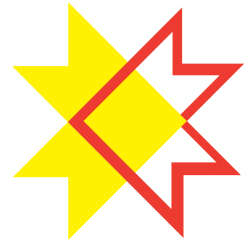# ADVICE

For Effective Community Development Education

Written and Compiled by:

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UNIVERSITY *of* CALIFORNIA
Agriculture &
Natural Resources

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This report may also be viewed on the California Communities Program web site http://www.ccp.ucdavis.edu.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

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The electronic version of the *ADVICE* collection is divided into six sections, each of which contains items that are intended to help you to do a better job in your work with groups and communities, in communicating with these and other audiences, and in reflecting on the work that you do. The six sections and their general focus are:

1. WORKING WITH PROBLEMS. These *ADVICE* items are intended to assist you to be more creative, focused, and skillful in identifying, thinking about, and analyzing problems.

2. LEADING AND COMMUNICATING. These *ADVICE* items are meant to focus your attention on and refining your understanding of skills central to leadership and effective communication.

3. GROUP DYNAMICS. This section of *ADVICE* is focused on topics central to working with groups and as part of a team.

4. REACHING AGREEMENT. Items in this *ADVICE* section recognize that much of our work in groups involves finding workable solutions to problems and to make changes, but that much of that work is difficult and challenging.

5. INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA. The items in this *ADVICE* section are focused narrowly on our role as presenters of information and suggestions on how to make professional presentations.

6. SPANISH TRANSLATIONS. This section contains a mix of *ADVICE* items from the previous five sections and unique pieces that have been translated and/or produced in Spanish.

INTRODUCTION

ADVICE has been constructed during a twenty year period. It began as a device to provide useful information to Cooperative Extension personnel as they encountered new, complicated issues that required skills in working with groups. It was intended to provide them with tools to be more effective nonformal educators and change agents. In many ways, the diversity of items included in this *ADVICE* collection mirrors the diversity and complexity of the work that Extension does. The series was never intended to be the final answer for group educational work. Rather, as new challenges were encountered and learning resulted from them, *ADVICE* items were produced. Likewise, as the author encountered new items that dealt with working with groups, they were adapted or used intact. This series therefore, contains original material developed and created by the author, as well as materials adapted from those other sources. In some cases, the origin of materials is unknown; however, in all cases credit is given to those creators.

The range of topics also reflects the nature of nonformal educational work common to Cooperative Extension, as well as to many other organizations. Topics include group work, effective communication, problem solving, and leadership. Materials are presented in both English and Spanish, reflecting the work that the author has pursued during the twenty years. Not every item is available in both languages. Those items that are available can provide the reader with hints, tips, approaches, concepts, ideas, and guidance for working as an educator with groups in the community or in organizations. The real intent is to provide tools for the reader to become a more effective educator. If these materials reach those ends, then this will be good advice.

The form that *ADVICE* appears owes much to Jeff Woled and Myriam Grajales-Hall. For any shortcomings or faults, the author assumes all responsibility. May this advice be useful!!

CHAPTER 1

Working with Problems

BLOCKS TO CREATIVITY

James L. Adams, in the book *Conceptual Blockbusting: A Guide to Better Ideas*[1], lists a series of conceptual blocks or mental walls that block the problem solver from correctly perceiving a problem or conceiving its solution. It is to our advantage to be aware of these blocks.

PERCEPTUAL BLOCKS

1. Difficulty in isolating the problem

2. Tendency to delimit the problem area too closely

3. Inability to see the problem area from various viewpoints

4. Seeing what you expect to see - stereotyping

5. Saturation

6. Failure to utilize all sensory inputs

CULTURAL BLOCKS

1. Fantasy and reflection are a waste of time, even crazy

2. Playfulness is for children only

3. Problem solving is a serious business and humor is out of place

4. Reason, logic, numbers, utility, and practicality are good; feeling, intuition, qualitative judgments, and pleasure are bad

5. Tradition is preferable to change

6. Any problem can be solved by scientific thinking and lots of money

7. Taboos

EMOTIONAL BLOCKS

1. Fear to make a mistake, fail, or take risks

2. Inability to tolerate ambiguity; overriding desires for security, order; "no appetite for chaos"

3. Preference for judging ideas rather than generating them

4. Inability to relax, incubate, and "sleep on it"

5. Lack of challenge; problem fails to engage interest

6. Excessive zeal; overmotivation to succeed quickly

7. Lack of access to areas of imagination

8. Lack of imaginative control

9. Inability to distinguish reality from fantasy

RELATIONSHIP BLOCKS

1. Lack of cooperation and trust among colleagues

2. Autocratic boss who values only his own ideas; does not reward others

3. Distractions - phone, easy intrusions, etc.

4. Lack of support to bring ideas into action

Key Words: communication, problem definition/solving, risk-taking

[1]Adams, James L. 1979. *Conceptual Blockbusting: A Guide to Better Ideas*. 2nd Edition. W.W. Norton, New York.

James I. Grieshop

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University of California Cooperative Extension
Information for Community Education and Development Personnel

BRAINSTORMING

Gathering information is necessarily one of the most important jobs of Cooperative Extension and nonformal educators. The processing and dissemination of that information complete an important part of a Cooperative Extension educator's work. Much of that work is not done alone, but rather in large and small groups.

A variety of techniques have been perfected for gathering information from groups. These techniques range from the unspectacular group interviews, to the semi-mysterious Delphi techniques, to sophisticated questionnaires and polling techniques used by Gallup and others. Some of these, plus many more not mentioned, are tools which the effective Cooperative Extension educator should master.

Brainstorming is one technique for gathering information in groups that is simple, effective, and has a range of uses. Most of us are all familiar with brainstorming - we have either used it or have been a part of a group involved in a brainstorming session. An often quoted statement is, "Let's brainstorm this problem."

However, brainstorming is seldom as effective as it could be. Typically, it is used to list the problems, advantages, reasons, and issues associated with "how, why, or where" to solve a problem. The actual brainstorming activity is usually prefaced by the group leader who warns, "Don't evaluate the ideas. Simply list them." Typically, after a few ideas, problems, advantages, and issues are listed, the group begins to ignore the warning. Evaluations of ideas come forth and the potential effectiveness of the brainstorming is breached.

Remember - *Effective brainstorming depends upon the ability of the group to defer judgment and the ability of the group members to creatively connect ideas and generate new ones.* The rules are simple - everyone tosses out as many ideas as possible, the ideas are written down, and no one is permitted to evaluate or criticize the ideas until the brainstorming session is over.

The Cooperative Extension educator plays an important role to optimize the potential of brainstorming. In the role of group leader or facilitator, you can enforce the rules. Secondly, you can use a number of techniques to enhance the effectiveness of the session. Finally, you and the group can determine the ways to best use it.

The following tips and techniques can be used in a meeting to increase the effectiveness of the brainstorming session.

USE A RECORDER AND GET EVERYTHING READY
A recorder is not an instrument! A recorder is another person (or persons) from the group who will record the ideas exactly as offered. The use of chart paper and magic markers for recording have proven to be very effective for capturing the ideas.

REMAIN NEUTRAL; DON'T OFFER YOUR OWN IDEAS AND DON'T EVALUATE
Your job is to facilitate the process, not to influence it.

CLEARLY STATE THE CONTENT FOCUS
Make certain that everybody knows and understands the subject. What is the focus of the brainstorming session? If the issue relates to community growth, state it. "All right, the problem is what are the disadvantages to increased growth in our community?" Be clear and be specific.

GIVE AN EXAMPLE OF THE METHOD IN ACTION

Ask the group to give an example. Say, "What would be a typical answer to this question? OK, Bill? There will be more students in the schools. Does everyone understand what we have to do?"

SET A TIME LIMIT

"In the next five minutes . . . ."

SET THE OBJECTIVE

"I'd like to have you produce fifty disadvantages."

START THE GROUP

A variety of starts can work. One technique is to tell the group that each member needs to come up with only four ideas. Your job is to start them, but do it clearly and cleanly. Don't let some people start before others. "OK, the question is, what disadvantages are there to increased community growth?" Remind them of the rules, "Remember, no evaluation!" Then say, "OK, who has an idea?"

ONCE UNDERWAY REINFORCE THE GROUND RULES

A usual problem is that someone tries to evaluate an idea. Your job is to gently but firmly reinforce that rule. "Hold it, Bill! Please don't evaluate Mary's idea. Do you have another one?"

HELP THE RECORDERS

Repeat an idea when it comes out. This will give the recorder a chance to accurately record it. When necessary, slow the group down. Ideas often come out too fast and your job is to help the recorder capture them.

REINFORCE THE GROUP

Simply compliment and encourage the group. "Look, you already have 40 ideas. Only 10 more to go! Keep going, the hard part is done."

ENCOURAGE THE CREATIVITY OF THE GROUP

Whenever the flow of ideas slows down, it's your job to get things going again. You might say, "Look at the question from another angle. What do you want this community to be like in the year 2009?"

DRAWN ON ALL THE GROUP MEMBERS

Help people along and call them by name. "John, you look like you are ready with an idea!"

END THE ACTIVITY

Make the ending clean and clear. "Great, just one more idea. OK, we have our 50 ideas. Excellent job. Now, if you later think of more ideas, we'll add them to the list."

Brainstorming should become an important technique for the Cooperative Extension educator. It can serve you well for doing your job effectively.

Key Words: group process, leadership skills, problem definition/solving

Problems! Without them the work of community development and Cooperative Extension educators would be easier and less exciting. Much of their work is solving problems. A community developer or Cooperative Extension educator who works with a group often finds the group's aim is to solve a problem or to change a situation.

Usually an attempt is made to solve the problem through some group action process. Based on experience, two generalizations can be made about this process. First, the process is not simple. It involves a series of steps: 1) problem perception, 2) problem definition, and 3) problem analysis. The **problem identification phase** generates and evaluates alternatives, decision making, and hopefully leads to action, the **problem solution phase.** A second generalization is that too many groups spend the majority of time generating, evaluating, and selecting alternatives. Often too little time is spent in defining and analyzing the problem.

An all too familiar consequence is that the solution selected is inappropriate for the real problem. Another consequence is that after implementing a solution, other serious problems emerge because the solution did not fit the problem. Unintended negative effects often result. Frequently a situation arises where the group can't agree on the problem, but tries to find a solution anyway. Most community developers can relate numerous examples of misapplied solutions and many failures trying to agree what the real problem is.

One remedy for this problem is a vigorous re-focusing on the **problem identification phase.** Any group which takes time to clearly focus on the problem will enjoy some positive benefits. Increased attention and effort given to problem identification increases the probability that the group is working on a common problem. Furthermore, the probability also increases that the group will generate a commonly accepted solution. Another benefit is that an often messy problem solving process can be cleaned up. A group should find that the group problem solving process is more positive and productive, thereby increasing the likelihood of further productive and common cooperative work. Although the steps of the **problem identification phase** are not crisp and clear cut, they are distinguishable from one another and from the **problem solution phase.**

The aims of the **problem identification phase** are threefold: 1) Developing an awareness and ownership of the problem, 2) Defining the problem, and 3) Acquiring as full an understanding as possible by the group. If these goals are reached, then the **problem solution phase** will not only be easier, but will probably lead to better and more realistic solutions.

PROBLEM PERCEPTION. During this step, you and the group should ask basic questions to aid in the perception of the problem. For example: Is there a problem? Who has the problem or whose problem is it? What are the features and dimensions of the problem?

The community developer's role is to help the group clearly recognize whether there is a problem or not. The group must accept the problem as one they can act upon. In short, the group or community must buy into the problem and own it.

PROBLEM DEFINITION. What is the problem? The answer to that question is the outcome of this step. The group and the community developer attempt to set boundaries for the problem. One warning - don't set too narrow limits too quickly. An example might help.

If the problem is identified as a lack of housing, a definition of the problem in terms of "how to increase the number of single family houses" may overlook other problems. That is, other forms of housing are ruled out by this narrow definition. Another example - If you define the problem as "how to increase the availability of energy supplies by 2010" you may eliminate consideration of the possibility of energy conservation.

Try not to limit the problem area unnecessarily. Be aware of the assumptions underlying any definition.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS. Questions such as why is it a problem, where is it a problem, when, who, how many, and how much are best asked during problem analysis. The goal is to develop a more true and more complete understanding of the problem.

APPROPRIATE TOOLS. All effective Cooperative Extension educators must not only be aware of the steps in the problem solving process, but they also need effective tools to assist in the process. The more tools and techniques Cooperative Extension educators have, the more effective they will be in assisting communities to identify and solve problems. The tools and techniques listed can be easily used during problem identification.

PROBLEM PERCEPTION. In working with a group, the community developer must help create a supportive and secure environment. Some techniques which can help and, at the same time, aid in problem perception are:

Individual perception. Ask each group member to state his/her personal views of the problem. Your job is to accept and support each of the statements as genuine. Try to prevent attacks on the statements. Record these statements in order to distinguish the statement from the person.

How does the problem feel? Allow the group to experience the problem. Have individuals with different views on the problem exchange roles and express one another's views. Role playing is a possibility. Interviewing the people involved and taking field trips to experience first hand the problem can help the group to learn how the problem feels.

The best, the worst, and the most probable. If a group resists dealing with a problem, try another approach. Ask the group in this order, what is the worst thing, the best thing, and the most probable thing that might happen by solving the problem? Ask the same questions for the other side; what's the worst, the best, and the most probable result if the problem isn't solved? You'll be surprised at how well this technique works.

Whose problem is it? Before you finish this step, be sure to ask, "Who owns this problem?" If the problem truly belongs to someone else, you may not be able to solve it or you will have to involve other parties. The bottom line is, can this group deal with this problem? Never underestimate the need for establishing ownership of a problem.

PROBLEM DEFINITION. To define a problem, you aim to state what the problem is.

State the problem as a question. Ask members to state their definitions as open-ended questions. Use how-to questions. For example: How do we create more jobs? How does the government create more jobs? Try to generate a list of possible definitions and then select one as a point of departure. One warning - don't get trapped into arguing over a best definition!

PAG/PAU. (This is not a Polynesian food.) If you previously asked members to state their definition of the question, you have a PAG (the Problem As Given by members). If this PAG is recorded, ask other members to state their definitions as Problem As Understood (PAU). For example, a PAG might be "How to create more jobs at the neighborhood level." The PAUs might include "How can we decentralize the job market?" "How can we develop local communities?" "How can we provide jobs for youth?"

Lasso. The lasso technique is used to clarify and refine definitions. If the definition is written on chart paper, simply circle (lasso) key words. For example, if the question is "How to create jobs at the neighborhood level?" Lasso create, jobs, and neighborhood. Then ask, who creates, what kind of jobs, how many, what neighborhoods? It is a good investment to spend time clarifying.

Is/Is Not. This technique simply used two categories (Is and Is Not) on chart paper or a black board. Under the Is column, write down facts that are known, e.g., when the problem happens, where it happens, etc.. Under the Is Not column, write down facts that are known not to be part of the problem, e.g., men have jobs, jobs are for highly skilled persons, etc. Use the results for discussion.

Draw. You can do more than talk about a problem - you can draw it. With some problems, a picture is worth a thousand words. A diagram of the type of housing needed by a community group may prove to be preferable to a verbal description.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS. Groups tend to actively resist analysis. They become impatient and hard to manage. At this point, groups want to rush forward with a solution so they can address the next problem. Your challenge is to keep the group active and involved in the process of reducing the problem into its parts, i.e., the analysis. The quality of the information and data available largely determines the quality of the group's decisions. Try to involve members in researching and analyzing the questions.

The Five Ws and The Several Hs. Ask questions concerned with Who, What, When, Where, Why, How often, How big, etc. Involve the group in generating a list of questions.

Compartmentalize the problem. Divide the problem into smaller and smaller sub-problems. You have to discover the optimum way to compartmentalize the problem so that parts are relatively independent of one another. For example, the job problem can be partitioned into job specialties; a nutrition problem can be divided into food availability, food production, food costs, etc.

Forcefield Analysis. This is a tried and effective technique. In forcefield analysis, a problem is viewed as a boundary between forces sustaining it from getting worse (+ forces) and forces restraining it from getting better (- forces). Forcefield analysis recognizes that relatively permanent change occurs when the sustaining forces are increased and the restraining forces are reduced. In problem analysis, use the force field analysis to specify which forces contribute to the problem (-) and which ones can resolve the problem (+).

Expert Witness. The legal system and the courts use expert witnesses. Community developers should also do the same. Experts can help in the understanding of a problem and can contribute to the success of the group problem solving process.

<u>Generalizing/Exemplifying</u>. It is common that during the analytical step, groups tend to overgeneralize and overexemplify. If a group is overgeneralizing, ask for specific examples. On the other hand, if the group spouts example after example, ask what the overall problem is. Your job is to help keep the focus.

If you and the group use all of some of these techniques, you may find the problem is well defined and analyzed. At that point, you are ready to go forward. So, go! However, if it appears the group has not done its job in defining and analyzing, consider using a <u>No-Go</u> call. Don't proceed, but you don't have to go directly to jail. Simply ask the group to reconsider the problem. Your job is to ensure that the group is at a point to move on to the solution phase.

A FINAL WORD ON PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

Experience and research have shown that the quality of a group decision on solving a problem tends to increase with the quality of the problem identification phase. You and the group can benefit from the efforts put into these steps. Remember, however, that the process is dynamic. It is sometimes fast, sometimes not. Don't try to bully or subject the group to every technique listed. <u>These tools, when appropriately used, will help you get results.</u> <u>You have to recognize the appropriate tool or technology for the appropriate situation</u>. Finally, before you work with a group, go through your own problem identification steps.

Key Words: communication, leadership skills, problem definition/solving

INHERENT DIFFICULTIES OF COLLABORATIVE PROJECTS

The following summary is adapted from a presentation given by Michael Spock of the University of Chicago at a UC Davis conference on Informal Science Programs on April 26, 1996.

There is much to be said for collaboration, but those embarking upon collaborative efforts involving multiple organizations should be as realistic about the difficulties of collaboration as they may be about potential benefits. Among the built-in difficulties are the following:

1. Collaboration is always at least second on the priority list of participants, whose first loyalty and commitment is to their home organization.

2. Getting the home organization to buy into the collaboration can be challenging. If the organization is enjoying smooth times and equilibrium, the response may be "Why bother?" If the organization is in a difficult period or it is in flux, the response may be "We can't afford to do it now."

3. It is often hard to describe a collaboration to those who aren't involved in it. It helps to have a model to point to and say, "We are like them, only with this difference."

4. Collaboration goes against the competitive instincts that have made many organizations successful in the first place. It can be hard to drop a "win-lose" mind set in order to arrive at "win-win" alternatives.

5. Overcoming organizational inertia is a big hurdle to launching any new venture. Having a senior champion within the organization, someone with the power to get things done, is often critical to its success.

6. Collaboration must demonstrate a tangible payoff to be worth all the effort. In many cases this is hard to show, or is only a vague promise at the outset.

7. Different organizational participants in a collaboration need at least some similarity in their organizational styles in order to be able to work together.

8. Collaborative projects consume time and resources. Money must be raised to support the infrastructure, staff, or other needs to keep the collaboration going, not just for funding the programs that result.

9. By their nature, collaborations tend to lose energy rather than persist. Members stop attending meetings or answering phone calls. Energy is required to overcome this natural tendency. Entropy is natural!

10. Funding is often the glue that holds a collaboration together, and funding sources eventually dry up.

These difficulties don't argue against collaboration; they merely reflect a call for a realistic approach.

Key Words: communication, group process, problem definition/solving

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Why can some individuals solve the puzzle below immediately? Children, in particular, faced with this problem can instantaneously solve it. Others, however, will labor over it for long periods of time.

• • •   The problem is straightforward: Nine dots or circles are

arranged in rows and columns of three. Draw four

• • •   straight lines without lifting the pencil from the paper that

will cross through all nine dots. There are no other rules and

• • •   there are no time limits.

The problem is solvable. If you want a solution, go to page 13. If you solve it, try a second problem with the same nine dots. Connect all nine without lifting your pencil from the paper in **three** lines. Or better yet, connect these nine dots without lifting the pencil from the paper by drawing **one** straight line. If you want help with solutions to these two puzzles, the answer is on page 13.

This section of *ADVICE* deals with another part of the problem solution phase. A question might be, "What do nine dots in equal rows and columns have to do with the work of a Cooperative Extension educator and problem-solving?" The answer is really quite basic. Cooperative Extension educators are, by definition, professional problem solvers. We use educational approaches to solve problems. As professional problem solvers, we have gone through fairly traditional and possibly rigorous training to learn to grapple with and solve problems. In most cases, the emphasis was almost exclusively on scientific approaches. The process of verbalizing about problems was almost always stressed. We learned to talk about, on, and around problems. To a great extent, these two approaches contain the tools and techniques we learned to use for solving problems. They may be adequate. **Are they adequate to solve the nine-dot puzzle?** Even though our usual tools and approaches may be adequate and appropriate for some problems, some problems resist the usual approaches. Our scientific, analytic, and verbalization tools sometimes limit us in understanding a problem, perceiving it, and consequently solving it. Other tools and approaches may be more appropriate.

CONCEPTUALIZATION

Conceptualization is another approach, distinct from scientific analysis and verbalization. It's a way of **thinking about** problems, of **having** ideas, and of **perceiving** and **looking** for solutions. It's one process which can be used to solve the nine-dot puzzle. It may also be a process to be used for solving problems that groups and communities face. These problems may have to do with energy utilization, budgets, or housing. Conceptualization is a process that can help all of us better understand problems and design solutions which work.

James I. Grieshop

ADVICE

Conceptualization is a learned skill. It can be increased through practice and it can also be decreased through lack of activity and by **conceptual blocks**. The focus here is on the latter.

Conceptual blocks can be quite dramatic. For example, why couldn't you immediately solve the three nine-dot puzzles? What about those individuals who look at them and solve them immediately? Possibly they have no blocks or mental obstacles to interfere with the process of conceptualization and perception. Why do adults block and children do not? A main reason is that certain blocks were created and these inhibit us in our perception and conceptualization. These obstacles not only inhibit us in terms of solving fun puzzles with nine dots, **but they also inhibit us in understanding and perceiving problems in our professional work and in our daily lives**. Anything that can help us reduce or remove these blocks would seem, by definition, to be beneficial for us.

As professional problem solvers, the process of conceptualizing needs more attention. Moreover, the process of conceptual blockbusting also needs attention. How does one break the blocks?

CONCEPTUAL BLOCKS

Before anyone can deal with ways to blockbust, they need to be aware of the **blocks**. Some of these are more germane to the nine-dot puzzles than others. There are at least four categories of blocks:

Intellectual and Expressive Blocks,	**Cultural and Environmental Blocks,** and
Emotional Blocks,	**Perceptual Blocks.**

Intellectual Blocks may result from several different factors. One block can result from an inefficient use of mental tactics. For example, if one attacks the nine-dot problem through the use of geometry or by applying geometric rules, these tactics may be inefficiently applied. In other cases, intellectual blocks may result from a lack of intellectual clout, i.e., we may lack or have incorrect information to solve a problem.

Expressive blocks relate to an individual's inability to communicate ideas, i.e., language is a block. A basic example is if the nine-dot problem were stated in Spanish, the majority of people reading this wouldn't even begin to deal with this problem. More to the point, the use of our **professional jargon** in community development, family and consumer science, and agriculture may well be expressive blocks or they may create such blocks.

Emotional Blocks include a fear of failure and fear of chaos. Because of these fears, individuals may block possibilities for solving problems. Some people don't grapple with the nine-dots because they cannot stand to fail. Common blocks occur in the process of brainstorming. Once an idea is generated, many people tend to judge and evaluate it rather than using the idea to generate more ideas. A perceived lack of challenge is another emotional block. Many people who see a problem aren't interested. They are apathetic and apathy becomes a block. Emotional blocks are also created by excessive zeal. Zealots, through zealous and doctrinaire behavior, tend to block out possibilities seen by others. Finally, the inability to distinguish between reality and fantasy often creates a block.

Cultural and Environmental Blocks are the third type of block. Cultural blocks result from the acculturation process. They are usually created through exposure to a given set of cultural patterns. Some examples are cultural blocks that include taboos. Sexual, religious, and ethnic taboos are common and can create blocks. Another very common cultural block is that humor should not be a part of the problem solving process. One cultural rule is that problem-solving is hard work and, thus, it's also not fun. The emphasis on scientific analysis also may result in cultural blocks. Reason always rules over fantasy. Environmental blocks, on the other hand, are more the result of our exposure to the immediate social and physical environment. Environmental blocks may include such

phenomena as a lack of cooperation and trust among colleagues. Autocratic bosses can be blocks, particularly a boss who values his or her own ideas more than those of anyone else. Organizations also create **environmental blocks**. There is, of course, the organization's way of solving problems.

Finally, there are **perceptual blocks**. Perceptual blocks are obstacles that prevent the problem solver from clearly perceiving either the problem or the information that is necessary to solve it. **The most common blocks to a solution to the nine-dot puzzle are perceptual**. Delineating or defining a problem too narrowly creates a block i.e., too many constraints are put on a problem - constraints that are imagined rather than real. Imaginary boundaries are placed on a problem. Think about the boundaries you imposed on the nine dots. The inability to see problems from different viewpoints is another perceptual block. Are we open to other views? Saturation, in which all sensory levels are saturated, is another example of a block. On the other hand, the failure to utilize all inputs by our sense in dealing with a problem can also be a block to conceptualization and successful solution of a problem.

A SOLUTION

Rather than simply providing the solution for the first
problem, a single hint may suffice. One line gets you
started.
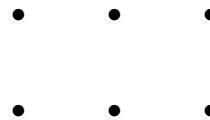
The solution to problems 2 and 3 could be given here. Try to work on them. If you can't reach a solution, or you want to check your solutions, write and ask for *ADVICE* tip sheet - Conceptual Blockbusting and you'll receive a copy. The address is James I. Grieshop, Human and Community Development, Cooperative Extension, University of California, 1 Shields Ave., Davis, CA 95616

SOME SIGNIFICANCE - CONCEPTUAL BLOCKBUSTING

What does this discussion signify for the professional problem solver and the Cooperative Extension educator? Does conceptualization really matter? Do conceptual blocks really make a difference? Do they exist? Will conceptual blockbusting make a difference? It seems clear that conceptual blocks are real and cause problems themselves, but how does one overcome the blocks? To a great extent, **simple awareness of various blocks and their effects wins half the battle**. Once you are aware of perceptual or any other blocks, and you are aware that they are blocking your perception of a problem, this awareness will aid you in overcoming them. Awareness is critical. We need to be sensitive to our own conceptual blocks, their origin, and consequences. However, as educators, our role goes beyond this. We must also work to assist our client groups to be aware of their blocks as they address their problems. If not, everyone may struggle long, but unnecessarily, with nine-dots and more serious problems.

In a remarkable and entertaining book entitled *Conceptual Blockbusting*, James Adams discusses the blocks mentioned here and about **conscious** and **unconscious blockbusting**. Adams' argument is that the first step is to be aware of the blocks, and with this awareness, many of the blocks will be reduced or removed. Adams also suggests that alternative thinking languages and verbal languages are one type of language appropriate to one type of problem, whereas mathematical languages are more appropriate to others, and that other languages can be used to overcome some of the blocks.

Some other books that deal with blockbusting, imaging, and conceptualizing are:

Adams, James L. 1980. *Conceptual Blockbusting: A Guide To Better Ideas.* 2nd edition. W. W. Norton, New York.

Koberg, D., and J. Bagnall. 1974. *The Universal Traveler.* W. Kaufmann. Los Altos, California.

Papanek, V. 1973. *Design for the Real World.* Bantam Books, New York.

