August 26th – August 31st Ethiopia 2013

to-the-point-consultancy

COMMUNICATION AND TRAINING METHODOLOGY SIX DAY COURSE

Participant Guide | Budge, F.M.

INTRODUCTION:

On behalf of Ramboll Finland OY, I would like to extend a very warm welcome to you all on this course.

During this course we will be exploring and discussing key concepts surrounding Communication and Training Methodologies. There will be a particular focus on strengthening your advocacy skills so that you can effectively promote the principles of Community Managed Projects (CMP).

Communicate with partners and implementers of COWASH Projects at community, village, and district, regional and federal levels.

The aim of the course is to provide you with a deeper understanding of communication and to develop effective communication skills. Additionally, you will develop skills in the area of training and presentation delivery. It is anticipated that skills developed and strengthened during this course, will enhance the scaling-up process of Community Managed Projects (CMPs). Ideally, it is hoped this will lead toward skill and knowledge transfer to other partners and implementers of the COWASH Project at District Level. There will be emphasis during the course on developing skills to deliver the CMP message at various levels, namely:

- Community Level: to train Water Committees and encourage responsibility and ownership of water supply implementation and financial management.
- Village Level: to promote CMP implementation to Kebele
- District Level:
  - to train District Government Staff for CMP management and promotion at Kebele Level
  - to encourage district cabinets to adopt CMP in local plans
- Region Level: for CMP Intervention planning and justification of CMP implementation
- Federal Level: for planning WASH implementation and strategies to encourage mainstreaming of CMP into national policies, strategies, frameworks and plans.

The success of this course will largely be dependent on your willingness to fully participate in all planned activities such as:

- Discussion groups
- Problem solving groups
- Games
- Role Plays
- Interviews
- Various art and graphic exercises
- Simulated training exercises
- Class Presentations

This guide has been prepared to provide some explanatory notes for topics covered in the course. The gap filling and short questions are not for marking, but for your own use to reinforce any learning that has taken place.

Once again a very warm welcome and wishing you all the very best for the course!

"… Minds are not vessels to be filled, but fires to be ignited"
Alexander Pope

ICEBREAKER ACTIVITIES

Meeting a group of strangers can be both exciting and scary for participants and facilitators. Icebreakers help establish a positive environment and provide an opportunity for participants to get to know one another and the facilitators. They can take about 10 minutes to one hour depending on the icebreaker selected.

Benefits:

1. Reduces both participant and facilitator anxiety prior to introducing the course.
2. It is a powerful means of fostering both participant-participant and organisation--participant interactions.
3. Creates an environment where the learner is expected to participate and the facilitator is willing to listen.
4. Participants are actively engaged from the onset.
5. Conveys the message that the facilitator cares about getting to know the participants.
6. It makes it easier for participants to form relationships early in the semester so they can work together, both in and out of class.

Listed below are several examples of icebreakers:

Introduce Myself**:** Participants introduce themselves and tell why they are there. Variations: Participants tell where they first heard about the class, how they became interested in the subject, their occupations, home town, favourite television program, or the best book they have read in the last year.

Introduce Another: Divide the class into pairs. Each person talks about him/herself to the other, sometimes with specific instructions to share a certain piece of information. For example, "The one thing I am particularly proud of is..." After five minutes, the participants introduce the other person to the rest of the class.

Character Descriptions: Have participants write down one or two adjectives describing themselves. Put these on a stick-on badge. Have class members find someone with similar or opposite adjectives and talk for five minutes with the other person.

I've Done Something You Haven't Done: Have each person introduce themselves and then state something they have done that they think no one else in the class has done. If someone else has also done it, the participant must state something else until he/she finds something that no one else has done.

Find Someone: Each person writes on a blank index card one to three statements, such as favourite colour, interest, hobby, or vacations. Pass out cards so everyone gets someone else's card. Have that person find the person with their card and introduce themselves.

Famous Person: People write a famous name on a piece of paper and pin it on someone else's back. Person tries to guess what name is pinned on his/her by asking others around the room yes or no questions. Variation: Use famous place instead of famous person.

My Name: People introduce themselves and tell what they know about why they have their name (their mother wanted to name me after her great aunt Helen who once climbed Pike's Peak in high heels, etc.). It could be the first, middle or nickname.

How Do You Feel: Ask the participants to write down words or phrases that describe their feelings on the first day of class. List the responses on the blackboard. Then ask them to write down what they think you as the teacher are feeling this first day of class. List them on the blackboard in a second column and note the parallels. Briefly comment on your feelings and then discuss the joint participant/teacher responsibilities for learning in the course.

Common Ground: This works best for small groups or for each small group sitting together as a team (4-6 learners). Give the group a specific time (perhaps 5 minutes) to write a list of everything they all have in common. Tell them to avoid the obvious ("we're all taking this course"). When time is up, ask each group how many items they have listed. For fun, ask them to announce some of the most interesting items.

Me Too: This also works best for small groups or for each small group sitting together as a team (4-6 learners). Everyone in the group gets 10 pennies/toothpicks/scrap of papers, etc. The first participant states something he/she has done (e.g. water skiing). Everyone else who has done the same thing admits it and puts one penny in the middle of the table. Then the second person states something (e.g. I have eaten frogs' legs). Everyone who has done it puts another penny in the centre. Continue until someone has run out of pennies.

Magic Wand: Tell the participants, "You have just found a magic wand that allows you to make any three changes you want. How would you change yourself, your job, or any other part of your life?" Have participants discuss why they would like to make these changes.

I'm Unique: Ask each person to share one thing that makes him or her unique. This can be incorporated into a classroom exercise for leaning names – connecting the uniqueness to the name.

Identity Map: Have participants draw a large circle on a sheet of paper and other smaller circles radiating from it and write their name in the central circle and names of groups with which they identify (e.g., gender, age group, ethnic, social, political, etc.) in the satellite circles. Then ask participants to move around the room to find three classmates who are most and/or least similar to themselves. This activity helps participants appreciate the diversity in the class.

Symbolic Representation: Have participants draw a picture, symbol or cartoon illustrating why they are taking the class. Participants can share these in small groups or in pairs. Follow up by having participants introduce each other and share a little about their partner's picture.

These are just a few of the hundreds of icebreakers available. Be creative and design your own variations. Don't be afraid to experiment, and above all have fun and start that most important day of training on the right foot!

MONDAY Aug 26th 2013

0900 *Introductions: Icebreaker exercise*

0930 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION**

"EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION"

0945 *Video Clip*

0950 **ACTIVITY – *'Watch It'***

1010 **COFFEE/TEA BREAK**

1030 **ACTIVITY – *"Role Plays"***

1145 **PRAYER / LUNCH BREAK**

1300 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:**

"COMMUNICATION AND PERSUASION"

1400 **ACTIVITY – *"Picture Descriptions"***

– *"Newspaper/Journal Article"*

1430 **COFFEE/TEA BREAK**

1445 *Continue with article*

1650 **DAILY EVALUATION / WRAP UP**

1. EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Communication is complex and involves:

- Developing people's ability to listen, learn, read, research, critique and evaluate ideas and information.
- Developing people's ability to create and present ideas and information to others in convincing, informative and persuasive ways, through a variety of oral and written means.

Models of Communication

- ***Linear (one way) model*** – communication built on the understanding that meaning is contained in the message alone.
- ***Interactive model*** – claims that meaning rests within people rather than the message.
- ***Transactional model*** – meaning is constantly negotiated by people.

Linear View: Emphasises the idea of a sender sending information to a receiver.
Interactive Model: An advance on the linear model and takes in concepts of feedback, unintentional aspects of communication, people's field of experience and the idea of noise that goes beyond physical interruptions. This view challenges the idea that all communication involves encoding. We do choose symbols to convey most messages, but what about the many non-verbal cues that occur when people speak.
Transactional Model: The most widely accepted model. It accounts for innate ***differences in meaning*** between what is received and what is sent and intended. When we formulate a message we usually 'feel' that the words contain our intended meaning. This model tells us that the meaning received is never the same as that which was intended.
It is important therefore to speculate about the other party (know your audience) and in which way will they interpret a message.

Communication is:
"A continuous, transactional process involving different but overlapping environments and creates a relationship by simultaneously sending and receiving messages, many of which are distorted by external, physiological and psychological noise".
Adler, R. & Towne, N, 1993

Each of us is unique and our uniqueness is a result of our own:

- Experiences
- Feelings
- Mood
- Memory
- Age
- Education
- Environment
- Religion
- Culture
- Ideas, etc

These factors we bring together under the term ***'Field of Experience'***. People send and receive messages, interpret information and events and form a view of the world, according to the factors which comprise their field of experience. This helps to explain how it is possible that two people can be in exactly the same place, at the same time, observing the same event and yet can develop a different interpretation of what occurred.

Nonverbal communication:

It is not only *what* you, but it's *how* you say it, that can make the difference to communication. Nonverbal messages are an essential component of communication in the teaching process.
It is important to be aware of nonverbal behaviour for three major reasons:

- An awareness of nonverbal behaviour will allow you to become better receivers of messages.
- You will become a better sender of signals that reinforce understanding.
- This mode of communication increases the degree of the perceived psychological closeness between communicators.

Some major areas of nonverbal behaviours to explore are:

- Eye contact
- Facial expressions
- Gestures
- Posture and body orientation
- Proximity
- Paralinguistics
- Humour

Eye contact, an important channel of interpersonal communication, helps regulate the flow of communication and signal interest in others. Furthermore, eye contact with audiences increases the speaker's credibility. It has been established that people who make eye contact open the flow of communication and convey interest, concern, warmth and credibility.

Facial expressions, in particular smiling, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm and approachable. Smiling is often contagious and people you are targeting will react favourably, be more open toward you and it will increase their receptivity to your ideas and proposals. It is a powerful expression that communicates

- Happiness
- Friendliness
- Warmth
- Acceptance
- Affiliation

Gestures are important to be aware of during communication. If you fail to gesture while speaking, you may be perceived as boring, stiff and unanimated. A lively and animated teaching style captures participants' attention, makes the material more interesting, facilitates learning and provides a bit of entertainment. A head nod is a form of gesture and communicates positive reinforcement to participants indicating that you are listening.

Posture and body position communicate numerous messages by the way you walk, talk, stand and sit. Standing erect, but not rigid, and leaning slightly forward communicates to others that you are approachable, receptive and friendly. Furthermore, interpersonal closeness results when you and your audience face each other. Speaking with your back turned or looking at the floor or ceiling should be avoided as it communicates disinterest.

Proximity, the distance we keep with others when communicating, is significant. Cultural norms dictate a comfortable distance for interaction with others. You should look for signals of discomfort caused by invading another person's space. Some of these are:

- Rocking
- Leg swinging
- Tapping
- Gaze aversion

Typically, in large classes space invasion is not a problem. In fact, there is usually too much distance. To counteract this, move around the classroom to increase interaction with your participants. Increasing proximity enables you to make better eye contact and increases the opportunities for participants to speak.

Paralingusitics is the nonverbal aspect of communication, and includes vocal elements such as tone, pitch, rhythm, timbre, loudness, and inflection. For maximum communication effectiveness, learn to vary these six elements of your voice. One of the major criticisms of facilitators is about those who speak in a monotone. Listeners perceive these facilitators as boring and dull. Participants report that they learn less and lose interest more quickly when listening to facilitators who have not learned to modulate their voices.

Humour is often overlooked as a teaching tool, and it is too often not encouraged in college classrooms. Laughter releases stress and tension for both facilitator and participant. You should develop the ability to laugh at yourself and encourage participants to do the same. It fosters a friendly classroom environment that facilitates learning.

Obviously, adequate knowledge of the subject matter is crucial to your success, however, it's not the only crucial element. Creating a climate that facilitates learning and retention, demands good nonverbal and verbal skills.

Communication is a dynamic process; it is neither a static nor isolated event.

1.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Three types of noise were identified in the communication models. Fill in the following gaps to describe these:

External:

Physiological:

Psychological:

Nonverbal communication is an important aspect of interpersonal communication. Please fill in the gap below to list as many nonverbal communication cues as you can remember.

Non-verbal cues:

What are some of the major factors that can influence perception in communication?

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on 'Communication – What is it?'

1.3. ACTIVITIES

Introductions: Ice-breaker Exercise

You are to self-organize into different 'groups' to help learn how we relate and have relationships often based on a variety of different factors or issues. When the facilitator says 'go' you need to self-organize into small groups, using:

The first letter of your names
The number of children you have (0, 1, 2, 3+)
Years of experience in the field WASH (-2, 2-5, 5+)
Feeling of confidence relating to kebele or other officials (very, medium, high)
People who have been involved in community based projects (never, a few times, often)

As people form groups, talk with each other and try find out more about each other and people's backgrounds and experiences.

Watch it

Form into pairs, **A** and **B**. **A** sits or stands or takes on some other physical position, anything you like. **B** has to closely observe and remember – the body position, position of arms and legs, facial expression, head position, etc. **B** then turns around and **A** changes one position or expression. **B** turns around again and has to say what has changed. **A** and **B** swap roles.

Plenary – which was easy to notice and remember and why? How accurate are the guesses about what the person was saying non-verbally.

Role Plays

Group divides into small groups of four (approximately six groups).
Each groups is given a card for a small role play, take 5 mins to decide who plays which role, another 5 mins to practice, and we will give feedback on the plays in the plenary session.

2. COMMUNICATION AND PERSUASION

2.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Persuasive attempts fill our daily lives. Every communication act has elements of persuasion. Persuasion carries the idea that we are trying to get another individual to think or act in a way desired by the persuader rather than the person being persuaded. Persuasion is a conscious activity on the part of the persuader. Persuasion involves using information to help change opinions, attitudes or behaviours. Without doubt, persuasion is the most common purpose for strategic communication in community management projects.

*Persuasion involves **using information** to help change opinions, attitudes or behaviours.*

If the person we are trying to persuade is in a less powerful position we are using coercion not persuasion. The concept of free will on the part of the person being persuaded is a central element in persuasion.

