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ABSTRACT

This book documents the experiences that were gathered in project DELSILIFE, Development of a Coordinated Educational Intervention System for Improving the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor through Self-Reliance. The project was carried out by the Regional Center for Educational Innovation and Technology (INNOTECH) for the South-East Asian Ministers of Education Organization. Part I explains the principles and characteristics of the DELSILIFE intervention system, discussing a number of theoretical aspects pertinent to the development of the model and touching upon critical issues met during project implementation. Seven chapters are as follows: "Educational Research and Development: The INNOTECH Experience" (Liceria Soriano); "DELSILIFE: A Strategy for Human Resource Development" (Liceria Soriano); "The Heart of DELSILIFE: Learning Groups at the Community Level" (Jose Socrates); "First-Hand Experiences of a DELSILIFE Initiator" (Wisanee Siltragool); "DELSILIFE: An Intervention System for Nonformal Learning" (Gerben van der Molen); "Towards a Conceptual Framework of Adult Basic Life Skill Training in the DELSILIFE Project" (Kees Epskamp); and "Beyond the Laboratory: From Model Development to Dissemination Strategies" (Ad Boeren). Part II presents findings of the evaluation studies carried out in three pilot villages. Chapter titles are as follows: "Project DELSILIFE in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om, Nokhon Ratchasima, Thailand" (Sombat Suwantipak); "Project DELSILIFE in Loma de Gato, Bulacan, Philippines" (Celia Antonio); and "Project DELSILIFE in Camba-camba, South Sulawesi, Indonesia" (Abdul Rajab Johari). "Concluding Remarks" (Ad Boeren, Adri Kater) reflects on the merits and shortcomings of the system and its implementation. Appendixes include a short history of DELSILIFE, list of project participants, and 126-item annotated bibliography. (YLB)

CESO PAPERBACK NO. 9

Delsilife

Editors
Ad Boeren
Adri Kater

The task of the Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries (CESO), as its name implies, is to contribute to the study of the problems involved with education and development in the Third World.
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Delsilife

An educational strategy to fight poverty

Editors
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Adri Kater

Acknowledgements

The editors would like to express their gratitude to a number of people and institutions in two capacities: one as researchers and technical advisors in Project DELSILIFE, and the other as editors of this book.

In our first capacity we would like to thank the research programme (DPO/OT) of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate General for International Cooperation in The Netherlands, and the governments of Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand for the generous funding which enabled the implementation of the project. INNOTECH deserves praise for the way it has initiated, coordinated and monitored the project, and the country teams for their dedicated efforts in implementing the project activities and their contributions to the development of the intervention system. Special mention should be made of Dr. Liceria Brillantes Soriano, former Director of INNOTECH, who can be regarded as the 'godmother' of the project and whose energy and inspiration guided the project during its first two phases; and Dr. Jose B. Socrates, Head of INNOTECH's Research Division who was a very capable project coordinator in all three phases of the project. Many people have made valuable contributions, great and small, to the success of the project. We have attempted to list them in Annex 2, but are afraid that the long list is still not exhaustive.

The collaboration between INNOTECH, CESO and the country teams in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand was extremely cordial and fruitful. The atmosphere in the meetings was always excellent and there was great commitment on the part of all concerned. Not only in this respect was it a privilege to be involved in the project.

The project activities involved many field visits to the rural areas in the participating countries. Every time one was duly impressed by the perfect organization of the field activities by the implementing agencies in the four countries and by the hospitality and enthousiasm of the villagers. These experiences were always very gratifying from a professional as well as a personal point of view.

As editors we thank the director and other colleagues of CESO for their stimulating interest in project DELSILIFE and in the progress of this publication. We also thank Dr. Socrates for commenting on the first draft version of the paperback and Dr. Frank Trespeces of INNOTECH for his contributions to the

'Short history of project DELSILIFE' (Annex 1) and to the 'List of participants in project DELSILIFE' (Annex 2). Dr. Epskamp and Ms. Lenneke Haket are thanked for compiling the extensive bibliography and Ms. Greet Hooymans for her support in preparing the manuscript for publication. A special word of thanks is addressed to the entire CESO secretariate, and in particular to Helen Ishaak, Ellen Nix, Sherida Jiawan and Juliana Soetens, who diligently and painstakingly typed the manuscript.

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Contents

ANNEXES

Introduction

Can the rural poor decide for themselves what they need to learn in order to learn to improve their social and economic conditions? Is there an appropriate method to stimulate independent identification of learning needs? What types of learning are the most appropriate to the physical, social and economic conditions of the rural population? [1]

These were the questions raised by the DELSILIFE project, an acronym referring to the 'Development of a Coordinated Educational Intervention System for Improving the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor through Self-reliance'. The aim of project DELSILIFE was to develop an intervention model which is basically educational, in order to improve the position and living conditions of the deprived rural population. The project was initiated and carried out by the Regional Center for Educational Innovation and Technology (INNOTECH), Manila, which is a specialized organ of the Sout-East Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO). The principal activities of INNOTECH include in-service training in educational planning (usually for Asian participants) and research on policy and innovation with respect to formal and non-formal education. The project was an educational experiment through which the DELSILIFE system was developed and subsequently tested in 4 countries in the South-East Asian region: Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand, each country having selected one village for the realization of the experiment.

The project was carried out in three phases. In 1978 INNOTECH began the initial preparations for the project, and the first 18-month phase started in 1980. This first phase was concerned with a preliminary inventory of the main developmental problems in the villages, identification of learning needs, and the development of an experimental intervention model. The second phase, 1982-1984, was intended to test the intervention model by putting concrete learning activities into practice. This period needed to shed more light on the value of the model and on its relative outcomes under different circumstances. The results obtained were so encouraging that three of the participating countries decided to dessiminate the DELSILIFE intervention system on a wider scale. In the third phase of the project, 1987-1989, DELSILIFE was integrated with the non-formal education programmes of the Ministries of Education in the Philippines,

Thailand and Indonesia. During this phase the project developed and tested training materials to be used for training and dissemination purposes, and carried out evaluations of the impact of DELSILIFE on village life in three pilot villages where DELSILIFE had been introduced during the second phase.

In each of the countries concerned, a research team (appointed by the Education Ministers) was in frequent contact with the INNOTECH research staff in charge of coordination and practical consultancy. Regular consultative meetings were held and technical visits undertaken to exchange and validate experiences, to monitor the progress of the project activities and to discuss plans of action. The funds required for the project were supplied partly by the four participating countries, partly by the research programme of the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate General for Development Cooperation. At the request of the Netherlands' Ministry and INNOTECH the Centre for the Study of Education in Developing Countries (CESO) in The Hague acted as consultant in the project. Its task was to examine the project's value and relevance at village level, to cooperate in carrying out the experimental stage, and to join in the development of the model and the training materials.

This book is an attempt to document the experiences that were gathered in project DELSILIFE and consists of two parts. The chapters in part I explain the principles and characteristics of the DELSILIFE intervention system, discussing a number of theoretical apects that proved to be pertinent to the development of the model, and touching upon some critical issues that were met during the implementation of the project. Part II presents the findings of the evaluation studies that were carried out in three pilot villages. The concluding chapter reflects on the merits and shortcomings of the system and its implementation. The book does not attempt to give a detailed chronological account of the development of the system and project, nor is it meant to qualify as a handbook for the further dissemination of DELSILIFE. It is hoped that after reading this book the reader will have gained an understanding of an educational research and development project, its assumptions, research questions and process, and of the possibilities of the resulting intervention system.

The authors in part I have all been closely involved in one or more phases of the project. Liceria Brillantes Soriano, Director of INNOTECH from 1976 till 1986, launched the project and can certainly be regarded as the spiritual mother of the intervention system. Jose Socrates, Head of the Research Division of INNOTECH till 1989, guided the project as project leader. Wisanee Siltragool was member of the Thai country team during the second and third phase of the project. The four other authors, Kater, van der Molen, Epskamp and Boeren were/are CESO staff members and joined the project for specific tasks according to their expertise. In the chapters frequent reference is made to Professor J. Kraak, former Director of CESO, and an inspiring participant in the project

during the first two phases. It is regretted that due to his early death in 1987 no written contribution of his hand appears in this book.

The authors of the case studies in part II are outsiders to the project. Dr. Sobat Suwantipak of Thailand, Professor Celia M. Antonio of the Philippines and Mr. Abdul Rajab Johari of Indonesia were contracted to conduct the evaluations in the DELSILIFE pilot villages.

A short description of the various chapters seems appropriate to highlight the links between them and to serve as a guide to the reader. In Chapter 1 Soriano reports on the INNOTECH experience with educational research and development projects. Since it is one of INNOTECH's functions to identify educational problems common to the SEAMEO region and to assist the countries in solving these problems, it undertakes research to develop and validate educational products, combining both basic and applied research. The R and D projects which INNOTECH undertakes, and has undertaken including DELSILIFE, follow the same process. Priority areas for research and development are determined by SEAMEO on the basis of educational problems pertinent to the member countries. To narrow down these broad areas, INNOTECH consults with experts within and outside the region to decide on a specific research topic. The first stage of the research entails a review of research findings and other information relevant to the planned development. Then follows the planning stage in which a project proposal is being formulated. After the initial planning has been completed a preliminary form of the educational product is developed that can be field-tested. The field-testing combines quantitative and qualitative appraisals of the product on the basis of which the product can be revised/ improved and it can be established whether the product achieved its objectives. Once the product revision is completed, it becomes ready for 'packaging', i.e. assembling in a compact collection all the materials needed to put the product into operational use. The next and final stage is to facilitate and promote the use of the product by sending copies of the packages to funding agencies and education ministries in the SEAMEO region. INNOTECH also disseminates information on the product through its publications and through participants in its training programmes.

The next chapters deal with the DELSILIFE intervention system in its final form, referring to revisions that took place after field-testing the preliminary form of DELSILIFE during the second phase of the project. In Chapter 2 Soriano gives a comprehensive account of the assumptions that guided the design and shaped the try-out of DELSILIFE, the features that characterize the intervention system, its working model and learning process. One of the essential assumptions is that the people must identify their own problems and have maximal participation in the planning and execution of activities and programmes intended to solve their problems.

It is INNOTECH's hypothesis that the awareness of problems and of the possibility to solve them is an incitement to action. This awareness may grow when the appropriate learning materials and activities have been designed. It is also assumed that problem-solving skills can also be acquired in learning programmes. Thus, it is possible to learn to identify problems, to find answers, to make decisions and to plan and carry out the chosen solutions. Therefore the central learning topics in the DELSILIFE system are 'problem-solving' and 'planning'.

In addition, INNOTECH postulates that if people actively and voluntarily take part in the learning programmes for which they have opted, and assume various roles and duties, they will become more responsible, more oriented towards problem solving, and socially engaged members of the community.

In Chapter 3 Socrates gives a description of the working of DELSILIFE at village level. The intervention system consists of an organizational structure and a learning process. Central to the system are the learning programmes that take place in learning groups. A simple organizational structure guides and monitors DELSILIFE activities in the village. The structure consists of the learning groups, the goup leaders chosen by the group members themselves, the leaders of the neighbourhoods in which the learning programmes take place, and an elected DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC). It is the task of the DCC to train group leaders, to monitor activities and to rally outside support for the learning programmes when and if needed. As initially conceived, the members of a learning group were to be individuals sharing similar needs, desires and interests. As such there was to be no restriction as to their residence. However, in all pilot sites it was found convenient and efficient to divide the community into a number of small geographic neighbourhood areas in which basic learning groups are formed. The topics of the learning programmes are decided upon by the participants. This commonly felt problem determines the composition of the group. Learning groups can therefore consist of members of a neighbourhood, members of the same age and/or gender category, members of one family, the community at large, etc. As was mentioned above, DELSILIFE is concerned with problem solving through learning, and the solving of a poblem is regarded as an important learning experience. The DELSILIFE learning process therefore starts with the identification of problems and ends with the evaluation of the learning programme that was mounted to help solve the problem.