Key Words: learning, problem definition/solving

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THINKING ABOUT PROBLEMS

UNDERSTANDING A QUESTION CONSTITUTES TWO-THIRDS OF THE ANSWER.

Palestinian Proverb

A PROBLEM WELL PUT IN HALF-SOLVED.

John Dewey (1938)

OUR PROBLEM IS 90% SOLVED WHEN WE HIT ON THE "RIGHT" OR KEY QUESTION.

Herbert Thelen (1912)

THE MERE FORMULATION OF A PROBLEM IS FAR MORE IMPORTANT THAN ITS SOLUTION WHICH MAY BE MERELY A MATTER OF MATHEMATICAL OR EXPERIMENTAL SKILLS. IMAGINATION IS FAR MORE IMPORTANT THAN KNOWLEDGE.

Albert Einstein

Key Words: communication, problem definition/solving

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NEEDS ASSESSMENT - THE STAR TREK WAY

These are the voyages of the Starship Enterprise. Its 5-year mission is to explore strange new worlds, to seek out new life and new civilizations, and to boldly go where no man has gone before.

James T. Kirk, Captain
Starship *Enterprise*

With these now famous words, we are introduced to the long running (in syndication) television series *Star Trek*. They also introduce us to Captain Kirk, Spock, McCoy, Scotty, and the crew of the Starship *Enterprise* as they explore, reconnoiter, and assess new worlds and problems. The crew's aim is to extend the limits of knowledge and to diffuse new ideas. On television and possibly in the audience's imagination, they are Cooperative Extension agents of the future.

These intrepid extenders, like Cooperative Extension agents of today, are concerned with assessment of problems at a community level. Both the *Star Trek* crew and today's Cooperative Extension professionals seek to use systematic, deliberate, and sustained efforts to develop good programs. Although the programs are different, the processes are similar.

Some of the famous script lines from *Star Trek* can be used to illustrate certain important points about assessment by Cooperative Extension educators. In the case of Cooperative Extension, assessment should be used at the beginning (as in needs assessment), during (as in formative evaluation), or at the conclusion (as in summative evaluation) of an educational program. Ideally, assessment is intentional, systematic, planned, and sustained.

TYPES OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Needs assessment, as indicated, is a particular form of assessment that feeds forward information. Needs Assessment can be categorized into three basic types: 1) Reconnaissance, 2) Preliminary, and 3) Focused. These differ in scope (breadth and degree of specificity) and intensity, as do the types hidden in every episode of *Star Trek*. The three types have a hierarchy relation because the first lays the groundwork for the second, and the second supports the third. *Star Trek* also provides a means to differentiate and specify between types of assessment.

Reconnaissance Assessment.

> *To explore strange new worlds, to seek out new life and new civilizations, to boldly go where no man has gone before.*

In *Star Trek*, the mission is to reconnoiter. This type of assessment is exploratory with a continuous scanning of the environment. The Cooperative Extension product is an ever-changing picture of social and economic characteristics and trends that occur over time in the community. A Reconnaissance Assessment produces a global view or general picture <u>and</u> documentation of the nature of the needs within a subject or geographical area.

There are a number of suitable research techniques available to Cooperative Extension professionals for conducting Reconnaissance Assessments including use of census and statistical records, participant observation, surveys, interviews, questionnaires, and content analysis.

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What do you think, Spock?

In most episodes of *Star Trek*, when responding to a puzzling, dangerous, or uncertain situation, Captain Kirk turns to his science officer Mr. Spock and asks for his analysis. Kirk is searching for further information, understanding, and clarity. Our friends on the *Enterprise* have begun the process of a Preliminary Assessment.

For Cooperative Extension's purposes, this type of assessment is more specific and looks more closely at a program area than does the Reconnaissance Assessment. It seeks to identify the characteristics of social issues related to general Cooperative Extension programs and their implications for Cooperative Extension. Preliminary Assessments seek to elicit general information about a single problem area (e.g., nutritional or economic status of a community) and/or client group (e.g., small farmers or refugees). Such intermediate level information is a prerequisite to soliciting detailed information required for planning specific educational programs.

Research techniques used in making a Preliminary Assessment are often the same used for Reconnaissance Assessments. Their more narrow focus distinguishes them from the latter. If you use census or statistical data, such information is sorted into appropriate categories (e.g., for specific groups of small farmers). Surveys or questionnaires must be used carefully, taking care to ask questions which begin to generate <u>specific</u> information.

Focused Assessment.

Beam us down, Scotty!

With this command, Captain Kirk and the others are off to conduct a firsthand, keen inspection of a particular problem. They seek to uncover specific details and to identify particular elements of their newest challenge. Kirk and the others are involved in a Focused Assessment. Seldom does Kirk leap into a Focused Assessment. This activity invariably follows the Reconnaissance and Preliminary Assessments.

For Cooperative Extension's purposes, Focused Assessments look at issues with particularly narrow scopes related to a defined population. The expectation is often to develop direct education activities. Also, the Focused Assessment should follow the Reconnaissance and Preliminary ones. Of the three assessment strategies, Focused Assessment deals with problem-solving strategies closest to the level of the problem. Reconnaissance and Preliminary Assessment <u>precede</u> and <u>define</u> the issues, needs, and priorities before problems can be selected for a Focused Assessment.

Again, a number of the research techniques for eliciting new information may be utilized for Focused Assessments. All too frequently there is no existing information (secondary data) available. The Cooperative Extension professional may then be required to <u>design, collect, and analyze</u> his/her own information. Participatory techniques may facilitate an assessment that is as thorough or simplistic as the professional/researcher desires. Techniques that might be used are nominal group process, public forum/hearings, focused group interviews, key informants, task forces/advisory groups, and with well focused interviews and surveys.

Needs Assessment, if conducted seriously, is a systematic and sustained process. It begins with soliciting information that will be used to determine needs, continues with some prioritization of these needs, moves to a measurement of strengths and resources available, is required to deal with the priority needs, and finally leads to some decision to embark on an educational program. For Cooperative Extension, Needs Assessment can be one process which builds bridges to the public.

In *Star Trek,* assessment is also a systematic and sustained process. However, the task tends to be much less complicated. For one thing, every *Star Trek* situation is always resolved by the end of the program's one hour time slot, including commercials. Within Cooperative Extension, the process can be neither as short nor as regular. However, it can be as organized and successful.

Beam us up, Scotty!

TRIANGULATION

An important principal for designing Needs Assessment is triangulation. Triangulation refers to gathering information from at least three sources and through three perspectives. The principle underlying triangulation is that using multiple research techniques (e.g., surveying, observation, use of secondary information, integrated techniques) is more powerful for discovering the full spectrum of information than relying on a single technique. Using multiple perspectives will also yield a valid description of local needs. Finally, triangulation refers not only to collecting data from different sources and using different techniques, but also refers to the interpretation of information from different perspectives.

For more information on Needs Assessment, consult:

Grieshop, J., and M. Thieleke. 1981. *Cooperative Extension Needs Assessment Manual.* UCCE Department of Applied Behavioral Sciences.

Butler, L., and R. Howell. 1980. *Coping With Growth: Community Needs Assessment Techniques.* Western Rural Development Center. Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon.

Key Words: leadership skills, problem definition/solving

(LOQ) UACIOUS

Loquacious   Given to excessive talking; garrulous; talkative (syn.).
  - *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*

Both negative and positive perspectives on needs assessment are concealed in the term "loquacious." The Cooperative Extension professional should be attuned to both in order to attain goals associated with needs assessment. These include identifying real needs, mobilizing public support, and setting the stage for successful programs.

On one hand, a loquacious needs assessor tends to talk too much and hears only him/herself. The needs of the client or the public may get drowned out through this talkativeness, or the needs assessor encounters a talkative client who drowns out the rest of the public. On the other hand, "loquacious" provides a neat mnemonic for recalling three skills that are useful to the needs assessor. LOQ provides the device.

> L represents Listening
> O represents Observing
> Q represents Questioning

Ideally, these three skills used together lead to effective needs assessment and problem identification. Used in the described sequence, the three can be combined to ensure the involvement of local people in identifying their real problems and needs. This foundation of involvement, if carefully built, will help create the people's ownership of the educational program developed. Experience has taught us that this form of ownership precedes the support that is currently so desperately sought by public programs. When active participation of local people occurs (the LOQ approach) in place of more passive approaches, such as questionnaires and surveys, a dialogue between the community residents/users and the agency/Extension personnel results. A lesson learned by behavioral scientists and Cooperative Extension professionals alike, but is often forgotten, is that face-to-face communication generated through Listening (L), Observing (O), and Questioning (Q) also creates information and support.

What are the LOQ techniques? Nearly all of the techniques are used to collect non-statistical data. There is no ideal or best method among the three. All three should be used to complement and enrich your work. They are useful regardless of the subject area, be it animal science, environmental science, horticulture, pest management, or community development.

LISTENING. Listening tends to be underutilized by most individuals. Hearing is not listening. In recent years some American corporations have energetically pursued a program to increase their ability at listening by training their employees to listen better to each another and others. Informal but active listening to others will yield important

information on issues and problems. Children particularly provide surprising information. Structured listening, sometimes in the form of oral histories, has been used quite effectively.

OBSERVING. Observation is a something we do regularly. However, observing is not always done carefully and systematically as a field research technique. Observation can be direct or indirect, structured or unstructured. Observing actual behavior of a group or a person is essential for understanding their needs - be they energy or economics. Behavior observed can be public or private. Observation, used as a complement to surveys or questionnaires, can provide detailed information on behavior, hopes, and aspirations.

PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION (P.O.). This is a technique developed through the work of anthropologists and is now used in a variety of settings for obtaining data. P.O. combines observation with listening and asking questions. It has been used by energy personnel, consumer economists, and organizational development specialists. The primary emphasis and strength of participant observation is on obtaining data, rather than analyzing or testing them. Since the observer's own perceptions may affect the collection process, it's important to share the information with others, especially with the community residents or participants, as a reliability check.

BEHAVIORAL MAPPING. This is a second observation technique. The observer attempts to observe and record specific behaviors in relation to specific locations. Two examples are: Do farm workers who spray pesticides eat lunch near the areas they sprayed? Can daily energy needs be mapped by site and time? Map making, in certain cases, can be an effective observation tool. City and county planners use maps regularly. The Cooperative Extension educator can do the same.

QUESTIONING. The issue is not simply asking questions; rather it is asking the *right* questions, in the *right* way, and of the *right* people. Behavioral scientists regularly use interviews and surveys as tools to collect data. The interview offers some advantages over other approaches. An interview is normally used to elicit information, but it can also be used to exchange information. The intelligent interviewer/educator uses the interview format as a means to educate and introduce new ideas. Key informants, including opinion leaders, are a good source of information.

SUMMARY. "Do as I say, not as I do." This common saying provides a reason for using the LOQ approaches together. If you simply listen to a person, only one picture of a problem or a need emerges, but observing their behavior may reveal a totally different picture of the same issue. Therefore, if the Cooperative Extension educator relies only on what people say (a product of Questioning and Listening), a false image may result. Observing is also an important component. Finally, listening, observing, and questioning are useful in another way. They not only generate information, but establish a dialogue between community residents and the Cooperative Extension educator.

Key Words: leadership skills, learning, listening

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NON-TRIVIAL PURSUITS: A BRIEF ON GAMING/SIMULATION

Monopoly, Careers, and Old Maid are all well known examples of popular American games. Less well known games include Conrail, Wff-n-Proof, and BaFa BaFa. While these two groups of games share attributes common to all games, such as rules, player roles, and playing paraphernalia, the latter are distinguished from the first by their purpose in that they are basically learning or education games. Games and simulations, ranging from role playing to case studies to use of guided fantasy, have become important methods for instruction, teaching, and learning. Since the early work in the U.S. in the late 1950s and in Europe in the late 1960s, gaming/simulation has become increasingly important to training and decision making processes in academic settings as well as business, the military, and the social sciences.

Games are a form of communication and are a recognized, structured approach to instruction (Duke 1974). The term "game" is applied to a group activity or exercise in which players cooperate or compete toward a given end within the boundaries of explicit rules. When a scenario is added to a game, it becomes a simulation. Debriefing following play is a usual and valuable component, particularly if it is an educational game/simulation.

At least four levels of games have been identified:

1) Motivational - designed to create interest in an issue or problem,

2) Teaching/Training - designed to teach,

3) Research - designed to improve knowledge and communication about a problem, and

4) Pre-decision or Problem Solving - designed as an input for policy decision making.

When played or engaged, gaming simulation creates an environment for learning that aims to generate discovery learning as its primary effect. While wild claims may often be made for the effectiveness of games/simulations, there does appear to be much of value in games and simulations (Armstrong and Taylor 1971; Duke 1974; Pate and Hateda 1979; Jaques 1984). Games and simulations are valuable for promoting such skills as communicating, role-playing, problem solving, leading, and decision making. In addition, motivation and interest in a subject matter are increased as a result of participation in games and simulation. In terms of cognitive learning, there is evidence for the effect on retention, energizing the learning process, and the facilitation of an understanding of relationships between distinct areas of a subject matter. When well designed and constructed, gaming/simulation offers choices, problems to solve, and decisions to make for those involved.

Much evaluative work on the effects of gaming/simulation has focused on comparing it with more traditional methods of teaching. Usually, no significant differences have been found between the approaches and as a result, gaming/simulation is criticized for not being an improvement over traditional forms of instruction. However, much of the criticism is undeserved, since gaming/simulation does not utilize product focus. Rather, its focus is the process and it is the process that should be measured.

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Gaming/simulation offers certain advantages over traditional approaches to teaching. According to Armstrong and Taylor (1971), gaming/simulation

1) Is a questioning approach to instruction as opposed to an answering technique,

2) Exposes the nature of problems,

3) Indicates the nature of relationships in complex systems, and

4) Provides an opportunity to critically examine assumptions and implications underlying decisions and consequences for certain actions.

An aim of gaming/simulation is to represent the reality of a situation, e.g., the U.S. Food Marketing system that otherwise is too complex to readily understand. Games, in particular, try to construct an even more complete conceptual map of reality. Thus, as a game is played, each round of play should build up the players' conceptual map of the system or reality addressed.

If the number and diversity of games are indicators of their popularity, then games and simulations are indeed popular. Currently, the number of games and simulations is in the thousands; the list is impressive and broad. Since the early games developed by the military and later by business, social sciences, and academics, similar activities have been produced and utilized for business management, health sciences, cross-cultural training, agriculture, chemistry, public decision making, international trade, and higher education to name a few. Since the early 1970s, gaming/simulation has had a succession of journals. The first was *Simulation/Gaming News*, started in 1971, followed by *Simulation/Gaming* in 1973, which was absorbed by the *Journal of Experiential Learning and Simulation* in 1978.

Briefly, the field of gaming/simulation is characterized by a variety of subjects, techniques, audiences, clients, and styles. Despite the variety, bear in mind a caveat - gaming/simulation is one of the most costly modes of communication for both construction and use. (Duke 1974; 1969). One is well advised to carefully consider alternative forms and approaches to instruction and communication. If gaming/simulation is the method of choice, its pursuit requires effort, planing, and hard work. Indeed, it is a non-trivial pursuit.

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Key Words: adult learning, communication, group process

SOLVING PROBLEMS AND MAKING DECISIONS

In a five-year study on productivity conducted by Hughes Aircraft Company[1], the following suggestions on how to facilitate problem-solving and decision-making were identified.

- Anticipate problems. Be alert for symptoms and whenever possible, head off problems with preventive action before they fully materialize.

- Get into the habit of solving problems and making decisions. Avoid indecision, vacillation, procrastination, and rationalization. One important note: Don't handle problems or make decisions when you are tired, preoccupied, or irritated.

- Give problems/decisions priority in accordance to their importance.

- Define the problem. Strip it of all unnecessary elements and distill it down to its most simple terms.

- Subdivide particularly difficult problems, when appropriate, into related segments. Often by solving one segment, the other segments lend themselves more readily to a solution.

- Get all the facts. Discard irrelevant material, eliminate biases, challenge assumptions, and correlate all relevant material.

- Analyze material carefully. Draw affected people into the decision process. People who share in a decision, even an unpopular one, are more likely to be committed to its success than if they had no part in it.

- Formulate possible solutions.

- Assess risks and consequences.

- Incubate, set a time limit, and decide as promptly as possible, but avoid making a premature decision. Remember that frequently more than one choice will work equally well.

- Plan to implement action clearly and effectively. Consider the need for contingency plans and develop them as appropriate.

- Take timely action, follow up, and take corrective action as necessary.

- Accept responsibility for each decision and its consequences.

[1]Ranftl, R. M., 1978. *R & D Productivity.* 2nd Edition. Hughes Aircraft Company. Culver City, California.

Key Words: leadership skills, problem definition/solving

ANCIENT
ADVICE
FROM
BENJAMIN
FRANKLIN
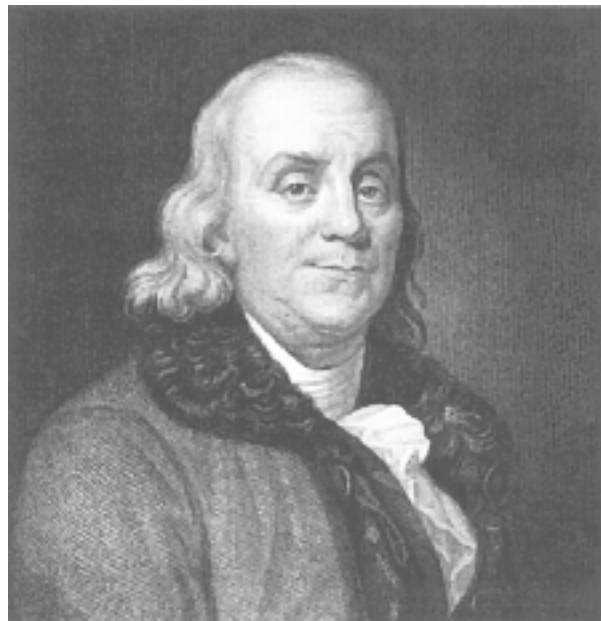
Benjamin Franklin relates[1] that in 1744, on the conclusion of the Treaty of Lancaster between the government of Virginia and the Six Native American Nations, the heads of the Virginia Delegation offered to provide for the education of the sons of the chiefs of the Six Nations at Williamsburg College. The envoys promised the chiefs that they would see to it that their sons would get everything they needed, and that they would be taught all the knowledge of the white man.

The Six Nations spokesman answered, "You who are wise, must know that people have different ideas about things, and thus you will not take it badly if our ideas about this type of education are not the same as yours. We already have some experience of it. Several of our young men have already been taken into the colleges of the provinces of the North. They were instructed there in all your sciences, but when they returned, they were bad runners, they knew nothing of all the ways to live in the forest, they could not stand cold or hunger, they did not know how to build a hut, catch a deer, or kill an enemy, and they spoke our language badly. They would not make good hunters, warriors, or advisors. They were absolutely good for nothing. However, we are grateful for your offer, even if we must decline it and to prove our gratitude, if the gentlemen from Virginia wish to send us a dozen of their sons, we will take responsibility for their education, we will teach them all that we know, and we will make them <u>men</u>."

[1]*Remarks Concerning the Savage in North America* 1744.(?)

Key Words: problem definition/solving

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THOUGHTS ON PLANNING FROM FIFTY YEARS OF ACTIVE PRACTICE AND TEACHING FROM CHARLES W. ELLIOT[1]

Planning is design. It is the interrelation of forces to produce a desired result. Every program or project for which a plan is designed involves many forces or ingredients each with its own measure of values or importance. There are always physical or natural forces, social considerations, economic factors, and aesthetic or spiritual aspects to be evaluated, as well as purpose, timing, and other considerations. Different individuals, groups, and peoples in different times and countries measure each of these forces in different ways; and for each project, each of the forces involved has a different value, weight, or significance.

Furthermore, time and inevitable change cause whatever relative values may have been assigned to different forces to change also, so that what was once a good and workable plan becomes outdated and inappropriate. Almost all of the forces involved in planning follow the giant syndrome of life: 1) Birth or Beginning, 2) Growth and Development, 3) Fulfillment, 4) Decay - partially offset by care and rehabilitation, and finally 5) Death or Destruction. Values reflect the stage in this syndrome of each of those forces. Planning therefore, requires understanding and projection of trends in value changes in and among the forces involved in any particular project or program. Only then can a plan fulfill another definition - *Planning is the guidance of change.*

Planning is proposing. Start by proposing the *Best* and not the *Practical* or *What Has the Best Chance of Approval and Early Accomplishment* which are what too many planners now consider the mark of success. There will certainly be compromises, reductions, and limitations on any proposal during its review and before its approval and implementation. If a minimum or practical proposal is presented, those inevitable compromises may turn a good project into a bad one. In order to mobilize support for any plan, the proposal must be worth fighting for, and, if it doesn't attract support, it probably doesn't deserve approval. People respond to a *challenge* - not to a whimper.

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One role played by nonformal educators is connected to earliest man - the hunter and gatherer. Whereas in prehistoric times and even in some places in the world today, man had to hunt and gather food as a survival technique. The nonformal educator or change agent must be a hunter and gatherer of information from people in groups.

The gathering of information from people in groups is not the only way to obtain the information successfully. Talking to individuals, reading books, reading census reports, etc. are also used to gather information. However, much of the time the informal educator works in groups and with groups. In fact, it is estimated that 11 million meetings occur everyday in the U.S. Many or these meetings are initiated by our modern day hunters and gatherers.

Quite obviously, it is in the educator's best interest to be effective and efficient in gathering information. The quality of the information is extremely important as the educator tries to solve problems, assess needs, set priorities, plan and implement programs; in short, fulfill his other responsibilities.

A variety of techniques have been perfected to aid in the collection of information from groups. Brainstorming is one such technique (*Brainstorming,* on page 4, provides a detailed description of this process). Interacting or brainstorming techniques are commonly used to attempt to solve problems. The brainstorming approach is generally superior to conventional discussion groups. More ideas can be generated with brainstorming, but its use is limited. Brainstorming is best used with more or less homogeneous groups, groups that are not split by factions, and groups that have experience working together.

What about those situations in which groups are not homogeneous, are beset by splits and factions, and are new to one another? In such cases the Nominal Groups Process may be a useful technique for successful hunting and gathering.

Nominal Group Process (NGP) refers to the structured process in which individuals work in the presence of others, but have limited verbal interaction with one another. The group output is a written record. In its strictest form, Nominal Group Process will minimize any discussion and interaction. However, a more effective form permits, but limits, discussion and it is completed with a group decision related to the problem under study. NGP has been found to be a very effective technique to ensure individual participation in a group setting for problem identification.

The Nominal Group Process entails the following steps: 1) Silent, individual brainstorming of ideas on the topic at hand, 2) Structured, limited sharing of ideas with discussion are withheld, 3) Spontaneous discussion, 4) Nominal or silent voting, 5) Group discussion of voting, and 6) Final group vote. Usually the process can be completed in about two hours.

Can NGP work for you? Can you use it as a hunter and gatherer? The following description of the steps involved will help you evaluate NGP as a useful technique in working with groups.

PREPARATION

As with any group meeting, convene in a comfortable facility, large enough to hold all the participants in small groups of 5 to 8 participants each. As a informal educator, you may assume the role of overall coordinator. You will have to assign or select a Small Group Leader or Recorder for each small group. The following supplies are

required for each group: one large pad of newsprint, broad felt tip marking pen, masking tape, six 5 X 8 cards per person, and pencils. You also need an easel or some means on which to hang the newsprint pad.

GETTING STARTED

As the coordinator, request the cooperation and assistance from the large group. Emphasize that the meeting will focus on problem identification. The reason for meeting is to identify and define the problem and not to find a solution. Assign 5 to 8 participants to each group. An easy way to do this is to have people count off. Assign an identifying number or letter to each group. Make sure that each small group gets together in a common space, preferable around a table.

Before you start, make certain that you are able to state precisely the wording of the problem or question at hand. As the coordinator, it is your responsibility to previously determine what kind of information you are requesting from the participants. Imprecise problem statement of fuzziness or the type of information to be gathered will have a negative effect on the outcome.

STEP 1. Nominal Group Activity (10 minutes)

The coordinator states the task at hand and writes it in precise terms. Write large enough for everyone to see. Group Leaders/Recorders distribute the 5 X 8 cards to individual group members. The Leaders asks each participant to write in short phrases other ideas and suggestions regarding the problem. The Group Leader should remind them there are no right or wrong ideas or suggestions. Individuals work alone and silently. It is the job of the Coordinator and Group Leader to politely keep the silence. The Group Leader also writes down his/her ideas.

STEP 2. Round-Robin Listing of Ideas (20 minutes)

Within each of the small groups, go around the table and have each person briefly list one idea. Clarification of the idea is permitted, but discussion is not. The Group Recorder lists the ideas by number on the large pad. The Recorder must not summarize, restate, or categorize the ideas. Simply list them as stated. Continue this step until all participants have stated one idea each.

STEP 3. Individual Group Discussion (30 minutes)

Each group discusses the ideas listed on the pads. Clarification, lobbying, and defense of the ideas are now permitted. Discussion between or among groups should be avoided.

STEP 4. First Vote (10 minutes)

On new 5 X 8 cards, each person in the small group writes "First Vote" in the right hand corner and the small group identification in the upper left corner. Using the numbers assigned to each idea in STEP 2, each person ranks the items listed on the large sheets. Individuals work silently and alone. In order to avoid problems in ranking, there should be agreement on how many items are required for ranking. No fewer than three or more than ten are recommended.

TAKE A TEN MINUTE COFFEE BREAK

During the break, the Group Leader tallies the marked items. These scores will establish Group Priorities. In order to identify the five highest priority items, score 5 for each individual's top priority items, 4 for the second priority, and so on.

STEP 5. Group Discussion of First Vote (20 minutes)*

Before the end of the coffee break, Group Leaders combine the results of the small groups into a Master List. Display these results on the large newsprint. Each item on the Master List is assigned its own reference number and total score. Combine the scores of duplicate statements from different groups.

Each small group is then instructed to discuss independently the items on the Master List. The Group Leaders should obtain clarification on any item for members of their groups. Open discussion between and among groups is discouraged.

STEP 6. Final Group Vote (10 minutes)*

On a new 5 X 8 card, each group member writes FINAL VOTE in the upper right hand corner and the group identification in the upper left corner. Each person makes a final ranking of the priorities. This step leads to the elimination of some items and permits changes in personal views. Each person works independently and in silence.

STEP 7. Closing Down (20 minutes)

Group Leaders tally the final group rankings and combine them into a final master list of priorities as they did in STEP 5. The Coordinator clarifies each priority so that everyone understands what has been decided by the large group. The Coordinator should also state how the information was gathered, what the possible next steps are, and thanks and praises everyone for the accomplishments. Leaders should collect all the materials. Usually, the meeting is then adjourned. Feedback on the use of the Nominal Group Process may be sought at this time.

*If a meeting has 10 people or less, and all participants are in one group, the NGP is simpler. In such a case, there is no need for Group Leaders, Master Lists, and STEPS 5 and 6.

Key Words: group process, leadership skills

TWO FACES OF RISK: HAZARD AND OUTRAGE - FACTORS IN COMMUNITY PERCEPTION OF RISK[1]

While scientists and public agencies may use monitoring and hazard evaluation to assess risks of technologies, members of the public may use very different sources of data. The public may not only use a broader assortment of sources, but may end up with a very different assessment of the same technology. While scientists may use scientific and technical factors (the Hazard Dimension), the public often uses many non-technical factors (the Outrage Dimension). Sandman (1988) has articulated this outrage dimension as a tool to assist public agency representatives to understand components in the larger public's perception of risk. Key factors underlying community perception of risk and often community anger are:

A. *Voluntary risks are accepted more readily than those that are imposed.* When people don't have choices or feel they have no choice, they become angry. Similarly, when communities feel coerced into accepting risks, they feel angry and react negatively to coercion. As a result, they focus on the government's process and pay far less attention to substantive risk issues. Ultimately, they come to see the risk as more risky.