Attempts at persuasion are made through some form of communication:

- Oral (conversation, discussion, interview)
- Written (letter, report)
- Mixture of writing and graphics (Visual advertising)
- Audio and visuals (TV advertising).

Whatever communication medium – our aim is to convey a message that will, in some way, influence our audience to think or act in a way that we desire.

Aspects of Persuasion:

Source Credibility – refers to the degree to which we believe the person delivering the persuasive message. This is dependent on a number of factors:

Expertise – the perceived level of knowledge or qualifications possessed by the persuader. (Warning – this is most effective when the audience is uninvolved or lacks knowledge. If audience knowledgeable then impact of expertise falls.

Trustworthiness – depends on the audience's evaluation of bias on the part of the persuader. We evaluate message credibility according to our perception of what is in it for the persuader.

Dynamism – being seen as bold, energetic and active.

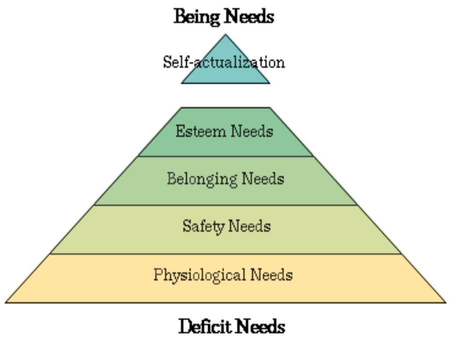
Safety – being perceived as kind, friendly and just.

Appeals to emotion – The attempt at persuasion tries to appeal to our emotional needs, such as the need for security, the need for belonging and self esteem as well as the need to achieve our personal potential.

Rational Appeals – most persuasive messages contain a combination of emotional and rational appeals. Emotional – used to stimulate interest and generate desire but will be supported by evidence which appeals to logic and reason. Think beyond advertising – reports, documents, application letters, essays, etc. Often these need to be as objective, unemotional and factual as possible.

Persuasive Strategies – best examples are advertising. Advertising appeals to both emotional and rational needs. i.e. Insurance advertising appeals to security needs, advertisements for washing powder appeals to basic needs, etc.

When considering persuasion it is useful to think of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs:



If you are familiar with Maslow's hierarchy of needs you will be aware that as people's needs change, they also tend to change their level of interest in any particular activity. This affects every aspect of their communication, particularly message priorities. The topics they may have been interested in discussing last week have lost their interest this week. They may ignore instructions about extra workloads but are sensitive to rumours about pay rises. They may completely forget everything you have said to them, but remember every detail of another conversation. Their position in the pyramid of needs will often determine all these factors.

Tuning into people's needs helps you to work out what needs or goals will get top priority when you want to communicate with them. Maslow's pyramid of needs may not be complete or accurate, but it helps you work to identify others' communication priorities and to understand why it is hard to get and hold people's attention, unless they feel your message will help them to meet, at least one, of their current needs. To help clarify this, think of what grabs your attention when you are hungry, tired, and cold or frightened. Messages about safety or protection will come first. Provided these issues are not a problem in the learning setting, you can focus on other needs, but if the air conditioning breaks down, or there is a bomb scare, messages about physical safety and comfort will hold attention.

Further up the pyramid, think about the need for people to have recognition and be accepted as part of a group. The need to 'conform' (do what the group wants) stands high in the list of communication priorities. It is very hard to communicate with someone about going against group standards, unless he or she can be sure the results of defection from one group will ensure recognition from a more attractive group.

We need to be aware of our target group's needs when planning learning activities. In what ways can we make the learning situation more appealing? We need to carefully consider the messages we want to convey in the learning situation. Messages cannot persuade people if they are not attended to. A critical component of message development is that they must attract attention and convey personal relevancy to the audience.

Because persuading people to make changes is difficult, most communication efforts focus on the antecedents of change, such as changing:

- Awareness (knowledge)
- Beliefs
- Attitudes
- Values
- Readiness
- Skills
- Self-efficacy
- Self-esteem

Attitudes affect a person's understanding and interpretation of meaning, and influence the credibility given to a message. This in turn determines which incoming messages are selected as important, which ones are believed and which are rejected.

Some of the strongest attitudes people hold – drawn from personal beliefs and values – concern moral issues; what is 'right' or 'wrong', 'good' or 'bad'. Values vary from person to person but tend to be consistent within the individual. They are seldom expressed in words, but may be indicated in messages about attitudes, and by how strongly a person communicates on value-rated topics.

Attitudes held towards particular groups are another visible expression of your deeper beliefs and values. People *can* change attitudes if they really want to, but tend to resist if others try to make them change.

A critical component of message development is that they must attract attention and convey a personal relevancy to the audience.

When we gather information and experiences, we form opinions. Personal and family or ethnic backgrounds have a profound effect on the individual. Lifestyle will also play a very significant role in shaping beliefs and attitudes. Empathy helps to determine if people are expressing opinions, or if they are indicating much stronger beliefs or attitudes, and knowing that it is difficult to change deeper beliefs and attitudes can save many wasted hours of argument. On the other hand if an individual is simply expressing an opinion, it's worthwhile sharing your point of view too. Some opinions tend to cluster as especially relevant to a specific attitude. Opinions can change with the wind. Beliefs can change too, but they are slow to do so. Attitudes fall somewhere between these extremes.

In many respects opinions, attitudes and beliefs are closely linked and some link all three under the heading *attitudes*.

Attitude formation is a complex process. The factors involved are:

Personal Background
Birth place.
Where did he/she grow up?
Social and economic conditions.

Individuals belong to social groups with norms that affect their opinions

Historical setting.
Our place in time.
Values and norms of the day.
Available knowledge, technology, etc
Political and social situation of the day.

All the above and other factors help to shape personality.

All these considerations are part of the social environment in which communication and persuasion take place. Individuals belong to groups with social norms that affect their opinions. A person's life experiences also play a role in attitude formation and the characteristics of the issue itself.

One other major element of the social environment which influences attitude is that of available information. We can't have any influence on a person's history or social norms, we can't change social situations but maybe we can provide significant experiences and can add to the information they need. These principles are critical in a learning environment and striving to develop positive attitudes with participants.

Persuasion operates in situations where one individual tries to modify behaviour of another through messages that aim to appeal both emotionally and rationally, often with an element of coercion.

Finally, when considering strategies involved in communication and persuasion, an acronym, AIDA is useful to remember:
A Attention: What you communicate needs an attention grabbing component.
I Interest: What you communicate must command attention from the audience.
D Desire: What you communicate needs to stimulate desire within the audience.
A Action: Once you have caught the audiences' attention, attracted their interest and stimulated their desire, you need to ensure a means of action is available to them to implement what you are communicating.

2.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

What concept was talked about as being central to all persuasive situations?

What is meant by the term ‘source credibility’?

Maslow’s’ Hierarchy of needs was discussed, how does this relate to the concept of communication in persuasion?

The AIDA principle was discussed, what do the letters ‘A’ ‘I’ ‘D’ ‘A’ represent?

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on ‘Communication and Persuasion’

2.3. ACTIVITIES

Picture Descriptions

Divide into groups of three. Each group will be given a picture and you select someone in the group who will describe this picture to the rest of the class. The other two people in your group are to describe an imaginary picture. Each member of the group is to describe the pictures as credibly as they can, so that the rest of the class believes they are describing the 'real' pictures.

The rest of the class listen to the descriptions and decide which is person is the most credible and is describing the real picture. You are allowed to ask as many questions as you like to the person describing the picture.

Finish this exercise by discussing the credible qualities of the person giving the description..

Newspaper/Journal Article

In pairs and take turns at interviewing the other. Interview each other about an aspect of the scaling up of CMP in your area. The aspect of the others works needs to concern an issue that requires the support of the government, kebele or other officials. Take notes in preparation to write an article about the interview for a journal or newspaper. When interviewing think about information you can collect that will be most convincing in terms of supporting this persons efforts in scaling up CMPs. When writing the article you are to think about the following:

- *Which public is the article directed towards?*
- *What is the main objective of the article?*
- *What supporting evidence do you have for the facts presented?*
- *Is the style of writing relevant to the public that you are targeting?*
- *What do you hope will happen after your identified public have read the article?*

You are now to split into two groups, one a group of 'editors' the other a group of 'writers'. The writers have to convince the editors to publish their article before the others. When this is finished, groups swap roles.

TUESDAY Aug 27th 2013

0900 Energizer

0915 <u>POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:</u>

"PERSUASIVE HEALTH MESSAGE FRAMEWORK"

0930 ACTIVITY – "Persuasive Health Message Framework Applied"

1010 COFFEE/TEA BREAK

1030 <u>POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:</u>

"KNOW YOUR AUDIENCE"

1045 ACTIVITY – "Optical Illusions"

– "Message Fit"

1145 PRAYER / LUNCH BREAK

1300 <u>POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:</u>

"COMMUNICATING WITH POLICY MAKERS"

1320 ACTIVITY

– "Qualitative factors and approaches for effectively communicating with policy makers/government officials"

– "Comparing public health and political decision making processes"

1430 COFFEE/TEA BREAK

1445 ACTIVITY – "Case Study"

***1650* DAILY EVALUATION / WRAP UP**

3. PERSUASIVE HEALTH MESSAGE FRAMEWORK

3.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Despite the Persuasive Health Message (PHM) framework (Witte 1995) being primarily useful for health related campaigns, it is a useful framework to apply in other situations. It can be useful in Community Management Projects, where strategic approaches are required to encourage the adoption of certain ideals and principles. The PHM is a combination of three well known persuasion theories, the theory of reasoned action, the elaboration likelihood model and the protection motivation theory. It supports the argument that for messages to be influential on audiences they must be culturally, demographically and geographically appropriate.

… Supports the argument that for messages to be influential on audiences they must be culturally, demographically and geographically appropriate...

Specifically, the PHM framework states that both *constant* and *transient* factors need to be addressed when developing campaign messages.

Content and features of a persuasive message *should be determined by constant aspects* of a framework. Therefore, a persuasive health message should contain the following *constant aspects*:

- *A threat message* – attempts to make audiences feel at risk to a severe threat.

- *An efficacy message* – tries to convince people they are able to do something about the risk and makes them believe that what they do will be effective. This is very important as research has shown that unless people believe they are able to something effective to prevent the threat occurring, the message may backfire.

- *Various cues* – things that can indirectly influence the process of persuasion. For example, a person may accept a suggestion to change behaviour, simply because the person giving the message may hold a high position. The idea is that people can be persuaded sometimes, not by the message alone, but by the attractiveness or credibility of the person delivering the message.

- *Audience profile* – this important aspect tries to make sure the message “fits” the audience. Demographic, psychographic information as well information about cultural beliefs and values, should help to ensure the message is relevant and appropriate for the target audience.

The *transient aspects* are those that change according to the different target audiences. They refer to the following:

- *Significant beliefs* – the strong and influential beliefs that exist about the behaviour and the recommended response.

- *Significant referents* – beliefs held by significant, and usually influential, people in the lives of people. For example, "my best friend, and she is a doctor, doesn't believe the risk is so great, so I will be fine"

- *Culture* – shared attitudes, values, goals and practices that tend to characterise the group of people that are targeted.

- *Environment/preferences* – potential barriers or reinforcements that exist to either discourage or encourage behaviours.

- *Message Goals* – what is expected to happen after a person or group of people have been exposed to a message.

When gathering transient information, it is helpful to make two categories. Firstly, information that relates to the threat and the effectiveness of the response, what exactly is the threat and what exactly is the recommended response to avert the threat. This involves finding out significant beliefs about the threat, and the level of risk that target groups believe they have in relation to the threat, as well as beliefs about the effectiveness of the recommended response. Secondly, transient information that relates to information needed to build up a profile of the audience. This information is vital to the development of cues. Who do they want to hear messages from, what preferred are the preferred channels of information, for example, TV, radio or newspapers.