Chapter 4 is a contribution by Wisanee Siltragool in which she gives some first-hand experiences of her role as initiator during the second phase of the project. In the DELSILIFE system the initiator has the important task to try and make the community adopt DELSILIFE, to train the DCC and to monitor the DELSILIFE activities. To be a DELSILIFE initiator is a demanding task, as will become clear from Siltragool's account, and requires an attitude quite different from that usually found in adult education workers. Instead of delivering and directing learning activities the DELSILIFE initiator is expected to initiate

discussion among the community members and to stimulate them to decide on learning activities identified and implemented by themselves.

A brief comparison between DELSILIFE and other non-formal education strategies is made by van der Molen in Chapter 5. With regard to awareness raising it is said that the DELSILIFE system has a socio-economic rather than a political orientation. From a development-strategic point of view it intervenes on the level of individuals and small groups of the community, and as a bottom-up approach it offers an alternative to top-down planning and government programmes. After these introductory remarks the chapter discusses a number of experiences with DELSILIFE in the four pilot villages. They show that the identification of problems and learning needs is indeed a vital learning process in itself and creates a starting point for further learning. Most learning programmes in the villages dealt with vertical skills, i.e. technical skills that would help to increase the income of the participants. This was not surprising given the economic poverty of the village people. However, during Phase B it became clear to the project staff that other skills, not technical in nature, are essential in putting the acquired technical skills into effective practice. These are the so-called 'basic life skills', and comprise literacy and numeracy, elementary bookkeeping, organization and management, problem solving, marketing, etc. Gradually the project put more emphasis on the integration of basic life skills in each technical learning programme.

In Chapter 6 Epskamp analyses in more detail this important interrelationship between technical skills and basic life skills. The analysis is embedded in a discussion about learning as self-actualization, development approaches and basic needs strategies. Self-actualization is directly linked to problem solving and it is argued that problem solving implicitly contains basic skills such as sound perception and the observation of reality, including the circumstances, the others and the self.

Chapter 7 takes us away from the characteristics of the DELSILIFE system and its practical and theoretical implications, leading us to the last phase of the research and development project, i.e. the 'packaging' and wider dissemination of the intervention system. In this chapter Boeren describes the strategies adopted by the three countries participating in Phase C for the wider dissemination of DELSILIFE. In these strategies a package of simple, preferably self-instructional training materials plays a crucial role. The training materials are discussed in brief and a comparison is made between the packages of the three countries. The chapter concludes with the results of a survey that was carried out to pre-test the materials.

Part II of this book consists of 4 chapters and assesses the effectiveness and impact of the DELSILIFE intervention system. Chapters 8, 9 and 10 report on evaluation studies carried out in 3 villages where DELSILIFE had been introduced during the second phase (Phase B) of the project. This phase was con-

cluded in 1984, and the evaluations were carried out in 1985. INNOTECH commissioned three social scientists to conduct the studies in the three countries: professor Celia Antonio in the Philippines, Dr. Abdul Rajab Johari in Indonesia, and Dr. Sombat Suwantipak in Thailand. CESO coordinated the research and edited the reports, trying to maintain the individual style of the researchers as much as possible.

The studies were undertaken to find out, not whether the DELSILIFE project had been successful, but how the population of the villages where the project had been introduced perceived the activities. An option was made for the case study approach, and the evaluation method used was essentially qualitative and social scientific in nature. Observation and open interviews with selected informants were the main research techniques.

The reports on the case studies have the same structure. They start with a description of the socio-economic characteristics of the village. Next a description is given of the introduction of DESILIFE in the village, and the activities undertaken during the project period. The last parts of the reports deal with the perceptions of various factions within and ouside the community of DELSILIFE and its results.

The concluding chapter brings together the findings of the case studies and the experiences and opinions of project team members and outsiders regarding the DELSILIFE system. Points of discussion are the merits and shortcomings of the intervention system, the validity of the assumptions which guided the design of the approach, and conditions for the successful implementation of DELSILIFE.

Since the development and implementation process of project DELSILIFE has been well documented in numerous internal reports and publications, and the implementation of DELSILIFE could not have been realized without the dedicated inputs from many team members in the participating countries, this book concludes with an updated bibliography and a list of all persons who have contributed to the development of DELSILIFE during the project period. In addition a brief history of the project has been included.

The editors.

Note

1. For the first paragraphs of the introduction the editors have made extensive use of the introductory remarks of G. van der Molen's article: DELSILIFE, an intervention model for non-formal learning. In: *Education and the Development of Cultural Identity*, ed. C.P. Epskamp. The Hague, CESO. 1984 ; p.28-40.

Part I:

Principles and Characteristics of Delsilife

Project staff on their way to village homes in Loma de Gato, Philippines
Photo: INNOTECH

I.
Educational Research and Development: the Innotech Experience

Liceria Brillantes Soriano

The main function of INNOTECH is to identify educational problems common to the SEAMEO region and to assist the SEAMEO member countries in solving these problems by encouraging innovation, developing solution models, and exploring the use of educational technology whenever appropriate. In addressing these problems, INNOTECH in effect undertakes educational research and development.

1. INNOTECH's EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT (R & D) PROJECTS

Educational R & D, otherwise called research-based development, is considered by many as one of the promising approaches for improving education. As a developmental effort, it is problem-oriented, consciously designed to come up with solutions to educational problems. It is utilization-focused in that the educational product developed will have to be packaged for operational use by the intended users. Unlike educational research, the main goal of which is to seek new knowledge or to advance the frontiers of existing knowledge (through basic research) or to answer specific questions on practical problems (through applied research), "educational R and D aims to develop and validate educational products" (Borg and Gall. 1979: 413)[1].

At this point one might ask whether basic and applied research have a role to play in educational R & D. In a very real sense, they perform a very significant role: the findings of both basic and applied research serve as building blocks in the design and development of an educational product. This way, educational R & D no longer 're-invents the wheel'.

Educational R & D as applied to INNOTECH projects, however, easily blends with other developmental (product) research models, viz: the Development, Diffusion and Adoption model (D and A) by Clark and Guba (1965); the Research Development, Diffusion and Adoption model by Gideanse (1968); and the Educational Research and Development model by Borg and Gall (1979). In these models, as in the INNOTECH model, research is an integral part of the product development process.

From need/problem identification, to product design, and to process and outcome evaluation, research is built into the R & D projects: it is deliberately designed to provide feedback to the product developer, on which revision of the product can be based. The feedback-revision cycle continues until it is established that the product is able to achieve its objectives.

For illustrative purposes, let me briefly present the sequence of steps and activities that lead to the development of educational products at INNOTECH.

a. Determining what projects to undertake/selecting the products to be developed

In the early 1970s, the South-East Asian Ministers of Education Secretariat (SEAMES) held a series of regional brainstorming and planning activities to identify broad areas of action for the South-East Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) to consider in looking to the 1970s. The following eight areas were then highlighted:

- Primary education
- Educational administration and management
- Educational innovation and technology
- Non-formal and adult education
- Vocational-technical education
- Teacher education
- Population education
- Evaluation of SEAMEO projects

The foregoing outline of broad areas of action for the 70s was reviewed by SEAMEO in 1972. It was then realized that certain constraints might develop during the process of mobilizing resources necessary for implementation. Therefore, the plans were accepted only as a broad blueprint indicating general directions, with the understanding that a technical working group would be organized to consider priorities in relation to available resources and to develop specific project proposals.

In dealing with the blueprint, the Technical Working Group eliminated certain areas deferring to other organizations like UNESCO and the Colombo Plan to undertake certain activities in these areas. Accordingly, the output of the Technical Working Group, which became known as 'The SEAMEO Educational Development Programmes for the 1970s', consisted of four major projects:

1. the development of instructional objectives by SEAMEO member countries;
2. the development of an effective and economical delivery system for mass primary education;
3. a study of non-formal education in the SEAMEO region;

4. a study of teacher preparation and utilization in the SEAME. r. gion.

The first two of the aforementioned projects were assigned to INNOTECH, which gave rise to the projects on the Development of Primary School Objectives for the SEAMEO Region. Project IMPACT/PAMONG[2], project RIT[3] and project CB-BLP[4]. The last two projects were to be implemented by SEAMES. However, it was INNOTECH that spearheaded efforts relative to innovative approaches to teacher education. In 1972, INNOTECH made a study of critical classroom behaviours of teachers to provide a reference base for teacher training content. Expectedly, project NTR[5] became an INNOTECH project beginning 1978.

In undertaking the aformentioned projects and related activities to achieve some of the goals of the 70s, new problems were identified. It was partly because of this development that a Regional Conference on Review of Medium-Term Educational Needs of SEAMEO Member Countries was convened by SEAMES on 25-30 October, 1978. In that conference, general themes and related broad areas of concern were identified, one of which was *Education for the Improvement of Quality of Life with Special Emphasis on the Poor and Deprived of the Rural and Urban Areas.*

In line with the above priority area of SEAMEO and in its desire to share in the mounting world concern over the plight of the poor, INNOTECH decided with the approval of its Governing Board, that its major research thrust in the 80s would be: improving the quality of life of the rural poor. To narrow down this broad area, INNOTECH sent out a questionnaire seeking the opinions of 113 well-known educators and social scientists, from within and outside the SEAMEO region, on what specific aspects to research in the broad area concerning the rural poor. On the basis of the responses received, INNOTECH decided to undertake an R & D project on the *Development of a Coordinated Educational Intervention System for Improving the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor Through Self-Reliance*, otherwise called *project DELSILIFE.*

b. Research and information collection

Once the research topic is firmed up and the nature of the educational products tentatively identified, a review is made of research findings and other information relevant to the planned development. As in basic and applied research, one purpose of the literature review is to determine the state of knowledge in the area of concern. Moreover, in R & D projects like the INNOTECH projects, the research staff is also concerned with how this knowledge can be applied to the product it wants to develop.

As part of research and information collection, in project DELSILIFE for example, INNOTECH sponsored a Regional Seminar on 18-22 September 1978,

aimed at identifying a researchable problem relative to improving the quality of life of the rural poor and finding ways by which to undertake the research. During the Seminar, the country delegates presented situation papers, stating in detail the true situation of the rural poor and the nature and extent of development activities already done or in progress. Also, consultants and resource persons presented concept papers on approaches/strategies for meeting the needs of the rural people. A review of all these papers yielded a wealth of research and related information which has proved invaluable in the crystallization of ideas for the first draft of the project proposal for DELSILIFE.

For its part, INNOTECH undertook an extensive review of the literature on programmes dealing with the improvement of the quality of life of the rural poor, and on their basic needs. For project DELSILIFE, for example, INNOTECH reviewed researchers on effective and efficient ways of capability building among the rural poor, on social intervention processes, on involvement and participation, on andragogy and adult psychology, and the like. A state-of-the-art analysis followed.

It should be mentioned at this point that research and information collection activities are conditions *sine qua non* in all INNOTECH R & D projects. Not only are these activities extensively undertaken but also, more importantly, a scheme has been devised whereby the relevant knowledge is shifted from the not so relevant in order to maximize its usefulness in the preparation of the design of the educational product.

Phase A of the three-phase project DELSILIFE (May 1980 - October 1981) was devoted to research and information collection. In the 18 months covered by Phase A, each project site was saturated with the efforts of the INNOTECH Centre and Field Staffs to get rich and comprehensive information about the true situation of the poor people. To get reliable information, the Field Staffs lived in the sites for the duration of the data-gathering process. Data obtained in Phase A constituted the most important basis for developing the educational intervention system in Phase B.

c. Planning

After having obtained comprehensive research and other pertinent information on the educational product/project to be developed, INNOTECH proceeds to the planning stage of the R & D cycle. In the conceptualization of its R & D projects, INNOTECH generally gets the thinking of available experts. In the case of project DELSILIFE, a meeting held for the purpose was attended by recognized authorities in social work and community development, anthropology, and Philippine culture, among others.