B. *Risks under individual control are accepted more readily than those under someone else's control.* Most people feel safer with risks under their own control. People tend to feel more comfortable with environmental risks they can do something about themselves, rather than having to rely on others (including the government) to protect them.

C. *Risks that seem fair are more acceptable than those that seem unfair.* A community that feels stuck with the risk and gets little of the benefit from it will determine that the risk is unfair and thus it is more serious.

D. *Risk information that comes from trustworthy sources is more readily believed than information from untrustworthy sources.* Trust and credibility are vital. Ongoing battles with communities erode trust and make the agency message far less believable.

E. *Risks that seem ethically objectionable will seem more risky than those that don't.* Many people judge pollution to be morally wrong. As former U.S. EPA Assistant Administrator Milton Russell stated, "Speaking to some people about an optimal level of pollution is like talking about an acceptable number of child molesters."

F. *Natural risks seem more acceptable than artificial risks.* A risk caused by God, such as an earthquake, is more acceptable than one caused by people, such as pesticides in food.

G. *Exotic risks seem more risky than familiar risks.* A cabinet full of home pesticides, for example, seems much less risky than a nearby chemical manufacturer of pesticides.

H. *Risks associated with memorable events are considered more risky.* Risks that bring to mind the disasters in Bhopal or Love Canal are likely to be feared more greatly than those that lack such associations.

[1]Based on a variety of sources, but especially from material in Hance, B. J., C. Chess, and P. M. Sandman. 1988. *Improving Dialogue with Communities*. Environmental Communication Research Program. Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.

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I. *Risks that are dreaded seem less acceptable than those that carry less dread.* The fear of cancer is greater than the fear of emphysema.

J. *Risks that are undetectable create more fear than detectable risks.* Risks with effects that may take years to show up are more likely to be feared.

K. *Risks that are well understood by science are more acceptable than those that are not.* Risks that scientists can explain to communities seem more acceptable than those about which scientists admit a great deal uncertainty.

Experts and political representatives have discovered the risks that elicit the greatest public concern (e.g., pesticides) may not be the ones that science has identified as the most significant (e.g., smoking, not using seat belts). The greater the number and the gravity of the above listed factors, the greater the likelihood of the public's concern about the risk regardless of the scientific data. It does little good to dismiss the public's concern as uninformed, misguided, irrational, or as a product of not listening. The public's concern is usually real. Sandman offers a solid guide,

> "Pay as much attention to Outrage Factors, and the community's concerns as to scientific variables. At the same time, don't underestimate the public's ability to understand science."

Key Words; communication, group process, risk-taking

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY IN FIVE CHAPTERS

CHAPTER 1

I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I fall in.
I am lost......I am hopeless.
It isn't all my fault.
It takes forever to find a way out.

CHAPTER 2

I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I pretend I don't see it.
I fall in again.
I can't believe I'm in the same place.
But it isn't all my fault.
It still takes a long time to get out.

CHAPTER 3

I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I see it there.
I fall in......
        it's a habit......
                but my eyes are open.
I know where I am.
It is my fault.
I get out immediately.

CHAPTER 4

I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I walk around it.

CHAPTER 5

I walk down a different street.

Source: Anonymous

Key Words: adult learning, learning

SUMMARY OF COMMUNITY ANALYSIS METHODS

The matrix below summarizes attributes and elements of four common methods for conducting community analysis. Although this matrix was originally developed for an analysis of rural libraries, the matrix can be applied to other settings such as health, education, and social services.

	Telephone Survey	Patron Survey	Key Leader Interview	Focus Group Interview
Primary Characteristics	Structured telephone interview with narrowly focused and open-ended questions.	Questionnaire with focused questions completed at the library.	In-person interview with open-ended questions and many probes.	Group interview generating discussion on general questions.
Target Audience	Randomly selected library users and non-users.	Library users. Self-selected.	Representatives from business, government, schools, and community.	Individuals representative of local communities. Both users and non-users.
Types of Information Generated	Emphasis on awareness, knowledge of, and support for library. Data on use, services, shortcomings, changes needed, plus demographic information.	Emphasis on use patterns of library, support, preferred changes, and demographic information.	Emphasis on perceived mission, roles, and services of library and on how groups use the library.	Emphasis on perceptions of library, individuals' interaction with library, and relationship of the library to the local community.
Types of Results	Quantitative: frequencies, percentages, rankings.	Quantitative: frequencies, percentages, rankings.	Qualitative: Summaries of ideas, opinions, suggestions, but categorized by respondent groups and communities.	Qualitative: Summaries of groups' views, suggestions.
Special Requirements	System to randomly select persons to be called.	Decisions on when the surveys will be available to the public.	Skills in listening and asking probe questions. Selection of Key Leaders.	Skills in facilitating group discussion.
Resources Needed	Skilled/patient individuals to do phoning. Persons to code and tabulate data. Telephones, computers, operators, money for printing costs.	Person(s) to code and tabulate data. Computer for data entry and analysis. Money for printing costs.	Person skilled in conducting in-depth interviews and with time to schedule interviews.	Skilled person for leading discussions. Persons to organize and host focus groups.
Strengths of Methods	Get results from both users and non-users.	Can be done periodically throughout the year to monitor use, satisfaction, and needed changes.	Can yield in-depth information on library and its relationship to community. Can be used to monitor Key Leaders' views.	Can yield important information on short and long range changes and depth of support.
Limitations	Individuals interviewed may not be random. Persons without phones or unlisted numbers aren't included. May eliminate non-English speakers.	Self-selected group of respondents; not random. May eliminate non-English readers, less literate, and sight-impaired.	Time consuming. Respondents may be coy. Leaders may be neither representative nor leaders.	Always a question of representativeness of group.

Key Words; communication, listening, problem definition/solving

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CHAPTER 2

Leading and Communication

TEN KEYS TO EFFECTIVE LISTENING

These keys are a positive guideline to better listening. In fact, they're at the heart of developing better listening habits that could last a lifetime.

THE TEN KEYS	THE BAD LISTENER	THE GOOD LISTENER
1. Find areas of interest.	Tunes out dry subjects.	Seizes opportunity and asks "What's in it for me?"
2. Judge content not delivery.	Tunes out if the delivery is poor.	Judges content, skips over delivery errors.
3. Hold your fire.	Tends to enter into an argument.	Doesn't judge until comprehension is complete.
4. Listen for ideas.	Listens for facts.	Listens for central themes.
5. Be flexible.	Takes intensive notes using only one system.	Takes fewer notes. Uses 4-5 different systems, depending on speaker.
6. Work at listening.	Shows no energy output. Attention is faked.	Works hard, exhibits active body state.
7. Resist distractions	Is easily distracted.	Fights or avoids distractions, tolerates bad habits, knows how to concentrate.
8. Exercise your mind.	Resists difficult expository material. Seeks light, recreational material.	Uses heavier material as exercise for the mind.
9. Keep your mind open.	Reacts to emotional words.	Interprets color words. Does not get hung up on them.
10. Capitalize on the fact thought is faster than speech.	Tends to daydream with slow speakers.	Challenges, anticipates, mentally summarizes, weights the evidence, listens between the lines to the tone of voice.

Source: Your Personal Listening Profile

Key Words: communication, learning, listening

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Here are three tests in which we'll ask you to rate yourself as a listener. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your responses however, will extend your understanding of yourself as a listener.

When you've completed the tests, please turn to the last page of this article to see how your scores compare with those of thousands of others who've taken the same tests before you.

QUIZ 1

A. Circle the term that best describes you as a listener.

Superior   Excellent   Above Average   Average   Below Average   Poor   Terrible

B. On a scale of 0 - 100 (100 = highest), how would you rate yourself as a listener?

0 - 100   _____

QUIZ 2

How do you think the following people would rate you as a listener?

0 –100

Your Best Friend   _____

Your Boss   _____

Business Colleague   _____

A Job Subordinate   _____

Your Spouse   _____

QUIZ 3

As a listener, how often do you find yourself engaging in the 10 bad listening habits listed below? Check the appropriate columns first, and then tablulate your score using the key below.

BAD LISTENING HABIT	FREQUENCY					SCORE
	Almost Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never	
1. Calling the subject uninteresting	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Criticizing the speaker's delivery or mannerisms	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Getting overstimulated by something the speaker says	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Listening primarily for facts	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Trying to outline everything	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Faking attention to the speaker	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Allowing distractions	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Avoiding difficult concepts	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Letting emotion-laden words arouse personal antagonism	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Daydreaming	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
					TOTAL	_____

KEY

For every "Almost Always" checked, score 10
For every "Usually" checked, score 8
For every "Sometimes" checked, score 6
For every "Seldom" checked, score 4
For every "Almost Never" checked, score 2

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How To Score Your Results:

Quiz 1   Superior   50 Points
                 Excellent   40 Points
                 Above Average   20 Points
                 Average   0 Points
                 Below Average   -10 Points
                 Poor   -20 Points
                 Terrible   -30 Points

Add Your Scores From Quiz 1a And 1b   ____
Add Your Scores From Quiz 2   ____
Add Your Scores From Quiz 3   ____
                            Total   ____

Scale
300 - 350   Your listening skills are superior
250 - 350   Pretty good, but you might miss some things
225 - 250   Better than most others
200 - 225   Just OK, but not adequate
175 - 200   You miss much of what people say
150 - 175   You Probably Don't Know What's Going On
Less Than 150   You should definitely read the Communication (page 43) and
                        10 Keys to Effective Listening (page 35) sections.

Key Words: communication, listening

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Leaders of groups often must confront the dilemma between what they believe to be right and desirable with what they do in practice. It can be expressed as . . .

How democratic can I be?

vs.

How authoritarian must I be?

Dilemmas are presented when:

We have a tradition of competition, but we must be cooperative.

We are under pressure to get the job done and to be efficient, but we believe all points of view must be heard.

We are pushed for time, but we want participative decision making and this takes time.

We see opportunities for quick results in one-person decisions, but we believe shared responsibility makes for better and longer lasting solutions, and we believe in the educational process.

Some dilemmas can be illustrated in terms of a continuum developed by Warren Schmidt and Robert Tannenbaum.

Leader Centered	**Group Centered**	**"Abdicrat"**

Use of Authority by Leader

Freedom of the Group

Autocrat

Tells	**Sells**	**Tests**	**Consults**	**Joins**
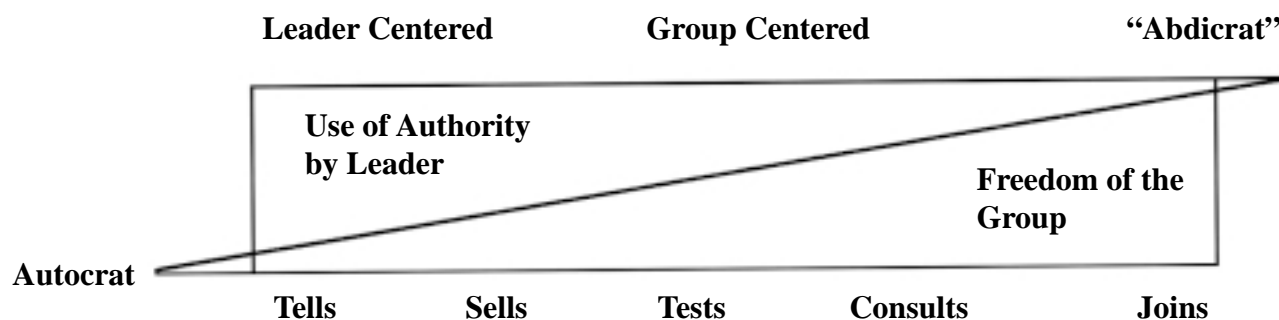
If the continuum is extended at either extreme, autocracy or abdication results. The **autocrat** violates traditional values and our own self-image as people who are open and sensitive. The **abdicrat** is irresponsible and violates concepts of leadership which gets work done.

Where do you locate yourself on the continuum? You may find some answers as you examine the following factors.

1. **FORCES IN ME**. What are my motives and needs? What assumptions do I have about colleagues, subordinates, superiors, and peers?

   Examine your

   - Value System
   - Confidence in the group and assumptions about people
   - Leadership inclinations
   - Feelings of security and tolerance for ambiguity
   - Your own motives as related to your own needs you are satisfying

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2. **FORCES IN THE GROUP**. What is my understanding of members' needs, motives, perceptions?

Examine their

- Need for independence or dependence
- Readiness to assume responsibility
- Tolerance for ambiguity
- Interest in the problem
- Understanding of goals and their role in formulating them
- Knowledge and experience and skill in the particular task and means of increasing these
- Expectations
- Effect on the group of my own assumptions about them, their motives, their needs

3. **FORCES IN THE SITUATION.** What factors are operating in the environment surrounding the issue?

Examine the

- Type of organization
- Effectiveness of the group
- Pressure of time
- Consequence of action
- Perceptions the group and I have of the task

Key Words: group process, leadership skills

LEADERSHIP FUNCTION AND FORM

A basic function of leadership is to help a group define and achieve its goals. If leadership is considered from the perspective of what leaders do, putting aside consideration of what kind of person makes a good leader, it is evident that there are different forms and styles of leadership.

Autocratic leadership. The leader generally makes decisions for the group on group goals and methods for achieving them. Other group members follow the leader.

Laissez-faire leadership. This form involves a kind of anarchy in which the leader makes no decisions, nor helps the group to do so. Responsibility for defining group goals and achieving them is avoided and individual members of the group find their own way.

Democratic leadership. This form places responsibility for defining and achieving group goals on both the leader and members. Democratic leadership usually works more effectively than other forms of leadership as all members of the group participate in the decision making processes on proposed actions. The result tends to be a better group consensus and enthusiasm than those using other forms.

It may be possible to make **Democratic leadership** even more effective by **Sharing leadership** in a group. A democratic group leader can share leadership by creating smaller subgroups or task forces, each with a designated function and leader. When leadership of a group is shared in this way, potentially more individual talents or group members are used, more creativity is released, and more group interplay and feedback to the larger group results. All of these features promote better functioning of the whole group.

The most effective form of leadership is the one that can promote and encourage enthusiastic participation of all group members, and which best utilizes the individual talents and creativeness of each member.

LEADERSHIP ATTITUDES AND ATTRIBUTES

What kind of person makes a good leader? What skills are needed for leadership in a democratic group or organization?

- Top quality leadership demands persons who strongly identify with the group and who are firmly attached to the group idea or cause.

- Proper perspective in recognizing the scope and breadth of the group idea or cause, and ability to assess whether to aim for short-term life or long-range goals and objective for the group is important in good leadership.

- Leaders must have confidence in themselves and their ability to lead.

- Leaders need to be able to transmit ideas and convictions honestly and clearly to others, both inside and outside the group.

[1]Laidlaw, Alexander F. 1972. Leaders and leadership. *Adult Leadership*. November. p. 171.

- One of the most necessary leadership skills is the ability to mold a group into an effective team of individuals who can work successfully together.

- The leader who is able to share leadership with other group members through subgroups, each of which has a designated function and leader, is likely to succeed in building an enthusiastic, cohesive, and productive group.

Sharing leadership requires certain attitudes and skills.

- Personal ambition or desire to be a leader is secondary to the ability to delegate authority. Shared leadership also involves a genuine interest and concern to help other group members to become good leaders.

- A greater than average skill in receiving and using feedback is needed in shared leadership.

Sensitivity to the feelings, opinions, ideas, and skills of individual group members and the group as a whole enables a leader to choose individuals who will make the best subgroup leaders and in what areas.

Strong group conflict situations are less likely to occur in groups which share leadership. When difficulty does arise, the ability to identify and emphasize positive group feelings, opinions, and ideas rather than dwelling on the conflict is important to group and subgroup leaders. The best leaders are those who know they have helped build a group which can carry on without them.

Key Words: communication, leadership skills

COMMUNICATION

1. There are four social processes involved in working with one another: a) Competition, b) Conflict, c) Cooperation, and d) Communication.

2. Communication is always involved. At least one of the other three is also always involved. Too often the second one is conflict or competition instead of cooperation.

3. Communication is the key to improving this process.

4. The components of communication are: a) Sender, b) Message, c) Medium of Communication (writing, speaking, T.V., etc.), d) Receiver, and f) Receiver's response.

5. Communication resembles a leaky pipe - what enters into one end doesn't necessarily come out the same at the other end.

6. The cause of this is the inability of the sender to send meaning.

7. The receiver accepts those messages which he wishes to accept and interprets them in light of his own past experiences.

8. The more senses involved in the sending of the message, the greater the chance the receiver will "get the meaning."

9. The response of the receiver can help you decide if he "got the meaning." If he falls asleep, you know he missed the point. If he responds as you expect him to, he might have "gotten it," but you cannot be sure.

10. It is more difficult to communicate some ideas than others.

11. People are responsive to communication under appropriate conditions, such as a) natural disaster, b) they have found a new purpose, c) they realize a need, and e) they have confidence in the communicator.

12. In this interdependent world, good communication in action as well as in word can help to reduce conflict.

The Communication Process

Message (**M**)

Sender
(**S**)

Channel (**C**)

Feedback

Receiver (**R**)

OR

S → M → C → R

FEEDBACK

Key Words: communication, listening

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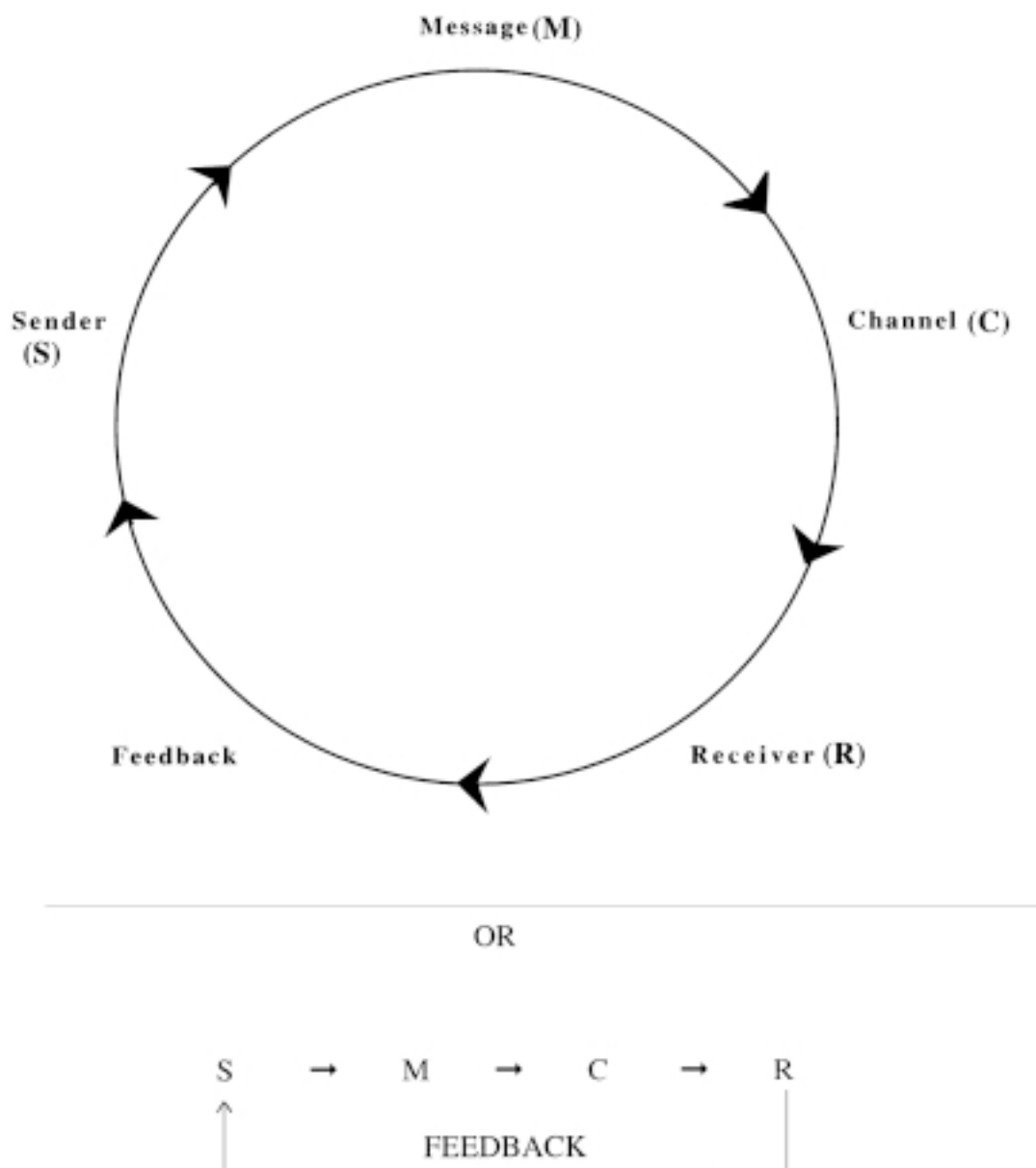
This game is an excellent device for teaching a group about individual vs. group work and intelligence.

<u>The Situation.</u> Your spaceship has just crashed landed on the surface of the moon. You were scheduled to rendezvous with the mother ship 200 miles away, but the rough landing has ruined your ship and destroyed all the equipment on board, except for the 15 items listed below.

Due to technical difficulties, the mother ship cannot come to you. You must go to it. Your crew's survival depends on reaching the mother ship so you must chose the 15 most critical items in terms of their importance for survival. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important and so on through number 15, the least important.

INDIVIDUAL RANKING

SUPPLIES:

__Box of matches
__Food concentrate
__50 feet of nylon rope
__Parachute silk
__Solar powered portable heating unit
__Two .45 caliber pistols
__One case dehydrated milk
__Two 100 lbs. tanks of oxygen
__Stellar map of the moon's constellation
__Self-inflating life raft
__Magnetic compass
__Five gallons of water
__Signal flares
__First-aid kit containing injection needles
__Solar powered FM receiver transmitter

After you have completed your individual ranking, form groups of 4 or 5 and rank the items as a group. The items are listed again on the next page. Take about 15 minutes for the group ranking. When you've finished both the individual and group rankings, go to page 42. Page 42 has a table listing the ranking of importance for survival by each item as determined by the National Aeronautic and Space Administration (NASA) and a column to compare your rankings and the group's rankings. Calculate error points by the difference between yours and the NASA scores.   Ignore the + and - values. Evaluate your scores as follows:

>10 error points - You're moon dust. Look closer at your reasons for your selections and compare them to NASA's. Analyze your reasons for making these choices and note how it differs from the experts.

5-10 error points - You will make it to the mother ship, but you'll be more dead than alive. Again, compare your selections to NASA's, dissect your reasons, and note the NASA rationale.

< 5 error points - You will survive and become rich from selling the rights for the video game and web site. (www.lostonthemoon-Isurvived.com).

GROUP RANKING

SUPPLIES:

___Box of matches
___Food concentrate
___50 feet of nylon rope
___Parachute silk
___Solar powered portable heating unit
___Two .45 caliber pistols
___One case dehydrated milk
___Two 100 lbs. tanks of oxygen
___Stellar map of the moon's constellation
___Self-inflating life raft
___Magnetic compass
___Five gallons of water
___Signal flares
___First-aid kit containing injection needles
___Solar powered FM receiver transmitter

LOST ON THE MOON
NASA Rating of Supplies (To be completed by all group members)
Error points are the absolute difference between yours and NASA's ranks (ignore + or - signs)

Supply	Rationale	NASA Rank	Your Rank	Error Points	Group Ranks	Error Points
Box of matches	No oxygen on moon to sustain flames, virtually worthless	15				
Food concentrate	Efficient means of supplying energy requirements	4				
50 feet of nylon rope	Useful in scaling cliffs, tying injured together	6				
Parachute silk	Protection from sun's rays	8				
Solar powered portable heating unit	Not needed unless on the dark side	13				
Two .45 caliber pistols	Possible means of self-protection	11				
One case dehydrated milk	Bulkier duplication of food concentrate	12				
Two 100 lbs. tanks tanks of oxygen	Most pressing survival need	1				
Stellar map of the moon's constellation	Primary means of navigation	3				
Self-inflating life raft	CO_2 bottle in military raft may be used for propulsion	9				
Magnetic compass	Magnetic field on moon is not polarized; worthless for navigation	14				
Five gallons of water	Replacement for tremendous liquid loss on light side	2				
Signal flares	Distress signal when mother ship is sighted	10				
First-aid kit containing injection needles	Needles for vitamins, medicines, etc., will fit special aperture in NASA space suits	7				
Solar powered FM receiver transmitter	For communication with mother ship, but FM requires line-of-sight transmission and short ranges	5				

Totals

Key words: leadership skills, problem definition/solving

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CAN YOU FOLLOW DIRECTIONS?

This is an "ice breaker" exercise for a group learning activity.

THIS IS A TIMED TEST.   YOU HAVE TWO MINUTES **ONLY**.

1.   Read everything carefully before doing anything.

2.   Put your name in the upper right-hand corner of this paper.

3.   Circle the word "NAME" in sentence 2.

4.   Sign your name under the title of this paper.

5.   After the title, write "YES, YES, YES."

6.   On the back of this paper, multiply 703 x 60.

7.   Loudly call out your first name when you get this far along.

8.   If you think you have followed directions carefully to this point, call out, "I have."

9.   On the reverse side of this paper, add 95 and 220.

10. In your normal speaking voice, count from ten to one, backwards.

11. Now that you've finished reading everything carefully, complete only sentences 1 and 2.

Key Words: adult learning, communication, listening, problem definition/solving

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This exercise demonstrates the power of learning as saying and doing are joined together.

MATERIALS NEEDED: 8 1/2 x 11 inch paper, 2 or 3 sheets per person. Jar of water for quality control test.

REPEAT THE INSTRUCTIONS TO MAKE CUP 3 TIMES.

1. First time - Read the instructions aloud to the participants who simply listen after which they try to make the cup. Allow 2 minutes.

2. Second time - Participants watch and listen while the trainer reads and demonstrates how to make the cup after which they attempt to make the cup. Allow 2 minutes.

3. Third time - Participants make the cup while the trainer reads and demonstrates how to make the cup.

Probably no one will be able to make the cup during the first two attempts, and only on the third attempt will the participants actually be able to make the cup.

HOW TO MAKE THE CUP

1. Fold the bottom left corner of the sheet up along the right edge of the paper.

2. Turn the sheet over so that the pointed end is on the right side.

3. Fold the lower edge up such that it is even with the bottom edge.

4. Fold the bottom left edge such that its pointed end touches the midpoint of the right edge.

5. Fold the upper pointed end down directly onto the bottom left hand corner.

6. Fold the lower right hand corner backwards.

7. Turn your folded paper over and fold the remaining lower right hand corner backwards.

8. Put two fingers into the opening and open the cup.

9. Pour water into the cup to see if it holds water.

PROCESS THE ACTIVITY ONCE IT IS COMPLETED.

1. MAKE THE CUP (3 times)

1. REFLECTION. Ask what happened each time and what the participants observed. Ask what significance is there in the manner of making the cup and giving instructions on how to make the cup. At the end of the exercise, compare each manner.

3. APPLICATION. How can they apply what they learned in this activity to their jobs as trainers and teachers?

2. GENERALIZATION.
What comparisons can participants make between what they observed and did to make the cups and instructions they have received? Based on what they did and saw, what can they say about learning principles and effective teaching and learning?