Two types of transient information need to be gathered:

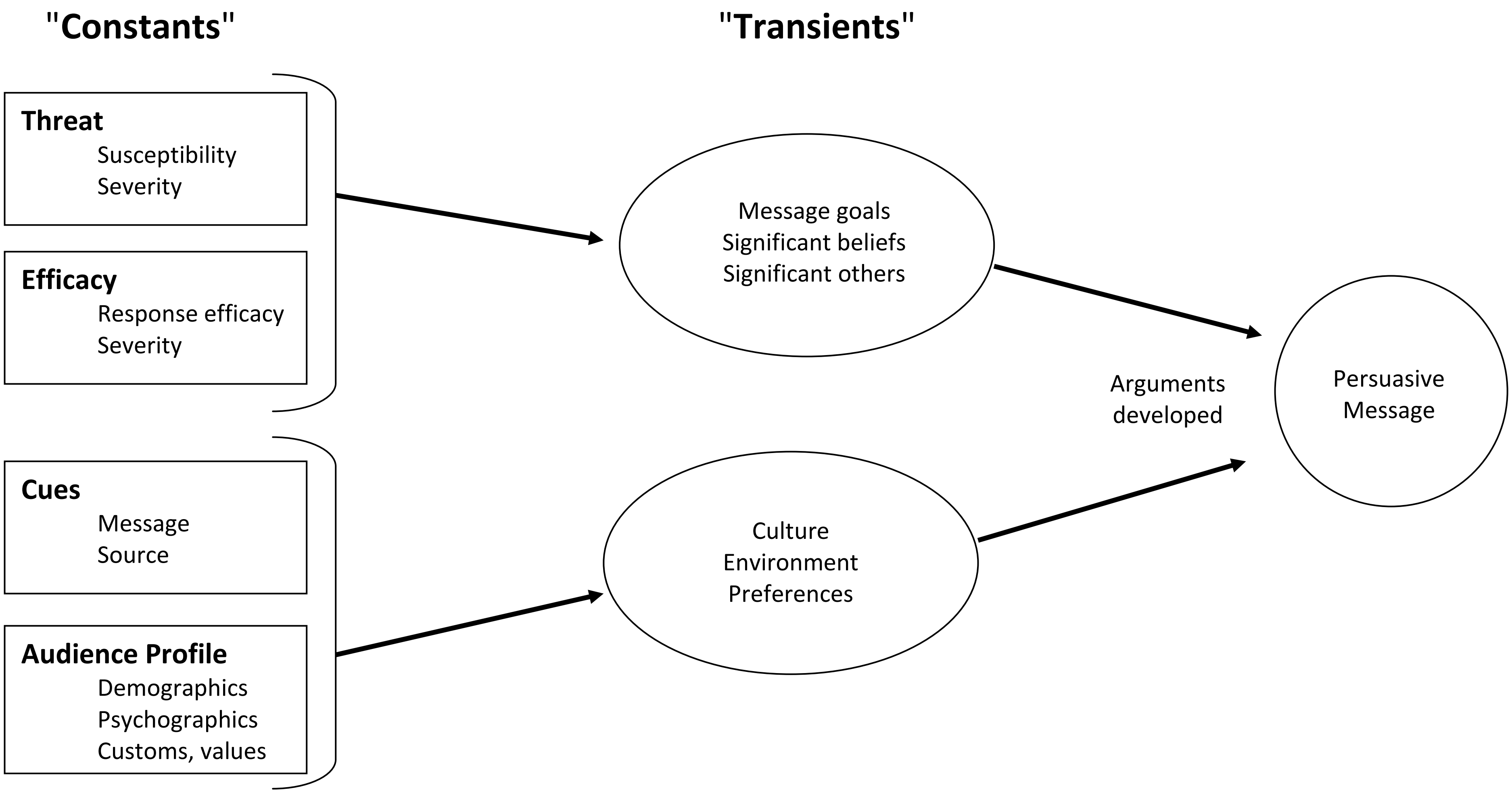
1. Information about the threat and the effectiveness of the recommended response, as well as people's beliefs about the threat and proposed response, need to be determined. It is important also to find out what people believe about the people sending the messages, and the beliefs of these people.
2. Information about the culture, the environment and the preferences of target audiences also needs to be gathered. This information is helpful in developing the cues and a profile of the audience. For example, who are the best people to send a message?

In summary, to increase the likelihood of behaviour change, the whole set of significant beliefs about a behaviour needs to be found out.

In summary, to increase the likelihood of behaviour change, the whole set of significant beliefs about a proposed behaviour needs to be found out. Finding out about this enables promoters of certain principles to argue against beliefs that encourage the undesired behaviour and to support beliefs that encourage the new behaviour. When this information has been established, it increases the chances for relevant and effective messages to be designed.

<u>**A Framework for Developing Culturally Specific Persuasive Health Messages**</u>

(Source: “Fishing for Success: Using the Persuasive Health Message Framework to Generate Effective Campaign Messages” 1995, Witte, K. in “Designing Health Messages: Approaches from Communication Theory and Public Health Practice”)



3.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Name the three prominent persuasion theories that the Persuasive Health Message Framework (PHMF) pulls together.

i.

ii.

iii.

The PHMF states that the actual content and features of a message should be determined by the constant aspects of the framework, what four constant features were described:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

The transient aspects refer more to the audience than to the actual message itself. What changeable aspects of an audience make up the transient part of the framework:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

v.

Describe below how you might apply principles of the PHMF to your own working situation.

3.3. ACTIVITIES

Energizer

Using your body, form letters that are the beginning letter in a concept that was talked about yesterday, others guess the concept you are describing

Persuasive health message framework applied

In groups of 4-5 and based on the diagram of the framework, you are to consider strategic ways to persuade opinion leaders about the effectiveness of Community Managed Projects. Be specific about the various factors that need to be taken into account and give consideration to various cultural, demographic and geographic influences.

When each group is finished, present your ideas and plans to the rest of the group.

4. KNOW YOUR AUDIENCE

4.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

The more you know your audience the more you can tailor messages *for* them. Consider relationships with participants and the reasons why both you and they are there. It is known that a comprehensive knowledge of audience empowers presenters to be highly effective communicators.

... Comprehensive knowledge of your audience empowers presenters to be highly effective communicators

Audience analysis is important for understanding others perceptions of what is happening. Perception lies at the very heart of communication. It is the process by which we make sense of and understand ourselves and others.

The process of perception can be broken down into two areas:

- ***Selection***
- ***Organisation/Interpretation***

Selection:
In our daily lives we are constantly exposed to large amounts of stimuli, so much that we have to be selective about what to focus on in order to cope. Hence we pay attention to what seems to be important and significant to us. Selection (i.e. paying more attention to something) is not objective, but depends on our individual tendencies e.g. someone interested in football will pay more attention to a conversation about football while someone else may “tune out”.

We therefore have a tendency to focus on things that appear interesting to us, in the same way someone with a lack of interest in a given topic will have great difficulty furthering his/her understanding in that area. This brings implications for teaching/learning. We need to carefully consider the subjects and courses we intend to teach/study.

***Organisation/Interpretation*:**
All perception involves some degree of distortion because we do not have direct access to ‘reality‘. Our interpretations are subject to a range of factors including our physical senses and cognitive tendencies. It is important to remain aware that our view of the world is our reconstruction of it rather than a copy of it. It is important to note here that we are predisposed to interpreting the world in ways that accord with the perceptual biases that reside within these models, e.g. a Sanitation and Hygiene Worker has the tendency to view people that practice open defaecation as being careless, irresponsible and uninterested in hygiene. This bias influences the way we interpret the behaviour of such people without understanding reasons underlying their practices.

In other words our attitudes, assumptions and established ways of thinking and understanding create a resistance to change. But all is not lost, as we can change over time and learn to accommodate the things that we learn from new experiences.

Two major aspects of Audience Analysis are:

- Audience demographics
- Audience Psychographics.

Audience demographics
These are the 'vital statistics' of an audience i.e. Age, education, sex, race, income, religion, national origin, and group membership. While these factors alone do not sufficient to analyse your audience they do provide a gauge for analyzing more complex psychological characteristics.

Audience Psychographics
This refers to the psychological characteristics of an audience or those derived from the mind or emotions. Values, perceptions, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, mental images and prejudices are all part of these.

Non-Verbal Aspects of Audience Analysis
A good teacher doesn't leave anything to chance and will always check out the teaching area before a class, checking for appropriate seating, light, possible distractions, etc. All of these considerations will have a big impact on the success or failure of an effective lesson.

The analysis begins with the audience. We can do this by placing ourselves in the role of *participant* not teacher. Carefully consider participant expectations.

Thinking about your audience is critical to effective communication. You need to be aware of the powerful relationship that can and should exist between you and your audience (or participants). Analysing your audience in advance helps you decide what to say and how to say it and it will encourage you to talk *with* them rather than *at* them. Generally the more you get to know people the better your chances are of liking them, and if you really do like your audience (or participants), your talk will be all the better for it. A successful speaker or facilitator will work hard before hand to develop a positive attitude toward their audience.

A successful speaker, or facilitator, will work hard before hand to develop a positive attitude toward their audience ...

Give careful consideration as well to the size of the group, remembering that visual aids such as slides or OHPs will have an impact with small audiences but will often fall flat with a large one. Even PowerPoint is not effective unless everyone in the group can easily see the screen.

7 Questions to Knowing Your Audience:

1. ***What are they like?***

This goes further than gathering demographic and psychographic information, you need to be able to “connect” with your audience. This means trying to understand them on a personal level. Try walking in their shoes and describe life from their perspective.

2. ***Why are they here?***

What do you think your audience are going to get out of your presentation/training? Why did they come to hear you? Are they here voluntarily or were they compelled to come? This is a little like a situational analysis.

3. ***What keeps them anxious or nervous?***

Everyone has a fear, a pain, or a thorn in their side. Let them know you sympathise and want to help them find a solution.

4. ***How can you help them to solve their problem?***

What is in it for the audience? How can their lives be improved?

5. ***What do you want them to do?***

Answer the question – “So what next”? Try to make sure there is a clear line of action for the audience to follow.

6. ***How can you best reach them?***

People vary in how they receive information. This can include the set up of the room to the availability of information after the session. Deliver what the audience want and how they want it.

7. ***How might they resist?***

What obstacles are there to prevent them adopting your message and carrying out the plan of action.

Finally:
Remember audiences must endure the presenter, not the presenter the audience...

4.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

The more you know your audience the more you can tailor messages ***for*** them. Explain this sentence in your own words.

Fill in the gaps in the following sentence:

Having a good knowledge of our _________________ enables us to be better

______________________.

The process of perception can be broken down into two areas, what are these?

What are the two major aspects of audience analysis?

-
-

Fill in the gaps in the following sentence:

The analysis begins with the audience. We can do this by placing ourselves in the role of

________________ not __________________.

4.3. ACTIVITIES

Optical Illusions

You have been given some sheets of paper with various pictures on them. Please look at these and see what images you can see.

Message Fit

Adapting to presentation situations: Your group will be given three different coloured cards titled, audience, occasion and topic. You will be filling these in, randomly mixing them, then discuss ways you would tailor the message to fit audience and occasion?

a) Form groups of three members each, and place your cards face down, with one members “audience” matched with the second members “topic” and a third members “occasion” and so on .
b) Turn the cards over. For each set, decide which characteristics of the audience, topic and occasion would most likely affect the way the presentation was delivered.
c) Discuss the adaptation that would be necessary in each situation.

Select one member of your group to present your findings to the rest of the group.

5. COMMUNICATING WITH POLICY MAKERS

5.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Policy makers are a critical audience for anyone working in the field of WASH. If information is communicated effectively it can result in the development and implementation of laws that promote public health (Brownson 2002). Although, it doesn't always happen, policy makers should integrate sound data and evidence when developing policy and making managerial decisions. More often, however, decisions are based on short-term demands rather than long-term study. The American Institute of Medicine highlighted some years ago that decision making in public health is often driven by "…. Crises, hot issues, and concerns of organized interest groups."

Policy makers include:

- Local or government legislators
- High-level administrative staff or departments or agencies

They have a significant impact on the lives of people through their ability to make decisions about:

- Laws
- Regulations
- Other policies
- Programmes
- Resources

WASH practitioners must have a real-world perspective about the role of scientific information in policy making – even in the best of circumstances with highly trained people around, it is unrealistic to expect that policy makers will base programmes solely on what data suggest. The decision making process is complex and determined by numerous factors inclusive of:

- Preventability
- Severity
- Economics
- Public interest
- Existence of crises

... data from research studies and monitoring systems remain the primary tool for practitioners to use when communicating with policy makers ....

Despite all of this, data from research studies and monitoring systems remain the primary tool for practitioners to use when communicating with policy makers, and it is often difficult for people to argue against these facts.

Characteristics of Policy Makers

Key to understand here is that the decision making process of WASH professionals and administrators often differs from people in political positions. In sanitation and hygiene environments decisions are often made by one person or a small, select number of people. In the political environment, however, decisions are often made by consensus. Some important differences, however, have been identified between administrators and elected officials, they are as follows:

- *Administrators*

Within WASH agencies and organisations leaders come from a variety of backgrounds. They are often 'talented' people but may lack formal training in science based disciplines. Often people in high-level administrative positions have been politically appointed and may lack both sanitation and agency experience.

It is important, therefore, that WASH practitioners are familiar with the organizational culture – the abilities and communication preferences of individual administrators.

- *Elected officials*

Government policy systems vary widely in structure and scope, tending to be either uni-centric where power is concentrated with one government authority, or pluri-centric and power is shared by a small number of independent actors in government and labour. A multi-centric policy system involves interaction with many autonomous actors, and the government serves as a guardian of standards, such as in a democratic system. What follows relates to descriptions of elected officials or policy makers in multi-centric or democratic governments.

The purpose of representatives of a legislative body is to enact laws that will be implemented by administrative agents. These people have the power to enact public policy based on the will of the people, so as to direct the administrative units of a government to respond to needs of society.

To be able to effectively communicate with policy makers, it is important to take into account the political climate and major trends that are affecting society.

To be able to effectively communicate with policy makers, it is important to take into account the political climate and major trends in society that are affecting public health and health policies. Once there is an understanding of public health needs and trends, influencing health policy is as much an art as it is science.

To be in a position to effectively communicate with elected officials or administrators it is important to establish sound working relationships prior to a crisis. If trust has already been established then policy makers will be more receptive to WASH data they are presented with.

Purpose, Audience and Message

There must be a clear understanding of the purpose for the communication, is it primarily to inform or to persuade? When needing to inform, the communication approach is much the same as with other audiences.

When trying to persuade, a firm approach is needed, a clear message must be given and effective use of evidence. It is helpful to answer the following questions as specifically as possible:

… a firm approach is needed, a clear message must be given and effective use of evidence.

- What is my goal?
- What message do I want to leave with this individual or group?

Critical elements:

- Understand and appreciate the pressure these people are under.
- Try to find out the operating style of the official.
- Try to find out as much as possible about the systems in which they work.
- Consult with others who are familiar with them.
- Use the internet to find out as much as possible about the organization they work for.
- Learn as much as possible about who supporters and opponents are, this enables the planning of counter arguments.

There are usually two critical themes that government officials and high-level health officers are concerned about:

1. How much is it likely to cost?
2. Who will be unfavorably affected or opposed to this ?

The message should be clear about the "what". It is important to decide on the most brief and important aspects. The message should be direct, definitive and defensible.

Selecting a spokesperson and message production and delivery

Who delivers the message, is almost as important as the message itself when communicating with policy makers. This will be determined by the "what" that is to be communicated, but possibilities include:

- High position holders within the organization delivering the message
- An "outside" spokesperson with expertise

- Well known or highly placed individuals from other organizations
- Local, state or even national celebrities

Recommendations for communicating with policy makers:

- *Maintain the focus*
  Relate all that is said to the main point you want to stress.