In the case of project NTR, the planning process involved the holding of a regional seminar, a consultative meeting of key educators in South-East Asia, and a developmental workshop. Generally, consultants and resource persons

from within and outside the SEAMEO region attend the planning meetings. A refined project proposal, including a budget and a project timetable, result from these meetings. The proposal is then presented to the Governing Board of INNO- TECH for approval.

A considerable amount of time is devoted to the formulation of a sound and realistic plan. By its very nature, educational product planning and development is a continuous process. As the development work progresses the research staff may discover areas in which initial planning was insufficient or in error.

An illustrative case was the plan in project IMPACT to produce learning modules by subject area. This resulted in the production of more than 1,000 learning modules for the primary level. The number was cumbersome and there were duplications or overlap in content. It was therefore providential when the Department of Education and Culture instructed all government primary schools to implement an integrated curriculum approach. To conform with this policy, a replanning was undertaken and necessary modifications introduced. The result was a basic integrated learning continuum which did not have marked subject matter boundaries. The modules were revised based on this continuum.

project DELSILIFE underwent the same process within the 30-month Phase A period. A replanning of the educational intervention process ensued as a result of the rapid feedback evaluation of the implementation process and the early and intermediate level outcomes. The same is true of the other INNO-TECH R & D projects.

d. Development of the preliminary form of the product

After the initial planning has been completed, the next major step undertaken by INNOTECH is developing a preliminary form of the educational products that can be field tested. Examples of significant educational products developed by the different INNOTECH R & D projects are the following:

Project IMPACT	Instructional technology, like the self-instructional and programmed teaching modules. Pedagogical processes like self-instruction, programmed teaching, tutoring and peer group learning.
Project RIT	Teaching/learning approaches. Instructional materials.
Project DELSILIFE	An educational intervention system designed to improve the quality of life of the rural poor, the components of which are:

a. a learning package model which includes needs assessment, a basic didactic framework, and evaluation techniques/instruments;
b. a basic learning package on how to mobilize and train villagers and on how to monitor learning programmes and other quality-of-life improvement activities.

The aforementioned educational products also include questionnaires, interview guides, process analysis forms etc. to be used in field testing. After these are developed, the research staffs are trained in their use.

An important principle followed by INNOTECH as it develops the preliminary form of an educational product is to structure the product so as to permit obtaining as much feedback as possible from the field test. Thus, the preliminary forms of the INNOTECH products include many more procedures for evaluation than will be included in the final product.

DELSILIFE Phase B aimed to test the educational intervention systems for improving the quality of life of the rural poor through self-reliance. In this connection, the INNOTECH centre and field staff conducted intensive process analysis to determine whether the project sites followed the DELSILIFE design and to identify those in the training of group leaders, awareness raising, problem identification, deciding on the solution to a problem, implementation and evaluation of a learning programme and preparation of learning materials.

INNOTECH also avails itself of the services of short-term consultants from within and outside the region when it develops the preliminary form of an educational product. For example, for project IMPACT, technical assistance was obtained on the writing of programmed materials and on how to conduct programmed teaching and self-paced learning.

e. Field-testing and revision

The field-testing or try-out of the INNOTECH educational products has two purposes: (1) to obtain information to be used as a basis for revising/improving the product, and (2) to determine whether the product being developed has achieved its performance objectives. For the first purpose, the emphasis is on a qualitative appraisal of the product, and for the second, on a quantitative appraisal of outcomes that result from the use of the product.

In the choice of field site, INNOTECH chooses those which are similar to or representative of those in which the product will be used when it is fully developed. This makes possible the generalization of findings obtained from the field site to a wider area or a larger group. In project DELSILIFE, for example, an important criterion was that the poor rural community to be selected as a project site should be representative of the other poor rural communities in each

participating country. For project IMPACT, an important selection criterion was that the site should be a rural agricultural area. Accordingly, the original project site selected was a typical rural agricultural area with five *barrio* (village) schools. INNOTECH's efforts toward the sampling or choice of project sites and research subjects using procedures toward the sampling or choice of project sites and research subjects using procedures that would maximize their representativeness are aimed primarily at enhancing the generalizability of research findings, i.e., their external validity.

Field-testing of the INNOTECH projects was facilitated by field staffs who invariably lived in the sites or close to them. For example, for the DELSILIFE project, the field staffs were to monitor all the learning programmes which constituted the educational intervention system to be developed. For each INNOTECH project, formative evaluation methods are devised (for monitoring the activities to ensure that the project is being undertaken in accordance with the research and development design) and to obtain feedback to be used in modifying and improving the product as needed. One mechanism for formative evaluation is regular meetings of the field staffs with the consultants and resource persons, if any. Their recommendations are used for replanning and effecting revisions in the product as deemed necessary. To determine the extent to which the product is achieving its objectives, measures of early-, intermediate-, and long-term outcomes are used.

To help ensure that the objectives of the field testing are achieved and the necessary product revisions are effected, the INNOTECH centre staff conducts technical assistance visits to the project sites. Moreover, consultative meetings are held at crucial points in the research and development process during which the work is reviewed; a replanning is done, if necessary, and ways to efficiently carry out the plans are discussed. Generally, the services of consultants and resource persons in the relevant field are availed of.

Field-testing and product revision are repeated as needed, until the educational product has achieved its performance objectives. Once the product revision is completed, it becomes ready for 'packaging' i.e., putting together into a compact collection all the materials needed to put the product into operational use. This entails the inclusion in the package of a model of the product, manuals, slide tapes, evaluative devices, and others in addition to the main product.

The next step is to facilitate and promote the use of the product. INNOTECH sends copies of the package to the funding agencies and to the education ministries in the SEAMEO region. It is also disseminates information on the product through its publications and through participants in its training programmes.

2. PROBLEMS AND ISSUES IN EDUCATIONAL R & D

Like other researchers/developers, INNOTECH has had its share of problems and difficulties, some of which were unanticipated but were encountered in the course of project implementation. INNOTECH, however, views these problems as opportunities for perfecting its R & D approach to product development. As new products are developed, new insights are gained and the R & D approach is fine-tuned further.

Two types of problems have been identified: the first concerns product development; the second relates to dissemination and implementation upon completion of product development.

a. Product development-related problems

The first difficulty, which is basically a research concern, is the seemingly wide gap between findings of basic and applied research and related information, on the one hand, and the type(s) of information needed in designing an INNOTECH educational product, on the other hand. Rarely do we see a set of findings that adequately meet the information requirements of the product design. For example, for project DELSILIFE, there was a need for research findings on the conditions of the rural poor as perceived by them and constraints and inhibitors to the improvement of their quality of life. INNOTECH, therefore, had to undertake an 18-month survey (Phase A) to obtain in a people-to-researcher interaction information needed to develop the educational intervention system. Thus, the development of the design of the intervention system had to be deferred to a succeeding phase of the project, Phase B.

Snags in the INNOTECH R & D projects are also caused by a lack of the precise meaning of certain key terms. A case in point is the INNOTECH Test Development Programme aimed at developing tests in basic education for South-East Asia. The nagging question is, what's basic? At a more general level, the problem of definition is not too hard. The difficulties start to emerge when we try to determine the more specific objectives of basic education. The problem becomes even more complex as we try to come down to specifics for all the SEAMEO countries. In order to get a concensus on the objectives and assessment of basic education in the SEAMEO region, INNOTECH conducted a Delphi survey as part of the Test Development Programme. The findings of the survey then formed the basis for decisions in the development of tests on basic education for the region.

INNOTECH was also faced with the problem of definition in one of its R & D projects entitled *Indigenous Learning Systems to Improve the Quality of Education in Deprived Communities*. The Regional Seminar on this theme conducted by INNOTECH on 3-7 November 1981 showed that there was no consensus about the meaning of the concept 'indigenous learning systems'. How

to reduce the concept to a more operationalized researchable construct was a problem. INNOTECH undertook efforts toward reconceptualization of the field to arrive at more precise definitions that would allow a well delineated area of study and research as well as translation into operational action.

The second problem concerns obtrusiveness/reactiveness of measures used in research, e.g. the use of questionnaires, scales, interviews, and other self-report measures, and the attendant problems concerning internal validity. This is especially true when the research subjects know and are aware that they are part of a study as they complete questionnaires or take tests. Almost always the 'reactive measurement effect' distorts and confounds the study findings.

To deal with this problem, INNOTECH started to use unobtrusive measures (e.g. observations, informal interviews, social indicators, thematic investigations, archival records, physical traces) together with obtrusive ones in its R & D projects, resulting in multiple data sources and sophisticated rigor, a phrase intended to describe "any and all (researches) which employ multiple methods, seek out diverse data sources, and attempt to develop behaviourally grounded theories" (Denzin, 1978: 167).

A problem related to the foregoing is the polarization of researchers, including the INNOTECH research staff, into 'two cultures' (to borrow C.P. Snow's term) within a single research community. The first 'culture', the more dominant one, adopts the natural science paradigm of hypothetico-deductive methodology. This dominant paradigm postulates that quantitative measurement, experimental design, and multivariate, parametric statistical analyses are the components of the model of true scientific research. The second 'culture' avails of the holistic inductive and anthropological paradigm to predict social phenomena. This paradigm relies on qualitative data, holistic analysis, and description of situations events, people, interactions and observed behaviours. In our researches at INNOTECH, we try to reconcile these two research 'cultures' by using both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies and checking the consistency of findings generated by the two methods. The terms used by Patton (1980) for this rapprochement between two methodological paradigms is methods triangulation, a strategy that may be used for reducing systematic bias in the data, thus leading to research results that are more valid and hence more plausible.

Project DELSILIFE exemplifies the strategy of methods triangulation as it makes use of both quantitative and qualitative methods of gathering data on the rural poor. Quantitative data gathered through questionnaires and interviews and from community records were compared with those gathered from observation, case studies, diaries and small-group meetings. Data reduction followed, taking into account various data courses.

There is also the problem concerning research and develoment expertise. Although most staff members of INNOTECH R & D projects are technically qualified to conduct research, both basic and applied, the lack of expertise in product conceptualization, designing and development is more real than apocry-

phal. The fact that these activities require creativity rather than mere routine thinking makes R & D efforts all the more challenging, problematic and very demanding indeed. Ideally, INNOTECH projects should have researcher/ developers with a solid foundation in both aspects of the R & D effort.

Another problem is the language barrier. Using English as a medium of communication between and among the research staff of INNOTECH R & D projects does not entirely overcome this difficulty. This is particularly crucial when an education product is being conceptualized and designed for try-out in the field where languages of field and monitoring staffs may differ. The lack of communication skills in English, both oral and written, precludes the research staff from maximally contributing their much-needed ideas during the crucial stages of product development. This can be mitigated by minimizing the use of jargon that will further confound the communication situation. Another way would be the avoidance of verbiage to make the reading load of the working papers as light as possible but without sacrificing substance.

At times the problem of product expectations exceeding actual performance surfaces, especially during the preliminary try-out of the educational product, causing a great amount of anxiety, if not insecurity, on the part of the researcher. Being an initial attempt, the educational product may not deliver what is expected; in fact, it may even appear that its hoped-for outcome is too far-fetched. A crisis situation develops. The research staff starts becoming jittery, almost always accompanied by fear of failure, fear that the educational product is not gaining any headway toward achieving its objectives notwithstanding the total commitment in time, money, energy and other resource inputs. How to weather this 'internal storm', to combat the demoralizing effects of initial non-promising results of a product, requires no less than a heroic effort to put everything and everybody into course.