Key Words: adult learning, communication, listening

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NECESSARY SURVIVAL SKILLS - A SENSE OF HUMOR

Experts and non-experts have been known to wax eloquently on the role of humor in politics, business, human resource development, and even extension education! Rather than theorizing or arguing in detail about the importance of humor, suffice it to say that humor and a sense of humor are <u>necessary survival skills</u> for the effective educator and change agent. Humor can and should be used to help a group become at ease, to help defuse tense situations, to establish a role, to maintain perspective or sanity, or to relax. The following are examples of humor that you are encouraged to use, borrow, or enjoy in your educational work.

RELEVANT RULES[1]

CLIFF-HANGER THEOREM.
Each problem solved introduces a new unsolved problem.
 - Posted in the U.S. Department of Labor

CLYDE'S LAW.
If you have something to do and you put it off long enough, chances are someone else will do it for you.
- Clyde F. Adams

DONOHUE'S LAW.
What's worth doing is worth doing for money.
- Joseph Donohue

EPSTEIN'S LAW.
If you think the problem is bad now, just wait until we've solved it.
- Unknown origin, recalled by Kasspe, Ph.D.

LAWS OF GARDENING.
1) Other people's tools work only in other people's yards.
2) Fancy gizmos don't work.
3) If nobody uses it, there's a reason.
4) You get the most of what you need the least.

HACKER'S LAW.
The belief that enhanced understanding will necessarily stir a nation to action is one of mankind's oldest illusions.

HARTLEY'S LAW.
You can lead a horse to water, but if you can get him to float on his back you've got something.
- Conrad Schneiker explains how he acquired this law, "Hartley was a University of Arizona student who wandered into my office looking lost, circa 1974."

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[1] Dickson, P. 1978. *The Official Rules*. Delacorte Press, New York.

JINNY'S LAW.
There is no such thing as a short beer.
- As in, "Going to stop off at Joe's for a short beer before I meet you."
Virginia W. Smith*.* A corollary to "There's no such thing as a free lunch."

90% RULE OF PROJECT SCHEDULES.
The first 90% of the task takes 10% of the time. The last 10% takes the other 90%.

OSBORN'S LAW.
Variables won't, constraint aren't.
- Don Osborn

PEERS' LAW.
The solution to a problem changes the problem.
-John Peers

THOREAU'S RULE.
Any fool can make a rule, and every fool will mind it.
- Henry David Thoreau

TOM JONES' LAW.
Friends may come and go, but enemies accumulate.

VOLUNTEER LABOR.
People are always available for work in the past tense.

<u>ON SUCCESS - QUOTES OF DISTINCTION</u>

"There is something about your success that displeases even your best friends."
- Oscar Wilde

"If at first you don't succeed, don't take any more chances."
 - Ken Hubbard

"How can they say my life is not a success? Have I not for more than 60 years got enough to eat and escaped being eaten?"
 - Logan P. Smith

"The world is divided into people who do things and people who get the credit. Try, if you can, to belong to the first class. There's far less competition."
 - Dwight Morrow

"Success generally depends upon knowing how long it takes to succeed."
- Montesquieu

Key Words: communication, leadership skills

In the early 1980s the slogan "Tell a Friend" became the cornerstone of a marketing campaign for a major California retail food chain. The use of this slogan indicated that the company had a clear understanding of the power of interpersonal networks as a means for promoting products and the company. Interestingly, the company promoted these interpersonal networks not through interpersonal networks, but through the mass media of TV, newspapers, and radio. What emerged was a unique blend of interpersonal communication networks and mass communication media. This blend was a demonstration of an understanding of a basic marketing principle - the need to utilize both personal and mass media in order to achieve company goals.

What does marketing, especially business marketing, have to do with education or diffusion of innovations? Quite succinctly, it has everything to do with these practices. As the CEO of CitiCorp recently stated, "The essence of marketing is solving the consumer's problems."

The message here is "good extension education is good marketing - rightly understood." Business marketing, in addition to using networks and media, puts strong emphasis on market analysis and audience segmentation. Also important to marketing management are the 4 Ps: Product, Price, Promotion, and Place (Kotler 1970). To a major extent, these elements, communication channels, market analysis, audience segmentation, and the 4 Ps, are the principle components of business marketing. This same combination of principles and their adaptation is central to the educational/problem solving approach called social marketing.

MARKETING - RIGHTLY UNDERSTOOD

Marketing is one means to link research based knowledge with practical problems. It aims at solving consumer problems. Marketing implies predetermined needs of the consumer, and not solely the predetermined preferences of the producer. This difference is crucial. An emphasis on the needs of the consumer distinguishes **marketing activities** from **sales.** The distinction between sales and marketing parallels that of the distinction between Diffusion of Innovation and Information Seeking (Donohew and Springer 1980). It is this distinction that is vital to understanding the true marketing process, including social marketing.

Marketing is an exchange process based upon need in which the product or service developed is exchanged in return for something that satisfies the producer. In sales, emphasis is put upon the production of a goods or service, whether or not it meets a need. Often, a product or service is developed with little regard to the true needs of the client or consumer. The focus is upon selling or persuading a consumer to purchase or adopt whatever is involved. However, marketing - rightly understood is a management practice which attempts to increase the probability of adoption. This probability is a function of the understanding of the needs and preferences of the consumer or client.

Many industries such as IBM, 3-M, and the John Deere Corp. are involved in problem solving. That is, once a consumer problem has been identified, attempts are undertaken to develop practical solutions that will be used by clients. This development process is essentially one of research and development (R & D). However, R & D by itself is not enough. Marketing becomes an essential ingredient that aims at the dissemination or diffusion of the product from the producer to the consumer. It is the link between the problem and R & D.

In the industrial section as well as the agribusiness sector, examples of R & D work for developing product and services are plentiful. Also in the industrial sector, there many examples are found of marketing approaches to disseminate the product from the producer to the consumer. The interest in well managed, i.e., "excellent" companies is, in effect, an interest in their R & D plus marketing procedures.

SOCIAL MARKETING

Philip Kotler defines social marketing as the design, implementation, and control of programs seeking to increase the acceptability of a social idea or cause in a target group. It utilizes concepts of market segregation, consumer research, concept development, communication, facilitation incentives, and exchange theory to maximize target group response (Kotler 1984). In short, social marketing is the application of marketing principles to social causes and ideas.

In the last two decades social marketing activities have successfully been developed in a variety of areas including health care, higher education, environmental protection, energy conservation, nutrition, the arts, public transportation, family planning, mental health, and safety education. There has been an increasing interest in social marketing as people and organizations seek to find effective ways to diffuse and to ensure the adoption of social ideas and practices. Social R & D, in which needs are identified and attempts are made to research and develop products/services that meet these needs, parallels industrial R & D. Social marketing is that marketing process which attempts to disseminate or diffuse the social practice or service from the producer to the consumer or link the problem with the R & D process.

Market research is the process through which needs and preferences of the audience are identified and understood. Market research involves the use of many techniques, including focus groups, individual interviews, survey data, and questionnaires as means to understand the "market" and its needs. For social marketing purposes, regular communication and an exchange of information between the producer (or developer or diffuser or educator) and the consumer are musts.

Audience segmentation is increasingly recognized as being very important to market research. This process "segments" an audience (brakes it down) into various segments, each one different from every other in particular ways. Demographics, (age, gender, race) is a traditional element used to segment audiences. In recent years, other elements have been introduced. A current popular method is psychographics which attempts to understand the values, attitudes, and lifestyles of audiences (Mitchell 1981). Psychographics has had a dramatic impact upon the business community and just now is entering into the social marketing arena. Other elements used for audience segmentation include socioeconomics, geographic data, and communication networks.

Good market management practice, as Kotler argues, focuses on the 4 Ps: Product, Price, Promotion, and Place. Social marketing is no different. All too often marketing is seen simply as a form of promotion; it is just advertising. Too much emphasis has been placed upon social advertising or social communication in the social area, with a heavy use of mass communication. In the social marketing of ideas, e.g., good eating or pro-community behavior, an integrated approach using the 4 Ps increases the probability of the adoption.

Product, either in business or social organizations, is the service or the goods developed or designed. Market research and audience segmentation aim to analyze the needs and wants of target audiences and to design products responsive to these audiences. The product in social marketing is often more difficult to design since in cases such as personal health, (e.g., better nutrition), social improvement (e.g., a better environment), or altruistic causes (e.g., recruiting volunteers), the products are intangible. Such products are different than crackers or canary seed. Therefore, it becomes extremely important that the social marketer define the change sought, such as values, beliefs, behavior, or a combination of these in the management of the product.

Promotion includes a number of different activities: advertising, personal selling, publicity, and sales promotion. Communication, both interpersonal and mass communication, and persuasion are elements of promotion. The style of promotion, such as the "hard sell," should not be confused for promotion itself. In well designed and managed social marketing efforts, an integration of these activities would be exhibited as exemplified by the "Tell a Friend" campaign used on television.

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Price is the cost to the client. Money is one element of the price variable, but it is not the only element. Other costs include psychic energy and opportunity costs. For example, a user or client through his or her own analysis, may identify certain risks involved in adopting a practice, and these risks must be understood by the marketer, social marketer, or educator.

Place refers to the points at which the market exchange relationships occur. What channels for distribution and for response exist? In short, where do you buy or sign up for the product? This may be through a phone system, through a community communication system in existing neighborhood organizations, through libraries, through user groups, or directly with a Cooperative Extension advisor.

Cooperative Extension education strategies must have room for social marketing. Good Cooperative Extension education is both good marketing and good social marketing - rightly understood. Those involved in extension education programs need to learn quickly and accurately from experiences of marketers and social marketers. If we are unsuccessful in diffusing (marketing - rightly understood) goods and services produced from the university R & D System, then all is basically for naught. Therefore, we need to understand and master the skills of market research, audience segmentation, and marketing management including the 4 Ps. Not only must we focus on innovations looking for problems, but also on problems needing an innovation.

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Key Words: communication, leadership skills

LESSONS FROM THE APES

Start with a cage containing five apes.

Hang a banana on a string in the cage and put stairs under it. Before long, an ape will go to the stairs and start to climb toward the banana.

As soon as that ape touches the stairs, spray all the other apes with cold water.

After a while, another ape makes an attempt to climb the stairs with the same result. Again, spray all the apes with cold water. Turn off the cold water. If another ape tries to climb the stairs at a later point, the other apes will try to prevent that from happening even though no water sprays them.

Now, remove one ape from the cage and replace it with a new one. The newcomer goes to the stairs and is attacked. The new ape sees the banana and wants to climb the stairs. To its horror, all the other apes attack it. After another attempt and attack, the new ape knows that if it tries to climb the stairs, it will be assaulted.

Next, remove another of the original five apes and replace it with a new one. The newcomer goes to the stairs and is attacked. The previous newcomer takes part in the punishment with enthusiasm.

Again, replace a third original ape with a new one. The new one makes it to the stairs and is attacked as well. Two of the four apes who attack it have no idea why they were not permitted to climb the stairs, or why they are participating in the beating of the newest ape.

After replacing the fourth and fifth original apes, all the apes which have been sprayed with cold water have now been replaced. Nevertheless, none of the apes ever again approaches the stairs.

Why not? "Because that's the way its always been around here." *Sound familiar?*

Source: Unknown

Key Words: communication, group process

We live in an era where geese are very common. We see them coming in the fall and leaving in early spring. Their migration is an awesome sight. There is an interdependence in the way geese function.

FACT   **As each bird flaps its wings, it creates an uplift for the bird following. By flying in a V formation, the whole flock adds 71% greater flying range than if each bird flew alone.**

       LESSON   *People who share a common direction and sense of community can get where they are going quicker and easier because they are traveling on the thrust of one another.*

FACT   **Whenever a goose falls out of formation, it suddenly feels the drag and resistance of trying to fly alone. It quickly gets back into formation to take advantage of the lifting power of the bird immediately in front.**

       LESSON   *If we have as much sense as a goose, we will stay in formation with those who are headed where we want to go.*

FACT   **When the lead goose gets tired, it rotates back into the formation and another goose flies at the point position.**

       LESSON   *It pays to take turns doing the hard tasks and sharing leadership. People, like geese, are interdependent with each other.*

FACT   **The geese in formation honk from behind to encourage those up front to keep up their speed.**

       LESSON   *We need to make sure our "honking" from behind is encouraging, not something less helpful.*

FACT   **When a goose gets sick or wounded or shot down, two geese drop out of formation to follow him down to help and protect him. They stay with him until he is either able to fly again or dies. Then they launch out on their own and join with another formation or they catch up with their flock.**

       LESSON   *If we have as much sense as geese, we will stand by each other.*

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The following facts summarize research findings on the effects of different teaching methods on the retention of information.

LEARNERS WERE FOUND TO HAVE THE ABILITY TO RETAIN

10% of what they **read**
20% of what they **hear**
30% of what they **see**
50% of what they **see** and **hear**
70% of what they **say** as they **talk**
90% of what they **say** as they perform **a task**

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION AND ABILITY TO RECALL

Method	Recall 3 hours later	Recall 3 days later
Telling used alone	70%	10%
Showing used alone	72%	20%
A blend of telling and showing used	85%	65%

SENSE THROUGH WHICH WE LEARNED OUR BASIC KNOWLEDGE

Seeing	-	83%
Hearing	-	11%
Touching	-	3.5%
Smelling	-	1.5%
Tasting	-	1%

Source: Socony-Vacuum Oil Company Studies, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education. and Welfare

LEARNING CONE OF EXPERIENCE

An important learning principle supported by extensive research is that people learn best when they are actively involved in the learning process. Dale's Learning Cone of Experience below shows learning activities grouped by levels of abstraction. The left column indicates their relative effectiveness as training techniques. These are general principles. Individuals vary greatly in the ways in which they learn best. Some people are visually oriented. They learn best through activities that emphasize reading and seeing slides, movies, and demonstrations. Others are more influenced by what they hear rather than what they see, and still others learn best by doing.

People Generally Remember   Levels of Abstraction

10% of what they READ
20% of what they HEAR
30% of what they SEE
50% of what they HEAR and SEE
50% of what they SAY or WRITE

90% of what they SAY AS THEY DO A THING

? ? ?

READ

HEAR WORDS

WATCH STILL PICTURES

WATCH MOVING PICTURES

WATCH EXHIBIT   Visual

WATCH DEMONSTRATION

MAKE A SITE VISIT   Hearing

MAKE A DRAMATIC PRESENTATION   Saying

SIMULATE A REAL EXPERIENCE   Seeing

DO THE REAL THING   Doing

????   **????**

Source: Wiman and Mierhenry. 1969. *Educational Media*. Charles Merril.

Key Words: adult learning, communication, learning, listening

CHAPTER 3

Group Dynamics

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BUILDING PRODUCTIVE TEAMS: AN INVENTORY

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This instrument may help you learn more about the way your organization functions as a team. There are no right or wrong answers. Use your first reaction to the statement; don't ponder your answers. Place the appropriate letter to indicate the degree to which that statement is true for your group or organization in front of each of the following items.

SD = Strongly Disagree   **D = Disagree**   **N = Neither Disagree nor Agree**   **A = Agree**   **SA = Strongly Agree**

___ 1.   Everyone participates in our group.

___ 2.   Usually our discussions are dominated by one or two people.

___ 3.   Decisions are usually reached by consensus. We may not all agree, but we are willing to take responsibility for the decisions.

___ 4.   Many times, decisions have to be made by a majority vote and the minority loses.

___ 5.   When we disagree, there is little tendency for those in opposition to "go along to get along."

___ 6.   When decisions are made, we listen to the authority (chairman, boss) for instructions on how to vote.

___ 7.   We spend a lot of time getting to know and taking care of each other.

___ 8.   It is important to our group to get it done right, not who does it or how they feel.

___ 9.   We often talk about our team and team goals.

___ 10.   Rewards and punishments are tied to what is accomplished by the group.

___ 11.   Since people have different skills or resources, our leadership changes to meet the problems.

___ 12.   The chair (president, boss) is the only leader, and our group looks to him/her for leadership in our group.

___ 13.   Conflict between individuals and cliques is destructive and tears our group apart.

___ 14.   We disagree a lot; not over issues, but because of personality clashes.

___ 15.   We feel free to give feedback; it is usually constructive.

___ 16.   When someone gives criticism, it is usually embarrassing and produces tension.

___ 17.   Our goals for the organization need to be agreed upon by the entire membership.

___ 18.   Our goals are set by the executive (supervisor, chair, or an elite group).

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_____ 19. Personal as well as group goals are considered when deciding on projects.

_____ 20. The group goal is more important that the individual goal.

_____ 21. We all have a commitment to the team and its success.

_____ 22. When we obey the rules, they hold us together and our work gets done.

_____ 23. We often talk about our personal values and goals, and how these relate to the decisions we make.

_____ 24. We argue over procedures or agendas rather than talking about real issues.

_____ 25. Each member assumes responsibility for success of the group.

_____ 26. When something goes wrong in our meetings, we expect that the leader will be able to handle it.

_____ 27. People in our group use good communication skills to help us understand.

_____ 28. People don't always show up for regular meetings.

BUILDING PRODUCTIVE TEAMS - AN INVENTORY SCORE SHEET

This inventory yields seven scores, each relating to an area important in building teams. The scoring is simple and easy, even though it may look complicated. Look back at the questions to see how you respond. On the Score Sheet, circle your response for each item according to whether you marked "Strongly Disagree," "Disagree," "Neither Agree or Disagree," or "Strongly Agree." Then sum the item scores for that category. Do the same for each category

Participation Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	4	3	2	1	0
27	0	1	2	3	4
28	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Decisions Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	0	1	2	3	4
4	4	3	2	1	0
5	0	1	2	3	4
6	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Individual Leadership Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
7	0	1	2	3	4
8	4	3	2	1	0
9	0	1	2	3	4
10	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Leadership Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	0	1	2	3	4
12	4	3	2	1	0
25	0	1	2	3	4
26	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Conflict Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
13	0	1	2	3	4
14	4	3	2	1	0
15	0	1	2	3	4
16	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Goals Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
17	0	1	2	3	4
18	4	3	2	1	0
19	0	1	2	3	4
20	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

Climate Item Score

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
21	0	1	2	3	4
22	4	3	2	1	0
23	0	1	2	3	4
24	4	3	2	1	0

Score _____

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TO USE RESULTS OF THE INVENTORY

This inventory can be used to help you and your organization diagnose some of the more important areas of possible problems. Look over each category. If you have a score of 13-16, your group is probably doing well in this area; 9-12 is average with a few problems; 5-8, there are significant problems; and 0-4, it is recommended that your group examine their behaviors, beliefs, and feelings in this area. Effort could be spent to improve how the organization functions in these areas:

PARTICIPATION   High •   Most people feel a part of the group and are free to participate, and do so actively.

                         Low •   Participation may be guarded by dominant individuals, and people feel restricted in their participation.

DECISIONS   High •   Decisions are probably made by consensus after everyone contributes their ideas.

                         Low •   Decisions are often made by one person or a majority of the group, but with the minority feeling like they have "lost."

INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT   High •   Time and effort are devoted to building strong interpersonal relationships.

                         Low •   People don't matter; the task is what is important.

LEADERSHIP   High •   There is an opportunity for all to lead and each member is responsible.

                         Low •   Leadership is limited to one person.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT   High •   Conflict is important in making good decisions; the focus is on issues.

                         Low •   Conflict can tear the group apart and is viewed as disruptive.

GOALS   High •   Common goals act as a basis for decisions and task accomplishment.

                         Low •   "Someone else" decides the goals and they are rarely used as a basis for decisions.

CLIMATE   High •   Group members communicate and trust each other.

                         Low •   A feeling of mistrust is exemplified by an overreliance on rules, regulations, or authority.

Key Words: communication, group process, leadership skills, problem definition/solving

EFFECTIVE GROUPS

An effective group completes its required tasks, maintains itself, and is sensitive to each group member's needs. An effective group can be distinguished from one which is ineffective by observing certain characteristics.

An effective group:

1. Has a clear understanding of its purposes and goals.

2. Is flexible in selecting its procedures as it works towards its goals.

3. Achieves a high degree of communication and understanding among its members. Communication of personal feelings and attitudes, as well as ideas, occur in a direct and open fashion because they are considered important to the work of the group.

4. Is able to initiate and conduct effective decision making, carefully considering minority viewpoints, and securing the commitments of all members to important decisions.

5. Achieves an appropriate balance between **group productivity** and the satisfaction of **individual needs**.

6. Provides for the sharing of leadership responsibilities by group members so that all members are concerned about contributing ideas, elaborating and clarifying the ideas of others, giving opinions, testing the feasibility of potential decisions, and helping the group to work on its task and maintain itself as an effective working unit.

7. Has a high degree of cohesiveness (attractiveness for the members), but not to the point of stifling individual freedom.

8. Makes intelligent use of the abilities of all its members.

9. Is not dominated by its leader or any of its members.

10. Can be objective about reviewing its own processes. It can face its problems and adjust to modifications needed in its operation.

11. Maintains a balance between emotional and rational behavior, channels emotions into productive group effort, and balances production with emotion and humor.

Key Words: communication, group process

For a group to be effective, i.e., to get the job done, specific and identifiable activities should take place. Any person, either a member or a designated leader, can help or hinder a group by the kind of role **he/she contributes or does not contribute**. When roles are omitted, the effectiveness of the group is reduced. You should be prepared to perform any of these functions when it appears they are needed.

1. **TASK BEHAVIORS**

   a. **Initiate Activity**. Help the group get started; suggest new ideas or new definitions of the problems, offer new approaches to solving the problem, or propose new organization of what has already been discussed.

   b. **Seek Information**. Ask for clarification of suggestions that have been made; request additional information or facts.

   c. **Seek Opinions**. Try to help the group find out what persons **think** or **feel** about what is being discussed; seek further clarification of opinions being offered.

   d. **Give Information**. Offer facts or additional useful data; relate your own experience to the group to illustrate a point.

   e. **Give Opinions**. State an opinion or belief concerning a suggestion or one of several suggestions; express what you think or feel.

   f. **Elaborate**. Offer further clarification of points; try to spell out what other members have already said, or try to help the group imagine how a proposal would work if it is adopted.

   g. **Coordinate.** Show relationships among different kinds of ideas or suggestions; try to pull ideas and suggestions together so that they build on each other; try to draw together activities of various subgroups or members.

   h. **Summarize**. Pull together related ideas or suggestions; re-state suggestions after the group has discussed them, or organize ideas so the group will know what it has said.

   i. **Test Workability**. Apply suggestions to real situations; examine the practicality and workability of ideas; help the group test a proposed decision for workability.

2. **MAINTENANCE BEHAVIORS**

   a. **Encourage.** Be responsive to others; help others contribute; appreciate their ideas; agree with them and accept their contributions.

   b. **Gate Keeping**. "Open the gate" to let other members into the discussion. Say, "John has been trying to say something," or, suggest limited speaking time for everyone so that everyone will have a chance to be heard.

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c. **Standard Setting**. Express standards for the group to use in choosing its content or procedures or in evaluating its decisions; remind the group to avoid decisions which conflict with agreed- upon group standards.

   d. **Listen**. Serve as an audience during group discussion and decision making.

   e. **Express Group Feeling**. Summarize how the group seems to feel about an issue; describe reactions to ideas or solutions of the group as seen by one person; seek the reaction of the group.

3. **INDIVIDUAL NEEDS BEHAVIORS**. **Be sensitive** to how persons feel or react or when they withdraw. Probably 2a, 2b, 2d, and 2e above come the closest to accomplishing this.

4. **TASK AND MAINTENANCE.** Obviously, some behaviors can impact both achieving the task and maintaining the group.

   a. **Evaluate**. Submit group decisions or accomplishments to a comparison with group standards and goals.

   b. **Diagnose**. Determine sources of difficulties, appropriate next steps, and main blocks in the effective-ness of the group.

   c. **Test for Consensus**. Ask for group opinions in order to find out if the group is nearing agreement to go ahead with a decision.

   d. **Mediate**. Harmonize; try to provide compromises for opposing points of view; try to reconcile differences in the group; help persons with differing opinions to be honestly heard or find a common ground so the group can continue its work.

   e. **Relieve Tensions**. Diffuse negative feelings through humor; put a tense situation in a wider context.

In order to be an effective group leader or member, it is to your advantage to be sensitive to the roles described. More important is your ability and willingness to perform these roles as needed.

Key Words: group process, leadership skills, problem definition/solving

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ON WORKING WITH GROUPS

As a nonformal educator, you may work with people you don't know. In most cases, your work will be in groups of 3 - 10 people. You will also have to do several jobs and wear several hats:

Organizer. You will have to organize the group, call the meeting, set the day and time, start and stop the meeting, see that teaching materials are available, and follow-up with activities.

Discussion Leader. Much of the work you do in groups will be through discussion. Even if you tell people something, you must be sure there is time for discussion.

Teacher. You will be a teacher. You will be instructing the group, for example, on how to do a budget, how to plan meals, and many other activities.

Counselor. Much of your counseling work will be to present information by answering questions and providing information.

The more awareness you have so you can plan for your different hats, the better your chances are of being a very helpful.

Some suggestions for doing your jobs as a resource management counselor:

1. Be aware of the different jobs and hats you wear.

2. Be prepared and plan your work in advance. For example, if you are going to instruct the group on how to prepare a budget, bring enough materials for everyone to practice, plan your presentation, and think of questions you would ask a counselor.

3. If you are going to instruct the group, for example - how to prepare a debt list, follow three basic steps:
   (a) First, show the group how to do it.
   (b) Second, prepare the debt list together as the group.
   (c) Third, have each member of the group prepare a debt list, and then you check it.

   Remember - Good instruction uses these three steps.

4. If you are a discussion leader, let other people talk. Try to involve everyone. If someone is quiet, ask that individual, "Would you like to add something?" Don't force anyone to talk, but at least provide an opportunity to do so. If someone talks too much, try saying, "That's a good point, but let's hear from some of the others. Mary, what do you think?"

5. As an information counselor or as a teacher, use all the senses to present information. Don't just talk to the groups. Also, use pictures, handout materials, music, or anything that helps you communicate with the group. Actively involve the group in what is happening.

Since you are going to work with people on some sensitive topics (e.g., family budgeting), you'll have to be sensitive, confidential, and trustworthy. Also, because you really are trying to assist people to change the way they act and do things, remember some of the following tips:

1. If people don't have the opportunity to make choices for themselves, they will usually not change their behavior.

2. Successful educational and counseling programs address first the current and immediate needs and priorities of the people involved.

3. In order to bring about change, you must provide people with clear, to-the-point, and adequate information on their problem.

4. People need to feel that the change in their behavior is in their best interest.

5. People must come to their own definition of the problem (e.g., family budget) along with accepting their responsibilities.

6. People must identify the choices and alternatives available to solve their problem.

7. People must be involved in selecting the best alternatives.

8. People need to help themselves and each other to become more independent rather than dependent on you.

Key Words: communication, group process

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We spend our lives in groups of various sorts - the family, team, work group, etc., but seldom do we observe what goes on in the group. What do you look for? What is there to observe in a group?

CONTENT VS. PROCESS

When you observe what the group is talking about, you are focused on the **content**. When you try to observe how the group handles its communication, e.g., who talks how much or who talks to whom, you are focusing on the group's **process**.

Most topics about work situations emphasize **content.** They concern issues which are "**there and then**" in the sense of being abstract, future, or past oriented and not involving us directly. In focusing on group **process**, you are looking at what a group is doing in the "**here and now**," how it is working in present procedures and organizations.

In fact, the **content** is often the best clue as to what **process** issue may be on people's minds, such as when a group finds it difficult to directly confront an issue. At a more basic level, observing **process** really means to focus on what is going on in the group and trying to understand the group in terms of other things that have gone on before.

COMMUNICATIONS

One aspect to observe in a group are the patterns of communication. These are:

1. Who talks? How long? How often? To whom?

2. Who do people look at when they talk? Do they scan the group? Do they not look at anyone or at just a few?

3. Who talks after whom? Who interrupts whom?

4. What styles of communication are used - assertions, questions, tone of voice, gestures?

The observations you make provide clues to other important elements of what may be going on in the group such as who leads whom or who influences whom.