- *Get quickly to the point*
  Given the pressures that policy makers are usually under, it is vital the communicator gets to the main point quickly and lengthy introductions or backgrounds should be avoided. If appropriate, repeat the main message frequently.

- *Use numbers appropriately*

Unlike other audiences most policy makers are very familiar with numbers and are likely to be more demanding of the strength and validity of evidence use to support a position. The following two questions should be answered:
  - Which statistics should I present?
  - How should I present the information?

Health indicators can be useful starting places when deciding what statistics to present. Also remember that local data works best.

- *Avoid jargon and clichés*

Excessive use of jargon and clichés will only confuse and audience and may express an attitude of elitism. Avoid using in vogue words that are often overused and can give the impression of trying to be too academic or bureaucratic. The goal is to express not impress.

- *Be concise*

Due to the time pressure many policy makers are working under, it is important to be short, to the point and readily understood. Whether the communication is to be verbal or written a good rule is to provide a one page summary of your main points, and use bulleted points.

.. it is important to be short, concise, to the point and readily understood

- *Be specific and use real-world examples*
  When presenting data to policy makers, it is often very effective to tell a personal story that will strengthen any data being presented.

- *Additional recommendation for communicating with elected officials*
  Do not underestimate the value of direct and one-on-one personal contact with high level officials.

Overview of factors and approaches that are essential for effective communication with high-level health staff and government officials

Develop familiarity with the legislative process	Every legislative body has its own unique structure, calendar and culture. The process has numerous hearings, debates, amendments, conferences, and other opportunities with which to provide input.
Show knowledge of the issue	Analysis needs to be done which clearly establishes what problem is being addressed and whether there is a legislative solution. It is useful to answer three questions: Who will help? Who will it hurt? How much will it cost?
Develop knowledge of the opposition	Officials want to be aware of formal and informal opposition to a given proposal. It is critical that advocates know whom these groups or individuals are, the reasons for their opposition, and the strength of opposition.
Develop an established relationship with the officials	Efforts should be made to have knowledge of key members of a legislative body and their prior records on relevant issues. It is important to have ‘social’ meetings at a convenient time for the officials. Occasionally, providing brief programme updates or other information that he/she can use in their own area of work is a useful tool.
Be honest and reliable	Remain honest and reliable, if you are asked something and you don’t know the answer, say so. If you have made a mistake, admit it as soon as possible and ask that it not be counted against you in the future.
Respect their role	It is important to acknowledge the difficulties and often the conflicts of interest that officials encounter. It is very rare for an official to represent an area that has universal acceptance.
Respect the role of their staff	Many staff of officials fill the roles of a gate keeper and opinion shaper. It is important to have good working relationships with staff members as well as the official.
Show a willingness to listen	Perhaps the most essential skill to have when conversing with an official is to listen well to the position they hold. Active listening is a learned trait and it is essential to success in this area.
Be direct about your position	Let the official know of your support or opposition to avoid public disagreement or embarrassment. A private meeting should be held where you can clearly state your position and your rationale. This helps build greater appreciation and respect for your position.
Maintain a focus that is ‘long-term’ and has the ‘big picture’	Think about the big picture rather than issue by issue. When an official may not support you on one issue, he/she may well be supportive in another situation. Never burn your bridges.

5.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

List below five factors that contribute to the complexity of the decision making process in policy making.

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

v.

What two primary tools remain as the most effective means for public health practitioners to use when communicating with policy makers?

i.

ii.

What two issues were identified as being important to take into account when communicating with policy makers.

i.

ii.

State below the two major purposes for communicating with policy makers:

i.

ii.

In a brief sentence below, write what you believe to be the most critical elements to consider when communicating with high level health staff or government officials.

What two critical themes are government officials and high-level health staff usually concerned about?

i.

ii.

5.3. ACTIVITIES

Qualitative factors and approaches for effectively communicating with policy makers/government officials

Mix and match the list provided with the term that best fits the example given. Using the list as a basis, prepare a case study that includes the qualities mentioned in the list you have just made.

Comparing public health and political decision making processes

In small groups of 3-4 create two lists that compare the type of decision making processes of public health professionals with those of policy makers and politicians. Present lists to rest of the group when finished.

Case Study

Design a case study about communication with policy makers. Try to make the case study relevant to a real life working situation from one of the group members. Include in the study, factors and approaches discussed in the earlier sessions today.

Present the case study during the plenary session.

WEDNESDAY Aug 28th 2013

0900 Energizer

0915 ACTIVITY – "Sharing Experiences"

1110 BREAK

1030 <u>POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:</u>

"ADVOCACY"

1045 ACTIVITY – "Sharing Experiences" cont.

1145 PRAYER / LUNCH BREAK

1300 <u>POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:</u>

"ADVOCACY OBJECTIVES"

1320 ACTIVITY – "Advocacy Objectives"

1430 COFFEE/TEA BREAK

1450 ACTIVITY – "Advocacy Strategy – Mobilizing for action"

1650 **DAILY EVALUATION / WRAP UP**

6. ADVOCACY

6.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

The emphasis in this course for advocacy is primarily targeted towards high level local government staff or national government officials inclusive of kebele. It is recognised that in most places in the world, government is the vehicle to bring about social and economic development and growth. All too often, however, the ruling elite lack political will to act in a way that serves the public good. In order to elicit the required level of political will to bring about changes for good in the lives of people, advocacy skills of WASH staff need to be sharpened.

A critical element for any advocacy effort is a thorough understanding of existing opportunities for influencing policy process – at a national, regional and local level.

What is advocacy?

Advocacy is strategic and targets well-designed activities to key stakeholders and decision makers.

It is important to realise that advocacy *is a process*. It often occurs at random, is sometimes brief but more often than not it is very lengthy. It is strategic and targets well-designed activities to key stakeholders and decision makers. Lastly, but not least, it is always directed at influencing policy laws, regulations and programmes or funding. It includes single issue, time consuming campaigns as well as ongoing work around a large range of issues. Advocacy is a set of targeted actions directed at decision makers in support of a specific policy issue.
Advocacy is both a science and an art. Experience has shown that advocacy is most effective when it is planned systematically. It is important to follow and include specific steps when advocating and each step requires distinct knowledge and skills. Successful advocates are able to clearly express issues in ways that inspire and motivate others to take action. They have a keen sense of timing and are able to recognise and act as opportunities present themselves. Successful advocates are skilled negotiators and consensus builders who look for opportunities to win modest but strategic policy gains while creating still opportunities for larger victories. Skilled advocates are multi-taskers!
An advocacy campaign is most effective when it is systematically planned. This involves:

- Framing an issue
- Setting an advocacy goal
- Setting measurable objectives
- Identification of sources of support and opposition
- Researching the audience
- Developing compelling messages
- Mobilization of funds
- The collection of data
- Monitoring a plan of action.

Effective advocacy begins with study and research, it is important to identify as accurately as possible a range of factors that affect policy development decisions so that appropriate advocacy strategies can be adopted to influence the policy making process.

Critical elements related to advocacy and the policy process

- A thorough understanding of the policy process. This understanding includes:
  - How issues are identified
  - How policies are formulated and implemented
  - Which institutions and individuals are involved
  - What are the roles, relationships, and balance of power among institutions and individuals
  - How, when, and where to act to achieve maximum impact from advocacy efforts
- An in-depth knowledge of the policy environment helps in the identification of and recognition of advocacy opportunities and critical points of entry
- Monitoring political, economic, socio-cultural and technological environments to stay informed about emerging issues and positions of the various people, institutions involved, inclusive of government, political, religious and local leaders, with respect to those issues.
- Be aware that many government and political leaders are sceptical about NGOs, or other representatives of organisations, participation in the political field.
- There is a common perception among government officials and high-level health staff, that NGOs lack the experience, skills and knowledge required for policy analysis and formulation. This often results in a refusal to listen or collaborate with the advocators.
- Advocators need to demonstrate a clear and accurate understanding of the policy making process and the people involved.

Important to note is that policy advocacy is not limited to decisions that are made through open, organised and formal systems of governance. Wherever change needs to occur, advocacy has a role to play. If funding is needed, new programmes required, new laws need enacting or awareness needs to be raised, effective advocacy can help reach these goals.

Whenever change needs to occur, advocacy has a role to play

Effective advocacy can succeed in influencing decision makers, by:

- **Educating** leaders, policy makers or those who carry out policies
- **Reforming** existing policies, laws and budgets, and developing new programmes
- **Creating** more democratic, open and accountable decision making structures and procedures

Basic elements of advocacy

Basic Elements of Advocacy

- *Selecting an advocacy objective*
- *Using data research for advocacy*
- *Identifying advocacy audiences*
- *Developing and delivering advocacy messages*
- *Building coalitions*
- *Making persuasive presentations*
- *Fund raising for advocacy*
- *Evaluating advocacy efforts*

Selecting an advocacy objective

Due to the complexity of many problems, it is helpful to narrow the advocacy objective by answering such questions as:

- Can the issue bring diverse groups of people together into a powerful coalition?
- Is the objective achievable?
- Will the objective really address the problem?

Using Data Research for Advocacy

In order to make informed and sound evidence based decisions, data and research are essential. Not only does this help with identifying issues, but also good data itself can be the most persuasive argument.

Identifying Advocacy Audiences

Once issues and goals have been identified, advocacy efforts must be directed toward people with decision making power, and ideally people who influence decision makers.

Developing and Delivering Advocacy Messages

Different audiences respond to different messages. Consider carefully what message will result in the selected audience acting on your behalf.

Building Coalitions

Often the power of advocacy is found in numbers of people who support your goal. Involving large numbers of people and people with diverse interests can not only provide safety for efforts, but gather political support. Try to build as much consensus as possible.

Making Persuasive Presentations

Opportunities to influence key audiences are often limited, so it is important to make the most of the opportunities you do have, by ensuring you prepare carefully and thoroughly, using convincing and attention attracting arguments.

Fundraising for Advocacy

Sustaining an effective advocacy effort usually requires considerable resources, this needs time and energy to find the funding to support your efforts.

Evaluating Advocacy Efforts

Make sure you know if you have reached your objectives. Find out the best way to strengthen your efforts. Being an effective advocate requires continuous feedback and evaluations.

6.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Complete the following sentence:
A critical element of any advocacy effort, is a thorough understanding of ________________

____________________ for _____________________ _____________ _______________

at national, regional and local level.

What features of an advocacy process has experience shown will increase the chances of success for advocacy efforts?

List below four characteristics of a successful advocate:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

List below at least six features of a systematically planned advocacy campaign:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

v.

vi.

Write a sentence below that describes ways in which you can successfully influence decision makers:

6.3. ACTIVITY

Energizer

Find your punch line. You have all been given both an incomplete 'joke' to read and a 'punch line' belonging to another joke. You need to walk around the room reading your incomplete 'joke' and 'punch line' to others until you find your own punch line.

Defining Advocacy

Begin this exercise with a brainstorming session on words that come to mind when you think of advocacy. Following this, draw up a draft definition of advocacy, using words from the brainstorm. Write the definition on the poster paper provided and place it on the wall. Compare your definition with those from the other groups.

Divide into small groups of 3-4. Each group has been given a case study concerning a Kenyan advocacy programme about adolescent health. Using the case study as an example, answer the following:

- Describe the advocacy strategies the KAPAH used.

(Try to break these down into separate and clear strategies)

Prioritising Community Management Programme Issues

Working in small groups (4x5 and 1x4) take the cards you have been given and write one issue that you think needs to be considered for advocacy. Share these issues with others in your group and try to reach an agreement on three priority issues. Refer to the "Checklist for Choosing an Issue" and work through the priority issues, if you believe important criteria are missing, please add these to the checklist. Using the checklist, each group should do the following:

Write three priority issues across the top of the chart

Beginning with issue 1, give it a score next to all the 12 criteria listed, by writing, HIGH (almost always meets the criteria), MEDIUM (often meets the criteria) LOW (seldom or never meets the criteria). Complete all the criteria for an issue before moving onto the next.

As a group, discuss all the rankings and then select one that will be presented during the plenary session.

Sharing experiences

Based on the case study given earlier, continue to work in small groups, answer and discuss the following:

- How could the strategies you identified be used to strengthen your current work?
- Do you believe that any of these will be difficult to use in your own situation?
- If so, which ones and why?

Present results in the plenary session.

7. ADVOCACY PROCESS AND OBJECTIVES

7.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Steps in the advocacy process.

1) **Define the issue**. Advocacy begins with an issue or problem that a group agree to support in order to promote a policy change. The issue should meet the agreed-upon criteria (see checklist) and support an overall goal.

2) **Set Goal and Objectives**. A goal is a general statement of what a group hopes to achieve in the long-term (three to five years). The advocacy objective describes long-term, specific, measurable achievements that contribute to the advocacy goal.

3) **Identify Target Audience**. The primary target audience includes decision makers who have the authority to bring about the desired policy change. The secondary target audience includes persons who have access to and are able to influence the primary audience – other policy makers, friends, relatives, media, religious leaders, etc. It needs to be determined whether they support, oppose or are neutral about the issue.

4) **Build Support**. Building support is critical to success, the larger the support base the larger the chances of success. Create and reach out to alliances in other NGOs, organisations, groups, etc. In order to identify potential collaborators it is helpful to attend conferences, enlist the support of the media, hold public meetings and use the internet and publications.

5) **Develop the Message**. Develop advocacy messages that are tailored to specific audiences in order to frame the issue and persuade the target audience to support the position. Three important questions need to be answered when developing an advocacy message:
    a. Who are you trying to target?
    b. What do you want to achieve?
    c. What do you want the target audience to do as a result of the message?

