages, groups other than the original six have been organized. Young people, in particular, have been responsive to the approach. Five youth groups have been organized. Two are in the original barangay and three in new villages.

Three adult groups have been using the approach in new barangays. Among them, these groups have succeeded in establishing four pig dispersal projects; one goat dispersal project; one cooperative store; one fermented fish selling business; and a new chapel. In achieving this expansion, PRRM has collaborated with two additional partner agencies. One of these is Wesleyan University which now incorporates training in the SAM learning approach as part of their curriculum for preparing social workers.

Four of PRRM's five partner agencies continued to support facilitators working with the initial villages after endpoint. This is possible as facilitators are in effect employees of these partner agencies. No barangay group had by endpoint earned enough to cover the amount paid by PRRM to coordinators, although coordinators are eligible to participate in earnings or savings of their groups whenever these are forthcoming.

Summary of the Conclusions. From these limited data one sees that the SAM program increased the confidence of participants to achieve their personal goals and to confront problems and discuss difficult issues. In two barangays, Majarung and Sinasajan, groups gained the means to earn or potentially to earn significant amounts of money. In three, where dressmaking courses were organized, notable family savings resulted from group projects. Spouses actively supported and provided assistance to members. Others in the community were supportive if less enthusiastic. By using original staff members as trainers, the PRRM administrators were able to institute three additional adult learning groups and five youth learning groups. Evidence that the approach is effective can be easily replicated.

III. IMPLICATIONS

The self-actualizing learning approach is intended to design holistic education in which the emphasis is on the process -- discussion, decision, action -- over content. In building people's capacity to analyze and resolve problems, planners hypothesized that learners could and would seek such content, information, and skills as they might use. This education is very different from education where content is predetermined and teachers try to persuade learners to be interested in and accept the messages. The approach is based in the idea that rural poor can develop the confidence to try new things that will bring them closer to goals they set for themselves. These goals, planners anticipated, would be parallel to generally accepted development goals: higher family and community income, more vigorous community participation, improved health and nutrition, and more productive and appropriate relationships with service providers.

The Tototo-Kilemba and SAM programs set about to train village residents with limited education and work experience to be able to help group members get organized, set goals, learn skills needed to reach those goals, gain confidence, and work collaboratively. These accomplishments, it was expected, would yield positive development outcomes.

The program to an extensive degree has illustrated that these intentions have been realized. As we have described, the context of each program -- that is, the country, culture, administration -- had a major bearing on the way in which the learning approach evolved. But if we look at the 12 sites as a whole we can see in general terms where successes were and what factors enabled success or resulted in failure, regardless of the context.

In five villages (Mapangpang, Bomani, Shimoni, Ngmani and Mukoyo), there was resounding success. Here participants had good to excellent facilitators and coordinators who were able to carry out the discussion, decision, and action dimensions of their roles. Here too, groups were initially more cohesive, were not formed for the purposes of an agency or outsider. The members were often friends of long standing, perhaps influenced by the somewhat isolated nature of their villages. Here service providers from other agencies were cooperative. In these villages, groups grew strong and became fully collaborative. The program positively changed participants' abilities and their views of themselves, their self-confidence, their health and sanitation, the eating patterns of their families, the amenities in the community, goods and services in the villages, and their relationships with service providers. Lifestyle was a factor. Those who already had access to more moved farther, but those who had less access were not left behind, indeed they moved forward significantly. This simply underscores the fact that people are able to make more or less use of learning programs on their initial social and economic advantage. The programs in both Kenya and the Philippines reached both more and less disadvantaged people and the approach succeeded

with both. Development of confidence was not tied to lifestyle. Across-the-board, participants grew in self-confidence and behaved confidently as groups.

In four villages (Iikoni, Balingog East, Labney, Sinasajan), there was more limited success from the program perspective. Groups achieved much in the projects they established, but anticipated outcomes were not of the magnitude of the first five. Much of what held back the full development of these groups was the members' difficult relations with each other and with the service agencies purporting to help them.

In three villages, again from the program (and not necessarily from the participants') perspective, there was little or no success, although two succeeded with projects nonetheless. The groups did not continue beyond midpoint of the program, and their potential as program learning groups was not realized. These groups had little cohesion initially and facilitators selected or had assigned to them coordinators who were less able in carrying out their range of skills.

One is able to see that the program in general had significant impact: when use of the approach was coupled with a highly able field staff and a cohesive group, the results were remarkable.

The primary importance of the self-actualizing method one sees as a learning system. It is unlikely that the small projects developed by learning groups will overturn stagnant economic systems in their communities. The projects build skills and capabilities; they are learning laboratories at the same time; they yield positive results in terms of family and community goods and services. Nonetheless, the program is most important as one where people learn by doing, learn things applicable to an array of development problems, and serve as role models to others in the community. Not the least of things that the participants in successful groups learned was how to demand more appropriate, effective services from assistance departments and agencies by presenting themselves as an organized and knowledgeable constituency.

It is vital to remember, at the end of such a complex, far-reaching development-learning program, that 90 percent of the participants were preliterate and that despite their lack, achieved outcomes more valuable to development than many literacy programs. There is some anecdotal evidence that group members sought literacy as a result of their participation. Regardless, this program demonstrates that it is needless and wasteful to "wait for literacy" before mounting ambitious and sophisticated development programs. People can master skills, grow, achieve. The learning simply must be designed to enable them to move in the direction of their interest and potential.

Tables and Figures

TABLE 1.

Number of Logs/Meetings

Table 1, below, lists the number of group meeting logs completed over 13 months for each village in the program. This number reflects the number of group meetings held during the time span considered the project evaluation period.

<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Logs/Meetings</u>	
KENYA		
Bomani	49	
Chumani*	40	
Likoni	37	
Mukoyo	32	
Ngamani	30	
Shimoni	<u>28</u>	216
PHILIPPINES		
Balingog East	37	
Labney	29	
Mapangpang	27	
Rio Chico*	25	
San Augustin*	17	
Sinasajan	<u>13</u>	148

*Project activities terminated early

A total of 216 (Kenya)
148 (Philippines)
 764

Average - K = 35
 P = 29.5
 (eliminating dropouts)

A total of 764 group meetings were held over the 13-month implementation of the program (216 Kenya, 148 in the Philippines).

TABLE 2

Classification of meetings held by village groups

Percentage* of Meetings Focused On:

<u>Village</u>	<u>Group Development</u>	<u>Organizing for Work</u>	<u>Subject</u>
KENYA			
Bomani **	20%	46%	34%
Chumani	22	53	25
Likoni	23	60	18
Mukoyo	32	57	11
Ngamani	20	37	43
Shimoni	35	22	43
Average %	25%	46%	29%
PHILIPPINES			
Balingog East	11	47	42
Labney	11	67	22
Mapangpang	23	43	33
Rio Chico **	69	69	31
San Augustin **	14	27	57
Sinasajan	16	40	44
Average %	18%	43%	38%