DECISION MAKING PROCEDURES

Groups make decisions all the time, even if they are unaware of such decisions. Some decisions are made consciously and in reference to major tasks at hand. Some are made without much awareness and reference to group procedures or standards of operations. It is important to observe how decisions are made in a group in order to assess the appropriateness of the decision to the matter being decided.

Groups make decisions using different methods. Some of them are:

1. **The Plop**. "I think we should introduce ourselves . . ." followed by total silence.

2. **The Self-Authorized Agenda**. "I think we should introduce ourselves. My name is Joe Smith."

3. **The Handclasp.** "I wonder if it would be helpful if we introduced ourselves?" "I think it would, my name is Pete Jones . . ."

4. "**Does anyone object?**" or **"We all agree."**

5. **Majority-minority voting**.

6. **Polling**. "Let's see where everyone stands. What do you think?"

7. **Consensus Testing**. This is a genuine exploration to test for opposition and to determine whether this opposition feels strongly enough not to implement a decision. Consensus is not necessarily unanimity, but it is essentially agreement by all.

Group decisions are notoriously difficult to undo. When someone says, "Well, we decided to do it, didn't we?" budding opposition is usually and quickly immobilized. You can undo the decision only if you reconstruct it, understand how you made it, and test whether this method was appropriate or not.

Key Words: group process, leadership skills

THE Xs AND Ys OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Douglas McGregor in *The Human Side of Enterprise* developed two theories to explain human behavior, Theory X and Theory Y. Essentially, Theory X builds on the lower order of human needs. Theory Y assumes that once the lower order of human needs are met, they no longer motivate. Theory Y builds on the higher order of needs.

Human behavior is based on theory; we do A because we theorize it will produce B. It is important that any leader examine his/her assumptions or theory about what makes people behave as they do. These assumptions reflect their value system and determine practices and how he/she organizes for decision making and action.

It may be useful to check your own assumptions against the following assumptions.

THEORY X

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible.

2. Because of the human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

THEORY Y

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is related to the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept, but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational objectives is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

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The need is not so much to choose up sides as to which theory is correct; rather, you should make your assumptions about human behavior more explicit and check how well your own behavior reflects your assumptions. Theory Y is more dynamic than Theory X, more optimistic about the possibility for human growth and development, more concerned with self-direction and self-responsibility, and more consistent with available social science knowledge.

Theory X or Theory Y influence how we organize for decision making and action. If we accept Theory X, then it would make sense to find:

- One-way communication.
- Strategy planning by top leaders only.
- Decision making at the top level only.
- A handing down of decisions to be implemented by middle management.
- A handing down of instructions to be carried out by the workers (nothing goes up except reports).

Theory Y would make it worthwhile to have:

- Two-way communication.
- Involvement and participation in goal setting, planning, and decision making at each level.

REFERENCE

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

Key Words: group process, leadership skills

A team is a group of people working together to accomplish something that cannot be done, or at least be done as well, by an individual. Effective teams are concerned about accomplishing the task or solving the problem, and about the needs of their individual members.

Reilly and Jones in their article Teambuilding (in *1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators*) have identified four elements basic to any team:

1. The group must have a charter or reason for working together
2. Members must be interdependent - they need each other's experiences and abilities,
3. Group members must be committed to the idea that working together as a group leads to more effective decisions than working alone, and
4. The group must be accountable either as a functioning unit or as a larger organization.

TEAM

PURPOSE	INTERDEPENDENCE
COMMITMENT	ACCOUNTABILITY
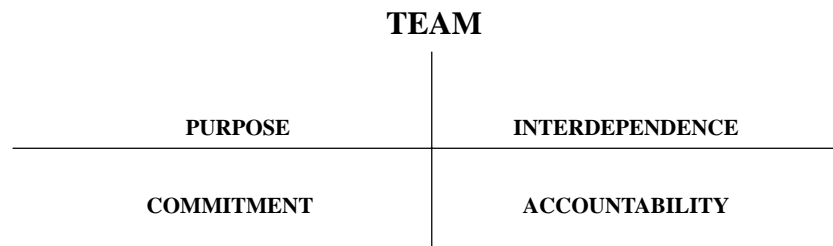
These four elements act as the basis for examining the conditions for an effective functioning team. Because employees change and the public demands new services, it is incumbent on you to ensure that an effective team is built to cope with these pressures.

PURPOSE

Each member of a team must know and understand the goals and purpose of the organization. In addition, each member must be committed to these goals. One effective method for gaining this commitment is by involving all team members in defining the goals and relating these goals to the overall purpose of the local government.

A good manager helps team members identify and share their personal goals. Personal goals motivate employees. Defining personal and team goals lays the basis for effective management practices and problem solving.

INTERDEPENDENCE

Frequently departments or units are under the illusion that they work alone, and they are responsible only for their own section. It is important that each unit view itself as a total team. Therefore, whatever each person does impacts others.

In order to really solve problems and cope with an ever changing environment, team members must need each other's assistance, expertise, or just support.

COMMITMENT

Commitment in a work situation is often a difficult concept to embrace. In order for a team to be effective members must be committed to the process of working together, regarding the team as a unit, and solving the problem.

Teamwork takes time; time to listen to each other, time to work out agreements, and time to test ideas. This process is essential for effective problem solving. There is also the team itself; there are individual member needs that must be attended to in order to ensure commitment.

Finally, the team must see problems as workable and seek to identify solutions that lead to accomplishment of the goals.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability as a functioning unit is often a difficult concept to grasp, especially in a culture that idealizes the rugged individualist. Success and failure must be accounted for. Rewards need to be distributed to the team, and the team receives credit for the solution to problems. Individual efforts are rewarded from within the team, but to the public and outside environment, the team is the accountable unit.

Other factors also influence a team's effectiveness such as goals of the unit, atmosphere, involvement, commitment, creativity, leadership, and role. Part of being accountable is setting clear role expectations, identifying exactly what is termed as successful, and clarifying how success will be measured. This measurement will include the balance between the focus on getting the job done and the actual process for getting it done.

REFERENCES

Reilly, A. J., and J. E. Jones. 1974. Teambuilding. In: Pfeiffer, J.W., and J. E. Jones (editors) *The 1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators*. University Associates, San Diego.

Key Words: group process, leadership skills

ADVICE

Volunteers have traditionally made important contributions in providing human services, often through educational institutions, churches, missions, and other charitable organizations. In past decades, volunteers were sought to perform jobs in public and private service agencies such as schools, hospitals, welfare agencies, medical, and mental health care facilities. Traditional roles for volunteers in these public service facilities required or provided little training or involvement in the agency. Volunteers often performed menial tasks, although these were the more attractive menial tasks.

Changes have occurred in more recent times. Human service agency budgets have not kept pace with the agency's need or inflation. Program planners and administrators are now discovering that with adequate training and support, volunteers are more than willing and able to perform a variety of functions within their organizations.

While the attraction for utilizing volunteers to increase and improve an agency's services is great, implementation of a volunteer program is not something to enter into lightly. It must be understood that volunteers are willing and capable staff if adequate training and support are provided. The following are some considerations which should be weighed in determining whether and how to utilize volunteers.

TRAINING AND SUPPORT NEEDS

One component of a volunteer program that requires a great investment on the part of the institution is volunteer training. Volunteers who are not adequately trained for the work they are expected to perform are of little use to the agency and will be frustrated and discouraged. The ripple effects can be great.

In order to determine training needs, you must identify the activities and functions you wish volunteers to perform and clarify your expectations of their level of performance. The amount of time you expect volunteers to commit to the task, and the degree to which you want volunteers to feel they are a part of the agency should also be taken into consideration. A volunteer's job description is a healthy addition to this effort.

You should consider other types of support needed by volunteers. Subsequent to training, there should be agency staff from whom volunteers can ask for assistance, receive advice, and get answers. Volunteers should have a clear idea of the parameters, both legal and agency policy, of their activities, and to what extent the agency can or will support them should they exceed these. Volunteers should know the types of access they have to agency resources (e.g., materials, personnel). This access should be made known to and acknowledged by other agency staff to ensure their cooperation with your program and volunteers.

The time and resources needed to design and implement a good training component for a volunteer program are often underestimated. Training needs must be identified! How much time will be appropriated to training? Who will conduct the training and where will it occur? How will an assessment of knowledge and skills gained be conducted? The specificity and depth of training required will determine the needed qualifications of trainers.

Periodic checks on volunteers in training will not only tell if training is being absorbed, but also if volunteers find training adequate for the duties they anticipate performing. This should also be done during volunteer activities to determine volunteers' evaluation of the adequacy and effectiveness of their training.

VOLUNTEER PROGRAM BENEFITS

Volunteer programs are often initiated because agencies have a need to increase personnel time for delivery of their services. Due to limitations of funds and/or perceptions of the nature of personnel time needed, a volunteer program becomes established. Generally, this program is evaluated in terms of benefits to the agency and its clientele.

It is important to the success of a volunteer program and the ultimate benefit to the agency and its clients to also understand benefits for volunteers. People volunteer for tasks or positions for many reasons, and these motivations are generally based on expectations of what they will receive through volunteering. These expectations can be viewed as anticipated benefits, and have great significance concerning the probable success of a volunteer program.

One factor affecting volunteer expectations is knowing exactly what is expected of them. In order for volunteers to form appropriate expectations, they must know and understand all aspects of the program which will affect their role in the organization. Organizational expectations of them (e.g., number of hours volunteered per week, month, or in sum; responsibility for retaining training information; responsibility to attend meetings) must be clearly and explicitly communicated and understood.

MOTIVATION LOOP

Participation — Motivation — Achievement — Interest in job — Involvement

NON-MOTIVATION LOOP

Non-participation — Non-motivation — Non-achievement — Apathy — Non-involvement

This motivation, non-motivation loop was developed by Frank Cunrow, manager of training and organizational development for Proctor and Gamble Paper Products Co. to show what motivates individuals and how it affects their participation in their work, paid or unpaid.

Individuals' motivations for volunteering vary widely - expected training, enjoyment of working with people, satisfaction in donating their time to their community, a cause or issue, and so forth. Volunteers' motivations (the benefits they anticipate) will have a great effect on their perceptions of the success of a program. Although a program may be highly successful in increasing the agency's ability to serve its clients, volunteers may be disappointed, frustrated, and disinclined to do more work in that program if their individual expectations are not met. If the agency staff know what volunteer motivations are before engaging individual volunteers, they can intercept and dispel unrealistic expectations. This clarification can have a significant impact on minimizing negative program impacts and ensure that participating volunteers gain satisfaction through their contributions.

By paying more attention to the benefits accruing to volunteers through their participation, a program can add significantly to its perceived success and positive impact. Carefully designed volunteer program evaluations can increase awareness of skills and knowledge developed through their voluntary efforts and increase their appreciation of the benefits they have derived from their participation.

An important part of the volunteer's experience, and one which affects their perceptions of benefits they have received through their participation, is the acquisition of skills and knowledge which can be applied outside the volunteer setting (e.g., in their community, family and/or work lives). If volunteers perceive their experience as being capacity building, as being the recipient as well as the bestower of benefits, they will see greater merit in the program, and will be more supportive of its past accomplishments and plans for the future.
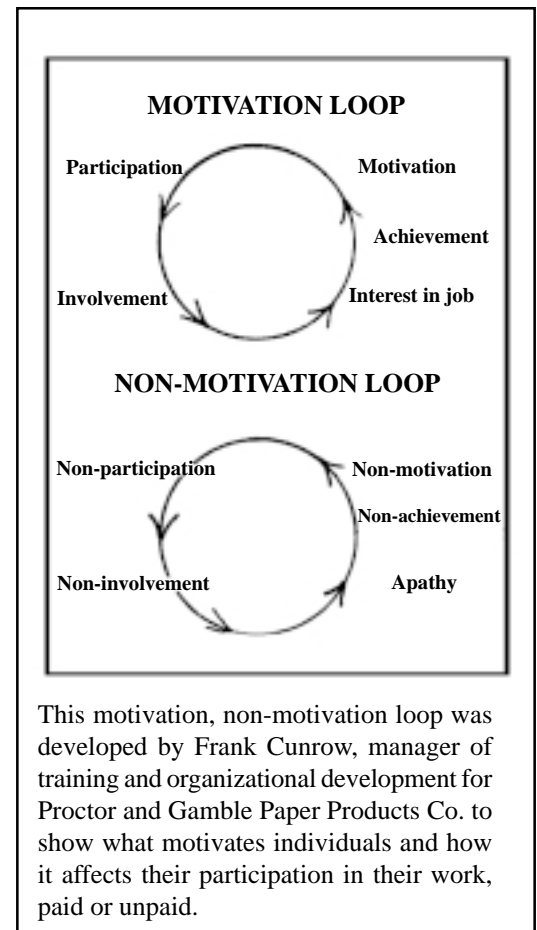
RECRUITMENT

One of the decisions organizers and managers of volunteer-based programs must make is how to recruit volunteers. In a very generalized way, recruitment can be either open or closed.

Open recruitment refers to practices which solicit response indiscriminately from the general public. Typical ways of open recruitment are placing announcements in newspapers, public service announcements on radio and/or TV, placing a general listing with volunteer agencies and bureaus, placing announcements in public places, and making solicitations through civic groups and social organizations. Any one or combination of methods might be used.

Closed recruitment refers to a more discriminatory process where a certain type of volunteer is identified and recruited. Desired attributes may have to do with age, area of residence, skills, ethnicity, and specific background or experience. The purpose of a closed recruitment process is to reduce as much as possible the need for screening applicants to determine their suitability in performing specific tasks or functions. Closed recruitment may utilize an existing volunteer bureau's lists of volunteers, solicitation through identified service clubs, professional organizations, social groups, etc. This process is largely determined by the desired attributes of the volunteer(s), e.g., talking about alcoholism to high school students, or teaching house plant care at a local library.

You may want to consider future plans for impact of volunteers during their recruitment. Persons with existing community ties, e.g., civic organizations or social groups, might be sought to facilitate access to that community, either to tap its resources, or to extend the services of the agency or program to specific populations.

These points only begin to address the factors which must be taken into account in developing effective volunteer programs. There are many books and articles which go into greater detail.

Key Words: communication, leadership skills

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Advisory groups, whether they are called advisory councils, advisory committees, steering committees, advisory boards, or any other designation, may be formed to initiate, analyze, evaluate, suggest, participate in, and/or react to the plans and actions of a program or organization. They also have the potential to hinder, reject, "rubber stamp," or remain indifferent to the plans, actions, and goals of any organization, including Cooperative Extension.

Advisory groups are sometimes **mandated**, such as those of many federally-funded health, education, and welfare programs (e.g., Compensatory Education school advisory councils and health maintenance organization advisory councils). Other advisory groups are voluntarily formed. They may be **individually initiated** by agency administrators such as street tree committees, county mental health advisory boards, and others. They may be **self-designated groups of individuals** affected by agency programs, such as neighborhood or block committees, giving input to county or city supervisors. They may be groups of persons whom professionals regularly turn to for feedback and suggestions. Most of us have this type of advisory group, whether or not we use a more formalized one.

ROLES, RESPONSIBILITIES, AND FUNCTIONS

An advisory group can fill many roles, some of which are complementary to other roles, while some are exclusionary. It is important to you and to the advisory group to be very clear about what are the roles and functions of the group.

Advisory groups can have:

- A **legitimizing** role - a means of legitimizing the work of a program developer/coordinator and the program. e.g., "I have the support of these people, who are representative of program clientele."

- A **"yes"** role - a "rubber stamp" for the decisions and policy of administrators and/or program staff.

- An **adjusting** role - a means of bringing in new ideas, fresh perspectives, and representative points of view.

- An **evaluation** role - a forum for evaluating program progress and effects, an on-going program self-check.

- A **communicator's** role - a communications channel to and from the surrounding community and specific groups within the community.

- An **excusing** role - a scapegoat for programs poorly received or perceived by the community, administrators, politicians, and others.

Individuals and groups giving advice are there to do exactly that - **advise, not decide**. Program personnel must make decisions affecting the program, and be responsible for those decisions. Thus, it is unwise to anticipate or encourage group leadership or autonomy to the point where the group feels they may have the right to make and act on decisions independent of the opinions and decisions of program staff. Facilitation of meetings and responsibilities for group work, e.g., gathering and reporting information, can certainly be carried out by those giving advice, but leadership functions (e.g., giving direction to the work of the group, sharing pertinent program/organization information with advisory group members) should be the responsibility of program personnel.

If you initiate an advisory group, then **determine what functions you want to the group to fulfill**. This determination is important in obtaining good advice.

ADVISORY GROUP MEMBERS

Determining who will serve on the group is just as important. You will generally seek either internal (e.g., program staff) or external (e.g., community persons) advice and input. You can expect differences in the content and concerns of advice you get from the advisory group representatives of the community from that of representatives of the organization. Community representatives (program clientele, business persons, personnel from other public service agencies, community leaders) are likely to be most concerned with the degree to which their various local needs are met by the program. The concerns of organization personnel are likely to be the same as some of those of program staff - How does the program interface with other agency work? Is the program cost effective? What are the program impacts on the agency?

If you have a community representative advisory group, you will also probably gain the input of other agency staff , if you will listen to their suggestions, criticisms, and questions. If your advisory group is exclusively composed of agency staff, you must be continually aware of its limited perspective in evaluating and acting on their input.

INFORMING THE GROUP

All too often, two complaints are heard from advisory groups. These are easily avoided if work with the group is done openly. One complaint is that the group is unsure of its function, its **"charge."** This complaint need never arise if advisory group members are informed of organization policy, its reasons for making use of an advisory group, and its expectations of the group. Members must also know **how they are expected to operate** (e.g., frequency of meetings, what type of leadership, availability of staff time) and know the impact and effect of their recommendations, decisions, and actions on the organization or program. Indicators of this problem include: 1) a lack of direction during meetings, 2) frequent disagreements on what advice will be given and how it should be presented, 3) accusations concerning organization decisions which seem to ignore advice given, 4) being disgruntled concerning the amount of time required of the group of the location of meetings, and 5) talk of the inefficient use of meeting time.

The other common complaint is that **the group does not have enough information** on the concerns, needs, issues, or programs to form opinions, evaluations, or provide their supposedly needed advice. If the organization and its personnel are sincere in their desire for input from an advisory group, they will see to it that the group receives the information pertinent to its function. Indicators of an information/communications gap include: 1) asking for advice which has little bearing on factors and issues over which the program or agency has control, 2) receiving advice based on erroneous assumptions or information, or which does not take related issues or factors into account, and 3) confusion over just what it is they are supposed to advise. **Establishing clarity about why an advisory group exists is essential.** Communicating this clearly to its members will help avoid problems and misunderstandings.

Finally, if you are an administrator or a program leader who wants to limit advisory councils to manning the white elephant tables at the summer neighborhood bazaar, the following advice is appropriate:

- Stall. Hold the first meeting in November. The momentum will be lost in January and June will soon be here.

- Be subtly negative in your communications, but always declare your willingness to cooperate. Keep the group uninformed.

ADVICE

- Offer no leadership. Try to avoid an agenda for meetings and offer no new ideas. Talk endlessly.

- Dominate meetings. Discourage discussion of sensitive topics. Hide behind legalistic obstructions.

- Involve the group in an elaborate and lengthy report writing process; then let the report gather dust.

- If they mean business, isolate the group's leaders. Provoke a quarrel, but always in private to effectively end communications, and then brand the activists as troublemakers.

- Cultivate a tame group. Make it obvious that there is a split in the community.

- Let your staff know you are standing between them and a bunch of meddlers. They'll get the idea.

Adapted from *Education Advisory*, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Key Words: communication, leadership skills

INSTRUCTIONS: Place a mark on the circumference of the wheel which represents the present status of your team.

STAGE FOUR　　　　　　　　　　　**0**　　　　　　　　　　**STAGE ONE**

11　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　1

MATURE CLOSENESS

Resourceful
Flexible
Open
Effective
Close and Supportive

TESTING

Polite
Impersonal
Watchful
Guarded

10　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　2

9　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　3

GETTING ORGANIZED

Developing skills
Establishing Procedures
Giving feedback
Confronting issues

INFIGHTING

Controlling conflicts
Confronting people
Opting out
Difficulties
Feeling stuck

8　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　4

7　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　5

6

STAGE THREE　　　　　　　　　　**STAGE TWO**

Key Words: communication, group process

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CHAPTER 4

Reaching Agreement

DECISION MAKING

We all have to make many decisions every day of our lives. Many of these decisions involve other people. Rendering an opinion, making a specific recommendation, giving a solution for a concrete problem, defining courses of action, handing down a verdict, and stating a general policy are all examples. Decisions may be evaluated in terms of what decision was made. Is it valid? Does it make sense? Also, it may be evaluated in terms of how the decision was made. Were the people who had the necessary information involved? Did all participants really agree? Were alternatives considered? What would be the effect on the people who must carry out the decision? The adequacy of the decision, in terms of the support it will receive, depends in large measure on the process of how it was made. The following describes different kinds of decisions in terms of the way they are made.

PLOP

A plop results when a group member makes a suggestion which meets with no response from the group as a whole. It falls - "plop." Not only is there no evaluation of the suggestion by the group, but the individual who offered the suggestion may experience feelings of rejection and resentment. That person feels that no one listens.

SELF-AUTHORIZED DECISIONS

This occurs when a group member suggests a course of action and immediately proceeds upon the course on the assumption that, since no one disagreed loudly, the group has given its approval. Such action can frequently lead a group down blind alleys. Even if the group agrees with the decision, they may resent the way it was made, and they do not know how much support the decision will receive from the other members of the group.

HANDCLASP

A suggestion made by one member elicits a reaction of support and permission to proceed from another. The group is now launched into action without adequate testing as to whether the proposal is acceptable to the group as a whole. A handclasp between two or three members is evident in cliques that form within the group. It is a powerful method to control the group. It often results from the failure of some members to meet their responsibility to the group by speaking up, voicing their opinions, keeping the group on target, and ensuring that alternatives are considered.

MINORITY SUPPORT

A minority within the group ramrods a decision or suggestion into a group action which the majority does not support. This leads to little support by the group as a whole for the action taken.

MAJORITY SUPPORT

A common method of making a majority support decision is by voting. Many groups make the mistake of assuming that simply because a majority supports the decision, the minority will willingly follow. Often they may appear to do so, but frequently they resent the action and give no more than token support. This may lead to "dragging feet" or to sabotaging of the decision. The basic assumption underlying majority procedures appears to be "the majority is always right, and the minority should conform." This usually results in failure to explore ideas and alternative courses of action or to make effective use of the views and experience of the minority. Instead, something is suggested and a vote is called for before other ideas have an opportunity to be heard and explored.

PROBLEM CONSENSUS

The group produces as many alternatives as it can, through brainstorming or any other method, and evaluate them later. Alternatives can serve as the basis for interacting. Such a procedure can lead to the suggestion of varied and creative ideas that might otherwise not be considered. Withholding evaluation gives the individual an opportunity and sometimes the courage to make a suggestion or submit an idea, to engender the feeling of support and cohesiveness, and to give greater credibility that the idea will be given adequate consideration.

NEAR CONSENSUS

Groups which really try to avoid pitfalls associated with the Plop, Self-Authorized, Handclasp, Minority, or Majority Decisions often try to include every member in the final decision by refusing to accept a decision until it is supported by all members. All members may agree, but some have reservations regarding the decision or may display obvious displeasure. Support and satisfaction are greater than with the other procedures. Dissenting members, although promising support, often withdraw support at crucial times, such as when the decision is implemented. This act often leads to the failure of the undertaking.

THOUGHT AND FEELING CONSENSUS

All members have contributed to the decision or feel that their contributions have been given a fair hearing. They tend to be more satisfied with it than with any of the other alternatives which were considered. Each individual has had an opportunity to voice opinions, ideas, and reservations. Each is satisfied with the treatment each of their contributions received. Under this procedure, there is a greater probability that a decision will emerge which has given proper weight to the significant conditions affecting the decision and, as such, gains greater combined support from all members of the group.

Key Words: communication, group process, problem definition/solving

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SOME GUIDELINES FOR MANAGING CONFLICT

Conflict is predictable and a common feature of groups. Managing conflict is less predictable and less common. Management of interpersonal or organizational conflict is a learned skill and no set of rules for managing conflict applies under all circumstances. There will always be unique features that need to be distinguished and taken into account. However, the following general guidelines may be helpful.

1. Try to have adversaries accept negotiating rules and not use threats in discussion.

2. Keep the conflict from including highly personal charges.

3. Usually, the one big issue actually contains several parts. Increase the number of points that can be discussed, thereby opening up possibilities for negotiations and trade-offs.

4. Address the easiest problems first. There are exceptions; sometimes you have to "go for broke" first, or nothing will be accomplished.

5. Whenever possible, limit the immediate objects of discussion or bargaining to a few issues at a time. Avoid global packages in which everything has to be considered at once.

6. Keep the very earliest exploratory discussions as informal as possible. If feasible, keep the first tentative negotiations off-the-record and nonpublic. Mass meetings are poor places for subtle explorations of complex issues. Everyone who has a legitimate interest in the outcomes should eventually have a chance to know what is being done, but a genuine meeting of minds is facilitated by initial discussions in which people do not have to take public stands that lock them into premature commitments.

7. Find and make explicit areas of agreement. Use all suitable occasions to unobtrusively remind the contending parties of common interest, shared values, or mutually advantageous interdependencies.

8. Bring in factual evidence whenever possible. It may not be believed at first, but be persistent. The reference to the facts of the case may eventually encourage the possibility of objective constraints on desires and solutions.

9. Translate as many issues as possible into some divisible and transferable terms, such as money. What is nontransferable is not a good object for bargaining compromises.

10. Continually explore possible shifts in the ways which the parties conceive of the issues and how they evaluate or rank order the various issues in relative importance. Do not assume that first positions will remain unchanged. Preferences often shift during negotiations.

11. Whenever possible, introduce information that shows the long-term survival and security of the parties are not jeopardized by proposed procedures or agreements.

12. Bring in trusted third parties for conciliation, fact finding, mediation, arbitration, or adjudication. Third parties who intervene should be well known to the opponents, readily accessible, skilled, impartial, and discreet. They do not have to be superpersons, but it is essential that they be known for personal integrity and fairness.

13. If one has the authority to effectively threaten an imposed settlement when the principals themselves cannot arrive at an agreement on their own, and if it is ethically acceptable, the nature of the imposed solution should be announced in advance. An announcement of an intended solution serves to produce restricted bargaining. Without such advance information, an unspecified threat only increases the difficulties in securing mutually acceptable agreements.

14. Call attention whenever appropriate to the negative consequences for the contending parties themselves of failing to regulate or resolve the conflict.

15. Keep talking. Then, try again; then, keep talking.

Conflict may be a liability when it causes inactivity, confusion, undue stress, or violence. However, when it leads to the identification of problems, helps generate learning, and introduces needed changes, it serves a useful purpose. If our traditional behavior patterns are improved and extended, if policy is written better, and if goals and values have been redefined as a result, growth makes the conflict beneficial.

Key Words: communication, group process, leadership skills, problem definition/solving

"IT WON'T WORK IN OUR DEPARTMENT"

"HAS ANYONE ELSE TRIED IT?"

"LET'S FORM A COMMITTEE"

"THAT PRICE IS TOO HIGH FOR US"

"THAT WILL MAKE OUR SYSTEM OBSOLETE"

"IT'S AGAINST OUR POLICY"

"CAN'T TEACH AN OLD DOG NEW TRICKS"

"WE'VE NEVER DONE IT BEFORE"

"WHY CHANGE IT? IT'S STILL WORKING O.K."