Other research-related problems involve costs in undertaking an R & D activity. As demands for effective and efficient educational products increase, so does the cost of developing them. Moreover, because an INNOTECH R & D project generally takes more than two years to complete and package for dissemination and utilization, a large amount of money is required to carry out a project throughout the entire development cycle. Our experience to date indicates that resources are not always available when we need them - more so, at this time when obtaining outside funding is getting more problematic due to worldwide economic recession even among developed countries.

b. Dissemination and implementation-related problems

One issue which INNOTECH has found difficult to resolve is that of authority. While INNOTECH has the moral responsibility to get an innovative educational product implemented, yet it has no line authority over Ministries of Education. Even if a Memorandum of Agreement between INNOTECH, on the one hand,

and the different Ministries, on the other hand, stipulates that the latter will avail themselves of the educational product of the former if it is found effective, the fact is that educational reforms are not decided solely on the basis of the functionality of an innovation or educational product. Educational policy decision making is the result of an inter-play of political, economic, social and cultural forces.

Related to the above is a technical proviso in the INNOTECH charter which explicitly circumscribes the Centre's functions to R & D: "...to assist member countries in solving educational problems by encouraging innovations and developing models". Nothing explicit is said about the D and A (Diffusion and Adoption) processes. This has to a considerable extent stymied INNOTECH's initiative to go full scale into the dissemination and utilization of an innovative educational product.

This is not to say, however, that certain mechanisms do not now exist that are designed to ensure support for an eventual utilization of a research product. The Governing Board of INNOTECH is composed of ministerial decision makers and the Chairman of the DELSILIFE national steering committees were/are a Director General and Deputy Ministers of Education in their respective countries.

Then there is the problem of funding dissemination and implementation. Usually, funding agencies provide funds for the research and development phase only. The diffusion and adoption phases of the developed product or innovation are generally unfunded and are thus inevitably left to the vagaries of change.

Programme priority also poses a problem. Because governments operate on long-range plans, specifying the programmes to be undertaken during the targeted period with the corresponding budget allocation for each, the probability of an educational product or innovation getting implemented, much less institutionalized in the educational system, is almost nil if it is not provided for in the plan.

Not to be discounted is the issue related to cultural values. In a tradition-bound, elitist community where quality education is equated with high-rise school buildings and sophisticated instructional materials, and innovations like IMPACT, which uses learning kiosks instead of standard classrooms and mimeographed modules in-lieu of factory-printed textbooks, is not likely to be regarded with favour. It takes years to develop values and it takes many more years to unlearn or change deeply-rooted ones. In effect, this traditionalism operates as a brake on innovation or product implementation, although an imaginative packaging and systematic dissemination of the innovation could help overcome this resistance.

The last problem, which is an important concern of INNOTECH at present, is the absence of a research-based model for the dissemination and utilization of innovations, a model that takes into account the unique characteristics of Asian societies. It is sad to note that in the absence of an indigenous regional model,

several educational products or innovations are gathering dust on the bookshelves of Ministries of Education. Their non-utilization may not be due to the innovations.

For this reason, INNOTECH developed a research proposal entitled *Process Models for the Dissemination of Innovation*. Hopefully, these models will fill in the information gap with regard to the dissemination and utilization of educational products or innovations in the SEAMEO region.

3. CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

Those who have undertaken educational R & D projects will agree that the activities involved are far from simple to carry out. Many false starts and setbacks in developing the educational product are expected. Many more frustrations are experienced later when the finished educational products end up on the dusty shelves or libraries. "What's wrong?" one might ask. We have to find out. As of now, let us console ourselves with the fact that, as one noted researcher/evaluator aptly observed, "research impacts in ripples, not waves".

Notes

1. The terms 'products' and 'projects' are used interchangeably. They include not only physical or material objects, such as learning modules, textbooks, audio-visual materials etc. but also systems, procedures or processess such as a learning delivery system, an intervention process, a method of teaching or a method or a method of organizing instruction.
2. Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers; Pendidikan Anak Oleh Masyarakat Orangtua Dan Guru (in Indonesia).
3. Reduced Instructional Time.
4. Community-Based Basic Learning Package.
5. Non-traditional Roles of Teachers.

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Community meeting in Jebioc, Iloilo, Philippines
Photo: Ad Boeren

II.
Delsilife: A Strategy for Human Resource Development

Liceria Brillantes Soriano

1. INTRODUCTION

DELSILIFE as an educational intervention method is a change process designed to help a client system - a deprived rural community and its people - bring about improvement in their functioning and in their capability to cope with community as well as individual problems and other environmental demands and pressures of day-to-day life.

In approaching the egregious problem of rural poverty, in both economic and non-economic terms, DELSILIFE takes significant note of the deprivation-development school of thought, adhering closely to its thesis that poverty results from the fact that all things being equal, certain conditions are still lacking, even absent in some cases, among the rural villagers, particularly the poor. Traditional value systems, participation-inhibitive social structures, elite-dominated institutions, and lack of desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs), and of appropriate technology of the rural poor are potent stumbling blocks to achieving the goals of an improved quality of life. Hence, the answer to the problem of poverty and underdevelopment lies in modifying or changing attitudes and behaviours, leading to acceptance by the people of innovations and new technologies, and in societal adjustment and cultural change in general.

Against this backdrop, the DELSILIFE approach to change is both psychological and sociological. It is psychological in the sense that assisting the rural poor to improve their quality of life necessitates that they undergo behaviour modification, a process of transformation of individuals' knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is sociological in that the change focuses on the village or community as a social institution, redefining individual roles in the community, modifying the sanctions of and the expectations of other role incumbents, changing community structures, decentralizing community problem-solving and decision-making processes, and encouraging group processes of co-operation, involvement and vigilance.

Stemming from the aforementioned thesis is a set of assumptions that guided the design and shaped the try-out of DELSILIFE. The assumptions are as follows:

1. To enable a community to become self-reliant, the community needs a council composed of members chosen by the people themselves to plan and manage its development programmes.
   Over and above the DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC), national and regional steering committees help to ensure the institutionalization of DELSILIFE.
2. Natural, shifting, indigenous, shared leadership is highly conducive to the development of self-reliant community members.
   The steering committees, the DCC and other community leaders compose a built-in mechanism for the continuity of operation of the system in a community.
3. The availability of trained leaders in each section or geographic area of the community makes possible better co-ordination, monitoring of the development effort and speedy resolution of community problems.
4. The inflow of modern technology for the advancement or enrichment of community life is enhanced through the involvement of sectoral and other agencies, government and private, in the learning programmes.
5. Awareness of people of their problems and of their capability to resolve the problems will mobilize them to action. The level of awareness can be raised through the use of appropriate materials and activities.
6. Community problems require action. A learning programme is an effective means of developing concepts, skills, habits and attitudes needed for collective endeavor.
7. People can be assisted in helping themselves by getting them actively involved in the planning and execution of programmes designed to solve their problems.
8. People are most likely to take positive action on problems that they themselves identify and perceive to be important.
9. As the people participate voluntarily and actively in the learning programmes planned and initiated by them and assume varied roles, functions and duties, they become more responsible, solution-oriented and socially concerned citizens of the community.
10. The organization of small neighbourhood learning groups will help ensure that the intervention will reach the target group - the rural poor, particularly the poorest of the poor.
11. People can cope with the demands of their physical and social environments if they have developed adequate problem-solving skills. It is possible to develop problem-solving skills through learning programmes.
12. Literacy and numeracy become more meaningful and functional when integrated in a needs-based learning programme utilizing appropriate materials and procedures. For the individual to become completely self-reliant, he *must* become literate. Without literacy he will *always* be dependent upon a mediator for learning and his learning choices (for life-long

education) are limited to those made for him by the mediator. Therefore, in order to move effectively toward the project's goal of creating self-reliance, *the initial thrust of the learning system should be to teach functional literacy.* Functional literacy is a necessary component of any effort to built up the poor people's capacity to perceive and express their needs and so satisfy such needs.

13. Education is an effective tool with which to help the poor people improve their quality of life. Education in its broadest sense encompasses the totality of life in a community and therefore includes all sectors or areas of living.

2. DELSILIFE AS AN INTERVENTION SYSTEM

In essence, the DELSILIFE approach to development is people-oriented; it lays great emphasis on developing the people's capability to help themselves. This approach is a departure from the common run of development efforts which emphasize the improvement of the physical and material environment and which try to ameliorate the lot of the poor mainly through the giving of material help.

Since DELSILIFE focuses on people development, the active participation of the people in decision making from needs/problems identification to planning, implementation and evaluation of learning programmes is an integral part of the DELSILIFE method. This active involvement enables the people to gain better understanding of and control over their life situations and to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes and values needed for the further improvement of their lot. In effect, the people are not only the objects, the beneficiaries or the ends of development but also, even more significantly, they are the subjects, the determinants or the means of such development.

The features characterizing the DELSILIFE educational intervention system are dealt with in the following sections a-h.

a. Learning groups engage in self-determined learning programmes

As an intervention system, DELSILIFE consists of learning programmes based on needs which the people themselves have identified and expressed. In these learning programmes, the development of basic life skills (e.g. functional literacy, planning, problem solving, cost calculation, keeping of simple accounts and records, negotiation, risk taking, conflict resolution and others) and the formation of desirable attitudes and values, are integrated with the learning of sectoral knowledge and skills (e.g. farming, livestock raising, health and sanitation, food preservation) which the learning group has agreed upon as the means to satisfy their needs.

b. Learning programmes are neighbourhood-based

The community is divided into small neighbourhood areas (SNAs). In each SNA, small neighbourhood learning groups (NLGs) are organized. These NLGs become the main organizational structure or unit for undertaking learning programmes. However, community-wide learning groups may be organized when individuals from different SNAs agree and decide to undertake a learning programme based on a commonly identified problem or need.
As a delivery system the natural neighbourhood groupings or NLGs have several advantages:

1. It is easier to call the people together to a learning session right in their neighbourhood.
2. There is no need for dressing up or worrying about leaving young children behind to go to a far or central place for a meeting.
3. The people know one another which facilitates a free exchange of ideas.
4. They are aware of their common resources and constraints and can co-operatively deal with them.
5. They know who are the natural and capable leaders to whom they can look for guidance in promoting the welfare of the group.
6. Since the NLGs include all households, they are also the surest means of reaching the poorest of the poor.

c. Management is community-based

A trained community council ensures programme co-ordination and continuity of learning programmes. A community council, either as an existing political structure or specially formed by the people, provides leadership and overall management of DELSILIFE. The council, in active consultation and collaboration with the NLGs, plans, schedules, organizes, co-ordinates, implements, monitors and evaluates the various learning programmes. It also facilitates the extension of assistance and entry of resources and technology from the government's sectoral agencies and other external organizations to the community and the learning groups.

d. Delivery of service is co-ordinated

DELSILIFE learning programmes often require services from private or government sectors. Efficient utilization of these services demands smooth co-ordination.

This is facilitated through the needs-based learning programmes which the people, on their own, plan and initiate in consultation and collaboration with representatives of the relevant sectoral agencies. This way, duplication and

overlapping of functions among concerned agencies is, at best, avoided for it is the people themselves through the learning programmes who will effect the co-ordination in the delivery of social services to the community.

e. DELSILIFE uses trained local leaders

Leadership is natural, indigenous and shared among the members of a learning group. Learning groups choose their own group leaders. Usually, the member who is most knowledgeable and skilled with regard to a learning programme that will be undertaken becomes the new leader of the learning group. It shifts from one member to another as demands for new learning programmes arise.

Training of local leaders is an important component of DELSILIFE. Both the Community Council and the group leaders undergo training in management and leadership. Where resources permit, group leaders also undergo training to acquire certain sectoral knowledge and skills (e.g. duck-raising or mushroom culture) which they are obliged to share with the other members of the learning group. The group leader, then, becomes a resource person of the learning group at the same time.

If a number of group leaders are trained in various sectoral knowledge and skills, the learning groups may exchange group leaders to enable the members to benefit from the expertise of other leaders. A group leader/resource person interchange among NLGs takes place, thus maximizing the use of locally trained group leaders and fostering co-operation and unity among NLGs.

f. Problem-solving is a basic approach

Problem-solving is at the centre of the DELSILIFE system. Whatever happens in the small neighbourhood, learning groups or in the community council, the acquisition of problem-solving skills through learning programmes is vital since these are capability building and empowering skills that people need to cope with the demands of their physical and social environments.