* errors due to rounding

**villages where project activities terminated

TABLE 3

Percentage of meetings devoted to specific topics

<u>Village</u>	<u>Dressmaking & Tailoring</u>	<u>Garden & Agriculture</u>	<u>Banking</u>	<u>Health & Sanitation</u>	<u>Literacy & Measuring</u>	<u>Diet & Nutrition</u>	<u>Animal Husbandry</u>	<u>Family Planning</u>	<u>Cooperatives</u>	<u>Total</u>
KENYA										
Bomani	--	6	4	8	6	4	--	2	--	28
Chumani	--	--	--	3	3	6	13	3	--	28
Likoni	--	--	3	--	3	--	--	3	--	9
Mukoyo	--	--	--	8	--	--	--	--	--	8
Ngamani	--	--	10	7	7	7	13	7	--	51
Shimoni	--	--	6	8	6	3	16	--	--	39
Subtotal	0	6	23	34	25	20	42	15	0	
PHILIPPINES										
Balingog East	8	16	--	--	--	--	16	4	--	40%
Labney	--	18	--	--	--	7	--	--	--	25
Mapangpang	--	17	--	3	--	--	3	--	3	23
Rio Chico	7	--	--	--	--	7	--	--	--	25
San Augustin	--	14	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	14
Sinasajan	--	4	--	--	--	--	32	4	--	40
Subtotal	15	69	0	3	0	14	51	4	3	
Total	15	75	23	37	25	34	93	19	3	

TABLE 4

Percentage of meetings where teaching aids were used

<u>Village</u>	<u>Meetings Where Teaching Aids Used</u>	<u>Meetings Where No Teaching Aids Used</u>
KENYA		
Bomani	50%	50%
Chumani*	40	60
Iikoni	43	57
Mukoyo	64	36
Ngamani	55	45
Shimoni	86	14
PHILIPPINES		
Balingog East	70%	30%
Labney	52	38
Mapangpang	93	7
Rio Chico*	100	0
San Augustin*	57	43
Sinasajan	76	24

* project activities terminated

TABLE 5

Teaching aids recalled: Kenya

<u>Type of Aid</u>	<u>Number Recalled</u>	<u>Percent Recalled</u>
-animal husbandry	17	22
-sanitation and hygiene	5	6
-child care	4	5
-family planning	3	4
-adult literacy	1	2
-group development	30	23
-organizing for work	17	22
-described no aid	<u>12</u>	<u>15</u>
Total	89	99%

TABLE 6

Teaching aids recalled: Philippines

<u>Type of Aid</u>	Number <u>Recalled</u>	Percent <u>Recalled</u>
-cleanliness/keeping a model home	12	11
-plant/vegetable/mushroom growing	9	8
-family planning	5	5
-tailoring	2	2
-vices	2	2
-piggery project	2	2
-miscellaneous	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>
	35	33
-group development	29	27
-organizing for work	27	26
-described no aid	<u>15</u>	<u>14</u>
Total recalled	106	100%

TABLE 7

Type of meeting most enjoyed: Kenya
N=77

<u>Type of Meeting</u>	<u>Percentage of Responses</u>
-income related decisions and activities	15%
-decisions to take action	29
-outside assistance or promise of assistance	15
-developing ways to cooperate	7
-all meetings enjoyed	13
-no meetings enjoyed	<u>6</u>
Total	85%

115

TABLE 8

Type of meeting most enjoyed: Philippines
N=106

Type of Meeting	Percentage of Responses
-income related decisions and activities	6%
-an outside person gave assistance or information	5
-being shown how to do something	7
-reaching an agreement to take an action	12
-planning or carrying out out a task to move project along	13
-visitors attended	9
-we were together, cooperating	7
-singing and games/social events	13
-all meetings enjoyed	6
-no response	7
Total	85%

NAME OF VISITOR

NUMBER OF VISITS AVAILABLE

AVAILABLE C

Agriculture

Health (includes clinics)

Welfare

Family Plng

Political / (Coops) []

May

June

July

Aug

Sept

LIKONI
Agric - An. Husb.
(8) Home Econ.
25 (3) Health
(2) Welf. - Soc. Ser.
(1) Fam. Plng.
(1) POLITICAL (5)

⊙ Foreigner

1ukoYO
AGRIC - AN. HUSB.
(5) HOME ECON.
15 (12) HEALTH
Welf. - Soc. Ser.
(1) Fam. Plng.
(1) POLITICAL (4)

Ngamani
AGRIC - AN. HUSB.
(5) HOME ECON.
17 (4) Health
(4) Welf. - Soc. Ser.
(1) Fam. Plng.
POLITICAL (4)

THUMANI
AGRIC - AN. HUSB.
7 (7) HOME ECON.
10 (2) Health
(1) Welf. - Soc. Ser.
Fam. Plng.
POLITICAL (3)

SHIMONI
AGRIC - AN. HUSB.
(1) HOME ECON.
8 (1) Health
Welf. - Soc. Ser.
(1) Fam. Plng.
(5) Political (4)

30MANI
AGRIC - AN. HUSB.
HOME ECON.
11 (13) HEALTH
(1) WELF. - Soc. Ser.
Fam. Plng.
(8) Political

(4)

at cabinet in ...

18

9

7

5

9

TABLE 10

Availability of services: Philippines

Village	Number	Event
Balingog East: (14 mos.)	3	distributions of commodities (partner agency)
	3	health unit discussions of health, nutrition, family planning
	3	social activities (partner agency)
	1	activity of Brigades
	<hr/> 10	
Labney: (14 mos.)	4	distributions of commodities (partner agency)
	1	health unit discussion of contraceptives
	3	activities of B'gag Brigade
	2	activities of Community Education Commission
	1	<u>ba.angay</u> meeting to discuss improvements of Chapel
	<hr/> 11	
Mapangpang: (14 mos.)	4	distributions of commodities (partner agency)
	2	distributions of commodities by government
	2	health unit health discussions
	3	activities of Community Education Commissions
	<hr/> 11	
Rio Chico*: (6 Mos.)	2	cooking demonstrations (partner agency)
	1	distributions of typhoon relief commodities
	1	social activity (partner agency)
	<hr/> 4	
San Augustin*: (6 mos.)	1	nutrition lecture (partner agency)
	1	distribution of typhoon relief commodities
	<hr/> 2	
Sinasaan: (14 mos.)	3	unspecified activities of partner agency
	2	distributions of commodities (partner agency)
	4	social activities (partner agency)
	1	brigade activities
	<hr/> 10	

* project activities terminated early

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TABLE 11

Five problems cited most frequently: Kenya

<u>Problem</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>
Lateness	24	6
Can't find critical resources/markets	13	5
Lack of cooperation among members	13	4
Staff refuses/fails in responsibility	12	3
Rain causes poor attendance	11	4

TABLE 12

Attendance problems: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>
6	Lateness at group meetings	Bomani	2
		Chumani	6
		Likoni	1
		Mukoyo	6
		Ngamani	3
		Shimoni	6
			24
5	Low attendance at group meetings	Bomani	1
		Chumani	3
		Likoni	1
		Mukoyo	2
		Shimoni	3
			10
3	Low attendance at project activities	Chimoni	3
		Likoni	5
		Ngamani	1
			9
	Total		43

TABLE 13

Attendance-associated problems: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
5	Illness of members or staff	Bomani	3	8
		Chumani	1	
		Likoni	2	
		Ngamani	1	
		Shimoni	1	
4	Rain	Bomani	1	11
		Mukoyo	1	
		Ngamani	4	
		Shimoni	5	
Total				19

TABLE 14

Problems involving Project Staff: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
3	Staff refuses/fails in responsibility	Chumani	5	11
		Likoni	5	
		Ngamani	1	
3	Dissension between facilitator and coordinator	Chumani	5	7
		Likoni	1	
		Ngamani	1	
5	Members lack confidence in staff	Bomani	3	8
		Chumani	2	
		Likoni	1	
		Mukoyo	1	
		Ngamani	1	
Total				26

TABLE 15

Problems associated with teaching aids/methods: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
2	Teaching aids ineffective/ unclear	Likoni	1	4
		Ngamani	3	
2	Group not interested in discussion	Bomani	1	2
		Shimoni	1	
2	Visitors disrupt meeting agenda	Bomani	1	2
		Likoni	1	
Total				8