"IT DOESN'T FIT OUR PROGRAM"

HOW TO KILL PROGRESS

"IT'S TOO RADICAL A CHANGE"

"DON'T BE RIDICULOUS"

"WE TRIED THAT BEFORE"

"WE'RE NOT READY FOR THAT"

"YOU'RE TWO YEARS AHEAD OF YOUR TIME"

"WE DID ALL RIGHT WITHOUT IT"

"THAT'S NOT OUR PROBLEM"

"WE'LL BE THE LAUGHING STOCK"

"NOT PRACTICAL FOR OPERATING PEOPLE"

"THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE WOULD NEVER GO FOR IT"

"WE'RE TOO SMALL FOR IT"

"WE DON'T HAVE THE TIME"

"IT ISN'T IN THE BUDGET"

"LET'S SHELVE IT FOR THE TIME BEING"

Adapted from the remarks of David L. Yunich, President of L. Bamberger & Co., Newark, N.J. ©1958
The Economics Press Inc., Montclair, N.J. Litho in USA.

Key Words: communication, group process, leadership skills

SKILLS AND STRATEGIES FOR THINKING, FACILITATING, AND LEADING

Any leader must have a flexible array of skills and strategies for thinking. Likewise, these skills and strategies must be available in the actions of facilitating and leading groups. The following list includes some 66 thinking strategies. Review this list and determine which ones you regularly use, ones which you avoid, and ones which you need to adapt to your facilitation and leadership approaches.

Build-up	Display	Simulate
Eliminate	Organize	Test
Work Forward	List	Play
Work Backward	Check	Manipulate
Associate	Diagram	Copy
Classify	Chart	Interpret
Generalize	Verbalize	Transform
Exemplify	Visualize	Translate
Compare	Memorize	Expand
Relate	Recall	Reduce
Commit	Record	Exaggerate
Defer	Retrieve	Understate
Leap In	Search	Adapt
Hold Back	Select	Substitute
Focus	Plan	Combine
Release	Predict	Separate
Force	Assume	Change
Relax	Question	Vary
Dream	Hypothesize	Cycle
Imagine	Guess	Repeat
Purge	Define	Systemize
Incubate	Symbolize	Randomize

Key Words: communication, problem definition/solving

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Effective meetings are keys to productive and creative work. The following ideas can help you to make meetings productive and creative.

1.   Avoid holding meetings when they are unnecessary. Determine if individual conversations would be more appropriate. Ensure that meetings have useful content.

2.   Make meetings timely. Hold them promptly after receiving important information or a request for a decision, and always soon enough to ensure adequate and time action.

3.   Keep meetings as small in size as practical. Select only participants who are directly involved and able to deal effectively with agenda items.

4.   Select a convenient time and location for the meeting.

5.   Be realistic about meeting length. End meetings before fatigue sets in. Try to limit the meeting to one hour, and generally never exceed two hours.

6.   Inform participants in advance about the purpose, agenda, and objectives of the meeting so they can come prepared.

7.   Open the meeting with effective introductory remarks. Introduce members, ease tensions, and encourage participation by all.

8.   Establish and maintain an open, unstructured climate that is conducive to a genuine and uninhibited exchange of ideas.

9.   Keep the meeting in perspective. Focus on objectives. Control "hidden agendas." Avoid pressuring, criticizing, preaching, etc.

10.   Maintain the proper pace. Keep the meeting on schedule.

11.   Pause at intervals to relate ideas and integrate the discussion up to that point (interim summaries); then proceed with further discussion or move on to the next subject.

12.   Summarize at the end of the meeting. State conclusions, recommendations, and actions. Assign responsibility and due dates for action items. Close on an encouraging note.

13.   Evaluate the meeting soon after it has been held.

14.   When appropriate, concisely document the meeting.

15.   Follow up on all assigned actions.

Key Words: communication, group process, leadership skills
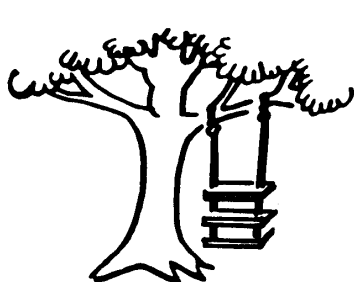
HOW STATE PLANNING COORDINATED IT
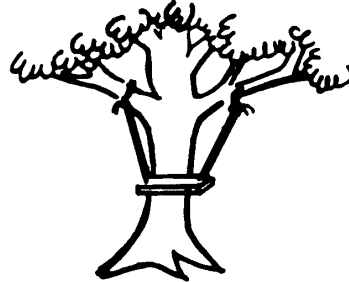
HOW THE PLANNERS PRESENTED IT
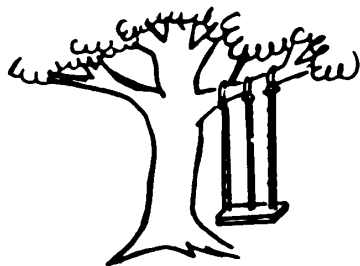
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HOW CONSTRUCTION INSTALLED IT
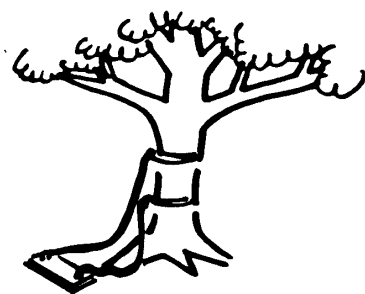
HOW THE PROJECT DIRECTOR DESIGNED IT
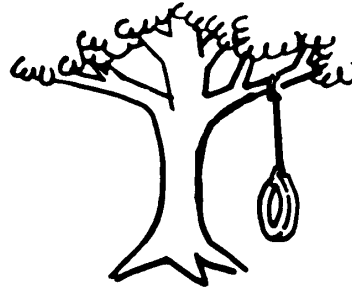
WHAT THE PUBLIC WANTED

Source: Unknown

Key Words: problem definition/solving, risk-taking

RISKY BUSINESS

Why take risks? Why risk it all? Good questions, right? Well, the answers are the same. Take risks because they are good for your health, especially your mental health. According to Sidney Simon, a mental health practitioner, taking risks promotes your mental health. Unfortunately, risking is hard by definition, and risk usually involves change. Huddling to familiar misery seems often less frightening than soaring into the unknown.
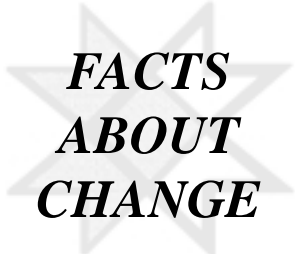
Fear is the chief culprit inhibiting risk-taking, but Simon mentions other attitudes that keep us from taking risks. These are our patterns of mentally defending and rationalizing our position, a belief that we do not really deserve anything better, and lack of awareness of what we really want, need, or love. If we are to be mentally healthy, Simon maintains, we need to break through our fear and our rigid mindsets and dare.

In addition to his general advice, TAKE RISKS, Simon does lay out some specific suggestions for maintaining wellness:

1) We must have an adequate support network.

2) We must rid ourselves of the "toxic" people in our lives.

3) We need to increase opportunities for validation and affirmation; in other words, build relationships with people who nourish us.

4) We must begin to consciously choose to see the positive rather than the negative.

5) We must care enough for ourselves to eat well

6) We must have a live and intimate love relationship.

7) We must have enough touching.

8) We must be involved in an exercise program.

9) We must have a counseling outlet available.

10) We must have time alone.

11) We must have a commitment to the idea of change.[1]

[1]Adapted from an article in *Davis Democrat* July, 1985

Key Words: risk-taking

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*FACTS
ABOUT
CHANGE*

- Change is more complicated, expensive, and time consuming than we imagine.

- Change is more complicated to sustain than to initiate.

- People at all levels have spent years preparing not to do this.

- "If it's worth doing, it's worth doing slowly."
    - Mae West

- More information and more skills are hardly ever the solution.

- New efforts almost always rely on old resources.

- Successful change seldom starts at the top.

- Learning is essential to change…those who change, learn.

- Change efforts always accomplish something different from what we intended.

- The most engaging change is so compelling that success seems secondary.

Source: Association for Quality and Participation- AQP 11/98

Key Words: learning, risk-taking

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The list below briefly describes eight categories of change strategies available for use by change agents.

STRATEGIES OF PLANNED SOCIAL CHANGE

1. *Informing and Educating.* Objective information is disseminated to the population with no conclusions drawn within the communication. It is left to the recipient to process the objective information and make conclusions on his/her own.

2. *Persuasion and Propaganda.* Drawing conclusions and dramatic statements of benefits or ill effects of performing or avoiding a certain behavior are stressed. This may involve a biased presentation of facts and figures in an aggressive manner to impact and change attitude.

3. *Social Controls.* Refers to group identification and norms, values, and pressures that peer groups bring to bear for both ensuring and sustaining social change. It involves subtle or direct pressure and even implied punishments for nonconformity.

4. *Delivery Systems.* The emphasis is to minimize the accessibility problems associated with the usage of many public services. This entails offering flexible time schedules, more delivery contact points, and, in general, making the public feel welcomed in making use of the public services associated with a specific planned social change.

5. *Economic Incentives.* Includes not only cost reduction tactics (e.g., tax credits for home insulation), but also cash or other tangible incentives (e.g., cash payments for a vasectomy).

6. *Economic Disincentives.* Involves tangible punishments for performing a certain behavior, (e.g., adding extra duties, tariffs, surcharges, and taxes to the cost of a product or service).

7. *Clinical Counseling and Behavior Modification.* Involves the unlearning of socially undesirable behavior or the learning of a socially desirable behavior among certain individuals in a society. The psychiatric and psychoanalytic programs tailored for each deviant individual as well as small group therapy programs are examples of this strategy.

8. *Mandatory Rules and Regulations.* Legal restrictions on behavior are by definition involuntary and universal in nature. Punitive measures can be utilized given noncompliance.

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FORMS AND FUNCTION OF PUBLIC CONTACT

The matrix below provides a road map for thinking about effective methods for ensuring input from the public.

Form of Public Involvement	Function of Public Involvement						Representa-tiveness
	Informational						
	To Give	To Get	Interactive	Assurance	Ritualistic		
Open Public Meetings	Good	Poor	Poor	Fair	Yes		Poor
Workshops (small)	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Yes		Potentially Good
Presentation to Groups	Good	Fair	Fair	Fair	Yes		No Clear Assurance
Ad Hoc Committees	Good	Good	Excellent	Excellent	Yes		Potentially Good
Key Contacts	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent	No		No Clear Assurance
Analysis of Incoming Mail	Poor	Good	Poor	Poor	Yes		Poor
Direct Mail from Agency to Public	Excellent	Poor	Fair	Good	No		Potentially Good
Questionnaires and Surveys	Poor	Excellent	Poor	Fair	Yes		Potentially Good
Behavioral Observation	Poor	Excellent	Poor	Poor	No		Potentially Good
Reports from Key Staff	Poor	Good	Poor	Poor	No		No Clear Assurance
News Releases and Mass Media	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Yes		Poor
Analysis of Mass Media	Poor	Fair	Poor	Poor	Yes		Poor
Day-to-Day Public Contacts	Good	Good	Excellent	Fair	No		Poor

Key Words: communication, group process, listening

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TIPS TO CONSIDER FOR DEVELOPING POWERFUL COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Educators must be concerned with developing educational programs that work. Ideally, programs are designed to be effective and successful in creating positive change. The truth is that while some programs result in success, others do not! Why? There are many reasons for success and failure. Listed below are some tips or factors that if considered early in the development of education programs, may contribute to success. The list is not exhaustive. However, it includes some powerful tips for bringing about behavior changes.[1]

1. People need to experience control directly over appropriate components and phases of any program that affects them.

2. People need to be involved in determining needs and priorities and to be active participants in all phases of the program development. If they are, chances are they will be committed to take action.

3. People tend not to change behavior if they are denied the opportunity to make choices for themselves.

4. As you develop a program, be clear about your intentions involving an adequate and equitable representation of those people the program will affect.

5. Successful programs are initially related to the current and immediate needs and priorities of the people involved rather than long-range goals.

6. Successful programs provide people with adequate, clear, and concise information to understand the problem.

7. People need to feel that change in their behavior is in their best interest.

8. Successful programs are best directed towards groups of people so that group influence can promote and facilitate behavioral change.

9. The results of a program should provide benefits and positive impacts upon the larger community.

10. People must come to a mutual definition of the problems along with acceptance of their responsibilities.

11. People must identify the choices and alternatives available to solve their problems.

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[1] This list was suggested by *Factors that Contribute to Successful Programs and Behavior Change.* 1980. Cooperative Extension Service Information, University of Maryland, January.

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12. People must identify the costs and consequences of each choice and alternative.

13. People must be involved in selecting the best alternative for their problems.

14. Resources needed to solve a problem must be adequate, available, and known to the people involved.

15. People need to be involved in any evaluation of the alternatives selected.

16. Successful programs tend to be those in which people help themselves and each other to become independent rather than dependent on the program's sponsor.

Key Words: group process, problem definition/solving

CHAPTER 5

Instructional Media

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TIPS FOR PREPARATION OF ABSTRACTS

1. Do not submit an abstract unless the work has been completed.

2. The work cannot have been previously published or submitted for publication.

3. An abstract should not refer to another work; it should stand on its own.

4. The title should be all in CAPS and should fill the area from left to right margin before beginning next line at left margin.

5. Provide the author's first and middle initials followed by last name.

6. <u>Underline</u> the presenting authors' names.

7. List the complete addresses for all authors.

8. Indicate a purpose for the work.

9. Include data or description of evaluation process.

10. Offer conclusions.

11. Copy lines should not exceed lined areas.

12. References are not permitted in abstracts.

13. Typographical errors are unacceptable. Check the abstract carefully before submitting it.

14. Type size must be no less than 12 characters per inch (CPI) or 10 pt. font size.

15. Avoid excessive use of company names.

The <u>quality</u> of the abstract is the single most important factor in a program committee's decision to accept or reject your abstract and any presentation.

EXAMPLE OF WHAT <u>NOT</u> TO DO (errors noted in **boldface**)

- use of commercial company name
- title should be all CAPS
- presenting author not underlined

~~{Bill Young. ABC Inc.'s Hazardous Waste Site Investigations of Confined Spaces: Part II. J. Doe, ABC Inc., Akron, OH}~~

<div align="center">

- typo

</div>

Work

Not

Finished

Workers at hazardous waste ~~sighs~~ are required to enter into confined spaces during site investigations and redemption. Such confined spaces may include tanks, tunnels, sewers, pits and other areas. The Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) proposed rules to regulate such entries (1) The procedures being used are then compared to the proposed OSHA standard. Recommendations relative to the training requirements under the proposed standard are included. ABC Inc. will also present information on its new training video.

~~For more information, see December, l990 issue of Hazardous Waste Site Journal. (3)~~

- abstract should contain all details

~~References~~   **- should not be included in abstract**

(1) Federal Register June 5, l989.

(2) ABC Inc. Hazardous Waste Site Investigation of Confined Spaces: Part I. Presented at the American Industrial Hygiene Conference, 1987. Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

Source: American Industrial Hygiene Conference and Exposition Call for Abstracts.

Key Words: communication, media, presentation

| SELECTING INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA | If you are involved in education, at some point you must select and use media, materials, and educational communication activities in order to achieve your objectives. The information contained in the attached matrices will help you to narrow the range of choices in terms of person-to-person or interpersonal activities and education media. The list of techniques and materials is not exhaustive. The intent is to present some advantages and disadvantages of each. The information presented is general and as such, should serve as a guide for your educational planning. |

BEFORE USING MEDIA MATRIX

Prior to using this Media Matrix[1], complete the following tasks:

1. Identify all target groups involved in your educational project or program.

2. Specify what each group needs to do to demonstrate they are using the innovation or have learned. What are the learning objectives and behaviors?

3. Decide what activities can be used or invented to either bring about or maintain the behaviors specified.

USING THE MEDIA MATRIX

Now you can begin to effectively use the Media Matrix. The Media Matrix is composed of four tables:

TABLE A1:   INTERPERSONAL TECHNIQUES or person-to-person communication activities that can be used to meet learning objectives.

TABLE A2:   SELECTION FACTORS FOR INTERPERSONAL TECHNIQUES.

TABLE B1:   MEDIA AND MATERIALS (for content) used to meet LEARNING OBJECTIVES.

TABLE B2:   SELECTION FACTORS FOR MEDIA AND MATERIAL.

STEP 1: Select and specify the LEARNING OBJECTIVE(S).
STEP 2: Consult TABLE A1 for the specific learning objective(s) of your project, read across the row to determine which techniques have highest level of EFFECTIVENESS for meeting your specified learning objective.
STEP 3: Consult TABLE B1 to determine which MEDIA and MATERIALS have the highest level of effectiveness for the specified learning OBJECTIVES.
STEP 4: Consult TABLE A2 (INTERPERSONAL TECHNIQUES SELECTION FACTORS) for interpersonal techniques identified in STEP 2 to select and determine the most appropriate for meeting learning objectives. Read the column under each identified technique.
STEP 5: Consult TABLE B2 (MATERIALS SELECTION FACTORS) for media and material (identified in STEP 3) to select and determine the most appropriate media and materials for meeting the LEARNING OBJECTIVE(S). Read the column under all identified media and materials.

[1]The *Media Matrix* is adapted from UNICEF Media Selection Wheel, n.d., Chalintorn Burian Design.

LEARNING

As a refresher in relation to learning and instruction methods, it is suggested you consult the section entitled *On Learning* on page 58.

REMEMBER:

People Retain 10% of What They Read
        20% of What They Hear
        30% of What They See
        50% of What They See and Hear
        70% of What They Say
        90% of What They Say and Do

INTERPERSONAL TECHNIQUES
TABLE A1

EFFECTIVENESS OF TECHNIQUES IN MEETING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	TOWN MEETING	DEMON-STRATIONS	SMALL GROUP MEETING	WORKSHOPS	CASE STUDIES	ROLE PLAYING	HOME VISITS	SATISFIED USERS	EXTENSION AGENTS	SELF INSTRUCT
1. TO LEARN FACTUAL INFORMATION	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
2. TO LEARN PRINCIPLES & RELATIONSHIPS	LOW	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
3. TO FOLLOW PROCEDURAL SEQUENCES	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
4. TO MAKE DECISIONS & SOLVE PROBLEMS	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	LOW	LOW	LOW
5. TO CHANGE BEHAVIOR	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW
6. TO PERFORM MOTOR SKILLS ACTIONS	LOW	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	HIGH	HIGH
7. TO DEVELOP ATTITUDES, OPINIONS & MOTI-VATIONS	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW

SELECTION FACTORS FOR INTERPERSONAL TECHNIQUES
TABLE A2

TECHNIQUES/SELECTION FACTORS	TOWN MEETING	DEMON-STRATIONS	SMALL GROUP MEETING	WORKSHOPS	CASE STUDIES	ROLE PLAYING	HOME VISITS	SATISFIED USERS	EXTENSION AGENTS	SELF INSTRUCT
1. APPROPRIATE FOR GROUPS	L, S*	L,S	S	L,S	L,S,I	S	S,I	S,I	S,I	1
2. EQUIPMENT REQUIRED	LARGE HALL	VARIOUS	SMALL ROOM	VARIABLE	YES	USUALLY NONE	NONE	NONE	VARIABLE	VARIABLE
3. SENSES	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING TOUCH SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING TOUCH SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT
4. FLEXIBILITY OF USE	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH
5. REVISIABILTIY	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	LOW
6. INITIAL COST	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	HIGH
7. CONTINUING COST	NA	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	LOW
8. ACTIVE LEARNER PARTICIPATION	YES	POSSIBLE	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES

* L: LARGE
  S: SMALL
  I: INDIVIDUAL

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EFFECTIVENESS OF TECHNIQUES IN MEETING LEARNING OBJECTIVES	3-D OBJECTS	PRINTED TEXT	PROG-GRAMED TEXT	FLAT PICTURES,	OVER-HEAD DISPLAYS PROJEC-TIONS	AUDIO TAPES	TAPE/ SLIDES	SOUND FILM STRIP	MOTION PICTURES	VIDEO TAPE
1. TO LEARN FACTUAL INFORMATION	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
2. TO LEARN PRINCIPLES & RELATIONSHIPS	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
3. TO FOLLOW PROCEDURAL SEQUENCES	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH
4. TO MAKE DECISIONS & SOLVE PROBLEMS	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
5. TO CHANGE BEHAVIOR	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
6. TO PERFORM MOTOR SKILLS ACTIONS	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW
7. TO DEVELOP ATTITUDES, OPINIONS & MOTI-VATIONS	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM

SELECTION FACTORS FOR MEDIA AND MATERIALS
TABLE B2

MATERIAL SELECTION FACTORS	3-D OBJECTS	PRINTED TEXT	PROG-GRAMED TEXT	FLAT PICTURES, DISPLAYS	OVER-HEAD PROJEC-TIONS	AUDIO TAPES	TAPE/ SLIDES	SOUND FILM STRIP	MOTION PICTURES	VIDEO TAPE
1. APPROPRIATE FOR GROUPS	S,I*	L,S,I	S,I	S,I	L,S,I	S,I	L,S,I	L,S,I	L,S,I	S,1
2. EQUIPMENT REQUIRED	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
3. SENSES	HEARING TOUCH SIGHT	SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	SIGHT	SIGHT	HEARING	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT	HEARING SIGHT
4. FLEXIBILITY OF USE	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW
5. REVISIABILTIY	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	LOW
6. INITIAL COST	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
7. CONTINUING COST	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH
8. ACTIVE LEARNER PARTICIPATION	HIGH	LOW	HIGH	LOW	LOW	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW

* L: LARGE
  S: SMALL
  I: INDIVIDUAL

Key Words: communication, leadership skills, media, presentation

James I. Grieshop

> *I KNOW YOU CAN'T SEE THIS, BUT IT'S REALLY IMPORTANT[1]*

- Slides and overheads are like billboards. They should be designed to make an impact quickly and then it's on to the next one. Avoid long blocks of text - each slide or overhead should be a hint and not the whole story. What ever you do should be inviting!

- Present one point per slide using as few words and lines as possible. Use a maximum of five lines per slide, ten per overhead. Make graphs simple and easy to read. Use a lot of slides.

- Use color, font, and point size to create an emphasis and memorability. Boldface works better than italics. Color helps to add interest and attract attention to a key point.

- Use the formal looking Helvetica Condensed font for slides. This large font offers flexibility in deciding what best suits your needs. Experiment with different point sizes for the desired results.

- Use high contrast colors for slides such as dark backgrounds with white or yellow text.

- Avoid putting information at the very bottom of the slide or overhead. This portion of the screen may be difficult for some people to see.

- When using overheads, use twenty four point type (1/4 inch). This will provide about ten lines per overhead.

- Typewritten overheads are not acceptable.

- Have printed copies of your slides or overheads in front of you when you make a presentation so you won't have to keep looking at the screen.

- Include a slide with the title of the program and your name to project at the beginning of the session. Use this slide again at the end of the program during questions and answers.

Imagine yourself as one of the people in your audience. Are you interested?

[1]A quote made by a presenter using an overhead projector for a large group meeting.

Key Words: communication, media, presentation

HELPFUL HINTS FOR POSTER PRESENTATION

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Although the content of your poster is the most important determinant of its success, your poster presentation can significantly enhance or detract from the impact of your study/project. One of the most important considerations in creating an effective poster is its central theme. It is best if it is direct, focused, and supported as concisely as possible for maximum visual impact. Condense the theme of your poster so that the casual observer can grasp its overall message within a few seconds.

PREPARING THE POSTER

Content. Your poster needs to tell a story by itself. Since the most effective poster is a concise one, include only essential data and text. Do not duplicate your abstract on the poster, but rather display your conclusions clearly.

Design. A poster is basically an artistic or graphic expression of a scientific idea or program/project. Use high quality photos, graphics, tables, and charts whenever possible. Bullet or points to format text is usually most effective in communicating your ideas. Lettering should be at least one centimeter (just under 1/2 an inch) high for good visibility. The characters in the title banner should be at least 2.5 cm (1 inch) high, larger if possible.

Size. Consult any provided instructions for the poster dimensions. Before you display your poster make certain that your material will fit the poster board dimensions.

You should always know the size of the space you will be given for your poster. Also, you should know what type of display boards will be available. Can you use thumb tacks, masking tape, duct tape, or Velcro? Find out if you have to supply your own tacks, tape, or any other materials such as scissors, razor blades, or markers. Finally, know when your poster will be displayed; what time it should be put up, for how long, and when must you take it down.

Handouts. Any handouts should be clear and concise and include no commercial or advertising material. The handouts could be a summary of your poster for viewers to take home or, if you are describing a service or project, you may consider offering a brochure describing it. The number of handouts depends, of course, on the interest you expect to generate. You may also wish to bring business cards to distribute to those interested in your work. It is also helpful to put up a collection envelope for business cards of delegates who want more information about our poster.

AN EFFECTIVE POSTER COMMUNICATES CLEARLY, CONCISELY, AND IN AN ATTRACTIVE WAY!

BE CLEAR AND CONCISE AND PAY ATTENTION TO DETAILS.

Key Words: communication, media, presentation

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CHAPTER 6

Spanish Translations

LOS OBSTÁCULOS A LA CREATIVIDAD

James L. Adams, en su libro *Conceptial Blockbusting: A Guide to Better Ideas,* menciona una serie de obstáculos o "bloques" mentales que no nos permiten analizar correctamente un problema o hallar una solución al mismo. Estar consciente de estos obstáculos nos ayuda a funcionar mejor como individuos.

OBSTÁCULOS DE PERCEPCIÓN

1. Dificultad en aislar el problema.

2. Tendencia a ver sólo parte del problema.

3. No ver el problema desde distintos puntos de vista.

4. Ver la situación según estereotipos que se tienen.

5. Saturación

6. No usar todos los sentidos

OBSTÁCULOS CULTURALES

1. La fantasía y reflexión son una pérdida de tiempo, y algunas veces, hasta aspectos descabellados.

2. Ser juguetón es cosa de niños.

3. El proceso de resolver un problema es cosa seria y no da lugar a usar el sentido del humor.

4. La razón, la lógica, los números y el sentido práctico son cosas <u>buenas</u>; los sentimientos, intuición, juicio cualitativo y el placer son <u>malos</u>.

5. Se debe preferir la tradición al cambio.

6. Cualquier problema se puede resolver de manera científica e invirtiendo mucho dinero.

7. Tabúes

OBSTÁCULOS EMOCIONALES

1. Temor a cometer un error, a fracasar o a arriesgarse.

2. No poder tolerar la ambigüedad, lo que no está claro; un gran anhelo por la tranquilidad y seguridad; ningún deseo por experimentar cosas caóticas.

3. Preferir juzgar ideas en vez de crearlas.

4. No poder relajarse, dilucidar y pensar con calma.

5. Falta de estimulación; los problemas no despiertan interés alguno.

6. Entusiasmo excesivo y demasiada motivación por sobresalir rápidamente.

7. No usar toda la capacidad de imaginación.

8. Falta de control de la imaginación.

9. No poder distinguir la fantasía de la realidad.

OBSTÁCULOS PERSONALES

1. Falta de cooperación y confianza entre colegas.

2. Un jefe exigente que solamente valora sus ideas; no dar el reconocimiento que se merecen los demás.

3. Distracciones: teléfono, interrupciones, etc.

4. Falta de apoyo para convertir las ideas en realidad.

Este juego es un metodo muy bueno para communicar el valor de cooperación y trabajando juntos.