6) **Select Channels of Communication**. This will be determined by the target audience. The choice of medium varies for reaching the general public, influencing decision makers, educating the media and generating support for the issue among other organisations. Some of the more common channels of communication for advocacy issues, include, press kits and press releases, press conferences, fact sheets, a public debate, conferences, etc

Steps in the Advocacy Process

- *Define the issue'*
- *Set goal and objectives*
- *Identify target audience*
- *Build support*
- *Develop the message*
- *Select channels of communication*
- *Raise funds*
- *Develop implementation plan*

7) **Raise Funds.** Advocacy campaigns can always benefit from outside funds and other resources. These can be used to distribute materials, cover travel costs, cover communication expenses, etc.

8) **Develop Implementation Plan**. This plan should identify activities and tasks, responsible persons/committees, desired time frame and the necessary resources.

The first two steps in an advocacy campaign are selecting the advocacy issue and developing the goal and objective. These steps demand:

- The ability to analyse complex environments and interrelated problems
- Recognition of a policy solution for a selected problem
- Imagining the long-term result
- Articulating a short-term objective

Precise efforts early in an advocacy effort to identify and clearly define issues and set realistic objectives, lay the foundation for a successful campaign. Clear and concisely formulated objectives bring clarity and direction to planning processes.

Advocacy objectives should not only meet the SMART criteria, those of being: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time Bound, but should also contain some other elements.

Elements of an Advocacy Objective

Policy **'actor'** or decision maker	+	Policy **'action'** or decision	+	**Timeline** and **'degree of Change'**

The *policy actor* or decision maker is the individual with the power to convert the advocacy objective into action. Policy *action* or decision is the action required to achieve the objective. The *timeline* describes when it will be achieved. Some objectives also specify the *degree of change* desired – a qualitative measure of change – desired in the policy action. Change doesn't always have to be absolute and it can be happen in stages.

An Advocacy Objective

An advocacy objective is a short-term target (one to two years) that contributes to achieving the long-term goal. A sound objective is specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound. Often groups work on two or more objectives at the same time in order to reach their goals. It is important that an advocacy objective identify the specific policy body with the authority to fulfil the objective as well as the desired decision or action.

Things to consider when selecting an Objective

- Political Climate
- Probability of success
- Available research and data about the issue
- Available money to support your advocacy efforts
- Organisations capabilities
- Own capabilities

Although it is possible to work toward more than one objective it is generally advisable to work on only as many as can be realistically achieved. Advocates who attempt to fix everything, run the risk of changing nothing in the process. Succeeding first with smaller objectives give you and your organisation more enthusiasm, experience and credibility to achieve more objectives.

Although, often used interchangeably, perhaps it is helpful to make a distinction between and advocacy goal and an advocacy objective:

- An *advocacy goal* is the long-term result (three to five years) of your advocacy efforts or your vision for change. This is often external to the advocacy network, and the network of advocators will not hold itself accountable for achieving the goal, even though it is the ultimate, desired result.

- An *advocacy objective* is the short-term target (one to two years) that contributes to your goal. This is usually achievable by the network on its own, and according to the networks own assessment it should be achievable within one to two years.

> *The **issue, goal** and **objective** form the foundation of the campaign and **provide the framework** within which to design advocacy activities.*

Summary

An advocacy campaign is pulled together around an issue or a problem that responds to the interest of the network of advocators. This network in turn, develops a long-term goal that addresses the issue and sets advocacy objectives that define the policy actions that are wanted to support the achievement of the goal. The issue, goal and objective form the foundation of the network's advocacy campaign and provide the framework within which to design advocacy activities.

7.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

What eight steps should be taken in the advocacy process:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

v.

vi.

vii.

viii.

What is required for the first two steps of the advocacy process to be taken:

Aside from filling the criteria of SMART objectives, what other elements should the advocacy objectives have:

List at least four things that need to be considered when formulating an advocacy objective:

i.

ii.

iii.

iv.

7.3. ACTIVITY

Advocacy Objectives

Review and examine data of the family planning programme from each chart, and discuss at least one idea in depth and pay particular attention to how the situation could be improved and how you would formulate this as an objective. Using the example provided with the data begin identify some policy issues within your own work environment.

Present findings during the plenary session

Advocacy Strategy: Mobilising for action

Using the policy issues that you identified this morning, use the checklist provided to see how well the advocacy issue matches the criteria. Rank each issue, low, medium or high according to each criterion.

Steps in the advocacy process

Divide into three teams. Each team will be given a set of advocacy cards with a step in the advocacy process written on one side and a brief explanation of the step on the other side. Teams should reach agreement about the order that would be followed to implement an advocacy campaign and place the cards on the wall for the other groups to see and compare results. This will be followed up with a discussion about the order of the steps.

THURSDAY Aug 29th 2013

0900 *Energizer: Who Am I?*

0915 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION**

" ACTIVE LEARNING"

0930 **ACTIVITY – *'Poster: Active Learning'***

1010 **COFFEE/TEA BREAK**

1030 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:**

"LEARNING TOOLS AND MATERIALS"

1045 **ACTIVITY – *"Overview of methods"***

1145 **PRAYER / LUNCH BREAK**

1300 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:**

"PREPARING A TRAINING"

1320 **ACTIVITY – *"Training assignments"***

1430 **COFFEE/TEA BREAK**

1445 **ACTIVITY – *"Training – Absurd Topic"***

1650 **DAILY EVALUATION / WRAP UP**

8. ACTIVE LEARNING

8.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Active learning requires a high level of participant involvement. The learning environment must be stimulating and varied. It must be participant focused as opposed to teacher focused.

Active Learning gives serious consideration to the existing knowledge level of participants and aims to build on that and not overload the participant with new information that he/she cannot relate to past experiences.

In active learning participants must do more than just listen: they must read, write, discuss, or be engaged in solving problems. Most important, to be actively involved, participants must engage in higher-order thinking tasks such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Participants must be involved in *doing* things and *thinking about* what they are doing.

Small group discussions promote active learning. In these groups participants are encouraged to apply information in new settings, and the group discussion is an effective means of developing participants' essential thinking skills. These discussions should encourage the pooling of ideas and critical thinking.

.. Active learning requires a high level of group participation...

Active Learning requires a high level of group participation. Groups of people that gather together to discuss ideas and problems inevitably run into disagreements. So long as they focus on substantive, issue related differences of opinion, they tend to improve the groups effectiveness. These group discussions must be problem based and require participants to develop problem solving skills.

Active Learning Strategies mean:

- Participants are involved more than in passive listening
- Participants are actively engaged (i.e. reading, discussing, questioning)
- There is more emphasis on skill development, than information transmission.
- More emphasis is given to exploration of attitudes and values.
- Participant motivation is higher.
- There is a greater demand placed on participants to engage in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation, etc).

Active learning involves participants doing things and thinking about the things they are doing.

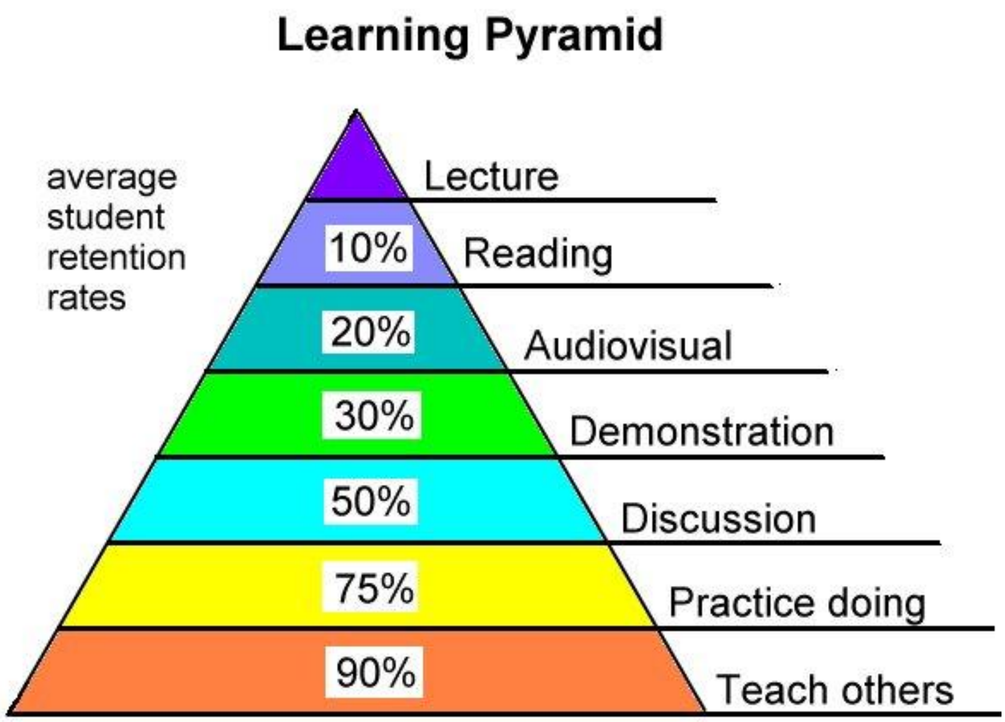
Methods to encourage participation:

Active learning requires high levels of participation, in order to achieve this some the following suggestions of things to do might help:

- **Use ice-breakers and energizers**: These are not training techniques but they are an essential part of training. They are used to change set a productive atmosphere and encourage participants to be active and at the same time relax after spending time sitting in a discussion. Energizers should be active and humorous.
- **Question during training:** The effective use of questions is an important skill for a trainer they promote participants to think for themselves and stimulate a process of enquiry. If participants think about a problem and come up with an answer themselves, they are much more likely to remember the information than if you just told them that information as the trainer.
- **Give practical examples**: Practical instruction is used to teach participants a skill, such as how to service machinery or how to repair a hand pump. Practical examples encourage participants to learn by doing.
- **Discussions and buzz groups**: There are various types of discussion techniques used in participative training courses. The most common are the paired discussions and group discussions (buzz group). A paired discussion involves dividing participants into pairs and asking them to discuss a problem or task such as: *—List the factors that create resistance to the adoption of CMP your area of operation*. During the plenary session the facilitator should ask probing questions to stimulate debate, share experiences and encourage participants to come to a consensus on issues, or agree to differ.
- **Brainstorming**: Is an active and dynamic method and helps provide an overview of participants' knowledge or ideas on a particular issue. It should run in 10-15 minutes. It is used to switch to a new subject; examine a subject very broadly; obtain 30-40 ideas quickly and to create a lively atmosphere and wake people up.
- **Debates**: Useful for encouraging participants argue convincingly for a perspective on an issue. It encourages teamwork as the debate is prepared and presented by a team that each has a specific role to forward their views. It is also important that participants be encouraged to argue from a perspective that they are not naturally sympathetic to as this widens the thinking and approach to various topics. An example of a debate can be technology choice between a solar powered or diesel powered water pump.
- **Drama**: Plays and drama are extremely useful training methods as they can be used to focus on real-life problems in an active way, especially where participants are encouraged to act out issues themselves. Participants are encouraged to depict and analyse the causes of problems, discus how it relates to life situations and then to suggest solutions or strategies to tackle the problem.
- **Pictures**: Pictures can be used to analyse issues that are difficult to depict in a play, such as overgrazing around a borehole. The picture used should show only one problem and should not possible solutions. It should be a simple drawing, avoiding

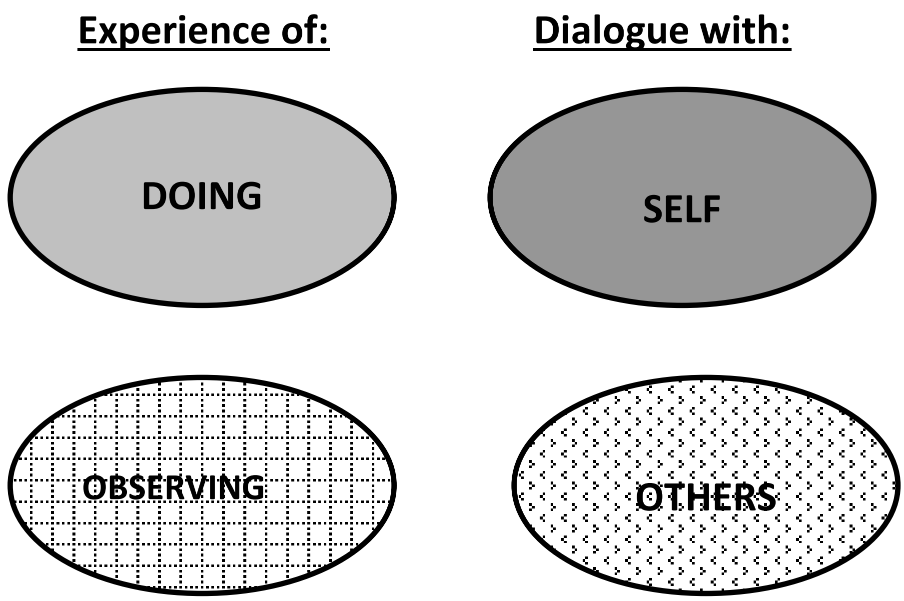
too much shading and colour, and with no abstract symbols that might confuse the picture.

- **Exercises**: Encourage the development and consolidation of certain skills and knowledge they have learnt. Examples include calculations of revenue to be expected at the end of the month based on volume of water consumed and number of consumers, etc. The facilitator can prepare hypothetical problems and tasks and ask participants to work through them. Exercises can be used to test the skills and knowledge of individual participants and so you can ask each person to work individually. When everyone has finished the exercise, these can be discussed in a plenary session.
- **Field visits**: Participants are taken to a specific site outside the training venue e.g. a public water point for livestock. Training visits are very useful for putting theory into practice in a real situation. It is important that the visit is well-structured with specific learning objectives.
- **Stories, songs and poetry**: Many rural or pastoral communities belong to societies that have a strong oral tradition in which stories, songs, fables and poetry form an important part of cultural life. Stories can be told by the facilitator or the participants, and can be an effective way of raising important issues during training.
- **Games**: Games are especially useful for group dynamics in training. They provide a focus for behavior and attitudes, such as how people behave in groups, conflict resolution, cooperation and team work. Games can also raise participant's awareness about how their behavior as individuals and as a group affects others in both a positive and negative way. The session should be structured with clear objectives and key learning points drawn out.