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TABLE 16

Problems mobilizing resources for group project: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
4	Can't raise money	Bomani	1	9
		Mukoyo	2	
		Ngamani	2	
		Shimoni	4	
5	Can't find critical resources or markets	Bomani	2	14
		Likoni	5	
		Mukoyo	4	
		Ngamani	2	
		Shimoni	1	
1	Can't find critical expertise	Shimoni	3	3
4	Promised outside help fails to materialize	Likoni	2	5
		Mukoyo	4	
		Ngamani	1	
3	Group relies too much on outside assistance	Bomani	1	3
		Likoni	1	
		Ngamani	1	
Total				34

TABLE 17

Problems in maintaining group momentum: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
1	Group feels project imposed by outside agency	Chumani	1	1
2	Project has technical problems	Likoni Ngamani	2 5	7
3	Group can't keep up with tasks/seems too ambitious	Bomani Likoni Mukoyo	1 2 1	4
2	Questions on how group funds handled	Bomani Likoni	3 2	5
3	Members lack confidence to do project tasks/ projects seem too ambitious	Bomani Mukoyo Shimoni	1 1 1	3
3	Members fail to do tasks agreed to	Bomani Mukoyo Ngamani	3 1 1	5
Total				25

TABLE 18

Problems in group dynamics: Kenya

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
2	Group feels not participatory	Likoni	1	2
		Shimoni	1	
4	Lack of cooperation among members	Bomani	1	18
		Chumani	8	
		Likoni	1	
		Shimoni	8	
3	Group goals not clear or agreed to	Chumani	4	8
		Mukoyo	2	
		Shimoni	2	
3	Group divides because it can't agree	Chumani	1	3
		Ngamani	1	
		Shimoni	1	
1	Decision made in a previous meeting changed	Shimoni	1	1
Total				32

TABLE 19

Most persistent problems: Kenya

<u>Village</u>	<u>Problem</u>
Bomani	None
Chumani*	Coordinator refuses or fails in responsibilities Problems between facilitators and coordinator Lateness at group meetings Lack of cooperation among members Group goals not clear or agreed to
Likoni	Coordinator refuses/fails responsibilities Can't find critical resources/markets Low attendance
Mukoyo	Can't find critical resources/markets Lateness at meetings
Ngamani	Rain prevents attendance Technical problem with project (poultry illness)
Shimoni	Lateness at meetings Can't raise money Rain prevents attendance

* project activities terminated early

TABLE 20

Six problems cited most frequently: Philippines

<u>Problem</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>
Low attendance	11	5
Dissension between members and group officers	8	3
Members afraid to make decisions without officers	7	2
Decisions agreed to previously, changed	6	4
No support as needed by local officials	6	2
Problems between PRRM representatives and partner agency representative	6	3

TABLE 21

Attendance problems: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
3	Rain/typhoon	Balingog East	1	5
		Labney	2	
		Sinasajan	2	
5	Low attendance at group meeting	Balingog East	2	10
		Mapangpang	1	
		Rio Chico	2	
		San Augustin	1	
		Sinasajan	4	
1	Lateness	Mapangpang	1	1
4	Low attendance in associated project activities	Balingog East	4	11
		Mapangpang	1	
		Rio Chico	2	
		Sinasajan	4	
				27

TABLE 22

Problems involving project staff: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
1	Staff refuses/fails in responsibilities	Balingog East	4	4
1	Members lack confidence in staff	Balingog East	4	4
3	Dissension between group members and officers	Balingog East Labney Rio Chico	1 4 4	9
3	Problems between "partner agency" representative and group members	Balingog East Rio Chico San Augustin	2 1 1	4
2	Group members loyalties split between PRRM representative and partner agency representative	Rio Chico San Augustin	1 1	2
3	Problems between PRRM representative and partner agency representative	Balingog East Rio Chico San Augustin	1 1 1	3
				<u>26</u>

TABLE 23

Problems associated with teaching aids/methods: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
2	Teaching aids not effective or or clear	Mapangpang San Augustin	1 2	3
1	Mothers bring children who disrupt group activities	Rio Chico	1	1
1	Drunkenness at meetings	Balingog East	1	1
				<u>5</u>

TABLE 24

Problems in mobilizing resources: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
3	People expect doles	Balingog East	2	5
		Sinasajan	2	
		San Augustin	1	
2	Can't raise money	Labney	1	2
		Rio Chico	1	
1	Can't find critical resources	Balingog East	2	2
2	No support as needed from local officials	Balingog East	5	6
		San Augustin	1	
				15

TABLE 25

Problems maintaining group project momentum: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
1	Project experiences technical problem	Sinasajan	1	1
2	Members lack confidence to do project tasks	Balingog East Sinasajan	2 1	3
1	Members fail to do tasks agreed to	Mapangpang	1	1
2	Project taking too long	Balingog East Labney	1 1	2
				<u>7</u>

TABLE 26

Problems in group dynamics: Philippines

<u>Number of Villages Reporting</u>	<u>Problem</u>	<u>Village</u>	<u>Number of Reports</u>	<u>Totals</u>
1	Group feels decisions not participatory	Mapangpang	1	1
4	Decisions agreed to previously changed	Labney Mapangpang Rio Chico Sinasaan	3 1 1 1	6
1	Group goals unclear or not agreed to	Rio Chico	1	1
2	Members afraid to make decisions without group officers present	Labney Mapangpang	6 1	7
				<u>15</u>

TABLE 27

Problems reported four or more times
during the evaluation period: Philippines

Village	Problem
Balingog East	No support from local officials as needed Coordinator refuses/fails in responsibility Lack of confidence in coordinator
Labney	Decisions agreed to previously changed Dissension between officers and group members
Mapangpang	None
Rio Chico*	Dissension between group officers and members
San Augustin*	Problem between PRFM representative and partner agency representative
Sinasaan	Attendance low

*Project activities
terminated early

TABLE 28

Responses on "worst event" in village groups: Kenya

<u>Type of Worst Event Reported</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>	<u>Percentage of Responses</u>
Impasse due to lack of funds	18	23%
Economic loss	20	27
Failure to live up to group expectations	6	7
One person benefited at group's expense	7	8
An event prior to project	10	13
One-of-a-kind events	7	10
No worst event	9	11
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	77	99%

* error due to rounding

TABLE 29

Responses on "worst event" in village groups: Philippines

<u>Type of Worst Event Reported</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>	<u>Percentage of Responses</u>
Failure to follow policies or meet expectations	10	9%
Typhoon	9	9
Discontinuance of group meetings	8	8
Inaction to solve identified problems	7	7
Dissension in group	3	3
Irregular attendance	2	2
Misunderstanding/faulty communication	1	1
No worst event	54	51
No response	12	11
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	106	100%

TABLE 30

Participants and non-participants interviewed by village

<u>Village</u>	<u>Membership at Program Start</u>	<u>Interviewed Pre</u>	<u>Interviewed Post</u>	<u>Membership at End Point</u>	<u>Non Partic. Interviewed</u>
KENYA					
Bomani			26	53	6+
Chumani			18	0	8
Likoni			13	11	10
Mukoyo			19	16	11
Ngamani			14	28	8
Shimoni			17	26	3+
			—	—	—
Subtotal			107	134	46
PHILIPPINES					
Balingog East	21	21	21	28	11
Labney	24	24	24	50	8
Mapangpang	27	27	27	27	14
Rio Chico	26	26	26	32	13
San Augustin	21	21	21	32	11
Sinasajan	16	16	16	16	9
	—	—	—	—	—
Subtotal ¹	135	135	135	185	66
Total	135	135	242	319	112

+ All other women in the village were part of the group

TABLE 31

Spouses Interviewed, by Village

<u>Village</u>	<u>Participant Spouse</u>	<u>Non Participant Spouse</u>
KENYA		
Bomani	8	4
Chumani	8	2
Likoni	4	4
Mukoyo	6	4
Ngamani	7	3
Shimoni	8	3
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Subtotal	41	20
PHILIPPINES		
Balingog East	11	6
Labney	12	6
Mapangpang	14	7
Rio Chico	13	7
San Augustin	11	6
Sinasajan	8	5
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Subtotal	69	37
<hr/>		
Total	110	57
<hr/>		

TABLE 32

Nutrition: Kenya

Participants were more likely to report that they eat chicken twice or more times weekly after the program than before the program. (Statistical procedure: repeated-measures t-test.)