Problem-solving may take the form of (1) contrived activities or situations or (2) actual contact with real-life problems integrated into a learning programme. Consciousness raising, using appropriate materials and activities, is built into each learning programme to enable the people to become aware of their problems and their capability to resolve such problems, and to mobilize the people to action.

g. Use of non-formal and informal methods

DELSILIFE utilizes both non-formal and informal learning approaches. At times, NLGs avail themselves of resource persons who can share with them new sectoral knowledge and skills and basic life skills. At other times, members of an

NLG meet to share learning experiences among themselves, discussing and analysing problems related to the learning programme, formulating alternative solutions, deciding on a course of action, and planning to implement the selected course of action. In most instances, learning is by doing: the members, after learning from a self-learning handbook, practice what they learn by actually experiencing or experimenting on it. Learning can also be incidental as when a learning group comes to know of what another learning group is doing, prompting the former to observe the latter or the latter to share its knowledge and skills with the former.

h. Built-in self-perpetuating and self-renewing mechanisms

DELSILIFE is both self-perpetuating and self-renewing. The community council and the NLGs, both community-based, are built-in mechanisms to ensure continuity of learning programmes as well as their improvements. Completion of a learning programme by an NLG usually results in initiation and planning of a new learning programme based on what the members perceive as another need. It may also result in other NLGs taking advantage of the learning programme completed by the earlier NLG. This is so because some members of the NLG that finish a learning programme can serve as resource persons to other NLGs.

What makes DELSILIFE self-renewing is the periodic monitoring and evaluation of the learning programmes by the community council. The constant feedback from the NLGs results in the casting away or improvement of unproductive, ineffective or inefficient learning programmes and the continuation of the more successful programmes by other NLGs in the DELSILIFE community or even in an adjacent community.

It is this self-perpetuating and self-renewing capability of DELSILIFE that makes it more than just a project that has a beginning and an end.

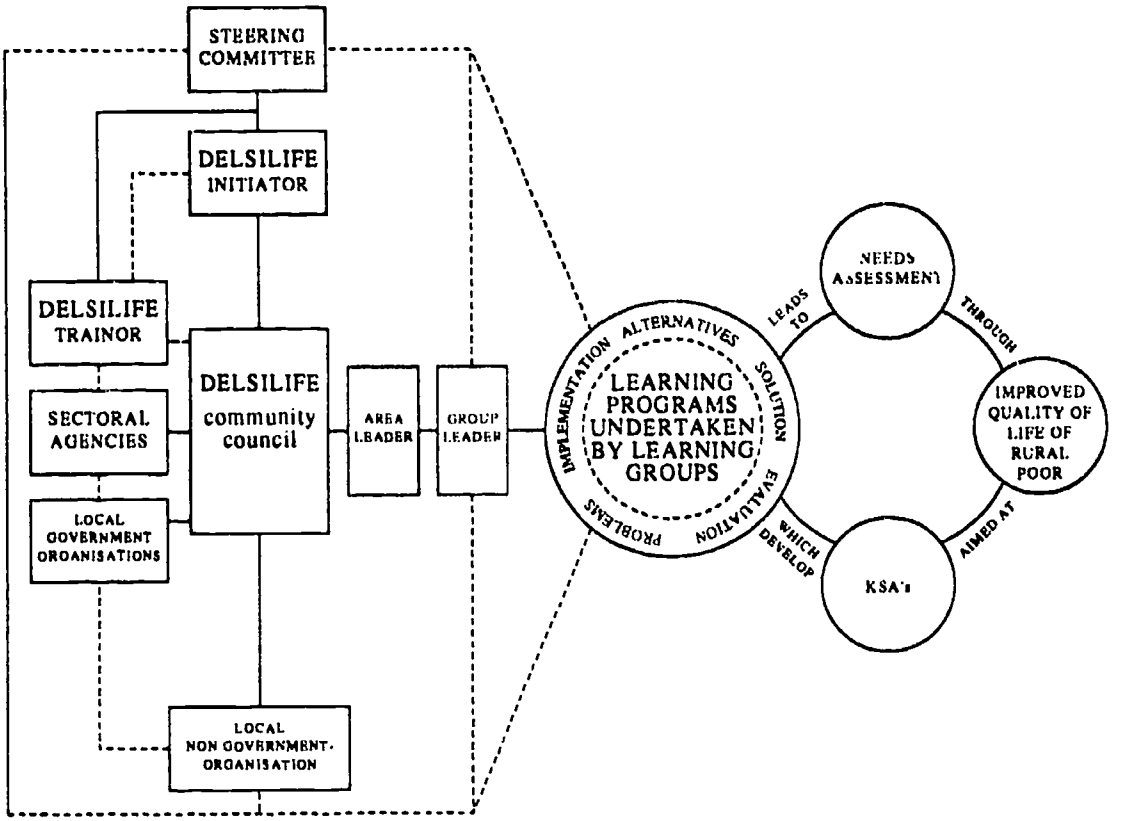
3. WORKING MODEL OF DELSILIFE

Figure 1 presents the model of the DELSILIFE intervention system, illustrating both its process and structural components.

The core of DELSILIFE is the *learning programme*. The learning process starts with needs assessment that leads to learning programmes undertaken by learning groups of 8 to 15 members. These learning programmes develop knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs) aimed at improving the quality of life of the rural poor.

The learning programme uses the problem-solving approach. Each learning programme starts with the analysis of a problem which the group members perceive to be important. This is followed by a search for alternatives to solve the problem. By considering constraints and available resources, the solution is selected, implemented and evaluated as to its effectiveness.

Figure 1.
The DELSILIFE Educational Intervention System

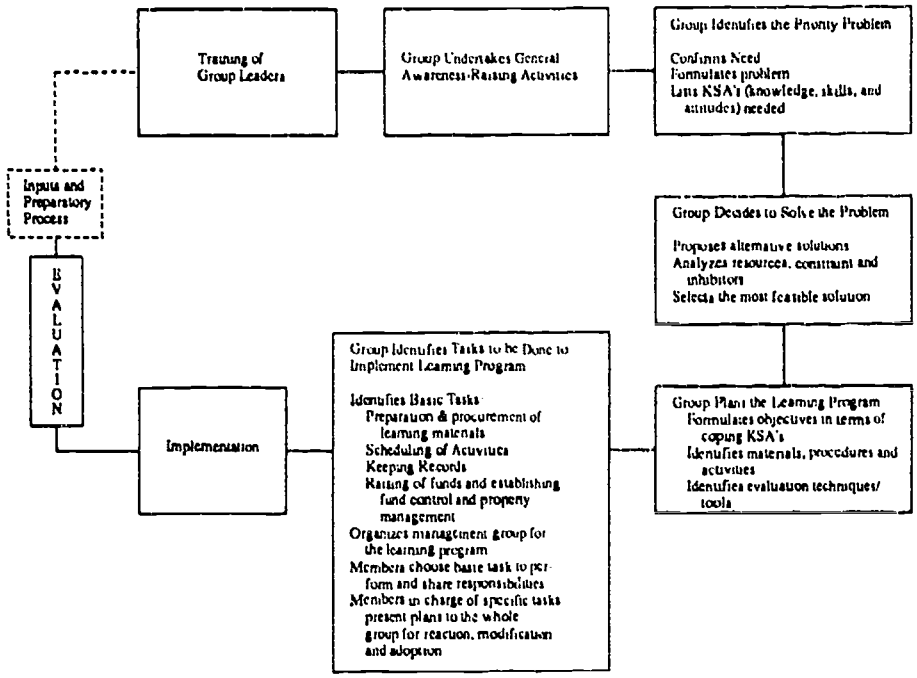


The conduct of the learning programme is the focus of the entire DELSILIFE process. This is clearly evident in Figure 2 which illustrates the linear sequence of the seven components of the DELSILIFE process. All the first four components lead to the 'development of the learning programme' and the last two components are merely operations of the learning programme. For a detailed account of the 7 components we refer to the next chapter of this book.

Figure 1 also shows the organizational structure that supports the learning programmes. This structure has four major components:

1. *The DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC) which is composed of 12 to 15 members.* This may be the existing political village council or it may be a council organized by the people themselves. The DCC helps the area and group leaders organize learning groups. It also trains area and group leaders

Figure 2.
The DELSILIFE Process



on their DELSILIFE functions. The DCC also helps the learning groups get assistance from government and non-government agencies, inside or outside the village.

2. *The area leader.* To ensure that every part of the community, especially the remote ones, is reached by the system, the DELSILIFE community is divided into geographical areas, each area having about 50-60 households. Each area chooses its own area leader from among its members. The area leader assists the DCC in organizing learning groups and training of group leaders.
3. *The group leader.* He is a member of the learning group having been selected by the members themselves. He is trained by the DCC to perform his functions.
4. *Sectoral and non-sectoral agencies.* These may be government or non-government agencies which may be requested by the community council or by the learners themselves, to provide services, resource persons, materials and equipment to the learning groups. Examples of these are the Non-Formal Education Centres or Bureau of Continuing Education of the Ministry of Education; Bureau of Agricultural Extension; Office of Population Education; Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources; Bureau of Forest Development; Ministry of Social Services and Development; Ministry of Local Government and Community Development.

The community council with the aid of the area and the group leaders facilitate the procurement and entry of sectoral technology into the community in a co-ordinated manner to serve the developmental programme which the people themselves have inititated.

4. FINAL REMARK

More certain than probabilistic, DELSILIFE promises a workable model that can improve the community's welfare and develop its human resources through education and training (learning programmes) while avoiding dependent social welfarism and cultural denigration, if not deterioration. The model may be adopted and used by individuals and agencies involved in development, particularly by those who work right there at the village level - the nonformal education officers, coordinators and mobilizers; the agricultural extension workers; the village development coordinators; and other social development technicians.

Learning group on food preparation, Loma de Gato, Philippines
Photo: Ad Boeren

III.
The Heart of Delsilife: Learning Groups at the Community Level

Jose B. Socrates

1. INTRODUCTION

The basic structure of the DELSILIFE system is the learning group. It is the learning group which undertakes the basic process of the DELSILIFE system - the learning programme.

As initially conceived, the members of a learning group were to be individuals sharing similar needs, desires and interests as established in the data-gathering phase. As such there was to be no restriction about their residence. They could come from any area of the community. However, in all sites it was found convenient and efficient to divide the community into a number of small geographic neighbourhood areas (SNAs)[1].

It is therefore from this neighbourhood cluster of households that the basic learning group is formed. They are bound by common interests and their place of residence is much more confined.

It seems that the neigbourhood principle allows DELSILIFE to use both income and interest as criteria for the formation of learning groups. But more important, it is the mechanism, the technique by which DELSILIFE hopes to reach the poorest of the poor. Most development programmes address themselves either to communities as a whole or to families and individuals as the main actors. Although DELSILIFE does not preclude the community and the family or individual from exercising development responsibilities, the one strinkingly distinguishing feature of DELSILIFE is the learning group. More than any other feature, the learning group and the learning programme set DELSILIFE apart from other development programmes or systems.

However, the learning programme is also utilized (it is expressly stipulated that it be utilized) in the solution of community-wide problems, whether they be continuing problems or ad-hoc situations. Moreover, there are activities which appeal in general to people from the different parts of a village. Hence, too, the learning group may be formed by individuals of common needs and interests who may come from any area of the community.

This facilitates the participation of all layers and discourages the mechanism of self-selection by the happy few. The neighbourhood principle is also based on the assumption that this will ease communication among the group members,

overcome shyness while participating, and is conducive to the selection of group leaders.