Source: National Training Laboratories, Bethel, Maine

A Model of Active Learning



Explanation of the Components

This model suggests that all learning activities involve some kind of experience or some kind of dialogue. The two main kinds of dialogue are "Dialogue with Self" and "Dialogue with Others." The two main kinds of experience are "Observing" and "Doing."

Dialogue with Self:

This is what happens when a learner thinks reflectively about a topic, i.e., they ask themselves what they think or should think and what they feel about the topic, etc. This is "thinking about my own thinking". Participants could write about *what* they are learning, *how* they are learning, what role this knowledge or learning plays in their own life, how this makes them *feel*, etc. It is a good idea to encourage participants to create their own learning diary and record their thoughts and learning here.

Dialogue with Others:

This can and does come in many forms. In traditional teaching, when participants read a textbook or listen to a lecture, they are "listening to" another person (teacher, book author). This is limited because there is no back-and-forth exchange. A much more dynamic and active form of dialogue occurs when a teacher creates an intense small group discussion on a topic. Sometimes teachers can also find creative ways to involve participants in dialogue situations with people other than participants (e.g., practitioners, experts), either in class or outside of class.

Observing:

This occurs whenever a learner watches or listens to someone else "Doing" something that is related to what they are learning about. This might be such things as observing a teacher doing something (e.g., "This is how I should deliver a presentation"). Observation means the learner is observing the real action.

Doing:
This refers to any learning activity where the learner actually does something: design a course, critique an argument or piece of writing (the humanities), or make a presentation, design a poster, etc.

Implementing this Model of Active Learning
What can a teacher do who wants to use this model to stimulate active learning into his/her teaching? The following three suggestions involve a more advanced use of active learning.

Expand the Kinds of Learning Experiences You Create.
The most traditional teaching consists of little more than having participants read a text and listen to a lecture. Consider using more dynamic methods. For example:

- Create small groups of participants and have them make a decision or answer a focused question.
- Find ways for participants to engage in authentic dialogue with people other than fellow classmates who know something about the subject.
- Have participants keep a journal about their own thoughts, learning, feelings, etc.,
- Find ways of helping participants observe the subject or action they are trying to learn.
- Find ways to allow participants to actually do that which they need to learn to do.

Take Advantage of the "Power of Interaction."
Each of the four modes of learning has its own value and using more of them should add variety and thereby be more interesting for the learner. When properly connected, however, the various learning activities can have even more impact. They can be *interactive* and thereby strengthen the educational impact.

Think about the following: if participants write their own thoughts on a topic (Dialogue with Self) *before* they engage in small group discussion (Dialogue with Others), the group discussion should be more effective. If they can do both of these and then observe the action (Observation), the observation should be more effective. If this is then followed by having participants involved in the action itself (Doing), they will have a better sense of what they need to do and what they need to learn.

Finally if, after Doing, the learners process this experience by writing about it (Dialogue with Self) and/or discussing it with others (Dialogue with Others), this will add further insight. Such a sequence of learning activities will give both teacher and learners the advantage of the Power of Interaction.

Alternatively, advocates of Problem-Based Learning would suggest that a teacher start with "Doing" by posing a real problem for participants to work on, and then having participants consult with each other (Dialogue with Others) on how best to proceed in order to find a solution to the problem. The learners will likely use a variety of learning options, including Dialogue with Self and Observing.

Experience and Dialogue

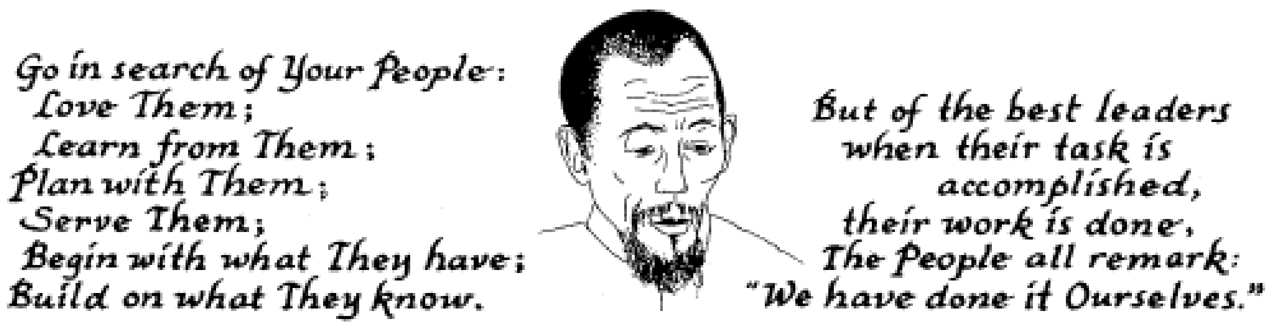
One refinement of the Interaction Principle described above is simply to combine the two principle components of this Model of Active Learning: Experience and Dialogue. New experiences (whether of Doing or Observing) have the potential to give learners a new perspective on what is true (beliefs) and/or what is good (values) in the world. Dialogue (whether with Self or with Others) has the potential to help learners construct the many possible meanings of experience and the insights that come from them. A facilitator, who can creatively combine learning activities with new experiences and encourage meaningful dialogue, can significantly enhance meaningful learning.

People learn best when they apply knowledge to a practical situation immediately.

The principles tools of active learning are:

- Cooperative Learning: Participants work in groups and the teacher is the facilitator.
- Inquiry based learning: Participants ask and answer questions.
- Assessment: The facilitator continually assesses what participants are learning and uses feedback to make adjustments as the course progresses.

… a facilitator who can creatively combine learning activities with new experiences and encourage meaningful dialogue can significantly enhance learning



8.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Active Learning is a deliberately planned process encouraged by: (fill in the missing words)

A ___________________________ learning context.

The activation of ___________________________________

Active _________________________ of old/new knowledge and information.

Developing _______________________ relationships between knowledge elements.

Six advantages of participants working in small groups were outlined, what were these?

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

What percentage of recall do we have after a lecture _____ after teaching others _____ .

What is the difference between affective conflict and cognitive conflict when talking about group work?

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on ‘Active Learning’.

8.3. ACTIVITIES

Poster/Sculptures: Active Learning

Form small groups of 3-4 people. Using the material provided, please make a poster that describes the essential elements of Active Learning. Use your imaginations as best you can to describe and depict key principles of active learning without using words. It is important that you present key points only and ensure the information given is concise. Avoid cluttering your poster or sculptures with too much information or too many colours and pictures/forms. When the poster and sculptures are complete, have one member of your group present this to the rest of the class.

9. LEARNING TOOLS AND MATERIALS

9.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

Learning materials and tools do not stand on their own. They should not be used for their own sake but are essential for enhancing the teaching process and therefore learning.

There are three points to consider when addressing the relationship between learning materials/tools and learning:

- A learning tool should not be used out of context.
- A learning tool is an extension of the facilitator.
- A learning tool should follow and not contradict the main principles of learning.

It is important to note that learners are different and they learn through different ways. Therefore, there is no single method or technique which on its own can satisfy the learning needs of all learners. The best way to cater for needs of all learners is to use a variety of methods, materials and tools. In addition, teaching becomes more effective when there are a variety of methods in one lesson. As well as catering for a variety of learning needs, it also helps to overcome monotony and boredom. Most importantly, facilitators should be resourceful and creative and use methods, materials and tools that best suit the situations in which they have to teach.

A variety of materials and tools have been discussed in this presentation, but these are only ideas and suggestions, and should not be used exclusively. It is important that as facilitators of learning we also remain 'learners' and continuously keep ourselves open to new ideas and resources. Be as creative and imaginative as you can, but remember the tools and materials are only an aid to facilitating and cannot replace the most important resource – you – the facilitator!

... remember the ***tools and materials are only an aid*** *to facilitating and cannot replace the most important resource – you – the facilitator!*

Some of the materials/tools discussed:

- Ice Breakers
- Brainstorming
- Group Discussions
- Lecture
- Role Playing
- PDL
- Poster
- Flip chart or chalk board

Facilitating is in a training course is helping other people learn. And you as a facilitator of learning will manage and help direct the learning process.

Who: A facilitator needs to be aware of the ***'who'*** – a good level of awareness is needed i.e. self awareness and awareness of the other (i.e. the facilitator and the participant) – who are we, what are we made up of, what are our needs, etc. We will cover this more when we discuss 'Know your Audience'.

Why: What are our expectations for the participants at the end of a course, what do we want them to be able to do. It is also important to consider whose needs are being met, i.e. are we facilitating because we have needs of our own to be met in terms of needing to facilitate for the sake of it, or are we facilitating because the participants want to learn. There is a big difference!

What: Making decisions about ***what*** should be learnt is possibly the most important job of the facilitator. Often the most difficult aspect of a course is deciding what to exclude. Frequently, facilitators try to cover too much material. We will cover this more in 'Curriculum Design'.

Where: It is important to decide the best place to conduct session, should it always be in a classroom setting or is there another environment that would be more appropriate such as a clinic or local street? This will be covered more when we address 'Lesson Planning'.

When: Although this may seem obvious it is not always so clear. Consideration needs to be given to the time of day that participants learn best, concentration times; timing of learning activities should also be given careful consideration. This is an important component of 'Lesson Planning' that we will cover later.

How: Participants need exposure to a variety of learning techniques (e.g., lectures, group discussions, role plays, poster making, etc) ensuring different learning goals and different learning styles are considered. The sessions on 'Tools/Materials' will address this more thoroughly.

Facilitating learning concentrates on what the ***learner*** does during the learning process – it is learner focused not facilitator focused. This involves:

- Asking appropriate questions for the participants to answer.
- Organising exercises/activities in which participants must make plans and reach decisions.
- Arranging experiences during which the participants will apply the facts or perhaps develop attitudes.
- Making good use of visual aids.
- Planning activities that the participants must carry out.
- Providing good supervision.

Facilitation of learning is a conscious and deliberate attempt by the facilitator to organise an environment that results in learning. It is not haphazard, and should follow three major principles:

1. Facilitating cannot be divorced from learning.
2. Facilitating involves human interaction.
3. Facilitating should aid the learner to move forward.

Facilitating cannot be divorced from learning.
If someone stands in a classroom and talks and the participants learn, then facilitation of learning has taken place, if the participants do not learn then the person is merely talking. Unloading information on learners is not facilitating learning, facilitating learning only occurs when learners have acquired knowledge, skills or attitudes. If learning tools are used merely to entertain, then learning has not taken place. It is useful to note here, that while all facilitating is aimed at learning, not all learning stems from the efforts of the facilitator.

People facilitate learning best when they are as aware as possible of their participants and the participants learning needs, when they are well prepared for the lesson and when they actively implement an effective variety of methods and tools to the learning situation. People learn best when their learning needs have been recognised, when they are exposed to methods of facilitating that matches their learning style and when they can apply knowledge to a practical situation immediately.

It pays to remember that learning always takes place in a context which will influence the form and content of the messages you are trying to get across. Sometimes this context is not obvious or intrusive and it seems so natural that it is ignored. At other times, the context can dominate in a way that it will restrict or stimulate the effectiveness of your messages. Compare, for example, the differences in communicating in a busy clinic, a quiet classroom, a street kiosk, or in a place of worship. The context of communication has at least four dimensions:

1. ***Physical:***
   This is the tangible, concrete environment in which communication takes place. The size of the space, temperature, and the number of people present in the physical space are also part of the physical dimension.
2. ***Temporal:***
   Refers not only to the time of day and moment in history, but also to where a particular message fits into the sequence of communication events. For example, a joke about a poor participant would be received quite differently by a participant that has just failed a test, than a participant that has just successfully completed one.
3. ***Social-psychological:***
   This refers to status and relationships among communication participants, roles and games that people play, norms of the society or group, and the friendliness, formality or gravity of a situation.
4. ***Cultural:***
   Interacting with people from different cultures means the communicators observe different sets of rules. This can result in confusion, unintentional insult, inaccurate judgement, and a host of other miscommunications. Similarly, communication strategies or techniques that prove satisfying to members of one culture may prove disturbing or offensive to members of another.

" ... minds are not vessels to be filled, but fires to be ignited"
Alexander Pope

9.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Fill in the missing words in the following sentence:

Learning materials and tools do not ___________ ____ _________ _____ . They should

not be used for their ________ ____________ but are essential for __________________

the teaching ______________ and therefore _____________________.

Three points should be considered when addressing the relationship between learning materials/tools and learning, what are these?

1.

2.

3.

Facilitation of learning is a conscious and deliberate attempt by the facilitator to organise an environment that results in learning. It is not haphazard, and should follow three major principles:

1.

2.

3.

What was the quote given by Alexander Pope?

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on 'Learning Tools/Materials'.

9.3. ACTIVITY

Training methodology overview – practice of different techniques

During this exercise we will practice some new methods of teaching/training and gather new ideas to create a tool kit of various methods that may be useful in future trainings.
Inclusive will be some of the following methods:

- PDL
- Charades
- Futures Wheels
- Games
- Article critiquing, etc

10. PREPARING A TRAINING

10.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

A good training challenges participants to move from lower level learning such as comprehending and remembering, to a higher level that requires problem solving, decision making, and critical and creative thinking. It is based on active learning principles.

Active learning by definition requires us to learn solve problem by problem solving! Think critically by thinking critically!

Feedback should be frequent and immediate. Frequent feedback means daily or weekly, and immediate means during class.

There needs to be a structured sequence of different learning activities. Variety is necessary to support different learning styles.

A fair grading system that is objective, reliable, relevant, and flexible and well communicated, should be in place.

Critical questions to ask when designing a training course are:

- *What* to teach
- *How* to teach
- *How* to *ensure* learning takes place

The most difficult question is often **'**What to **exclude'**? What should be excluded if the whole is to be manageable? Most facilitators attempt to include too much material by half.