Mean before the program = 12%

Mean after the program = 22%

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .12

t significant, p = .03

There was also a marginal trend for participants to be more likely to report that their children eat eggs twice or more times weekly after the program than before the program. (Statistical procedure: repeated-measures t-test.)

Mean before the program = 39%

Mean after the program = 49%

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .17

t not significant, p (2-tails) = 0.11

TABLE 33

Health: Kenya

After the program, participants were virtually as likely to rate their state of health "fair" as "good," whereas before the program their modal rating had been "good." (Statistical procedure: t-test for repeated measures.)

State of Health Before the Program

		<u>Poor</u> (1)	<u>Good</u> (3)	<u>Very Good</u> (4)	
State of Health After the Pro- gram	<u>Poor</u> (1)	6	7	0	13 (16.0%)
	<u>Fair</u> (2)	10	21	2	33 (40.0%)
	<u>Good</u> (3)	3	29	2	34 (42.0%)
	<u>Very Good</u> (4)	0	1	0	1 (1.2%)
		19	58	4	82
		(23.5%)	(71.6%)	(4.9%)	

Mean rating before the program = 2.60

Mean rating after the program = 2.29

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .34

t significant, p = 0.005

TABLE 34

Community participation: Kenya

Participants participated more in their communities after the program than before the program. (Participation equals holding village office and participating in Harambee.) (Statistical procedure: t-test for repeated measures.)

n = 81	Mean before the program = 0.78	<u>p</u> = .001
	Mean after the program = 1.06	

112

TABLE 35

Reading: Kenya

Participants were more likely to report that they could read their own language after the program than before the program. (Statistical procedure: repeated-measures t-test.)

		Before Program		
		<u>Could Read</u>	<u>Could Not Read</u>	
After Pro- gram	<u>Could Read</u>	9	11	20 (25.6%)
	<u>Could Not Read</u>	2	56	58 (74.4%)
		<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
		11	67	78
		(14.1%)	(85.9%)	

Mean before the program = 0.859

Mean after the program = 0.744

Pearson correlation (before, after) = 0.52

t significant, p = 0.12

100

TABLE 36

Writing: Kenya

Participants showed some tendency to report that they could write their own language more frequently after the program than before the program. One village, whose own language is Kiswahili, appears to account for most of this. (Statistical procedure: t-test of repeated measures.)

		Before Program		
		<u>Could Write</u>	<u>Could Not Write</u>	
After Pro- gram	<u>Could Write</u>	7	9	16 (20.5%)
	<u>Could Not Write</u>	3	59	62 (79.5%)
		-----	-----	-----
		10	68	78
		(12.8%)	(87.2%)	

Mean before the program = 0.872

Mean after the program = 0.795

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .47

t = 1.75, p (2-tailed) = 0.083

TABLE 37

Income: Kenya

Participants engaged in more income earning activities on a group basis, rather than on an individual basis after the program than before the program. (Statistical procedure: t-test for repeated measures.)

n = 78	Mean before the program = .26	<u>p</u> = .0001
	Mean after the program = .78	

TABLE 38

Source of Income: Kenya

Participants were more likely to report that the main source of their income was their own salary after the program than before the program. (Statistical procedure: standard normal curve contrast of percentages.)

	<u>Percent of "Own Salary"</u>	<u>(n)</u>	<u>(N)</u>
Participants: <u>Before the Program</u>	6.25	4	64
<u>After the Program</u>	22.7	15	66

(p = .02)

None of the four participants who had reported before the program that the main source of their income was their own salary did so after the program.

TABLE 39

Confidence: Kenya

Participants had more "confidence" after the program than before the program. ("Confidence" equals confidence to attain goals and confidence to participate in Harambee.) (Statistical procedure: t-test for repeated measures.)

n = 80	Mean before the program = 0.91	<u>p</u> = .0001
	Mean after the program = 2.00	

Pearson correlation (before, after) = -.058

TABLE 40

Eating chicken: Kenya

Participants were not more likely than non-participants to eat chicken twice or more times weekly after the program. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
Participation	.72
Village	.04
Participation Village	.89

grand mean = 22%	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted</u> <u>Deviation Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village</u> <u>Deviation Beta</u>
Participants	91	-1	1
Nonparticipants	46	2	-2
		0.03	0.03

TABLE 41

Eating eggs: Kenya

Participants were not more likely to eat eggs twice or more times weekly than nonparticipants after the program. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
Participation	.15
Village	.008
Participation Village	.42

grand mean = 43%	<u>n</u>	<u>Undadjusted</u> <u>Deviation Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village</u> <u>Deviation Beta</u>
Participants	90	2	5
Nonparticipants	47	-5	-9
		0.07	0.13

TABLE 42

Poultry raising: Kenya

Participants were more likely than nonparticipants to raise poultry after the program.

(Statistical procedure: chi-squared.)

	<u>Percent Who Raise Poultry</u>	<u>(n)</u>
Participants (N=111)	82.0%	(91)
Nonparticipants (N=34)	26.5	(9)

p = .0001

TABLE 43

Nutrition of children: Kenya

Participants were more likely than nonparticipants to have reported that their children eat eggs twice or more times weekly after the program. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

	Source of Variation	<u>p of F</u>	
	Participation	.13	
	Village	.001	
	Participation Village	.27	
grand mean = 49%			
	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted Deviation Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village Deviation Beta</u>
Participants	87	2	3
Nonparticipants	26	-6	-13
		0.07	0.14

TABLE 44

Community participation: Kenya

Participants participated more in their communities than did nonparticipants. Only one nonparticipant scored above zero on this index. (Participation equals holding office in a community group and/or contributing to Harambee.)

	Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>	
	Participation	.002	
	Village	.33	
	Participation Village	.74	
grand mean = .18			
	<u>n</u>	Unadjusted <u>Deviation Eta</u>	Adjusted for Village <u>Deviation Beta</u>
Participants	118	.06	.06
Nonparticipants	47	-.15	-.15
		.26	.25

TABLE 45

Income: Kenya

Participants engaged more in income earning activities on a group basis than nonparticipants after the program. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

	Source of Variation	<u>p of F</u>	
	Participation	.0001	
	Village	.0001	
	Participation Village	.009	
grand mean = 2.17			
	<u>n</u>	Unadjusted Deviation	Adjusted for Village Deviation
		Eta	Beta
Participants	93	.46	.37
Nonparticipants	47	-.92	-.73
		0.37	0.30

TABLE 46

Bank accounts: Kenya

Participants were more likely than nonparticipants to have opened a bank account by the end of the program. (Statistical procedure: chi-squared.)

	<u>Percent with Bank Accounts</u>	<u>(n)</u>
Participants (N = 69)	56.5%	(39)
Nonparticipants (N = 39)	5.1	(2)

p = .0001

Before the program, only 8.5% of the participants (8 out of 94) had ever opened a bank account.