2. LEARNING GROUPS

How did the group actually come into being? It seems that Phase A data on educational needs hardly played a role in the establishment of learning programmes. Deciding upon a programme automatically resulted in non-participation of certain people or categories, as not everyone was interested in a topic (men do not go for sewing). Once a number of programmes were underway, spontaneous results to embark upon specific programmes came from people themselves as well.

The neighbourhood principle therefore was not strictly followed in deciding on learning programmes. It seems that under certain conditions the neighbourhood principle cannot be applied. A *kompang* group (Malaysia) for example is characteristically a village activity, because by custom a village has only one *kompang* group. Nevertheless, the formation of neighbourhood learning groups was conceptualized and adopted as the main organizational structure for introducing development programmes.

The SNAs allow DELSILIFE to reach all members of the community. Notwithstanding the fact that the DELSILIFE system is already applied in poor rural areas, the objective is still to reach the poorest of the poor of a community. Quite often delivery programmes favour the more prosperous community members, or at least those residing in the central section of a community. In addition, small neigbourhood groups are more likely to ensure attendance and participation in contrast to the situation where sessions or activities are conducted in the centre of a community.

a. The community-wide learning group

There is, however, a second type of learning group. Although the neighbourhood group is the main venue for learning programmes, a second type of learning programme is that which draws its membership from the community at large. This kind of learning programme is in response to more general community needs as identified by groups within the community (such as the *kompang* and *berzanji* learning groups in Malaysia: and the 'co-operatives' learning group in the Philippines). In accordance with the intervention design, such learning programmes are ratified by the community council. Although participation in the second type of learning programme is open to all, this type was initially used in the training of group leaders for specific skills which they can transmit to their neighbourhood groups.

b. Special interest learning groups

A third type of learning group may be identified within the second type. This is the learning group composed of those with similar special interests. This would include such groups as: parents of children enrolled in a day-care centre (which may be a result of the first type of learning group); or a group of new mothers; or even the DCC going through a learning programme on administration.

c. The family learning group

The members here are from only one family, or clan. This was practiced only in the Indonesian site (for duck raising), and in the Philippines (for fish smoking).

d. The DELSILIFE Community Council as a learning group

The learning programme, as a technique of DELSILIFE, can be used by the community leaders to great advantage in the solution of community-wide problems, and in the improvement of their own leadership skills. This is very simply and efficiently done as the DCC considers itself as a special learning group.

As a learning group the DCC undertakes two sets of learning programmes. One set may be simply called administration. This learning programme, which may last indefinitely, is aimed at developing and improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the members as public leaders and public servants.

DELSILIFE does not assume that once elected to positions of leadership, the leaders will immediately become efficient and effective. And since DELSILIFE adds functions to the leaders beyond their political duties, it stands to reason that they should receive training.

The learning programme is the instrumentality of DELSILIFE which gives the village leaders the opportunity to learn, gain information, and generally improve their administrative skills.

Examples of learning sessions in the administration learning programme may include:

- how to conduct meetings;
- record keeping;
- how to write official letters;
- how to contact and avail of resources.

The second set of learning programmes which the DCC may undertake is directed at specific community problems which call for concerted and sustained efforts by the entire community through their leaders.

The experience of DELSILIFE shows two striking examples of this type: the solution to the water problem of Ban Tab-chang in Thailand; and the reaction of the marketing co-operative of Loma de Gato in the Philippines. In both cases the DCC acted as learning groups, but involved the entire village.

3. LEARNING PROGRAMMES

a. Definition of a learning programme

A learning programme is a planned series of semi-formal activities developed and undertaken by a small neighbourhood group of 5-15 members, in direct response to a commonly identified and felt need. The group schedules meetings at its convenience. Sessions are conducted by the group leader, often with the assistance of a sectoral resource person. A learning session may go on for about two hours.

Although DELSILIFE is a non-formal educational approach, the learning programme cannot avoid a semi-formal nature. Some sessions will appear quite formal, others totally informal.

There are as many learning programmes as there are small groups of people of a common interest or problem who desire to pursue their interest or solve their problem together.

b. Objective of the learning programme

Each learning programme has its own specific objectives. However,the general aim of all learning programmes is directed toward the attainment of an improved quality of life through self-reliance. DELSILIFE expects to attain its specific objective of developing basic life skills (BLS) and, where desired, the learning of more economic-oriented skills, also called vertical instrumental skills (VIS), is adopted in the programme.

The economic-oriented learning programmes provide the participants with opportunities to learn instrumental or livelihood skills directly related to their economic activities. Precisely because of the poor financial conditions of the people, the opportunity to learn some skills and thus, improve their incomes is a great motivating force for the people to engage in learning programmes.

For DELSILIFE the individuals in the (rural) communities are potential learners. Through awareness raising, problem identification and problem solving in a learning programme, DELSILIFE promises the individual improvements in his or her personal socio-economic, physical and cultural situation.

The seven-step DELSILIFE process is as follows:

I. *Organization/training of the community council/area leaders*
   1. organization of the community council;
   2. preparation and implementation of guidelines;
   3. conduct of meetings;
   4. management of village programmes;
   5. securing assistance from sectoral agencies and other sources.

II. *Needs assessment*
   1. preparation of a survey plan;
   2. preparation of survey materials;
   3. gathering, analysing and interpreting data.

III. *Formation of learning groups*
   1. identification of prospective participants and motivating them to partipate;
   2. selection of the group leaders.

IV. *Training of group leaders*
   1. selection and organization of trainees;
   2. preparation of the training programme;
   3. sharing of tasks to be performed;
   4. preparation of the training materials;
   5. conduct of the training;
   6. evaluation of the training programmes.

V. *Development of learning programmes*
   1. group undertaking of awareness-raising activities:
      a. determining the level of awareness of learners;
      b. selecting/preparing appropriate awareness-raising materials and activities;
      c. conducting awareness-raising activities;
      d. assessing increase in level of awareness.
   2. group indentification and analysis of the problem:
      a. confirming needs;
      b. stating the problem.
   3. group decision to solve the problem:
      a. proposing alternative solutions;
      b. analyzing resources, constraints and inhibitors;
      c. selecting a feasible solution.
   4. group planning of solution: preparation of learning programmes:
      a. formulating objectives in terms of KSAs;

b. identifying procedures, materials and activities;
c. identifying evaluation techniques and tools.

VI. *Implementation of learning programmes*
1. indentification and sharing of basic tasks;
2. organization of a management group;
3. conduct of learning sessions;
4. evaluation of learning outcomes.

VII. *Evaluation*
1. preparation of an evaluation plan;
2. implementation of the evaluation plan.

The first four steps of the DELSILIFE process are performed by the community council, without prejudice to learning groups being formed spontaneously (step III).

At the learning group level the process of identifying a learning programme (step V) starts with the first meeting of the group whose members are assumed to have similar needs and interests.

c. Awareness-raising

On their first meeting with their group leader, who shall have undergone training, the group undertakes general awareness-raising activities. Awareness-raising constitutes the first manifestation of the intervention process. Every learning group starts with a session or sessions aimed at raising their general awareness level. In practical terms, an awareness-raising session is no more than a deliberate discussion of a group problem, needs, and general status with a view to impressing upon the members the desire to find solutions to alleviate their situations. The sessions may be enriched by actual experience or by contrived situations to provoke discussions.

As an outgrowth of this session or sessions, the group is able to clarify its common problem, which the group then decides to resolve co-operatively in the form of a learning programme.

From then on, the learning group meets periodically at a time and place of their own choosing to go through its learning programme.

d. Analysis of resources, constraints, and inhibitors

With the learning programme decided upon[2] and the learnings and skills to be developed agreed on, the group identifies its resources, constraints, and inhibitors relevant to the proposed learning programme.

The information is crucial to the preparation and determination of procedures and materials, and the scheduling of activities. To trigger off this stage the group leader poses questions such as:

1. What do we have or what do we know which can facilitate the attainment of our needs?
2. Who can help us?
3. What do we lack?
4. What practices or habits and ways prevent us from solving our problem?
5. What conditions in our communities need to be considered in planning activities?

e. The group plans the learning programme

While there is a group leader, the active participation of the members of the learning group in the performance of the various tasks is highly essential. At this stage, therefore, the group may identify basic tasks to be done and the members may choose tasks and specific responsibilities. The basic tasks to be performed include:

1. preparation and procurement of learning materials;
2. scheduling of activities;
3. keeping of records;
4. raising and control of funds;
5. management of property;
6. invitation of resource persons.

The preparation of learning materials admittedly demands some experience or professional training. The DELSILIFE experience, however, showed that simple village people can be depended upon to prepare simple understandable materials, given some assistance. Hence, in the writing of learning materials the local people who have shown an aptitude for this task should be involved as much as possible. If neccessary learning materials may be supplied by the resource person.

The member who chooses to keep the records prepares an anticipated record system. At the community level the steps vary only slightly as shown below:

1. A problematic situation confronts the community.
   An example could be the distance of a community from a commercial centre; the absence of a general goods store and the lack of capital among individual entrepreneurs.
2. An interested group starting from informal encounters pursues the discussion of the problem.

3. The group decides to undertake a learning programme.
   Using the above example the group may constitute themselves into a learning group and decide to go through a learning programme on entrepreneurship, particularly in the organization of a simple consumer's co-operative.
4. The group chooses its group leader.
5. The group prepares and undertakes the learning programme.

4. RESOURCE PERSONS

A learning group may want to solicit the assistance of one or more resource persons for the teaching of specific knowledge and skills (VIS or BLS).

Outside resource persons can be selected from wherever they are available, but will most probably come either from the community itself, communities in adjacent neighbourhoods or from governmental or private agencies at the local or regional level. The preparation of a resource map specifying expertise and agencies available (names, addresses, telephone numbers) in the region may be helpful in identifying and inviting resource persons.

What is required to motivate potential resource persons to join in the learning programmes? On some occasions, motivation is idealistic and based on moral values of co-operation and sharing. Such resource persons are willing to share their knowledge and skills with others in return for social and psychological recognition while material awards are not expected. More often, however, motivation is more utilitarian, and the resource person has to be paid.

Govermental agency personnel already receive salaries and may have specified duties to provide knowledge and information. In such a case the learning group will do well to approach the agency and negotiate for assistance. The group will have to solve the problem of getting access to these agencies and services. That in itself is a basic life skill.

Private individuals and institutions will usually ask for a fee, which requires either financial inputs by the group itself, or donations from other funds. The latter again requires negotiating and skills in getting assistance.

The field observations showed that resource persons and sector agencies quite often start from their own ideas on approaches and solutions, which are not necessarily in line with the needs of the learner.

To overcome this problem, training and information on the DELSILIFE assumptions and principles seems to be required, specially on the principle that solutions have to be sought based on the situation and potentialities of the learners. It may be helpful to provide the resource persons with the manuals of the DELSILIFE package. Some guidance by the initiators and group leaders will likewise help the resource persons.

5. THE GROUP LEADER

Each learning group has a group leader chosen by the members. He is the one that is intimately involved in the conduct of the learning programme. Since it is hypothesized that leadership is emergent, shared and shifting, a specific learning group may have different group leaders at various times. Moreover, group leaders from different neighbourhoods may share their expertise with other groups (in a sense act as resource persons). Or else, as a group goes through a learning programme some members may manifest leadership qualities and proceed to lead their own groups.

A pattern developed in which the small neighbourhood areas (SNAs) chose a leader for the entire neighbourhood (in some instances a vice-leader). The choice of the SNA leader was effected either by the residents or by the community council in consultation with neighbourhood residents.

This pattern, however, does not preclude the learning groups within an SNA electing their own learning leader. In a small rural community, it is easy to identify those who are held in high esteem by their fellow villagers because they possess some technical knowledge, have good public relations, and have manifested an interest in rendering community service. Those to be trained should also be sufficiently literate. This is a unique feature of the DELSILIFE learning programme - the fact that a group leader, chosen by the participants themselves, provides the necessary leadership to the group. It is only when a learning programme entails the learning of a skill for which there is no local expertise that a resource person from outside the community is called in to help.