Limit the course by addressing content, structure, sequence, and assignments. There should be differentiation of tasks. Should this task be administrative or teaching, etc?

Strategies to use in course design:

If the course has been offered before talk with previous facilitators and find out if there any student evaluations. What difficulties were encountered?

If it is a new course make sure literature is reviewed, and establish main theme/issues to be addressed

If you have previously taught it gather all useful material and make adjustments as necessary.

Identify constraints such as time, hours, number of participants, level of participants, knowledge of participants, previous courses they have attended, simultaneous courses, etc –

what else are they engaged with? Talk with other facilitators/assistants and find out what resources are available.

How relevant is this course to other courses in the curriculum and consider whether or not it will serve as an introduction to other courses or is it one off? Is it an advanced course?

Write goals – this is important for forcing clarification. List goals and decide on appropriate teaching methods, materials and assignments. Communicate goals to participants and these are useful for other facilitators to use. *Content Goals* – Directly related to subject content. *Noncontent Goals*– Related to behavioural, learning, thinking, or societal practices that we emphasize through teaching of specific content. It is important to distinguish between what is essential or optional content when designing a course.

Six general categories of learning underline the principles of effective training, they are:

1. ***Foundational Knowledge:*** Inclusive of facts, principles and relationships that make up the content of a course. Here we want participants to *understand and remember*.
2. ***Application:*** Doing something with what has been learned such as some kind of problem solving, decision making or creative thinking.
3. ***Integration:*** It is helpful if participants can identify similarities or interactions between one subject matter and another, or between different theories, trends, etc. This is the basis of interdisciplinary learning.
4. ***Human Dimension:*** A milestone ahs been reached if participants report they have learned something in a course about themselves or how to interact with others.
5. ***Caring:*** This happens if a student's enthusiasm or motivation to continue to study a particular subject is raised.
6. ***Learning How to Learn:*** As we are never able to fully convey all that we would like to on a particular student, it is important that we equip participants with the skill to pursue their own learning after the course is over.

Basically, what this means is that if a training course has been effectively designed through addressing all these six kinds of learning, then the overall learning experience for the student will be more significant.

When designing course we should endeavour to achieve more than simply developing a list of topics and providing information about them. We should strive to ensure courses are learning-centred, systematic and integrated. Trainers should to consider situational factors and gather information about these. Various situational factors to consider are:

… we should strive to ensure trainings are learning-centred systematic and integrated

- ***Specific context:*** How many participants? Level of the course and time restraints? Is the course to be live, online or something else?
- ***Expectations of others:*** Is the course expected to meet certain requirements of institutes, departments, universities or some other stakeholder?

- ***Nature of the subject:*** If more scientifically oriented, the aim is usually to focus on a single correct answer, in contrast socially oriented course tend to be more analytical and look for multiple interpretations of a topic. How do these and other and other differences in the nature of the subject need to be taken into account?
- ***Nature of the Participants:*** What feelings do they have about this subject? What prior knowledge or experiences will they bring with them?
- ***Nature of the Facilitator:*** What beliefs and values do we bring to the course? How do these compare with those of the participants?

It is recognised that when an integrated training method is adhered to participants respond by becoming more engaged in the learning process and by achieving more significant kinds of learning. It is believed that this happens because participants become co-creators of their own learning, and as a result the intended learning has greater meaning and participants are given a wider range of tools to create this learning.

Training and teaching

- Training and education are both growth-oriented, and individually directed.
- Scope of education much wider than training. Education – long term perspective. Training – specific, more structured.
- Both training and teaching promote learning through interactive processes. Teaching more curriculum based, less opportunity for experimentation and initiative.
- Training – a process, organised sequence of events, activities and tasks.
- Training is not the panacea for all performance-related problems. There are no packaged solutions, but training enhances capabilities of an individual for creating responses to various problems and situations through an intensive process of diagnosis and analysis.
- Training – a journey of self-awareness, self-exploration, and growth. Ideally, it should widen knowledge base and induce behavioural changes relevant to work or life situations.
- Training not just about acquiring knowledge, but preparation for action in specific areas of work or life.
- Participatory training – recognises and encourages the rights of individuals to determine their own learning needs, inclusive of learning pace. It is based on the assumption that everyone has something to valuable to share.
- Facilitative training – is a more intensive form of participatory training where the group plays a major role in learning and takes a greater responsibility for realizing objectives of the programme. It is self-directed with their own impelling plans of action.

Key dimensions of learning:

- It is a universal phenomenon
- It is a lifetime pursuit
- It takes place under formal and informal conditions
- It forms the basis of an individual's behaviour
- It is an integrated process, combining physical, cognitive and emotional aspects.
- Stimulation for learning is provided by natural motivation and inner commitment
- It is an evolutionary process
- It is a shared undertaking

Learning should improve quality of life and create access to better opportunities

Points to consider when planning a training:

An integrated approach is imperative to a training programme – and it is important to consider various expectations, ways of operating, extend mutual support, and respond to diversity. Training is not only integrative but should be collaborative. It should involve among other factors, stakeholders and support of staff. It is usually intensive and consistent, and should follow a focused approach. Compared to 'teaching' situations, training is usually highly individual and unique.
Training is usually targeted toward adult learners, and adults often present with different learning needs than younger learners.

Specific characteristics of adult learners:

- Owners of unique experience
- Greater concern with short-term benefits
- Willingness to take greater responsibility
- Capable of constructing real-life situations
- Possess well-defined self-image
- Conscious of own position and status

Learning styles of an individual can be analysed on the basis of the following four aspects of training:

1) Preference for a particular type of learning activity –action oriented or cognitive
2) Initiative in learning – dynamic or compliant
3) Degree of dependence on trainer
4) Level of interpersonal competencies

Four basic types of learning that tend to occur:

1) Getting affirmation or endorsement of existing knowledge, views, working methods and so on – either from trainer or other participants
2) Adding to or modifying existing knowledge and competencies
3) Reinforcing new skills and knowledge
4) Process of un-learning or throwing away previously held views, concepts, approaches, and so on.

Learning tends to take place through five key methods:

1) Verbal or written inputs
2) Process of sharing with other participants
3) Engaging in practical work
4) Informal or formal observation
5) Informal out-of-session contacts with others or trainer

Motivation for participation is generally affected by:

- Desire for growth and development
- Incentives or benefits that result from the training
- Consistency between personal learning objectives and programme objectives
- Self-image and level of self-esteem
- Perceived relevancy of training to work place
- Reason and manner of entry into training
- Previous training experiences
- Participants learning styles and skills
- Social circumstances of the participant

Influence of training environment on participants learning and motivation:

- Programme contents or topics
- Training methodology, methods, or techniques
- Training team or trainer
- General programme environment
- Nature and patterns of interrelationships in the programme
- Training group – size, composition, other features

When organising a training it is essential to establish and clearly define the need for the training. Key sources for identification of training needs are:

- Job profile
- Previous experience of the training agency
- A survey of participants needs
- A profile of training needs given by the organisation nominating participants
- Prioritising training needs is determined by relevance and importance to the target group and the extent to which they are shared

Establishing training objectives are important for:

- Providing direction
- A basis for evaluation
- Defining the scope of the programme
- Assure participants that their training needs are reflected in the programme

Steps in preparing an action plan for a training:

1) Identify content on the basis of programme objectives
2) Break programme content into clear topics or modules
3) Organise and sequence the training in a logical and progressive movement of the programme
4) Select appropriate training material for each training activity and ensure there is enough time available
5) Decide on support material and equipment for training activities
6) Delegate responsibilities to support staff
7) Ensure there is a reliable and effective means of monitoring and evaluating the programme

Other important considerations in the planning of a training are, objectives and function of the nominating organisation, the composition and characteristics of the participants. Finally, think carefully about how to transfer the training to the field. .

10.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

A good training course meets the following criteria:

1.

2.

3.

What 3 critical questions should be asked when designing a training course?

What is often the most difficult aspect of designing a training?

What are some of the ways you can define and limit a training course content?

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on ‘Preparing a Training’.

10.3. ACTIVITIES

Training Assignments

You will be divided into four small groups for each of the following assignments:

1. Sort the list of statements about teaching vs training, into the right column. Present to rest of group and talk about which gave the most discussion.

2. Group is to design a poster about participatory learning. No words allowed, present and explain to rest of group in plenary session.

3. Using the play dough provided, create figurines that depict specific characteristics of adult learners.

4. Based on your reading and on your own experiences, design a chart/posters that you would place on a wall in a ToT that describe/s factors influencing learning.

Training Flow Chart – Absurd topic

Based on the chart you have been given prepare a flow chart for a training, based on an absurd subject.

Clear objectives need to be set for the training, using the SMART an acronym.

FRIDAY Aug 30th 2013

0900 ***Relaxation exercise***

0915 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION**

" MESSAGE DESIGN"

0930 **ACTIVITY – *'Book cover/Advertisement analysis' '***

1010 **COFFEE/TEA BREAK**

1030 **POWERPOINT PRESENTATION:**

"DELIVERING A PRESENTATION"

1045 **ACTIVITY – *"Absurd Presentation"***

1145 **PRAYER / LUNCH BREAK**

1300 **PREPARATIONS FOR TOMORROW – *Delivery of a training session/presentation to an audience of your choice.***

1650 **DAILY EVALUATUION / WRAP UP**

11. MESSAGE DESIGN

11.1. POINTS TO CONSIDER

When it comes to addressing messages, it is helpful to realise that in all communication, words are accompanied by nonverbal messages. Messages can be thought of as combinations or 'packages' of verbal and nonverbal signals. It is important to connect and relate various aspects of nonverbal communication. Although each nonverbal code can be considered separately (body, space, time, gestures, etc) communication through nonverbal means, however, occurs simultaneously. Therefore, it is helpful to remember that each code functions together with other codes in actual communication. Resist the temptation to draw conclusions about people based on isolated bits of message behaviour.

... best messages are usually striking in their simplicity

Best messages are usually striking in their simplicity. The audience doesn't have to struggle to understand it or work out its meaning. Effective message design carefully integrates words, images, motion and sound to convey an idea to relevant people.

Gathering information – research well, inclusive of knowing your audience. Background research gives your presentation depth. At this stage you should gather more material than you actually need, as this will give you a broader prospective and during your presentation you will be able to draw on this knowledge to cover points you make in different ways. However, before you deliver your presentation you should be able to create a concise statement stating the purpose of the message.

Analyse – in light of the needs of the audience. Engage in some predictive thinking and think about what kind of opposition you might encounter. Sometimes it is useful to 'help' an opposing point of view by already presenting this and outline this view in the presentation and then indicate why this view is unsound. You may need to brainstorm here.

Evaluate – how well messages communicate the purpose. Discussing issues in a 'for' and 'against' basis adds colour and contrast. Usually there are two sides to an issue, address both sides. Put yourself in the shoes of the audience. Does it convey the purpose well – which message will the participants respond to best.

What to say – decide exactly what you want to say, this involves decisions about how you will finally write the message. What is the best format and what will be the overall message. Remember a talk that introduces new ideas is more colourful than rehashing old ideas. More important topics in presentations require strong and dramatic information to hold attention. Colourful and unusual facts add life and interest. Words are the building blocks of all messages. They transcend all other elements in a message.

Consistency from one message to another is important.

Simplify everything and delete elements that are not related to central point of the message. Don't clutter the message, it is confusing for audiences. Use only elements that contribute to directly understanding the message.

Develop an interesting point to open the message. Be concise, repeat main points, provide examples and use analogies. Minimise use of numbers, address misconceptions and arguments, use culturally appropriate language. Assess literacy levels and tailor the message to match audience needs.

Whenever possible consider adding graphics to written materials. Photographs, diagrams, and simple charts can improve written messages and improve understanding and hold the readers interest for longer.

Colour is an important component of visual design but should be considered carefully. If cost is a big consideration, black and white is recommended as it is easier to photocopy. Colours should be limited, not more than two or three colours should be used. When more than one visual is to be used, keep colours consistent.

Key principle – use colours with strong contrast. Light green, yellow, orange, red are considered warm colours. Dark green, blue and purple are considered cool colours. Warm colours tend to jump out at audiences, while cool colours tend to stay back. Because of these characteristics, the most effective combination is warm-coloured object set against cool-coloured backgrounds.

There is of course a cultural aspect to this and certain cultures place more weight on some colours than others.

11.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

Fill in the gaps in the following sentence:
Effective message design carefully integrates ___________, ______________,

____________ and _________________ to convey an idea to relevant people.

A good course meets the following criteria:

-
-
-
-

Four guidelines: to consider when selecting, shaping and limiting a message, what are they?

1.
2.
3.
4.

Fill in the gaps in the following sentence:
Message development involves, condensing and translating information into

_______________ and readily ______________

words and _______________ __________________ .

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on 'Message Design'.

11.3. ACTIVITY

Book Cover/Advertisement Analysis

Working in pairs, you are to analyse the pictures of a book cover or an advertisement that you have been given and carefully consider the messages they are sending. When analysing them ask the following questions:

- Who do you think has designed this message?
- Who are they targeting with this message?
- Why are they targeting these people?
- What do they want these people to do?
- How does this message make you feel?
- Do you think it is an effective message?

Write your answers down and prepare to discuss them with the class, adding any other comments you would like about the message.

12. DELIVERING PRESENTATIONS

12.1. POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

Delivering oral presentations is an essential aspect of many Health Workers work. It is important therefore to be aware of some key points that will help make your presentations more effective.

Meeting with decision makers, high-level health staff or other important audiences is where preparation meets opportunity. Often these opportunities are brief and you may have only one chance to make your case, so making a presentation that will persuade and inspire your audience requires solid preparation.

More is not better

Key to effective delivery of presentations is knowing your audience. Find out as much as you can about them. Are they supportive or not of your advocacy objective? What do they already know and believe about the issue? What issues are they already focused on? What expectations do they have of the presentation? What will be the most persuasive arguments to use with this audience?