El Caso: Su nave espacío estaba dañado mientras un aterrizaje de emergencia en la luna en la parte de luz. Su nave ya no funciona y su aparato y equipo estaban destruidos menos los 15 articulos que siguen. No hay chanza que la nave madre puede efecutar una liberación. Uds. tienen que escapar a pie. Uds. y los tripulantes tienen que escoger el aparato y equipo mas necessarios para sostenerles durante su viaje a la jefatura que está 200 kilometros de su posición. Ud. tiene que poner en orden los 15 articulos desde lo mas importante a lo menos importante. Ponga el numero 1 al lado del articulo mas importante, numero 2 al lado del segundo, y siga hasta el numero 15. Haga este trabajo por si mismo y en silencio. Hoja de trabajo para el grupo (a ser llenado por solamente un miembro de cada grupo).

INDIVIDUAL

Suministros:

__Fosforos
__Comida concentrada
__20 metros de cuerda de nilon
__Paracaida de tela
__Calentador de potencia solar
__2 pistolas de .45 cal.
__Una caja de leche deshidirata
__2 tanques de oxigeno de 50K cada uno
__Un mapa de la constelación de la luna
__Balsa salvavida de auto-inflación
__Compas magnetico
__Cinco galones de agua
__Senal luminosa
__Botiquin con agujas para inyección
__Un radio-transmisor de potencia solar

GRUPO

Hoja para el grupo debe ser llenado por un solo miembro del grupo.

Suministros:

__Fosforos
__Comida concentrada
__20 metros de cuerda de nilon
__Paracaida de tela
__Calentador de potencia solar
__2 pistolas de .45 cal.
__Una caja de leche deshidirata
__2 tanques de oxigeno de 50K cada uno
__Un mapa de la constelación de la luna
__Balsa salvavida de auto-inflación
__Compas magnetico
__Cinco galones de agua
__Senal luminosa
__Botiquin con agujas para inyección
__Un radio-transmisor de potencia solar

Al poner en orden los articulos, formen en grupos de 4 o 5 personas y poner en orden los 15 articulos pero desde el punto del grupo. Deben terminar en 15 minutos.

Vaya a pagina 108 (cual es una tabla con una lista de importancia de los 15 articulos hehco por los expertos de la NASA (National Aeronautic and Space Administration). La pagina contiene columnas para comparar su orden y el orden del grupo. Se calcule los puntos en error que son la differencia entre los suyos y los de NASA. No hay differencia entre puntos con + o -. Evaluarse los volares asi:

>10 puntos: Está perdido. Vea a los razones por sus selecciones y compareselos a los de NASA. Anotese los razones de los expertos.

5 a 10 puntos: Va a llegar a nave espacío pero casi muerto. Comparese sus selecciones a los de NASA. Anotese los razones de los expertos.

<5 puntos: ¡Felicidad! ¡Se sobrevivió! Tendrá mucho exito en la venta del juego de video y los derechos para el sito del red (www.perdidoenlaluna-Yosobreviví .com).

PERDIDO EN LA LUNA
GRADO POR LOS EXPERTOS

Los puntos en error estan iguales a la differencia entre su grado y de los expertos. Los signos positivos o negativos no tienen importancia.

Suministros:	Razon	Grado por los expertos	Su Grado	Puntos en Error	Grado de Groupo	Puntos en Error
Fosforos	No hay oxigeno en la luna. No tiene valor.	15				
Comida concentrada	Un metado eficaz a proveer energía	4				
20 metros de cuerda de nilon	Tienen valor coma ayuda a subir o atar heridos	6				
Paracaida de tela	Protección de los rayos solares	8				
Calentador de potencia solar	Tiene valor solamente en la parte de la luna sin luz	13				
2 pistolas de .45 cal.	Su puede usar para auto-propulsión	11				
Una caja de leche deshidirata	Muy pesado, Duplicado por la comida concentrada	12				
2 tanques de oxigeno de 50K cada uno	El suministro mas critico para sobrevivir	1				
Un mapa de la constelación de la luna	El metodo mas necessario para navigar	3				
Balsa salvavida de auto-inflación	Lo botella para inflacion se puede usar para polarizado	9				
Compas magnetico	No tiene ningun valor. El campo magnetico de la luna no es polarizado	14				
Cinco galones de agua	Sumamente importante para reemplazar el agua perdida por sudar	2				
Senal luminosa	Se usa para senalar cuando venga la nave madre	10				
Botiquin con agujas para inyección	Agujas para inyectar medicinas, vitaminas son adaptadas para los trajes especiales	7				
Un radio-transmisor de potencia solar	Para comunicar con la nave madre	5				

Totales

LA TAZA
EJERCICIO DE TEORIA
DE APRENDIZAJE
DE ADULTOS

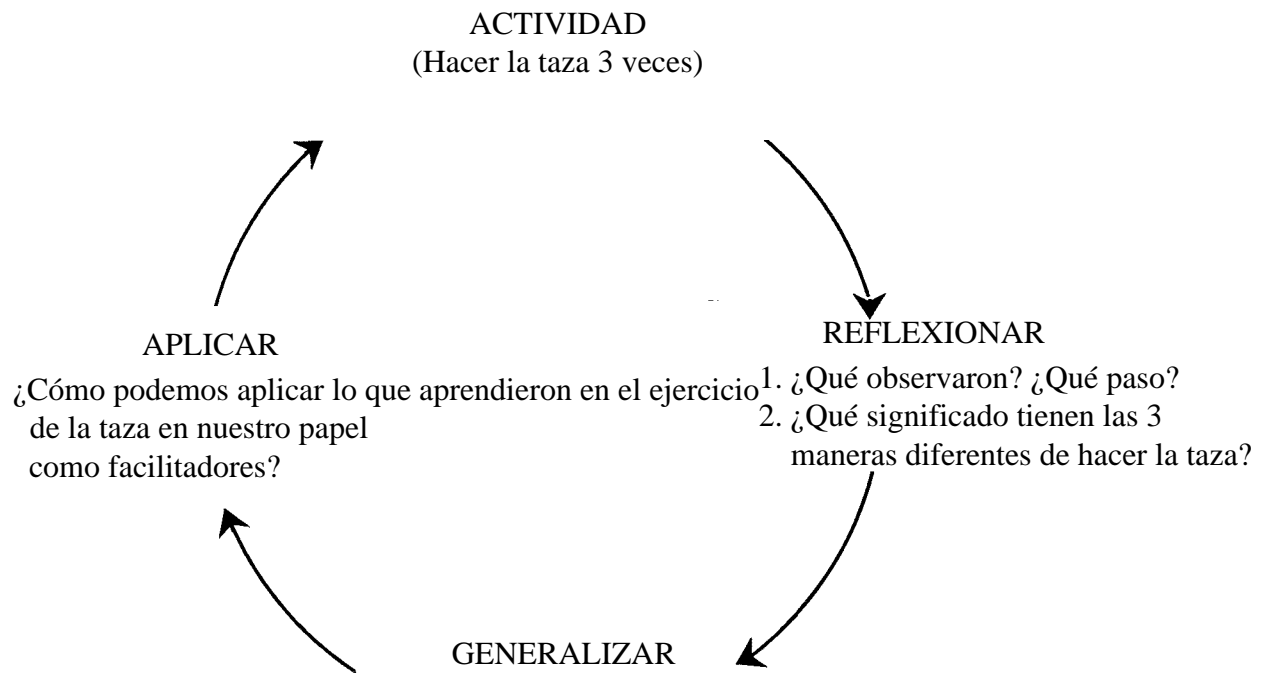INSTRUCCIÓNES PARA EL EJERCICIO " LA TAZA."

1.   La duración de la sesion es una hora.

2.   Los objectivos de aprendizaje son: 1) Resumir y presentar los principios básicos de como aprenden los adultos, 2) Distinguir entre la educación tradicional y la capacitación participativa, y 3) Ejemplificar y establecer la metodología del ejercicio.

3.   El orden de actividades son dar las instrucciónes para hacer la taza - 3 veces y pide a los participantes a tratar de cumplir la taza.
>   1) Primera vez - Leer las instrucciónes y decirles a los participantes que simplemente escuchen, despues que traten de hacer la taza. Espere algunos minutos.
>
>   2) Segunda vez - Que miren y escuchen mientras el capacitador lee y demuestra como hacer la taza.
>
>   3) Tercera vez - Que hagan la taza mientras y el capacitador lee y muestra como hacer la taza.

4.   Materiales necesarios son: 1) Papel 8" x 11 1/2" blanco - 2 a 3 hojas por persona, 2) 1 ó 2 jarras de agua para hacer la prueba de control de calidad.

Resultado del aprendizaje/recomendaciónes del capacitador para sesiones fuertas: 1) Muy buena actividad - motiva y relaja mucho. 2) El ejercicio contrasta la educación participativa con la tradiciónal.

INSTRUCCIÓNES PARA HACER LA TAZA

1. Doble la esquina inferior e izquierda, de manera que embone con la orilla derecha.

2. Voltee la hoja de papel boca arriba, de manera que la punta quede del lado derecho.

3. Doble la orilla inferior hacia arriba, de manera que embone con la orilla de abajo.

4. Doble la orilla inferior e izquierda, de tal manera que la punta izquierda quede colocada a la mitad de la orilla derecha.

5. Doble la punta superior a que se encuentre con la esquina inferior e izquierda.

6. Doble la esquina inferior derecha hacia atras.

7. Voltee la construcción boca arriba y doble la esquina inferior derecha hacia atras.

8. Intruduzca 2 dedos en la ranura y abra la taza.

PROCESAMIENTO DE LA ACTIVIDAD DE LA TAZA

ACTIVIDAD
(Hacer la taza 3 veces)

REFLEXIONAR

1. ¿Qué observaron? ¿Qué paso?
2. ¿Qué significado tienen las 3 maneras diferentes de hacer la taza?

APLICAR

¿Cómo podemos aplicar lo que aprendieron en el ejercicio de la taza en nuestro papel como facilitadores?

GENERALIZAR

1. ¿Qué comparación se puede hacer entre lo que observaron e hicieron al hacer la taza y el aprendizaje que Uds. han recibido?

2. En base de lo que hicieron y observaron, ¿qué se puede decir acerca de los principios del aprendizaje efectivo?

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- Obtenemos nuevas impresiones a través de los sentidos. El aprendizaje comienza a través de nuestros sentidos.

- Aprendemos más rápidamente cuando el material está organizado claramente.

- Relacionamos nuestra nueva enseñanza con lo que sabemos.

- Necesitamos una razón para lo que aprendemos.

- Aprendemos más rápidamente cuando los resultados nos son satisfactorios.

- Desarrollamos destrezas a través de la práctica.

- Todos nos diferenciamos unos de otros en habilidades y antecedentes.

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Los siguientes datos resumen los hallazgos de investigaciones sobre los efectos que diferentes métodos de enseñanza tienen en la retención de información.

SE HALLÓ QUE LOS ESTUDIANTES TIENEN HABILIDAD PARA RETENER:

10% de los que **leen**
20% de lo que **oyen**
30% de lo que **ven**
50% de lo que **ven y oyen**
70% de lo que **dicen cuando hablan**
90% de lo que **dicen al hacer algo**

MÉTODOS DE INSTRUCCIÓN Y HABILIDAD PARA RECORDAR

Método	Recordar 3 horas después	Recordar 3 días después
Hablando solamente	70%	10%
Mostrando solamente	72%	20%
Una combinación de ambos:		
Hablando y mostrando	85%	65%

Sentidos a través de los cuales adquirimos conocimientos básicos:

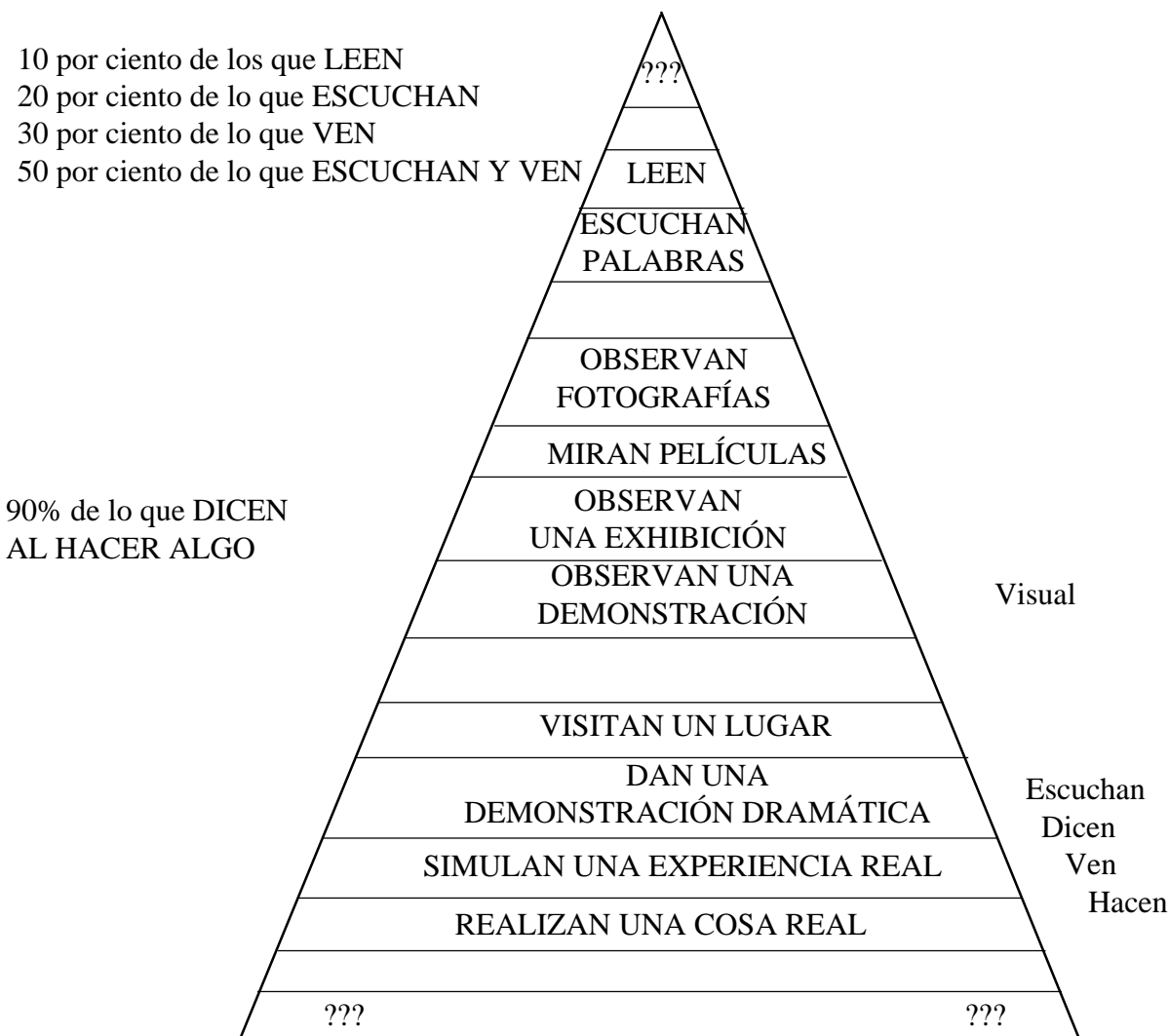|		
Vista	–	83%
Oído	–	11%
Tacto	–	3.5%
Olfato	–	1.5%
Gusto	–	1%

Tomado de Socony-Vacuum Oil Company Studies, Departamento de Salud, Educación y Bienestar de los EE.UU.

CONO DE EXPERIENCIA

Un importante principio de aprendizaje corroborado por extensas investigaciones dice: **las personas aprenden mejor cuando participan activamente en el proceso de aprendizaje.** El Cono de Experiencia de Dale, que incluímos a continuación, muestra diversas actividades de aprendizaje agrupadas en niveles de abstracción. La columna a la izquierda indica su eficacia, en términos relativos, como técnicas de enseñanza. Estos son los principios generales. Entre individuos, existe una gran variedad en cuanto a la mejor manera de aprendizaje. Algunas personas tienen una orientación visual; aprenden mejor por medio de actividades que recalcan la lectura, y la presentación de fotos o diapositivas, películas y demostraciones. Otras personas reciben mejor influencia de lo que escuchan en vez de lo que ven, y hay algunas otras que aprenden mejor haciendo las cosas.

LAS PERSONAS GENERALMENTE RECUERDAN   **NIVELES DE ABSTRACCIÓN**

10 por ciento de los que LEEN
20 por ciento de lo que ESCUCHAN
30 por ciento de lo que VEN
50 por ciento de lo que ESCUCHAN Y VEN

???
LEEN
ESCUCHAN PALABRAS
OBSERVAN FOTOGRAFÍAS
MIRAN PELÍCULAS

90% de lo que DICEN
AL HACER ALGO

OBSERVAN UNA EXHIBICIÓN
OBSERVAN UNA DEMONSTRACIÓN

Visual

VISITAN UN LUGAR
DAN UNA DEMONSTRACIÓN DRAMÁTICA
SIMULAN UNA EXPERIENCIA REAL
REALIZAN UNA COSA REAL

Escuchan
Dicen
Ven
Hacen

???   ???

Tomado de Wilman & Miehenry 1969. *Educational Media*. Charles Merrill.

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Un equipo es un grupo de personas trabajando conjuntamente para lograr algo que no se puede realizar, o que al menos no se puede realizar tan bien, si lo hace un solo individuo. Los equipos efectivos se preocupan por realizar el trabajo o resolver el problema, teniendo a la vez en mente las necesidades individuales de los miembros.

Reilly y Jones en su articulo, "Teambuilding" de *Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators* 1974, identifican cuatro elementos básicos para cualquier equipo:

1. El grupo debe contar con un propósito o razón para trabajar unidos,

2. Los miembros deben funcionar de una forma interdependiente, puesto que necesitan las experiencias y habilidades de cada uno,

3. Los miembros del grupo deben creer firmemente en la idea de que el trabajar juntos, como grupo, resulta en decisiones más efectivas que si se trabaja individualmente, y

4. El grupo debe responsabilizarse de funcionar como una unidad o una organización grande.

EQUIPO

PROPÓSITO	INTERDEPENDENCIA
COMPROMISO	RESPONSABILIDAD

Estos cuatro elementos son la base para evaluar las condiciones de un equipo que funciona eficazmente. Puesto que los empleados cambian y el público exige nuevos servicios, es su responsabilidad asegurarse de que un equipo efectivo está preparado para enfrentar esta clase de presiones.

PROPÓSITO

Cada miembro del equipo debe conocer y entender las metas y propósito de la organización. Además, cada miembro debe comprometerse con las metas. Un método eficaz de lograr este compromiso es involucrando a todos los miembros del equipo en la determinación de metas y en la vinculación de estas metas al propósito general del gobierno local.

Un buen líder ayuda a los miembros del equipo a identificar y compartir sus metas personales. Las metas motivan a los empleados. La determinación de metas personales y del grupo son el fundamento de las prácticas de administración eficaces y la resolución de problemas.

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INTERDEPENDENCIA

Con frecuencia, los departamentos o unidades tienen la idea errónea de que trabajan solos y son responsables sólo de su propia sección. Es importante que cada unidad se vea a sí misma como un equipo completo. Por lo tanto, las acciones de una persona afectan a los demás.

Para realmente resolver problemas y lidiar con un ambiente que cambia constantemente, los miembros del equipo deben necesitar la ayuda, conocimientos o simplemente el apoyo de cada uno de los integrantes del equipo.

COMPROMISO

La idea de compromiso en una relación laboral es, a veces, un concepto difícil de aceptar. Para que un equipo sea eficaz, los integrantes deben comprometerse a trabajar juntos, pensando en el equipo como una unidad, al resolver problemas.

El trabajo en equipo toma tiempo: tiempo para escucharse los unos a los otros, tiempo para alcanzar acuerdos, y tiempo para poner a prueba las ideas. Este proceso es esencial para resolver problemas exitosamente. Y por supuesto, no nos olvidemos del equipo. Cada integrante tiene sus propias necesidades a las cuales debe prestarse atención para lograr el compromiso.

Finalmente, el equipo debe ver los problemas como algo que se puede resolver y tratar de buscar soluciones que ayuden a lograr las metas.

RESPONSABILIDAD

La responsabilidad, como unidad de funcionamiento, es, a menudo, un concepto difícil de entender, especialmente en una cultura que idealiza la individualidad arraigada. Es necesario explicar o dar cuentas del éxito y del fracaso. Se debe recompensar o reconocer debidamente al equipo y dársele el reconocimiento al grupo por resolver los problemas. Los esfuerzos individuales se reconocen dentro del equipo, pero para el público y el mundo exterior, el equipo es una entidad responsable como unidad.

Hay otros factores que también influyen en la eficacia del equipo, tales como metas del grupo, ambiente, involucramiento, compromiso, creatividad, liderazgo y roles. El definir claramente las expectativas, identificar bien lo que representa alcanzar el éxito, y aclarar cómo se medirá el éxito logrado forman parte del ser responsable. Esta medida incluirá el balance entre el enfoque dado para realizar el trabajo y el proceso usado para llevarlo a cabo.
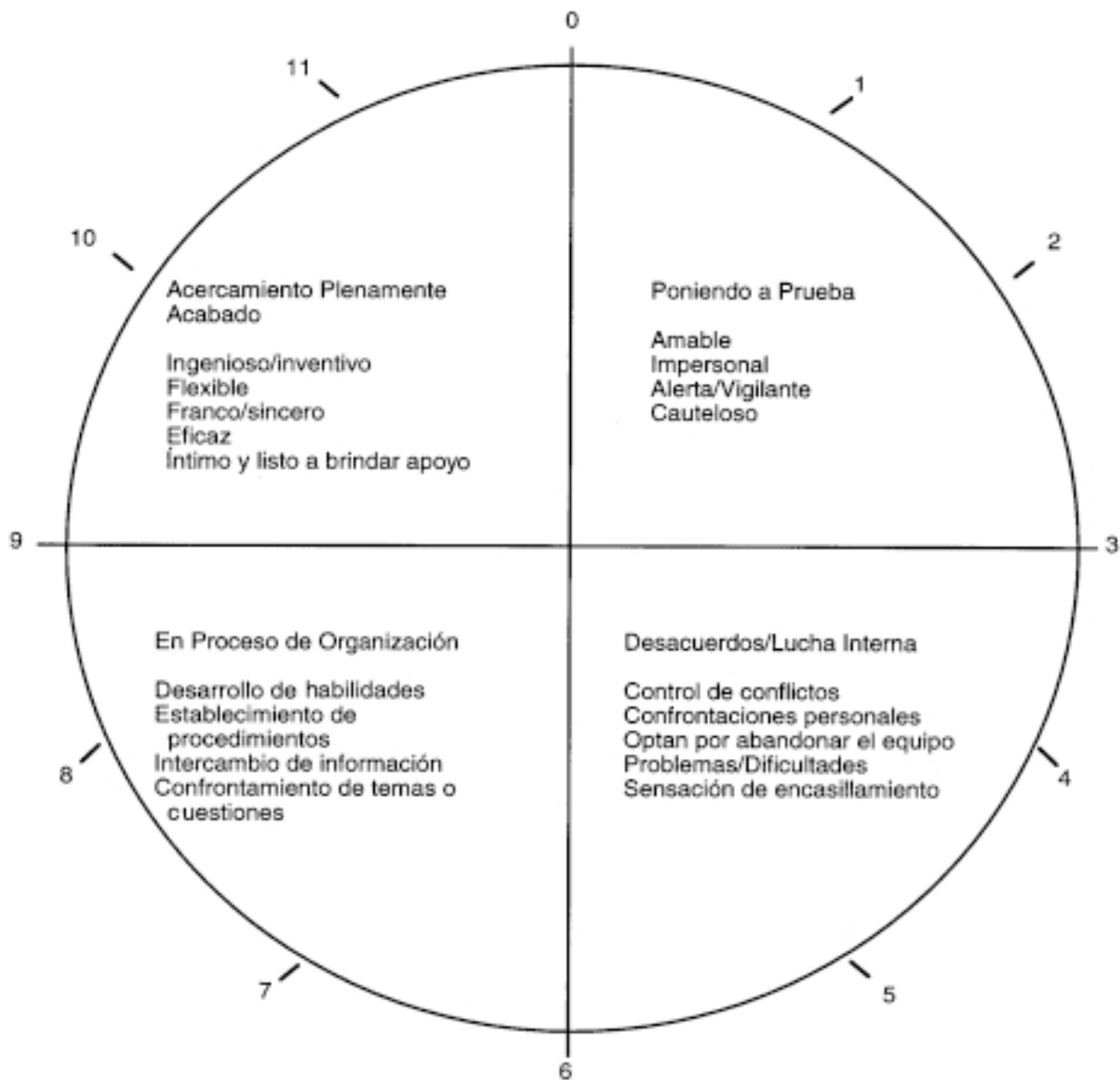
REFERENCIAS

Reilly, A.J., y J.E. Jones. 1974. Teambuilding. In: Pfeiffer J.W., y J.E. Jones (editores) *The 1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators*. University Associates, San Diego.

Instrucciones: Coloque una marca en la circunferencia de la rueda indicando la etapa o estado actual donde se encuentra su equipo o grupo.

CUARTA ETAPA

PRIMERA ETAPA

0

11

1

10

2

Acercamiento Plenamente
Acabado

Ingenioso/inventivo
Flexible
Franco/sincero
Eficaz
Íntimo y listo a brindar apoyo

Poniendo a Prueba

Amable
Impersonal
Alerta/Vigilante
Cauteloso

9

3

En Proceso de Organización

Desarrollo de habilidades
Establecimiento de
 procedimientos
Intercambio de información
Confrontamiento de temas o
 cuestiones

Desacuerdos/Lucha Interna

Control de conflictos
Confrontaciones personales
Optan por abandonar el equipo
Problemas/Dificultades
Sensación de encasillamiento

8

4

7

5

6

TERCERA ETAPA

SEGUNDA ETAPA

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POSIBLES RIESGOS DE LA PLANIFICACION DE UN PROYECTO

LO QUE PROPUSO EL
PROMOTOR DEL PROYECTO

LO QUE PRESENTARON
LOS PLANIFICADORES

TAL Y COMO SE ESPECIFICÓ
EN LA PROPUESTA DEL PROYECTO

LO QUE FINALMENTE
SE INSTALÓ

LO QUE DISEÑÓ EL
DIRECTOR DEL PROYECTO

LO QUE REALMENTE
QUERÍA EL USUARIO

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FORMAS Y FUNCIONES DEL CONTACTO CON EL PUBLICO

FORMAS Y FUNCIONES DEL CONTACTO CON EL PÚBLICO

Forma de participación pública	Función de la participación pública		Interactivo	De afirmación	Ritualista	Aspectos o caracter representativo
	De carácter informativo					
	Para dar	Para recibir				
Reunión abierta al público	Bueno	Deficiente	Deficiente	Regular	Sí	Deficiente
Talleres (Grupos pequeños)	Excelente	Excelente	Excelente	Excelente	Sí	Potencialmente bueno
Presentaciones a grupos	Bueno	Regular	Regular	Regular	Sí	Afirmación no muy clara
Comités Ad Hoc	Bueno	Bueno	Excelente	Excelente	Sí	Potencialmente bueno
Contactos claves	Excelente	Excelente	Excelente	Excelente	No	Afirmación no muy clara
Análisis de correspondencia que llega	Deficiente	Bueno	Deficiente	Deficiente	Sí	Deficiente
Envíos de correspondencia directos de la agencia al público	Excelente	Deficiente	Regular	Bueno	No	Potencialmente bueno
Cuestionarios y encuestas	Deficiente	Excelente	Deficiente	Regular	Sí	Potencialmente bueno
Observación del comportamiento	Deficiente	Excelente	Deficiente	Deficiente	No	Potencialmente bueno
Reportes de personal clave	Deficiente	Bueno	Deficiente	Deficiente	No	Afirmación no muy clara
Comunicados de prensa y medios de comunicación	Bueno	Deficiente	Deficiente	Deficiente	Sí	Deficiente
Análisis de los medios de comunicación	Regular	Deficiente	Deficiente	Sí	Deficiente	Deficiente
Contacto diario con el público	Bueno	Bueno	Excelente	Regular	No	Deficiente

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ANÁLISIS DE FUERZAS

El concepto y método elaborado por el sicólogo Kurt Lewin que se conoce como *Force Field Analysis* (Análisis de Fuerzas), constituye uno de los procedimientos más útiles para identificar estos factores. Se trata de identificar tanto aquellas fuerzas que ayudan como aquellas que obstaculizan el alcanzar un objetivo dado. Se puede considerar que son fuerzas en pugna. En el cuadro a continuacicón, que se da como ejemplo, se detallan las fuerzas impulsoras y restrictivas en el logro de la primera fase del objetivo de reclutar gente jóven como nuevos miembros.