TABLE 47

Confidence: Kenya

Participants had more confidence after the program than nonparticipants. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

	Source of Variation	<u>p of F</u>	
	Participation	.0001	
	Village	.0001	
	Participation Village	.19	
grand mean = 1.89			
	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted Deviation Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village Deviation Beta</u>
Participants	90	.26	.21
Nonparticipants	42	-.55	-.44
		0.36	0.28

TABLE 48

Lifestyles: Kenya

Although lifestyle differences between participants and nonparticipants were not statistically significant, we wondered if pre-existing differences in lifestyles, when they did exist, between participants and nonparticipants led to more confidence. When lifestyle differences are controlled for, participants had more confidence after the program than nonparticipants.

(Statistical procedure: analysis of covariance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation		<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>	
Lifestyles (as covariate)		.451	
Participation		.0001	
Village		.0001	
Participation Village		.102	

grand mean = 1.75	Unadjusted		Adjusted for Lifestyles & Village	
	<u>n</u>	<u>Deviation</u> <u>Eta</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	67	.25	.24	
Nonparticipants	39	-.42	-.41	
		.30		.29

TABLE 49

Bank accounts and lifestyle : Kenya

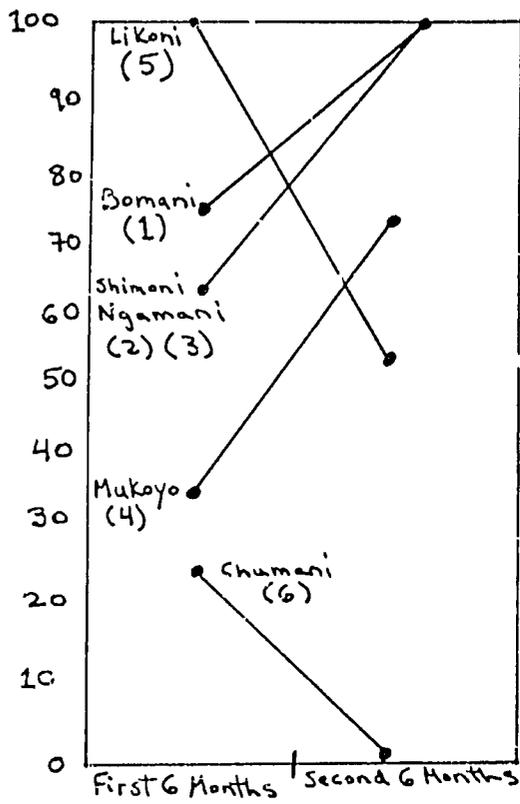
Participants were more likely than nonparticipants to have ever opened a bank account after the program, regardless of statistical controls for Village and Lifestyle differences. (Statistical procedure: analysis of covariance and multiple classification analysis.)

	Source of Variation		<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
	Lifestyles (covariate)		.11
	Participation		.0001
	Village		.0001
	Participation Village		.0001
grand mean = 34%	Unadjusted		Adjusted for Lifestyles & Village
	<u>n</u>	<u>Deviation</u> <u>Eta</u>	<u>Deviation</u> <u>Beta</u>
Participants	68	16	16
Nonparticipants	39	-29	-28
		0.46	0.44

"Yes" coded 1, "No" coded 0.

TABLE 50

Direction of movement of group confidence: Kenya



() = rank of relative global success

TABLE 51

Amounts raised in shillings by groups from outside sources
and global success rank village by village: Kenya

<u>Village</u>	<u>Amount Raised*</u>	<u>Gifts from Sponsor</u>	<u>Loans from Sponsor</u>	<u>Global Success Rank</u>
Bomani	6,105 (3)	625 (3)	772 (1)	1
Shimoni	1,000 (4)	1,337 (2)	0	2
Ngamani	7,050 (2)	398 (5)	0	3
Mukoyo	16,970 (1)	5,000 (1)	244 (3)	4
Likoni	1,000 (4)	500 (4)	399 (2)	5
Chumani	0	0	0	6

* Excluding gifts and loans from Tototo as Project Sponsor

TABLE 52

Responses of spouses : Kenya

	<u>Participants' Husbands</u> N=41	<u>Non-Participants' Husbands</u> N=20
<u>Do you hold a village post or office?</u>		
Yes	34	30
No	66	70
<u>Age</u>		
20-30	17	25
31-40	20	25
41-50	27	35
51-60	20	5
61-70+	17	5
<u>Education</u>		
None	39	45
1-4	10	15
5-8	27	15
Form IV	5	0
Koran	15	25
No Answer	5	0
<u>Employment</u>		
Currently		
Employed	39	40
Unemployed	61	60
<u>Religion</u>		
None	7	10
Muslim	56	80
Christian	24	5
Traditional	7	0
No Answer	5	5

TABLE 52: Responses of spouses in percent: Kenya, p.2

	<u>Participants' Husbands</u>	<u>Nonparticipants' Husbands</u>
<u>Read and Write</u>		
Own	54	55
Kiswahili	65	66
English	32	20
<u>Do you belong to a village group or committee?</u>		
Yes	39	20
No	61	80
<u>Do you find the Kilemba approach realistic?</u>		
Yes	91	90
No	9	10
<u>Have you ever attended Kilemba meetings?</u>		
Yes	37	
No	63	
<u>Have you ever assisted the Kilemba group?</u>		
Yes	61	
No	39	
<u>Do you think the group benefits this village?</u>		
Yes	85	80
No	10	20
Don't Know	5	
<u>Is the group succeeding in its goals?</u>		
Yes	80	65
No	10	35
No Answer	10	

Table 52: Responses of spouses in percent: Kenya, p.3

	<u>Participants' Husbands</u>	<u>Nonparticipants' Husbands</u>
<u>Does the group benefit your family?</u>		
Yes	73	
No	27	
<u>Does your wife discuss meetings with you?</u>		
Yes	80	
No	15	
No answer	5	
<u>Do you encourage your wife to attend?</u>		
Yes	84	
No	15	
<u>Do you see changes in your wife?</u>		
Yes	46	
No	54	
<u>Have you benefited personally?</u>		
Yes	71	
No	29	
<u>Does your wife belong to a village group?</u>		
Yes	10	
No	90	
<u>Would you like her to join one?</u>		
Yes	85	
No	15	
<u>Have you encouraged her to join a group?</u>		
Yes	40	
No	60	

TABLE 53

Community participation: Philippines

Participants participated more in their communities after the program than before the program.

(Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean before the program = 0.83

Mean after the program = 1.55

Pearson correlation (before, after) = 0.34

t significant, p = .0001

Nonparticipants also participated more in their communities after the program than before the program.

(Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean before the program = 0.26

Mean after the program = 1.24

Pearson correlation (before, after) = 0.04

t significant, p = .001

TABLE 54

Confidence, village, and lifestyle: Philippines

Participants were not more confident than nonparticipants after the program, regardless of statistical control for Village and Lifestyles. (Statistical procedure: analysis of covariance and multiple classification analysis.)

	Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>		
	Lifestyles (covariate)	.48		
	Participation	.27		
	Village	.04		
	Participation* Village	.80		
Grand mean = 0.41				
	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted</u> <u>Deviation Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village & Lifestyle</u> <u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	107	.03	.02	
Nonparticipants	29	-.10	-.09	
		0.11		0.10

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TABLE 55

Confidence: Philippines

Participants were not more confident than nonparticipants after the program. (Statistical procedure: analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p of F</u>
Participation	.17
Village	.005
Participation* Village	.73

grand mean = 0.42

	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted Deviation</u> <u>Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted Deviation</u> <u>Beta</u>
Participants	119	.03	.03
Nonparticipants	52	-.07	-.08
		0.09	0.10

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TABLE 56

Direction of movement of group confidence: Philippines

Philippines: Confidence Behavior of Village Groups
in the First Eight Program Months
and Second Eight Program Months

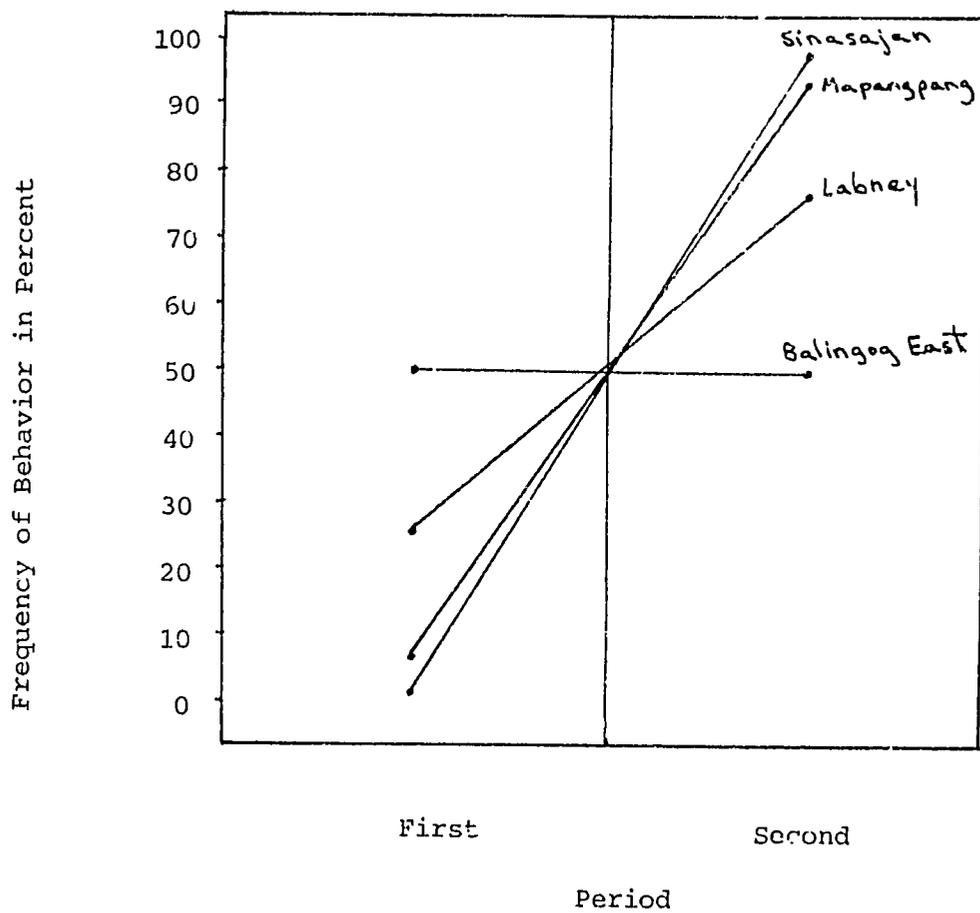


TABLE 57

Raising poultry: Philippines

Participants were not more likely to raise poultry than non-participants after the program. (Statistical procedure: chi-squared.)

	Percent who raise poultry	(n)
Participants (N=135)	65.2	(88)
Nonparticipants (N=67)	73.1	(49)

$\underline{p} = .33$

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TABLE 58

Source of income: Philippines

Neither of the two participants who stated before the program that the main source of their income is "their own salary" did so after the program. 74% (65) of the participants stated both before and after the program that their main source of income is cash crop farming.

	Main source of income:		After the program		
	Own Salary	Husband Salary	Cash crop Farming	Other	
Before the Program: Own Salary	0	0	2	0	2 2.3%
Husband's Salary	0	0	0	9	9 10.2%
Cash Crop Farming	0	1	65	10	76 86.4%
Other	0	0	1	0	1 1.1%
	0	1	68	19	88
	0.0%	1.1%	77/3%	21.6%	

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TABLE 59

Bank accounts: Philippines

Participants were not more likely to have opened a bank account
ever after the program than they had been before the program.

(Statistical procedure: McNemar chi-square for repeated measures.)

Ever opened a bank account?	After the Program		
	Yes	No	
Before the Program: Yes	14	13	27 52.9%
No	10	14	24 47.1%
	-----	-----	-----
	24 47.1%	27 52.9%	51

(p close to 1.0 by test)

TABLE 60

Nutrition of children: Philippines

Participants were as likely to report that their children eat eggs twice weekly or more often after the program as before the program. (Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean before program = 77%

Mean after the program = 75%

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .09

t significant, p = .726

TABLE 61

Reading and writing: Philippines

All participants stated before the program that they could read either Tagalog or Ilocano, whereas after the program 18.% stated that they can not read either Tagalog or Ilocano.

Can read either Tagalog or Ilocano?

		After Program:		
		Yes	No	
Before Program:	Yes	110	25	135
		18.5%	81.5%	100.0%

There was no change in the proportion of participants in the program who reported that they could write either Tagalog or Ilocano from before the program to after the program.

(Statistical procedure: McNemar chi-square for repeated measures.)

Can write either Tagalog or Ilocano?

		After Program:		
		Yes	No	
Before Program:	Yes	90	22	112 (83.6%)
	No	15	7	22 (16.4%)
		-----	-----	-----
		105	29	134
		(78.4%)	(21.6%)	

(p close to .5 by test)

TABLE 62

View of status, before and after: Philippines

Participants projected themselves on a higher rung of the ladder to goal attainment in five years than the one that they are on now.

(Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean rung now = 3.08

Mean rung in five years = 3.87

Pearson correlation (now, five years) = .67

t significant, p = .0001

Participants projected themselves on a lower rung of the ladder to goal attainment now after the program than before the program.

(Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean rung now before program = 3.45

Mean rung now after the program = 3.08

Pearson correlation (before, after) = -.37

t approximately significant, p (2-tails) = 0.056

Participants projected themselves on a low4r rung of the ladder to goal attainment in five years after the program than before the program.

(Statistical procedure: t - test for repeated measures.)

Mean rung in five years before program = 4.93

Mean rung in five years after program = 3.87

Pearson correlation (before, after) = .16

t significant, p = 0.0001

TABLE 63

Current status, participants and nonparticipants: Philippines

Participants placed themselves on a higher rung of the ladder "now" than nonparticipants after the program.

(Statistical procedure: Analysis of variance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
Participation	.0001
Village	.03
Participation* Village	.30

grand mean = 2.06

	<u>n</u>	<u>Unadjusted</u> <u>Deviation</u>	<u>Eta</u>	<u>Adjusted for Village</u> <u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	135		1.02		1.03
Nonparticipants	67		-2.06		-2.07
			0.68		0.68

TABLE 64

Future status, participants and nonparticipants: Philippines

Participants placed themselves on a higher rung of the ladder

"five years from now" than did nonparticipants, after the program.