Focus on the message:

Plan what you want to say. Select a focal objective as you develop a simple message for the presentation. First, present the issue, then make two or three points about why the issue is worth addressing. After this present ideas as to why the issue is important and let the audience know what you would like them to do about it. It is a good idea not to overload the audience with requests about the issue, unless they are very enthusiastic. Use data sparingly and thoughtfully. Keep it very simple and clear. More is not better.

Persuasive presentation techniques:

- Establish "points of entry"
- Plan a meeting
- Send an invitation
- Invite people to your project
- Make an invitation through an influential friend

Oral presentations are helped by a variety of equipment such as PowerPoint presentations, and overhead projectors. The principles described below are applicable to oral presentations incorporating any form of visual aid.

10 commandments of oral presentations

1. ***Know your audience.***
   Many speakers, unfortunately, fail to understand that the audience represents a group of people who differ in their level of knowledge, ability to comprehend, and degree of interest in a given topic. Irrespective of their level of knowledge, however, the audience spends its precious time listening to a speaker in order to learn something new, and so a good speaker should first identify who the audience is and what it wants to learn. The presentation should then be tailored to the needs of the audience.

2. ***Start well.***
   In any talk, the first few minutes are crucial. It is the time when the speaker convinces the audience that there is something interesting in the presentation. During a series of scientific paper presentations, 40.6% of the audience reported dreaming and 18.1% actually fell asleep. The speaker's first job, therefore, should be to wake up these sleeping listeners and to grab their attention. Brilliant slides, a catchy tide, controversial facts, startling concepts, and a loud voice all help to grab the curiosity of the audience.

3. ***Move from the known to the unknown***
   Familiarity gives way to contempt and unfamiliarity gives way to frustration. An audience who unsuccessfully attempts to understand a difficult concept will quickly get frustrated and become bored. Any talk should, therefore, begin with a description of things that the audience is familiar with and then gradually move on to unknown areas in a logical fashion. It is important not to focus too much on "known facts" and skipping over issues should also be avoided. For the audience to get a clear understanding it is essential to provide logical continuity between sentences.

4. ***Clarity***
   Clarity of slides/transparencies can be improved by following the 1-2-3 rule:
   No more than one concept per slide/transparency
   No more than two different fonts per slide/transparency
   No more than three take home messages per lecture
   No more than four colours in a text slide/transparency
   No more than five bullet points per slide/transparency
   No more than six to seven lines per slide/transparency
   No more than eight to nine words per sentence

   Instead of sentences, the text should be laid out in phrases similar to newspaper headlines. It is no good packing more text into a visual aid than can be read. Numerous colour combinations should be avoided, as this negatively affects clarity and recall of slides. A plain dark coloured background (blue, red, green, or purple), with white and yellow letters is recommended. A slide should never be used if it requires a pointer because the contents should be self-explanatory.

5. ***Back rows.***
The slides/transparencies must be able to be read by the audience sitting at the back of the room, and the speaker's voice must be heard. Slides/transparencies with small letters, too many lines of text, tables containing several rows or columns, and graphs with numerous bars will cause eye strain for those at the back of the hall. Any table containing more than seven rows and four columns is counterproductive. Slides that can't be clearly seen will force the audience switch off or to try and see what is written on the slide instead of listening to the speaker. Fancy fonts are difficult to read from a distance, therefore fonts such as Arial or Times New Roman, are more suitable. The use of upper case, underlining, and italics should be avoided.

6. ***Avoid distractions.***
In computer generated slides, it is possible to create a great variety of template backgrounds, fonts, colours, clipart, graphics, and sound effects. Even though they're attractive, they may distract the audience. To minimise distraction, there should be consistency in the use of fonts, letter size, colour, background, and grammar of text. Inappropriate jokes and anecdotes may produce the false impression that the talk was well received by the listeners, but if the audience only remembers the jokes and not the content of the speech, the presentation will have failed.

7. ***Be brief.***
A good speaker will leave the audience wanting more. The number of slides should be planned according to the time given for the talk, which can vary from 10 minutes for conference presentations, to 60 minutes for interactive lectures, the rule of thumb is, "one slide for every 45 to 60 seconds”. If you change the slides too often the audience won't take in the content, but on the other hand, if a slide is shown for a long time it will bore the audience.

8. ***Avoid the need to apologise.***
The worst aspect of any talk is when the speaker has to apologise for something. Being late is the worst, but slides with spelling mistakes, inaccurate data, illegible text, and inappropriate Illustrations all force the speaker to apologise. The speaker should plan ahead, obsessively check the slides before presentation, and have the courage to get rid of a slide, even at the last minute, if it is inaccurate.

9. ***Provoke your audience.***
In the era of information society, it is impossible to discuss a topic exhaustively. The key messages of the talk should be defined, and only they should be emphasised throughout the talk. A comprehensive talk using bulleted slides will give the impression that there is nothing much left to discuss and will dissuade the audience from expressing their views. The purpose of holding classes is to exchange ideas rather than to stress personal achievements or push opinions, so the speaker should deliberately leave something for the audience to imagine, question, and discuss.

10. ***Do not allow the audiovisual aids to replace you.***

The purpose of slides is to aid in the mental visualisation of the talk. A simple rule of thumb is, "Never, without good reason, use more than two slides in a row with no pictures." The speaker should talk freely by elaborating on the contents of the slides. Unfortunately, many speakers use slides to make up for their memory gaps and often use slides with lengthy sentences and paragraphs, which they simply read out. This is a sort of compulsive public reading and the audience will quickly replace the speaker with the slides. The goal in creating visuals is to provide a framework for the presentation, not to replace the speaker. The audience is more likely to welcome a good speaker with bad slides than a bad speaker with good slides.

Dealing with Questions and Answers:

Indicate at the beginning of your talk whether you will take questions during the presentation, or collectively at the end. Announce the length of time that will be allocated to questions. Rephrase all questions so the audience can hear. If you do receive a hostile question, rephrase it in a neutral way and try to disarm the challenger by paying a compliment. If you don’t know the answer, say so.

Summary:

It is boring to talk about what the audience already knows.
It makes no sense to talk about what the audience cannot understand.
It is arrogant to talk about what interests you and ignore the interests of your audience.
It is dangerous to talk about things you are not sure about.

Finally:

The speaker is the most important part of any presentation and a poor delivery will kill even the best presentation. Look at the audience as you speak to open communication and gain credibility. Don’t read from a prepared script unless absolutely necessary, and if you need to do this, tell the audience you need to refer to your notes. Speak slowly and clearly and try to vary your delivery. Pause to emphasize key points and be sure the person in the last row can hear you.

12.2. GAP FILLING EXERCISES AND SHORT ANSWERS

What are the 10 commandments of oral presentations?

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

Write a short brief sentence that outlines three to four key points that you learnt in the Presentation on ‘Message Design’.

12.3. ACTIVITY

"Absurd Presentation"

In groups of three you are to prepare to give a very short presentation. All three of you are to participate in the delivery of the presentation as a panel of experts. You will be given a list of absurd topics to choose from. The idea of using absurd topics is to make sure that you focus on the style and method of presentation delivery and do not concentrate on the content of your presentation. If it helps, please feel free to make use of the grid given below. It may help provide some structure and give ideas as to what to say when making opening statements.

The following may be useful for you to use when having to give a presentation in English:

Introducing the Topic:

This morning	We are going to (talk about …)
Today	We would like to (describe …)
The aim of our presentation is to …	(explain) …
The presentation is divided into …	(3, 4 main parts)
Our talk will be in …	(3, 4 sections)
Firstly, we will …	(give an overview of …)
Secondly, we will …	(move on to …)
Then …	(focus on …)
After that ...	(deal with …)
Finally, ...	(consider ...)

Referring to Questions:

Feel free to interrupt if there is anything you don't understand...
If you don't mind we would like to leave questions till the end...

Passing on to colleagues:

I will now hand over to...
Mr/Mrs S. will now...
From here Mr/Mrs S. will...

Taking over from colleagues:

Thank you Mr/Mrs S....
Thank you, I will now... Introducing each Section:
So, let's start with... (Objectives...)
Now let's move on to... (The next part...)
Let's turn our attention to... (The question of...)
This leads us to... (Our third point...)
Finally ... (Let's consider...)

Summarizing a Section

That completes my... (Description of...)
So, to summarise... (There are 3-4 main points...)

Linking your presentation:

We mentioned earlier... (The importance of...)
We'll say more about this later...
We'll come back to this point...

Checking Understanding:

Is that clear?
Are there any questions?

Referring to visual information:

This... transparency/slide shows...
If you look at this graph you can see...
What is interesting on this slide is...
We'd like to draw your attention to... (this chart...)

Referring to Common Knowledge:

As you know...
We're sure you are aware...

Concluding:

That concludes our presentation...
That brings us to the end of your presentation...
If you have any questions (We'd be pleased to/We'll do our best to...)

Dealing with Questions:

Can we get back to you on that?/We are afraid we don't have the...
I'm afraid we are not the right people to answer that...

SATURDAY Aug 31st 2013

TRAINING SESSIONS / PRESENTATION DELIVERIES

0900 *FINAL PREPARATIONS*

0915 FIRST TRAINING SESSION / PRESENTATION

0955 SECOND TRAINING SESSION / PRESENTATION

1025 COFFEE/TEA BREAK

1045 THIRD TRAINING SESSION / PRESENTATION

1125 FOURTH TRAINING SESSION / PRESENTATION

1310 COURSE EVALUATION / FINAL WRAP UP

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Please note this is not by any means a complete glossary, but merely contains some of the terms and words that may be new to you.

***AIDA*: A**ttention; **I**nterest; **D**esire; **A**ction.

Attitude: Refers to a predisposition to respond to stimuli in a particular way. A relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing (that is the 'organisation') that the auditor has cultivated over a certain period of time ('enduring').

Audience Analysis: Involves researching the needs and desires of those with whom we wish to communicate in an effort to help effectively tailor communication to them.

Belief: The mental act of accepting a fact or proposition as true.

Brainstorming: A creative problem-solving technique that relies on quantity of ideas produced quickly and without evaluation.

Channel: The means or medium used to convey a message (e.g. telephone, print, etc).

Chronemics: How we perceive and react to time.

Code: The system through which a message is conveyed (e.g. Nepalese language is a code).

Cohesion: In reference to groups it refers to the strength of member's commitment to the group and desire to remain in it.

Compromise: Is a conflict resolution strategy whereby all parties make mutual concessions in an effort to reach an outcome satisfactory to all parties.

Concepts: The mental names and categories we assign to phenomena.

Conflict: Refers to disagreement between individual which emerge from incompatibilities between people's views ad desires.

Context: The situation or setting in within which communication takes place including the particular circumstances involved.

Decoding: Involves a receiver interpreting encoded messages (e.g. the code of spoken Nepalese) by a sender.

Demographic Factors: Characteristics about a receiver or audience that is relatively accessible such as gender, age group, occupation and so on.

Dynamism: Being seen as bold, energetic and active.

Emotional Appeal: An appeal to our feelings or emotional needs such as our need to belong.

Encoding: Involves the formulating of ideas by a sender into a form that can be understood by a receiver (e.g. the code of spoken Nepalese).

Facial Expressions: Smiles, frowns and so on that convey emotion and which can be intentional or unintentional.

Feedback: Refers to a receiver's response to a message.

Field of Experience: Refers to the past experiences of an individual and this ultimately influences the way one perceives the world.

Interactive Process Model: An advance on the linear model incorporating feedback, unintentional communication, people's field of experience and noise beyond physical impediments.

Linear Process Model: Commonly known as the most rudimentary of communication models, emphasises the notion of communication as a sender sending messages to a receiver.

Models: Diagrammatic explanations of a theoretical nature (often simplified representations of a theory).

Noise: Refers to all kinds of interference that can impact upon a message (as it was originally intended).

Nonverbal communication: Communication without words.

***Opinion*:** Judgement or belief based on grounds short of proof.

Paralinguistics: The sound element of nonverbal communication including indeterminate sounds and intonation.

Parenthesis: Brackets ( ) used to enclose separate information in-text. i.e. (This is enclosed in parenthesis).

Persuasion: An attempt, through communication, to influence another person's mental state within a context allowing some measure of freedom to the person we are trying to persuade.

***Persuasive communication*:** Any communication that is intended to shape, reinforce or change the responses of another or others.

Posture: Conscious or unconscious positioning of the body which can reveal emotion and indicate the nature of the relationship.

Proxemics: Is concerned with how we use space; with spatial relationships.

Psychographic Factors: The psychological characteristics of a receiver or audience such as personal biases and assumptions.

Rational Appeal: A persuasive appeal based on logic and reason.

Receiver: A person involved in receiving messages from another.

***Response shaping*:** Modifying behaviour by being aware of the positive and negative results of behaviour in comparison to others. This can be regarded mainly as *social learning*.

***Response reinforcement*:** Often accomplished during advertising. One's beliefs and values are reinforced during the persuasion process by providing new favourable evidences.

Selection (in perception): Involves selecting what kinds of information we focus our attention upon.

Self Awareness: Refers to our own understanding of ourselves in terms of: abilities, who we think we are, and what we think we are like.

Self-efficacy: When individuals have confidence in their ability to perform a specific behaviour.

Semiotics: Often referred to as the science of signs, is concerned with the levels at which signs generate meaning.

Sender: A person involved in sending/communicating messages to another.

***Source Credibility*:** The degree to which we believe the source or sender of a message.

Transactional Process Model: A more advanced model of communication where communication is viewed as an ongoing process involving relationships between participants who occupy individual but overlapping fields of experience, who are involved in the sending and receiving of messages. These messages are then also subject to various forms of noise.

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Please note these websites are by no means exhaustive, there are many more, please find them for yourselves!

USEFUL WEBSITES

http://www.ccids.umaine.edu/publications/toolbox/sect2handout6.html
http://honolulu.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/FacDevCom/guidebk/teachtip/teachtip.htm
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