6. TYPES OF LEARNING PROGRAMMES

The variety of learning programmes in the four project sites has made it possible to categorize them into three types. The categories are arbitrary, but they emphasize DELSILIFE's goal of improving the quality of life through self-reliance by training basic life skills and vertical instrumental skills. The examples show the more significant results or effects of the learning programmes.

Type I - *Essentially a basic life skills (BLS) learning programme*

In this type of learning programme the greater or more obvious objective is either to develop or strengthen basic life skills already possessed. More than one BLS may be involved. Examples:

1. A learning programme for mothers.

   Problem/Need: The mothers are farm workers: they have young children but do not have baby-sitters. They are also in need of

knowing proper child-care practices.

Results: In one site (Thailand) a day-care centre was organized. In another site (Philippines) a kindergarten class was opened and integrated with the local elementary school.
The infants in the day-care centre were assured of adequate food and care in the absence of their mothers.

2. A DCC is confronted with the problem of what to do with a donation of money by visitors impressed with their efforts at helping themselves.
The donors specified that sewing machines be bought. Instead the DCC applied the DELSILIFE approach of group problem-solving.

Results: The DCC used the money to purchase majority shares of a non-operating (but registered) consumer's co-operative in order to revitalize it. The immediate aim of the co-operative was to serve the needs of the members who were mainly small hog raisers. The co-operative has since expanded to a multi-purpose co-operative including credit lending.

Type II - *Essentially a vertical instrumental skills (VIS) programme*

This type of programme aims at developing specific sectoral economic-oriented livelihood skills. The learning session formula calls for integration of literacy, numeracy, problem-solving and other basic life skills when ever and wherever found appropriate. The examples illustrate the fact that VIS-type learning programmes in fact demand the exercise of, or develop different BLS to be eventually effective. This kind of learning programme is obviously economic-oriented. The use of the developed skill will allow the learner to either earn money or become self-reliant and thus save money. Examples:

VIS TYPE	:	BLS integrated
1. Smoking fish	:	Record keeping Marketing strategies Simple accounting procedures Simple experimentation
2. Embroidery	:	Co-operative production and marketing Record keeping Independence from middlemen

3.	Food preservation	:	Measurement Literacy (Reading) Knowledge of dietary needs Knowledge of nutritive values of food Following directions
4.	Weaving	:	Artistry Neighbourliness Co-operation

The learning session formula calls for the integration of literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving skills. It is up to the group leader to determine the right moment for injecting a literacy/ numeracy component.
Some sessions of learning programmes lend themselves more to the integration of literacy, others of numeracy. Problem-solving is integrated in two ways:

1. through contrived activities and materials;
2. through contact or actual facing with real life problems.

Type III - *Integrated programmes*

This type illustrates the application of the DELSILIFE process by the community (under the leadership of the DELSILIFE Community Council) in the solution of a common community problem. The example is that of the community of Ban Tab-chang, Thailand. The outline presentation does not do justice to the entire process of solving a very urgent and crucial village problem.

The problem: Lack of adequate sanitary water supply.

The situation:
1. The main sources of water for all purposes are open ponds.
2. People store water in earthenware and concrete jars which are expensive.
3. Rain is scarce in the area.

The solution: In Phase A of project DELSILIFE the villagers engaged in strictly VIS learning programmes:

Learning Programme	: BLS Integrated
1. Construction of a model for small concrete jars	: Measurement Following directions
2. Construction of water filters	: Measurement Following directions Applications of sanitary measures
3. Construction of large concrete jars	: Marketing Planning Co-operation/sharing
4. Construction of galvanized iron sheet covers	: Specialization Accounting/Record keeping

The construction of small concrete jars was simply to learn the basic skills. The construction of large concrete jars was virtually a commercial project. The construction of galvanized iron sheet covers was an outgrowth of the construction of the large concrete jars. Aside from jar covers trimmings of the galvanized iron sheets were made into other articles - such as sprinkling cans.

The construction of water containers was only part of the solution to the water problem. During Phase B the DCC turned its attention to the two open ponds which are the main sources of water for the entire village.

Activities	: BLS Integrated
1. Deepening the ponds	: Seeking government support
2. Fish propagation	: Technical knowledge
3. Gardening vegetables/flowers/ trees on dykes	: Conservation (fish, wild life and culture) Improved diet Co-operation Appreciation of nature Community pride Co-operative planning Sharing with neighbours Marketing strategies

7. A FINAL WORD

The term 'learning programme' emphasizes the educational nature of the intervention system that is DELSILIFE. Whether in small neighbourhood learning groups or in the community council, the acquisition of problem-solving skills through learning programmes is vital since these are capability-building and empowering skills that people need to cope with the demands of their physical and social environment.

Since DELSILIFE is an educational intervention system, and since it looks to people as the source of initiative, it makes little demand, if any, on external funding. Conventional community developers may find this a disadvantage and even a deterrent to 'community development'. This is mainly because 'community development' has for so long been associated with massive funding for infrastructure projects, project personnel, and the dole-outs of materials and resources. This is one of the reasons why only few communities are reached by development efforts, or why efforts are continually identified as 'projects' which connote a beginning and an end. DELSILIFE claims that it may succeed in spite of the absence of such inputs. With its bottom-up initiative, DELSILIFE is able to draw to a community top-down development programmes, and the two meet more than half way. It enduces its users to exercise their rights in seeking legitimate assistance from government and NGOs, which in the first place may have been initially earmarked for availment by people.

Notes

1. The number of households per SNA varied considerably among the four sites, from merely of 13 to as many as 100.

2. Such as: 'child care', 'hollow block making', 'basket weaving', 'nutrition'.

Growing vegetables on the dykes of the village fishpond, Ban Tab-chang, Thailand
Photo: Ad Boeren

IV.
First Hand Experiences of a Delsilife Initiator

Wisanee Siltragool

1. INTRODUCTION

DELSILIFE first came into my life when I was organizing a seminar for non-formal education (NFE) personnel on the production and development of materials for villagers. The seminar took place at the regional NFE centre in the North-East of Thailand. All learning materials displayed and presented were quite interesting. To me it seemed, however, that the most attractive ones were those of project DELSILIFE, presented by the secretariat team of the project.

I noticed that they were very simple materials. The texts were written on big pieces of paper with colour magic pens. There were also simple drawings. When I asked about the process of developing these materials, I found out that the texts had originated from the training of villagers. Some quotations of villagers, including their names, appeared in the materials. We were informed that during the training these materials were displayed in the temple hall which served as a training place.

In the course of the seminar the secretariat team of the project explained the DELSILIFE approach, its philosophy, methodology and expected outcomes, which were quite interesting. There were many things about DELSILIFE that I wished to learn.

I was impressed by the DELSILIFE staff. They seemed to me very good people to work with. I had more reasons for wanting to join the project. I felt uncomfortable working for villagers while being far away from them. I wanted to learn more about the target groups of NFE and the only way to do so was to work at the grass-roots level.

For these reasons I decided to move from the regional centre to the provincial centre, and to become deeply involved in project DELSILIFE. I spent most of my time with the villagers and at the provincial NFE centre during Phase B of the project.

2. REACTIONS OF THE VILLAGERS

I worked as a curriculum planner, material developer and also as an initiator during these two years. I had the opportunity to be a close witness of the

reactions of the people to the approach. Reactions varied from one person to the next, and also from one group to another. Some reactions were prompted by expectations about the benefits of the project. Some villagers were ready to co-operate while others were reluctant to be involved. It appeared that reactions to the project were also influenced by opinions of the initiator who represented the project. Differences in background and life-style between the initiator and the villagers may sometimes create doubt, sometimes trust. The main factors which influenced reactions were the following:

1. The initiator is a government official or a representative of an outside organization. By nature or by social structure a government official will be more highly respected by the people. For this reason the initiator of project DELSILIFE was accepted and respected. Moreover, the people were informed about the project many times, about the activities and about the benefits they might get. These matters had positive effects on people's reactions.
2. The difference in dress. Even though the initiator tried to dress like a common person, not in official uniform, still there were differences. People were cautious in dealing with the initiator. We noticed that when we visited their homes we were welcomed inside their houses. Instead of sitting down on a piece of wood in front of the house, they prepared a mat for us inside the house. Even though it showed their hospitality, the formal character of the reception made us feel uneasy.
3. Reactions to language. The language of the initiators was different from that of the people, although the dialect used in the village of Tab-chang was not too difficult to understand. Fortunately one of the project staff could speak the local language, which considerably increased our prestige. This also contributed to our warm welcome by the people.

As one of the initiators in the village of Tab-chang I was impressed by their positive reactions. The people were modest and helpful. They were eager to learn and join in the activities. They easily made our acquaintance and made us feel welcome. We could walk from house to house without feeling strangers. They became friendly with us after a short talk and were willing to give us the information we needed.

3. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

Working as staff members and initiators of project DELSILIFE we encountered a number of problems. There were problems related to the nature of the DELSILIFE system. DELSILIFE was different from other approaches I happened to know. I had to acquaint myself with concepts unfamiliar to me, such as basic life skills, self-reliance, people participation etc. Even though they were

explained, they remained abstract notions to me for some time. The initiator not only had to understand these concepts thoroughly but was also expected to introduce and test them with the villagers, all in a short period of time.

There was the problem of self-adjustment: the initiator stepped into the village in the role of the educated outsider. Differences in culture, standard of living, language, food, etc. were apparent. The initiator needed to adjust to local life: instead of taking a shower twice a day, he/she had to be content with only one bath a day because of the shortage of water; instead of frequenting restaurants, the initiator had to be content with a dish of noodles in the local food store. The initiator was expected to live like common people and, frankly speaking, it was not always easy.

The lack of facilities was another problem to the initiator. When working in Tab-chang I intended to stay with the villagers for a few months. I did stay in the village, but every now and then I came to the city to get something or to refresh myself.

Also there was a great eagerness among the initiators to observe immediate changes in the village. Being an outsider testing the DELSILIFE approach I really wanted to see a big movement among the people. I wanted to see some development in the village taking place as soon as possible. A number of factors contributed to this impatience: time constraints, because the experimental phase of the project was limited to two years; feelings of solidarity with the people; and, to be honest, the wish to prove competency in my work. A fourth and important reason was in the minds of the villagers and their leaders. They easily accepted the imported ideas because they did not want to lose face, but they failed to analyse these ideas properly. Practice then revealed that they were not ready for change, which halted the development process.

Lastly, there were some problems of co-ordination and co-operation with the agencies servicing the village. The initiators had to deal with at least four government officials at the village level. These were civil servants from the Ministries of the Interior, Health, Agriculture, and also local teachers. They carried out their own scheduled activities and had their own style of working. Conflicts could easily arise when co-operation was lacking.

4. INTRODUCTION AND TRAINING

In order to bring DELSILIFE to the people the staff of DELSILIFE need to take a number of steps. Firstly a meeting is organized at the provincial level. The purpose of this meeting is to introduce DELSILIFE to provincial members of different agencies, so that they understand the system and may inform their officials about it at district and sub-district levels. In Thailand the provincial governor is the chairperson of the meeting and the committee.

Then follows the training of the community committee. This training is important, its purpose being to introduce the project to the leaders and at the

same time to promote their leadership qualities. During the training they learn about community development, its ideas and methods, about the planning of learning activities, about needs assessment, resource persons, attracting learners, and about simple evaluation. We found that committee members who had been trained were eager to do something for their community. They became more co-operative. They were able to contact agencies to seek help and were successful in raising the people for the sake of community development.