Source of Variation		<u>p of F</u>	
Participation		.0001	
Village		.03	
Participation* Village		.38	

grand mean = 2.59		Unadjusted		Adjusted for Village	
	<u>n</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Eta</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	135		1.28		1.30
Nonparticipants	67		-2.59		-2.63
			0.69		0.70

TABLE 65

Current status and lifestyle: Philippines

Participants placed themselves on a higher rung of the "ladder now" than nonparticipants, even when differences in Lifestyles are controlled. (Statistical procedure: analysis of covariance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
Lifestyle (covariate)	.0001
Participation	.0001
Village	.10
Participation* Village	.79

Raw regression coefficient for Lifestyle = 0.224

grand mean = 2.42	<u>n</u>	Unadjusted		Adjusted for Village & Lifestyle	
		<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Eta</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	121		.82		.80
Nonparticipants	41		-2.42		-2.36
			0.65		0.63

TABLE 66

Future status and lifestyle: Philippines

Participants placed themselves on a higher rung of the "ladder five years from now" than did nonparticipants, even when Lifestyle is controlled. (Statistical procedure: analysis of covariance and multiple classification analysis.)

Source of Variation	<u>p</u> of <u>F</u>
Lifestyle (covariate)	.0001
Participation	.0001
Village	.005
Participation* Village	.56

raw regression coefficient for Lifestyle = .296

grand mean = 2.99	Unadjusted		Adjusted for Village & Lifestyle		
	<u>n</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Eta</u>	<u>Deviation</u>	<u>Beta</u>
Participants	121		1.01		0.99
Nonparticipants	41		-2.99		-2.92
				0.65	0.63

TABLE 67

Responses of Spouses: Philippines

<u>Participants</u>	N=69	<u>Non-Participants</u>	N=37
<u>Education</u>			
Elementary	67%	49%	
High School	24%	21%	
College	5%	6%	
No Response	5%	24%	
<u>Age</u>			
20 - 30	19%		
31 - 40	23%		
41 - 50	35%		
51 - 60	15%		
61 - 70	9%		
<u>Attended A Meeting?</u>			
Yes	58%		
No	40%		
No Response	2%		
<u>Given Assistance?</u>			
Yes	61%		
No	33%		
No Response	7%		
<u>Has Group Contributed to Village?</u>			
Yes	81%	64%	
No	6%	0	
No Response	6%	36%	
Don't Know	8%		
<u>Is Group Succeeding?</u>			
Yes	73%	61%	
No	2%	0	
No Response	6%	39%	
<u>Does Spouse Discuss Meetings?</u>			
Yes	75%		
No	17%		
No Response	7%		

TABLE 67 continued

<u>Participants</u>	<u>Non-Participants</u>
<u>Do You Belong To Village Group or Organization?</u>	
Yes 75%	52%
No 15%	12%
No Response 10%	36%
<u>Are You Currently Employed?</u>	
Yes 13%	18%
No 75%	48%
No Response 12%	33%
<u>Does Spouse Belong to Group?</u>	
Yes	42%
No	21%
No Response	33%
<u>Do You Encourage Wife?</u>	
Yes	61%
No	18%
No Response	21%
<u>Do You Encourage Spouse?</u>	
Yes 75%	61%
No 17%	18%
No Response 7%	21%
<u>Do You See Changes in Spouse?</u>	
Yes 75%	
No 15%	
No Response 10%	
<u>Have You Benefited Personally?</u>	
Yes 75%	
No 12%	
No Response 13%	

FIGURE 1

SCHEDULE FOR NFE PROJECT TRAINING

The Learning Approach

Day 1:

1. Get acquainted exercise (draw pictures) (3 groups)
2. Aims of project (discussion with presentation)
 - goals and objectives
 - roles of staff
 - evaluation components
 - World Education
 - Philippines program
3. "What is education for?" (report on newsprint) (2 groups)
4. "How do we know if we've succeeded?" (groups)
 - a) generate group list for village, group, individual levels
 - b) report out, using 'flexiflans'
5. "How can education help this woman with her problem?" Taped problem-drama (2 groups)

Day 2:

1. "What helps you to learn best?" (individuals, then 3 groups)
2. Picture of village women: (large group)
 - What knowledge, resources does she bring to the learning situation?
 - How does she differ from a child learner?
3. Analyzing facilitator's role: traditional vs. SAM approach (large group)

(stick figure drawings)

4. Communications skills (3 groups of 3 each; then whole group)
 - a) listening (whispering questions and answers)
 - b) observing (poses)
5. Questioning techniques: closed, open and redirected questions (fishbowl)
 - a) bad example of conducting discussion
 - b) group analysis
 - c) good example using picture to stimulate discussion

Materials Development

6. Materials clinic (large group)
 - how to use tape recorders
 - flexiflans (How to use and make)

Day 3:

1. "Broken Squares": (analyzing with the steps in the educational approach) (two groups of 5 each, then discussion)
2. Generating ideas about ways to carry out the 7 steps in the learning process:
 - newsprint with each step, and everyone writes ideas on them
 - discussion of lists (brief)
3. Materials development clinics: (large groups)
 - tracing
 - simple drawing
 - pictures from magazines
 - flexiflans
4. Facilitator as innovator (6 groups)
 - open ended problem dramas with each group creating an ending and taping it.
 - presentation to whole group
 - use of tape recorder

Day 4:

1. Brief review of 7 steps in self-actualizing learning process and new ideas of how to implement. (large group)
2. Review of materials to stimulate discussion and how to use: (large group)
 - generate list (demonstrate serialized pictures)
3. Practice using materials (3 groups)
 - each group chooses 2 methods, plans demonstration with whole group

Day 5:

1. Demonstration (large group)
 - each team demonstrates methods as if with villagers
2. Teams plan for first field visit (3 teams of 3 trainers)
 - assessing needs
 - given one technique to use
 - instructions on using observation sheet
3. Teams report to planners what they will do and how they will do it on visit next day (teams)

Day 6:

1. First visit to villages (teams + 1 trainer)
2. Instructions on tasks for next day (large group)

Day 7:

1. Listen to tape of first village session (teams)
 - analyze role of facilitator/role of villagers
 - how to improve
 - discussions of needs expressed by village groups
2. Discussion of results (large group)

3. Plan second village learning session using different techniques and planning form (teams)
4. Sculpture game/review communications skills (large group)
5. Teams present plans to planning group (large group)

Day 8:

1. Second visit to villages (teams)
2. Listen to tapes of sessions, using same analysis process as first time (teams)
3. Discussion of facilitator problems and ways to improve them (large group)

Day 9:

1. Review facilitator/coordinator's log (large group)
2. Plan 3rd session in the village, using different technique (large group)
3. Review plans with planning team

Evaluation: Gathering Data

Day 10:

1. 3rd visit to villages (teams)
2. Fill out facilitator's log (teams)

Day 11:

1. Interviewing techniques for individual baseline survey
-review questionnaire and purpose
2. Interview practice sessions (teams of 2)
3. Discussion of problems in interviewing (large group)

Day 12:

1. Interviews conducted with villagers in one village (teams)

Day 13:

1. Assessment of interviewing session in village (large groups)
2. Planning for 4th learning session in villages and learning session in new villages (teams)

Day 14:

1. Plans for next sessions in villages (large groups)
2. Develop plans and schedules for conducting baseline interviews in all villages
3. Review of facilitator's log and feedback system

Day 15:

Closing activities

Many of the exercises listed here or mentioned in the text are described in detail in From the Field: Tested Participatory Activities for Trainers.