Ejemplo:

Objetivo: Reclutar en un plazo de dos meses personas entre los 20 a 30 años de edad que sean miembros activos de otras organizaciones voluntarias, el número a reclutar debe por lo menos el mismo número que reemplace la pérdida sufrida el año anterior por deserción. Además, deberán mantenerse como miembros activos por un lapso mínimo de dos años.

Fuerzas Impulsoras
1. deseo de reconocimiento
2. deseo de ser parte de algo
3. deseo de autorealización
4. deseo de contribuir al cambio social
5. deseo de utilizar el tiempo libre provechosamente
6. deseo de impresionar positivamente
7. capacidad por parte de la organización de brindar a sus miembros la oportunidad de desarrollar nuevas destrezas
8. capacidad por parte de la organización de suscitar interés en relación a un problema determinado del que la organización se ocupa
9. la utilidad de los miembros jóvenes en reclutar personas de su misma edad

Fuerzas Restrictivas
1. las cuotas son demasiado altas
2. publicidad insuficiente o deficiente sobre nuestra organizacion
3. no hay programa de entrenamiento para los miembros
4. discrepancia entre las metas fijadas y los programas en marcha
5. impresión generalizada dentro de este grupo específico de que todo grupo dedicado al voluntariado se halla dominado por los miembros de mayor edad
6. sentimiento en la comunidad de que los organismos de voluntarios se preocupan más por sus propios intereses y, consecuentemente, no están en posición de tener un impacto verdadero

---

El problema de su organización:

¿Cuáles son las fuerzas que ayudarán u obstaculizarán el que su organización alcance el objetivo deseado?

Fuerzas Impulsoras

1.

2.

3.

Fuerzas Restrictivas

1.

2.

3.

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Concisamente, un análisis general de la comunidad, en su forma más óptima, serviría para analizar y resumir los siguientes datos:

ANTECEDENTES DE LA COMUNIDAD

- Antecedentes históricos de la comunidad; su origen y crecimiento

- Tradiciones, valores, costumbres, características descriptivas, tales como "industriosa," "progresista,""conservadora."

- Datos geográficos, aspectos físicos que influyen en las posibilidades de esparcimiento, en la cultura, en las probabilidades de poder establacer empresas en la comunidad

- La población, proporción entre los sexos, tipos de trabajo disponibles, diferencias étnicas, tasa de natalidad, movilidad, estabilidad.

EDUCACIÓN

- Estructura y administración

- Profesores, asociaciones de profesores

- Servicios especiales

- Educación para adultos

- Bibliotecas y museos

- Escuelas particulares

- Educación superior

RECREACIÓN

- Recreación pública

- Programas e instalaciones (semi-públicas y privadas) de recreación

- Instalaciones comerciales de recreación

- Festivales, pesca, excursiones, etc.

SITUACIÓN ECONÓMICA

- Tipos de industrias y de firmas comerciales

- Tipos de servicios

- Empleo vs. desempleo

- Condiciones de trabajo, sindicatos

- Sistema de poder económico (personas e instituciones)

- Futuro económico

GOBIERNO

- Estructura del gobierno local

- Funcionarios electos y funcionarios nombrados

- Presupuesto, desembolsos, impuestos

- Partidos políticos, personalidades políticas, temas de interés

- Orden público

- Servicios sociales

APRENDIZAJE EMPÍRICO[1]

El aprendizaje empírico es exactamente lo que su nombre implica: aprender de la experiencia. El enfoque empírico está centrado en el estudiante y permite a cada participante manejar y compartir la responsabilidad de su aprendizaje con sus profesores. Las estrategias de entrenamiento efectivas que incorporan enfoques de aprendizaje empíricos proporcionan oportunidades para que una persona realice una actividad, revise esta actividad críticamente, obtenga algunas ideas útiles de análisis y aplique el resultado en una situación práctica.

Una representación gráfica del modelo empírico es presentada a continuación y puede ser aplicada al entrenamiento de las siguientes formas:

Experiencia
(actividad realizada)

Aplicación
(Planificación de un comportamiento más efectivo posterior al entrenamiento)

Proceso
(Compartir, comparación del procesamiento, reflexión)

Generalización
(Obtener conclusiones, identificar principios generales)

La fase experimental es la actividad inicial y el segmento productor de información del ciclo de aprendizaje empírico. Esta fase está estructurada pare capacitar a los participantes a involucrarse activamente en "hacer" algo. El hacer**,** en este caso, tiene una definición bastante amplia e incluye una gama de actividades como:

- Estudios de casos concretos
- Actuaciones
- Simulaciones
- Juegos
- Conferencias
- Películas y presentaciones con diapositivas
- Práctica de técnicas
- Conclusión de un instrumento

[1]Aprendizaje empírico es adaptado de un extracto de un trabajo titulado "Independent Effectiveness: A Reconsideration of Cross-Cultural Orientation and Training," por James A. McCaffery, Ph.D, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 1986.

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Esta muestra indica que la gama de técnicas de entrenamiento varía desde las más pasivas y artificiales (conferencias) hasta las más activas y reales (prácticas de técnicas). La técnica que uno escoja como actividad educativa dependerá en su mayoría de las metas de la sesión de entrenamiento.

Una vez que se haya completado la etapa de la experiencia, el instructor guía al grupo a la fase de procesamiento del ciclo. Durante esta fase, los participantes reflexionan sobre la actividad llevada a cabo durante la fase experimental, y comparten sus reacciones en una forma estructural con otros miembros del grupo. Pueden hablar individualmente en pequeños grupos o como grupo completo de entrenamiento. Discuten de sus reacciones intelectuales y actitudinales a las actividades que han emprendido; además, con la asistencia del instructor tratan de coordinar estos pensamientos y sentimientos para extraer algún significado de la experiencia.

El papel del instructor como facilitador es muy importante durante cada fase del ciclo. Durante la fase de procesamiento, debe estar preparado para ayudar a los participantes a pensar críticamente acerca de la experiencia y ayudarlos a verbalizar sus sentimientos y percepciones.

También debe llamar su atención a cualquier tema o patrón repetitivo que aparece en las reacciones de los participantes a la experiencia. El papel del entrenador involucra al ayudar a los participantes a conceptualizar sus reflexiones sobre la experiencia para que puedan pasar a obtener conclusiones.

La etapa de generalización es la fase del ciclo de aprendizaje empírico en donde los participantes forman conclusiones y generalizaciones que pueden ser derivadas o estimuladas por las primeras dos fases del ciclo. Durante esta fase los participantes son asistidos a "dar un paso hacia atrás" de la experiencia inmediata y discusión y a pensar críticamente para obtener conclusiones que pueden general o teóricamente aplicar a la "vida real." Esta etapa es tal vez mejor simbolizada por las siguientes preguntas:

- ¿Qué aprendió Ud. de todo esto?

- ¿Qué significado más general tiene esto para Ud.?

El instructor estructura esta parte del modelo de aprendizaje empírico para que los estudiantes trabajen solos al principio, y luego están guiados a compartir las conclusiones entre ellos. De esta forma, los participantes intercambian pensamientos e ideas para que puedan actuar como enlace entre ellos. El instructor ayuda a facilitar este paso de las siguientes formas:

- Solicitando y ayudando a los participantes a resumir lo que han aprendido en enunciados concisos o generalizaciones.

- "Empujando" a los participantes para que piensen más críticamente.

- Relacionando las conclusiones alcanzadas e intregrándolas a un modelo teórico.

- Asegurándose, dentro de límites de tiempo razonables, que todos los que quieran compartir una idea significativa tengan una oportunidad para participar.

- Ayudando al grupo a comparar y contrastar las conclusiones diversas, identificando patrones donde existan e identificando las áreas legítimas de desacuerdo.

Después de que los participantes hayan formado algunas generalizaciones, son guiados a la fase de aplicación del ciclo. Recurriendo a las ideas y conclusiones alcanzadas durante la fase previa (y otras fases), pueden comenzar a incorporar lo que han aprendido a sus vidas desarrollando planes para un comportamiento más efectivo en el futuro. En una sesión de entrenamiento ideal, los participantes serían capaces de aplicar lo que han aprendido inmediatamente después de concluir el seminario. Las aplicaciones que ellos planifican pueden relacionarse a sus profesiones o vida personal, dependiendo de los antecedentes y necesidades de los grupos específicos.

Las técnicas utilizadas para facilitar la fase de aplicación pueden incluir:

- Trabajo individual para desarrollar un plan de acción meditado que pone "en acción al pensamiento."

- Los participantes revisan los planes entre ellos y ayudan a formular ideas para la acción.

- Necesidades de aprendizaje adicionales son identificadas por los participantes.

Una de las formas en que el instructor ayuda durante este proceso es asistiendo a los participantes para que sean específicos al desarrollar sus planes de acción.

Es importante enfatizar otros dos puntos acerca del modelo de aprendizaje empírico. Primero, la naturaleza exacta de cada fase del modelo es determinada por las metas de la sesión de entrenamiento o programa. Una vez que se hayan definido las metas, la sesión puede ser diseñada utilizando el modelo como guía. En segundo lugar, la teoría puede ir en dos direcciones diferentes: antes de la experiencia, en cuyo caso la experiencia se convierte en una forma de comprobar la teoría o probar las técnicas implicadas en ella, o después, cuando está entrelazada en la fase de generalización mientras los participantes desarrollan su propia "teoría." Cuando estos dos componentes se adjuntan al modelo de aprendizaje empírico se ve así:

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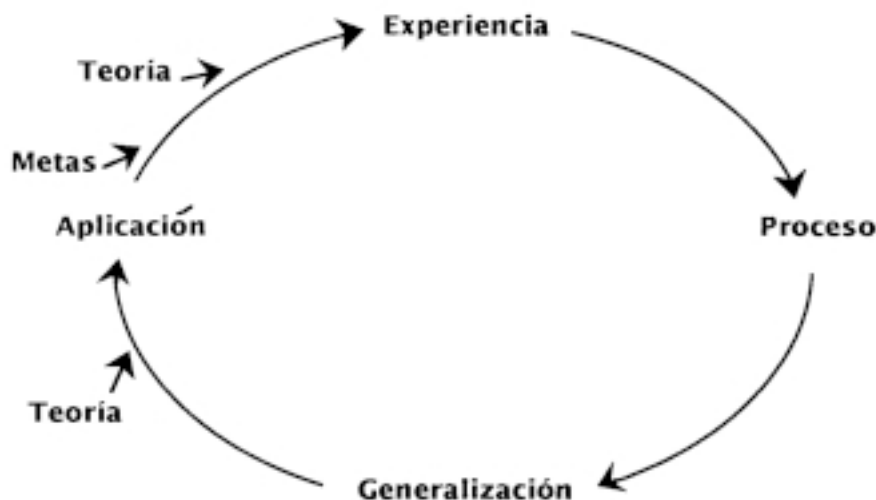
Para que este modelo sea efectivo, debe ser rigurosamente aplicado en las etapas de diseño. "Un entrenamiento a aprendizaje empírico" es una frase escuchada frecuentemente en el mundo educativo. Sin embargo, es a menudo utilizada incorrectamente en la practicá donde parece significar el dejar a las personas participar en una presentación, tener un sesión de preguntas y respuestas después de una conferencia o un estudio de un caso concreto solo subsiguientes del modelo sin los pasos. Frecuentemente las etapas de generalización y aplicación son simplemente eliminadas del diseño del programa. Como resultado de esto, el poder del aprendizaje empírico se ve significativamente disminuido o es anulado por completo.

Aunque el modelo, cuando es correctamente empleado, es muy claro, su aplicación práctica no siempre lo es. Hay transiciones entre las fases y ocasionalmente (especialmente si el instructor va muy rápido) el grupo regresará a una fase haste que se le "concluya." Igualmente, los participantes dentro de un grupo quizás no aborden el proceso de aprendizaje de forma tan lineal y ésto es perfectamente válido. El modelo debe servir como una guía para el instructor que intenta diseñar y llevar a cabo una experiencia educativa para el grupo.

El modelo es especialmente útil para el entrenamiento de técnicas porque la mayoría de sus actividades son activas y están diseñadas pare involucrar a los participantes en la práctica de técnica. El modelo empírico ayuda a las personas a asumir la responsabilidad de su propio aprendizaje porque les pide reflexionar sobre su experiencia, obtener conclusiones e identificar aplicaciones; el instructor efectivo no lo hace para los participantes. Por lo tanto a los estudiantes no se les da "masticado," ni tampoco se los lleva a ser dependientes de los expertos. Por supuesto, este modelo requiere un estilo de instrucción especial para que pueda ser ejecutado eficientemente y es sobre este tema que discutiremos ahora.

APERTURA

¿Me interesan ideas nuevas?
¿Tengo amistad con personas que sustentan puntos de vista diferentes a los míos?
¿Soy muy rígido y tradicionalista?

FLEXIBILIDAD

¿Puedo adaptarme y aceptar nuevos miembros del grupo?
¿Me siento cómodo en situaciones que no son común y corrientes?
¿Me perturba lo inesperado?

SENSIBILIDAD

¿Me doy cuenta de las necesidades y sentimientos de los demás?
¿Trato de colocarme en el lugar del otro?

CREATIVIDAD

¿Utilizo mi iniciativa e imaginación cuando me enfrento con un problema o situación nueva?
¿Utilizo mis propios recursos o busco los recursos de otros para satisfacer necesidades nuevas en la comunidad?

ORIENTACIÓN HUMANA

¿Me interesa más el aspecto humano que el material en el proceso de desarrollo?
Puedo establecer un ambiente de confianza que permita a los demás expresarse libremente en cuanto a los cambios sociales?

ORIENTACIÓN HACIA METAS

¿Puedo comunicar bien una meta así como las razones correspondientes para lograrla?
¿Puedo hacer un plan para lograr una meta dividiéndolo en etapas progresivas?

CONOCIMIENTO DEL PROCESO DE CAMBIO

¿Estoy al día en cuanto a los cambios que se efectúan en el mundo actual y en nuestra comunidad?
¿He leído y sigo leyendo temas sobre el proceso de cambio?

ENSEÑANZA TRADICIONAL	CAPACITACIÓN
Maestro: Enseña	**Maestro:** Facilita el aprendizaje
Estudiante: Recibe el conocimiento Metodología: Clases magisteriales	**Participante**: Aprende de su propia experiencia.
Liderazgo: Dictador autocrático y benevolente	Razonable, científico, proceso lógico.
Veracidad - credibilidad: Se argumenta en la autoridad	
Habilidad intelectual de mayor impotancia: Memoria	Creatividad, habilidad de relacionarse con otros.
Recursos Pedagógicos: Textos y maestro	Ellos mismos participan, lecturas cortas, experiencia actual y pasada y el instructor.
Aplicación: Para el futuro	Inmediata
Motivación: Externa; premio o castigo	Interna; surge del reconocimiento de la utilidad y el significado del aprendizaje.

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Le proponemos un segundo ejercicio como complemento del primero que Ud. puede utilizar lo siguiente para el análisis institucional y le permita así juzgar si las organizaciones que desean operar conjuntamente son compatibles. La forma en la que una organización planea, fija prioridades, determina su estructura y dirije las actividades de sus miembros, da claros indicios sobre la organización. El siguiente ejemplo le aclarará el ejercicio que se le sugiere. Se trata de determinar el uso de mi tiempo libre en base a una escala que va del 1 al 10, representando el número 1 la actividad a la que le dedico la menor parte de mi tiempo libre, y el número 10, por el contrario, aquella que ocupa la mayor parte de mis horas libres.

TIEMPO LIBRE

a. Utilizo mi tiempo libre pare participar activamente en deportes.
b. Utilizo mi tiempo libre pare leer.
c. Utilizo mi tiempo libre en actividades familiares.
d. Utilizo mi tiempo libre para ver televisión.

```
                          d     a           b    c
Menos característico  I  I  I  I  I  I  I  I  I  I  Más  característico

                     1   2  3  4  5  6 7  8  9  10
```

En base a la clasificación que le doy a cada oración en la escala se puede tener una idea del uso de mi tiempo libre. La oración a. la clasifiqué con 3 porque juego poco o nada. La oración b. recibió un 7 porque en efecto dedico una buena porción de mi tiempo libre a leer. Le di un 9 a la oración c. porque se trata de mi pasatiempo favorito. En cuanto a la oración d., la clasificación de 1 da una idea de mi interés en los programas de televisión.

A continuación sigue una serie de oraciones divididas en secciones que se le pide clasifique dentro de la escala de 1 a 10 de acuerdo al grado de aproximación con la descripción de la organización que Ud. está analizando.

PLANEAMIENTO

a. Pensamos mantener una curva de acción estable aprovechando todo oportunidad que contribuya al logro de los objetivos de nuestra organización.

b. Nos limitamos a que cada cual haga lo suyo. El planear todo es una tontería que sólo sirve pare atar las manos.

c. Pensamos solucionar los problemas a medida que vayan surgiendo. Si uno resuelve los problemas del día, no hay para que quejarse. En otras palabras, "basta y sobra con los problemas que ocurren cada veinticuatro horas."

d. El proceso de planeamiento consiste en establecer procedimientos, etapas, evaluación y equilibrio de tal forma que toda acción que se tome esté en conformidad con los planes de la organización.

Menos característico ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ Más característico

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

DETERMINACION DE PRIORIDADES

a. Prestamos toda nuestra atención a las oportunidades de diversificación, expansión y crecimiento.

b. Centramos nuestra atención en los problemas y necesidades actuales.

c. En nuestros programas tratamos de mantener una marcha pareja que no se aparte de aquellas prácticas ya comprobadas y establecidas que le han dado seguridad a la organización.

d. Consideramos que es de suma importancia mantener una dirección estable, a la vez que entramos en el proceso de crecimiento.

Menos característico ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ Más característico

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

ESTRUCTURACIÓN DE LA ORGANIZACIÓN

a. Necesitamos únicamente una estructura que permita identificar y rectificar errores.

b. Carecemos de toda estructura, y creemos que una organización tiene que contar con esta fluidez si ha de aprovechar las oportunidades que surgen a un ritmo acelerado.

c. Nuestra estructura nos permite atender obligaciones a corto plazo y a prepararnos para un crecimiento futuro.

d. Nuestra estructura establece una clara cadena de mando con muy poca posibilidad de realizar algo que no sea del conocimiento de los líderes.

Menos característico ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ ⏐ Más característico

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

CONTROL DE LA ORGANIZACIÓN

a. No ejercemos mucho control ya que pensamos que las ideas y las iniciativas sólo ocurren cuando el personal se siente totalmente libre para buscar nuevas actividades para la organización .

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b. Nuestra organización marcha como un barco bien comandado sin permitir ninguna desviación de los planes ya comprobados.

c. Los controles que ejercemos son tales que permiten las iniciativas, concuerdan con los propósitos de nuestra organización y satisfacen los requerimientos de nuestros compromisos actuales.

d. Ejercemos una estrecha supervisión para evitar se cometan errores que pudieran perjudicar nuestra labor actual.

Menos característico I I I I I I I I I I Más característico

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

INSTRUCCIÓNES PARE CALCULAR EL PUNTAJE

Tenga a bien volver a la Sección A y vaya llenando los espacios bajo las columnas I, III, III y IV con el puntaje que haya dado a las oraciones c, d, a, y, b, respectivamente. Repita la operación con las Secciones B, C, y D, teniendo en cuenta el orden de las oraciones bajo cada columna.

Seccion	Columna I	Columna II	Columna III	Columna IV
A.	_____c.	_____d.	_____a.	_____b.
B.	_____b.	_____c.	_____d.	_____a.
C.	_____a.	_____d.	_____c.	_____b.
D.	_____d.	_____b.	_____c.	_____a.
Totales	_____	_____	_____	_____

Sírvase llenar los espacios en blanco que siguen a continuación para el puntaje y la columna correspondiente.

1er. puntaje más alto	_____	Columna	_____
2do. puntaje más alto	_____	Columna	_____
3er. puntaje elevado	_____	Columna	_____
4to. puntaje elevado	_____	Columna	_____

La organización que obtenga el puntaje más alto bajo la Columna I tiende a caracterizarse por cierta propensión hacia las crisis, al esfuerzo febril por solucionarlas según se vayan presentando, pudiendo catalogarse a sus miembros como grupo reactivo (organización propensa a la crisis). Si el puntaje más elevado corresponde a la Columna II, esa organización se inclina más bien a ser cuidadosa, cautelosa, eatable, es decir, muy prudente (organización tradicionalista). El puntaje más elevado bajo la Columna III se aplicaría a aquella organización que halla el término medio entre la necesidad de un crecimiento sistemático y la de buscar y explotar las oportunidades que se le presenten (organización equilibrada). Y si el puntaje más alto es el de la Columna IV, se rige por el credo de "quien no arriesga, no gana" (organización intrépida).

¿QUÉ ES LA MOTIVACIÓN?

Es probable que todos hayamos escuchado muchas veces preguntas o declaraciones como las siguientes:

- ¿Cómo puedo motivar a esa persona para que haga algo a fin de resolver su problema?

- ¿Qué se puede hacer para motivar a los estudiantes para que se interesen en el trabajo escolar?

- La cualidad principal del buen líder es saber motivar a sus seguidores para que trabajen.

En ellas se notan dos implicaciones importantes sobre el concepto de la motivación:

1. Que la motivación impulsa, vigoriza, hace actuar a las personas hacia el logro de ciertas metas.

2. Que uno puede promover, inspirar, sugerir la motivación a otra persona.

Estamos de acuerdo con la primera de estas implicaciones, pero no con la segunda. La energía, el potencial para actuar, tratando de alcanzar una variedad de objetivos, está en todos nosotros. Cuando nos parezca que una persona no está "motivada," debemos preguntarnos, ¿qué será lo que está impidiendo que ese impulso movilizador se manifieste? Una de las funciones del líder, maestro, administrador, supervisor, etc. no es "motivar." Es, más bien, ayudar a crear condiciones que liberen, o que no obstruyan, la manifestación o expresión de esa energía potencialmente creadora que hay en los seres humanos.

FUERZAS MOTIVADORAS

Admitiendo que hay en todo ser humano motivación (impulsos para actuar hacia el logro de objetivos) veamos de dónde surge o dónde se origina esa energía.

Adaptado de *Material De Lectura Para Adiestramiento*. Centro Regional de Ayuda Técnica, México.

Todos tenemos una serie de necesidades que deben ser satisfechas. Algunas exigen satisfacción con mucha frecuencia y sus requerimientos son altamente específicos; otras parecen exigir poca atención y sus requerimientos pueden ser variados, indirectos y, a veces, hasta indescifrables. Entre estos dos extremos habrá aún otras necesidades no satisfechas.

Los científicos de la conducta humana están de acuerdo en cuanto a la existencia de las necesidades y cuáles son las más vitales. Los desacuerdos surgen en cuanto al número de éstas, los nombres que se les debe dar, el orden de importancia de las menos vitales y otros detalles.

JERARQUÍA DE LAS NECESIDADES

En lo que sigue resumimos parte de la teoría del sicólogo estadounidense Abraham Maslow. El agrupó, nombró y colocó en cierto orden un número de necesidades humanas: fisiológicas, de seguridad, sociales, del yo, de autorrealización.

Las necesidades **Fisiológicas** incluyen cosas necesarias para el sostenimiento de la vida misma, como el descanso, alimentación, temperatura dentro de ciertos límites, etc.

Las de **Seguridad** son una proyección hacia el futuro de las fisiológicas. Incluyen conceptos como seguridad de tratamiento médico adecuado, etc.

Las **Sociales** incluyen la necesidad de sentir que uno es aceptado por los demás, que pertenece a algún grupo (familia, vecindario, club, etc.), que es importante para determinadas personas.

Las **Del yo** reflejan la necesidad de sentirse satisfecho consigo mismo, de sentir que uno tiene cualidades o capacidad para lograr ciertas cosas que uno valora (confianza en sí mismo).

Las de **Autorrealización** nos impulsan a tratar de desarrollar y utilizar nuestras capacidades al máximo; nos impulsan a la invención, creación o descubrimiento; a llegar "más allá."

De acuerdo con el concepto de jerarquía de las necesidades, para que algunas de estas se hagan sentir como fuerzas motivadoras potentes, las de los niveles más bajos deberán ser adecuadamente satisfechas.

1. Obtener una visión más extensa del proyecto para poder planear con mayor amplitud.

    El buen planeamiento es **INTEGRAL**

2. Fijar la visión más allá de lo inmediato, para no tropezar sorpresivamente.

    El buen planeamiento es **PERSPICAZ**

3. Trabajar en equipo, ya que el resultado de esta labor es mucho mayor que la suma total de las contribuciones individuales.

    El buen planeamiento es **COORDINADO**

4. Ser flexible, para facilitar el llegar a un consenso, acelerar la tarea y evitar el posible fracaso de un plan debido a una actitud conflictiva.

    El buen planeamiento es **FLEXIBLE**

5. No esperar lo imposible para no sufrir desilusión.

    El buen planeamiento es **REALISTA**

6. No complicar las cosas pues en planes sencillos habrá mas profundidad.

    El buen planeamiento es **SENCILLO**

7. Comprender que el planeamiento es un proceso continuo; permite descubrir los errores de planes previos.

    El buen planeamiento es **CONTINUO**

8. Anotar cuidadosamente todos los planes para evitar la tentación de los propios caprichos.

    El buen planeamiento es **EXPLICITO**

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ACTITUDES

1. Piense sobre los problemas positivamente. Sea un buscador del problema. Piense sobre sus molestias y las molestias de los otros, y pregúntese el motivo de ello. Piense en los riesgos asociados con su actual conducta y las conductas alternativas. Busque el problema.

2. Piense positivamente sobre su habilidad pare resolver los problemas. Véase a sí mismo como un solucionador de problemas. Conozca sus fuerzas. Entérese de recursos externos que puedan ayudarle a resollver los problemas. Dedique el tiempo suficiente pare resolver los problemas. Fíjese submetas.

ACCIONES

1. Piense sistemáticamente. Deténgase y piense. No saque conclusiones. Planee un ataque al problema, paso por paso.

2. Enuncie el problema. Establezca claramente dónde está y dónde le gustaría estar. Enuncie el problema ampliamente.

3. Halle los hechos. Piense cuidadosamente sobre cada uno de los motivos. Busque motivos implícitos.

4. Enfoque los hechos más importantes. Piense más sobre los motivos que exigen mas búsqueda, piense particularmente sobre las características más importantes de los planteamientos y de la meta.

5. Genere ideas. Genere muchas ideas, especialmente ideas originales. Evite la evaluación negativa de las ideas. Primero piense en posibilidades generales, luego en ideas particulares para cada posibilidad general. Varíe sus estímulos para variar sus pensamientos.

6. Seleccione la mejor idea. Tome en cuenta el criterio más importante pare evaluar las ideas y los sucesos más importantes que puedan afectar el valor de las ideas.

KEY WORD INDEX