FIGURE 2

Midpoint questionnaire - project administrators

The project administrators were asked at midpoint to respond in depth to a series of questions. These were answered in written form:

1. What is the greatest strength of the Kilemba project? Give examples of the strength.
2. What is the greatest weakness of the Kilemba project? Describe examples.
3. Which group is the strongest? Why? Describe specific things that illustrate the strengths.
4. Which group is weakest? Why? Describe specific things that illustrate the weakness.
5. What is the major source of technical information for a group? Give examples of how a group gets technical information.
6. What is the most difficult task for you as (job title) ?
7. Do the teaching aids really help learning? Give specific examples of what you have observed.
8. Describe the event or incident that surprised you the most in the Kilemba project - something that occurred that you did not expect.
9. What do you think will occur when the coordinators take on the groups alone? What will be most difficult for them? What specific things make you feel this way?
10. What is the one thing you could not do without in the project? The one thing you must have?
11. What quality is most important in a facilitator? Which facilitators have this quality? Describe an event where you observed this. What quality in coordinators? Which have this? Describe an event when you observed this.
12. When you think about the project, what worries you the most?
13. Do you feel the training in March worked as well as it might have to help facilitators and coordinators learn the approach? What could have been better?
14. Describe the best group meeting you observed. What specific things happened?

15. Describe the worst meeting. What happened?
16. What cooperation do you get from other groups and agencies? Describe some specific examples.
17. Are outside resource people a help or a hindrance? Describe how they help. Describe how they hinder.
18. Given the effort group members are making, are the rewards they get equal to the effort? Describe events that lead you to conclude as you do.
19. What, if anything, is different about the coast and coastal women's groups as compared, say, to other areas of Kenya.
20. Surely there are some other things we've neglected to ask that we should. Please discuss here important ideas we've overlooked.

FIGURE 3

Midpoint questionnaire - participants

Using 14 basic questions, interviewers were instructed to probe for specific descriptive material. Questions posed to project participants at midpoint were:

1. The facilitator and coordinator often use pictures and stories and tapes in the group meetings. Describe to me one picture or story or tape and what you learned from it.
2. Describe to me the meeting you enjoyed the most. Describe what happened, what went on in that meeting.
3. Describe to me an incident when you were happiest to be a group member. This could be when you were with the group or any other time.
4. Describe what specific things you have done in the project. Describe these in detail.
5. Describe for me an incident or a time that you think has been the worst for the group or the project or you.
6. What person has helped the group the most? What specific things has that person done?
7. Is there someone who could have helped the project who has not? Who is that person?
8. Have you learned some new skills in the group project? What are those skills? Be very specific.
9. Are you earning money from handicrafts? If yes, how much per month? What do you use this money for?
10. Are you earning money from the group project? If yes, how much per month? What do you use this for?
11. Do you use any of the products of your project? If no, why not?
12. Do you think your project will succeed? What things have made you feel this way?
13. Are you happy to be a group member? What things have made you feel this way?
14. What are the benefits to your group of your coordinator?

FIGURE 4

Midpoint questionnaire - field staff

A similar set of 13 questions was posed to project facilitators and coordinators. Again each was asked to describe specific events or incidents that led to the conclusions, and interviewers were instructed to probe for specific descriptive information.

1. Describe to me the teaching aid that worked best with the group to stimulate discussion and decision.
2. Describe to me the teaching aid that didn't work well or at all. Which proved to be the worst that you used?
3. Describe to me your greatest contribution to the group. What specific things have you done that have been the most important to the group?
4. Describe to me your greatest contribution to the project. What specific things have you done that have been the most important to the success of the project.
5. What person has helped the group the most? What specific things has that person done?
6. What person who could have helped the group has failed to do so? What things could that person have done?
7. What event or incident made you the happiest to be a part of the project? Describe to me what occurred.
8. What event or incident made you the least happy or made you most disappointed to be part of the project?
9. Describe to me the event or incident that has caused the biggest problem for the group.
10. Describe to me the event or incident that has been the best for the group.
11. What do you believe to be the advantages of the teaching aids? What things do the aids enable you to do or to happen in the group?
12. What do you believe to be the disadvantages of the teaching aids? In what ways is it difficult to use aids or do they fail to do what you would hope?
13. What event or incident has surprised you the most about the project? Describe it and why you were surprised.

FIGURE 5

Observation Sheet

Steps Facilitator and Coordinator Followed (Include questions asked, statements made, materials used)

Things Group Members Said or Did (Include responses to questions, statements, actions of individuals)

Suggestions: What might facilitator or coordinator have done to make the meeting better?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

FIGURE 6

Group Meeting Planning Form (Revised)

Village: _____

Time and date of meeting: _____

Person(s) responsible for leading session: _____

Observer:

1. What discussions, problems, or interest areas emerged from the last meeting of this group?

2. What is the purpose/objective of this meeting?

3. What is the subject or topic to be discussed?

4. What teaching aid(s) will be used to stimulate discussion? Describe briefly.

5. What procedures/steps will the facilitator/coordinator follow during the meeting? Include what questions she/he will ask to stimulate the discussion and ideas from the groups.)

FIGURE 7

FACILITATOR/COORDINATOR GROUP MEETING LOG

Facilitator: RASHIO M. NZALLA Coordinator: MIRALI H. JEFFAH

Village: MKOYO

Date: 5/5/1978

Who led discussion? Facilitator Coordinator

THIS FORM IS TO BE COMPLETED IN DETAIL FOR EVERY GROUP MEETING IN EACH VILLAGE AND SUBMITTED TO THE FIELDWORK SUPERVISOR.

1. Of the tasks the group members agreed to accomplish as a result of the last group meeting, which ones were accomplished (or accomplished in part) by the time of this meeting?

Task (Describe) Person Who Accomplished Task (Name)

THE REMAINING LOT OF FIREWOOD WAS SOLD TO LIKONI WOMEN GROUP SEE NUMBER 3 BELOW

2. On what day was the group meeting held this week? At what time was the meeting held? How long did it last? FRIDAY, 3 PM, 1 HOUR

If a meeting was not held this week, explain why not.

3. Who attended this meeting? (List each person by full name). Use the reverse side of this page if necessary.

SEE REVERSE SIDE

4. What teaching aid was used to start discussion? (Explain in full) CASSETTE RECORDER. THE MEMBERS LISTENED TO A STORY ABOUT PRICES OF DIFFERENT ITEMS.

5. What topic(s) or subject(s) were discussed at the meeting? (Describe in detail)

THE TOPIC DISCUSSED WAS WHETHER TO BUILD A NURSERY CENTER OR NOT

6. Was a decision made by the group? Yes No

If yes, what was the decision?

THAT THEY BUILD A NURSERY CENTER

If no, why not?

7. What tasks or responsibilities were agreed to by members of the group as a result of this week's meeting?

Task (Describe)	Person Who agreed to Do the Task (Full Name)
THAT EVERY MEMBER SHOULD WORK ON THE SHAMBA TWICE A WEEK PREFERABLY ON WEEKENDS	THE MEMBERS IN ATTENDANCE

8. What other activities related to the Tototo Kilemba project were carried out by group members this week? Who was involved? What outside resources, if any, were used? Describe group activities in addition to the group meeting.

Activity (Describe)	Members Who Participated (Full Names)	Outside Resource
AN AGRICULTURAL ASSISTANT VISITED THE GROUP'S SHAMBA AND TALKED TO A FEW MEMBERS OF THE GROUP		

9. What was the biggest problem encountered by the Facilitator/Coordinator this week?

THE MEMBERS IN ATTENDANCE DID NOT AGREE ON HOW THEY WILL WORK ON THE SHAMBA FOR A FEW MEMBERS WANTED TO HIRE LABORERS TO DO THEIR PART

10. What was the biggest problem encountered by the group members this week?

THE DISCUSSION WAS POSTPONED BECAUSE MAJORITY OF MEMBERS WERE ABSENT

11. List here other comments, suggestions, ideas.

- A. THE PROJECT WAS TOO BIG FOR THE GROUP TO UNDERTAKE
- B. IF THE WHOLE VILLAGE IS GOING TO BE INVOLVED THEN IT WILL NOT BENEFIT THE GROUP ECONOMICALLY