The installation of group leaders is another important feature of DELSI-LIFE. Group leaders organize learning groups according to the problems of the community and the needs of the people. They facilitate communication between the village leader and the people. Therefore, the proper selection and training of group leaders is of critical importance. In the selection of the group leaders we used two procedures:

1. We conducted a meeting among villagers and community leaders and explained to them the roles and responsibilities of a group leader. Then we let the meeting decide on the selection of group leaders. In using this procedure we found that most of the nominees were people related to the village leaders.
2. We divided the community into clusters (7-10 households) according to the geography of the village. We let the people in each cluster discuss among themselves and decide who should be leader of the cluster. This person would act as the group leader. This proved to be a more effective selection method because the groups in each cluster are led by their own representative and they try to compete with groups in other clusters. The leaders selected in this manner also tend to be more co-operative in activities aimed at developing the community as a whole.

Well-trained group leaders are an asset to the community. As was mentioned before, they facilitate communication between the village chief and the people. They assist the village chief in discussing problems, in the planning and conduct of activities. Besides, through training more people in the village develop leadership skills.

In order to develop potential group leaders they need to be trained in various ways. The leaders in Tab-chang were exposed to training courses and they were taken on study tours to other villages to see development activities and exchange ideas with village leaders.

After they had received their basic training group leaders were encouraged to organize learning groups. The learning programmes mostly dealt with vocational training and shared the following characteristics:

1. They were based on the interests and needs of the people, addressing village problems.

2. The topics were tuned to the resources and conditions of the community, i.e. the learning programmes needed little investment, the skills were not too difficult for villagers to learn, marketing of the resulting skills or products was relatively easy, and resources for the training were near at hand.
3. The programmes improved the quality of life of the people in some way or another, e.g. health, income, living environment, etc.
4. Community leaders were involved in programme planning and evaluation.
5. Basic life skills such as problem-solving, planning, management, marketing, literacy, numeracy, risk estimation etc. were integrated in the learning programmes.

5. WHAT MAKES AN INITIATOR SUCCESSFUL?

Looking back at our experiences as initiators for DELSILIFE it seems that an initiator has to meet a number of conditions in order to be successful. He or she should:

1. be willing to work at a grass-roots level and to work without close supervision;
2. possess considerable self-discipline;
3. have some educational background in community development and adult education;
4. be able to communicate with local people, and preferably speak the local language;
5. be able to adjust him/herself to common people and village life;
6. be creative and enterprising;
7. possess skills in problem-solving and be able to encourage the people to solve their problems;
8. be an honest person and have the best in mind for the villagers;
9. be strong and healthy;
10. have the capability to build good human relationships and maintain contact with agencies and authorities; and,
11. ensure efficient support from the implementing organization.

6. STRIKING MEMORIES

During my two years in Tab-chang I collected many experiences. Two of them I would like to recall here, because they made a special impression on me. The first one regards the effort to involve the poorest people in the village in the learning programmes. Once I tried to encourage a very poor man to join a metal welding programme. It seemed to me that with some training he should be able to raise his income. I tried to make him see the benefits of this training but he refused to join. He had a number of reasons for his negative decision: since he

was a labourer in a tapioca field and worked all day he had no time to follow a training course; he had no money to spare for buying the necessary training materials; besides, he felt uncomfortable and shy having to be one of a learners' group.

Before the learning programme started I discussed the matter with the village head and asked him to encourage the man and also to tell him that he did not have to pay for the materials because the programme was supported by a non-government organization. In spite of the village head's efforts he still did not come. I was disappointed.

This experience made it clear to me that the poorest in the community need to be approached in a special and appropriate way in order to get them involved in developent activities. It seems that this group needs training courses of short duration, conducted at times which suit their daily routine. They must be supported with materials they can not afford to buy and they require special attention from the trainer to prevent premature drop-out.

The second experience is a happier one and deals with the development of training materials for the learning programmes. At that time many villagers experienced problems in chicken raising. There were diseases and many chickens had died. So we decided to organize a learning course in chicken raising. It was a one night's course and we asked our friend, a sub-district agriculturalist, to be the resource person. To me it seemed a successful course. There were almost twenty people, most of whom shared the same problems. The topics were listed on a blackboard, following the comments and questions of the people and the list was then discussed by the meeting. The discussion was very lively and continued to late that night. We as initiators took notes of the points that were raised. On the basis of these notes we developed a simple booklet on chicken raising under local conditions, and disseminated this among the participants. The villagers were very appreciative of the material because the contents reflected their discussion of the topic. Later on I took this booklet to the Department of Non-formal Education and had it published in more than ten thousand copies for the literacy promotion project. The cover explains that the contents were put forward by the villagers of Tab-chang, also mentioning the name of the resource person. I always pick it up as a case study of material development with and for villagers.

V.
Delsilife: An Intervention Model for Non-Formal Learning

Gerben van der Molen

1. DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS

What is so special about the DELSILIFE approach? The project is concerned with non-formal education, mainly intended for adults. A thorough inventory of the approaches and programmes, and comparisons of their contents would go beyond the scope of the present paper, however desirable and profitable it might be. But even a brief comparison with the UNESCO experimental functional literacy programme (UNESCO, 1976) shows that learning needs in the latter are based much more on 'objective-scientific' analyses then in the DELSILIFE approach, where the principle of subjective need identification is central. Under the former approach, scientists make a survey of a village or district, ascertain the characteristics and problems of the social and physical environment on which the needs for change or improvement are based; it is from these that the learning needs are deduced. This approach also takes into account official development plans undertaken by the government.

Compared with Paulo Freire's emphasis on literacy as a means of consciousness raising and liberation from oppression, the DELSILIFE terminology is less political and revolutionary (Freire, 1971). Its basic considerations are firmly rooted in systems theory and a functionalistic model of harmonious re' tionships. Freire's views are based on a conflict model, stressing the inequality of different classes and the injustice done to deprived groups. Both approaches show an evident belief in the usefulness of awareness raising as a means in progress: in DELSILIFE primarily in a socio-economic sense; Freire rather in a political sense; consequently both may be denoted as positive[1]. DELSILIFE's philosophy implies the existence of a political margin for the rural poor to better their conditions provided they make an effort and, moreover, learn how to identify and to solve their problems. The DELSILIFE project is concerned mainly with diminishing the degree of dependence, by raising people's capacities with respect to participation, problem solving and planning. The question is how big that margin really is, and in how far is it a matter of wishful thinking.

Non-formal adult education is no novel phenomenon in the pilot countries. Authorities as well as private institutions have been at work in this field, both by

way of experiment and as regular programmes[2]. DELSILIFE was not intended to be an entirely new programme, nor a quite different approach. Rather, it was meant as an attempt to devise a new method which will hopefully prove effective: "INNOTECH presents an INNOTECH-designed approach (...) which may not be entirely original but which makes use of some aspects of approaches used in different parts of the world" (INNOTECH, 1982).

From a development-strategic point of view DELSILIFE intervenes on the level of individuals and small groups of the community. There is no immediate intervention in macro-economic, social or political relations on the regional, national or international levels, which is the subject of much discussion and writing on development. In addition, DELSILIFE is based on a bottom-up approach, on what the people themselves regard as essential. In principle, it offers an alternative to top-down planning and government programmes. Indeed, it could bring about a better use of those programmes: by means of problem identification and bottom-up planning government programmes are applied only when the individual, family or community is ready to make use of them, and programme contents are adapted to the people's opinion of what is appropriate and necessary.

2. LEARNING NEEDS

One of the principles central to DELSILIFE is that the target group identifies its own problems and defines its learning needs which can be translated into learning objectives and programmes. During Phase B field staff in the villages made a survey of learning needs. By means of participatory observation, group discussion, structured as well as unstructured interviews, each village yielded a specified list of learning needs with which to determine concrete learning activities in the second stage of the project. For example, Loma de Gato, the test-village in the Philippines, produced the following list of priorities:

1. to develop literacy and numeracy skills;
2. to acquire household management knowledge and skills;
3. to acquire knowledge of health and nutrition;
4. to learn additional sewing skills;
5. to acquire additional skills in livestock raising;
6. to improve farming technology (rice and vegetable cultivation);
7. to learn about the principles, operation and management of co-operatives;
8. to learn about marketing, loan associations, banking;
9. to acquire leadership/followership skills;
10. to improve the knowledge of family, community, country and government.

It may be concluded from the results that through outside intervention it is possible to make people name their needs or wishes. In this respect DELSILIFE answers the suggestions made in the report of the Faure committee (Faure, 1974) which pronounced itself in favour of a flexible approach to education "no longer conceived as the traditional and hierarchical one-way system of formal education, but as a much better adapted formal system connected with all sorts of non-formal and out-of-school education adapted to all sorts of groups, categories and individuals who have access and opportunity to learn whenever they want, during their whole life" (Van der Molen, 1982).

Experience with DELSILIFE has also shown that the identification of problems and learning needs is a vital learning process in itself and creates a starting-point for further learning. Such was the experience in Malaysia, for example. Once a number of specific programmes also came from the people themselves (i.e. without involvement of the project staff). This shows that educational demand is quite often the result of educational supply, rather than the other way around. It seems therefore that the creation of learning groups and learning programmes is a rather fluid and flexible process and does not follow strict rules. It is a question of creatively discussing options, wishes and possibilities and of assessing the potential for implementation (Van der Molen, 1983).

The identification of learning needs, therefore, is a permanent process. In the four experimental villages, the preliminary research yielded a number of priorities which, in the implementation stage some six months later, proved to have already been altered.

In discussions of project experiences among field staff, INNOTECH and CESO, it was realized that a conceptual distinction existed between, on the one hand, the usual instrumental knowledge and skills, and basic life skills on the other hand. For detailed information on the nature of basic life skills and vertical instrumental skills, on how they are related and integrated into the learning programmes, we refer to other articles included in this volume.

3. THE PRACTICE OF LEARNING CONTENT

The learning needs in the Philippine village listed above reveal the following basic life skills: literacy, household management (including elementary bookkeeping), organization and management of co-operatives, knowledge of market and finance, leadership.

In actual practice during Phase B of the project, however, the learning groups that were called into being were chiefly aimed at vertical learning. In the Philippines, for instance, there were groups for learning about food preparation, wood carving and personal hygiene. In Malaysia they studied banana cultivation, mat weaving, tailoring and various cultural activities (groups of drummers, dancers, and religious singers). Thailand had workshops for fishery, beekeeping, water storage, food preservation and compost making.

The first explanation for these strictly sector-oriented workshops lies in the economic poverty of the village people. To be able to earn additional income through learning specific skills is their absolute priority. In Malaysia the obviously greater emphasis on cultural activities reflects the relatively better economic situation of that village. Here, the population is less interested in marginal additional income possibilities because the tillage of rice fields and rubber plantation allows little spare time and is relatively lucrative. The inhabitants of the Malay village, however, were interested in larger-scale economic projects such as cane production. This project was not carried out, due to the lack of basic life skills in finance, organization, management and marketing. By contrast, a learning group on banana growing was successful after the problem of sales had been settled.

Another reason why the learning programmes were so strictly oriented towards basic needs and specific sectors is non-familiarity with basic life skills. Topics such as problem-solving, planning, organization, management, finance, negotiating, the use of information etc. are hardly if ever mentioned in formal education in both developing and affluent countries. They are rarely considered as essential subjects. Consequently curricula or learning materials are virtually lacking. One exception is formed by the many training programmes and courses for senior staff in the civil service and private organizations, particularly in western countries. Education and training in this field is usually out-of-school and post-academic, and is largely supplied by private institutions with commercial goals (Feltmann, 1983). In western business enterprises, the use of basic life skills is recognized as a first requisite for economic success (Friese, 1983:5). It is owing to the lack of familiarity with these subjects in rural areas in developing countries that they are not easily recognized as learning needs.

But the fact remains that there is a shortage of curricula in this field, in contrast to that of vertical learning needs for which several countries have textbooks and programmes available. With the exception of literacy, the majority of programmes for non-formal adult education are scarcely concerned with basic life skills. Some programmes exclusively deal with reading, writing and arithmetic, while others are aimed merely at vocational and technical skills. Some are a combination of the two, for instance UNESCO's experimental functional literacy programme (UNESCO, 1976). In one curriculum, for instance, 'problem solving' was one of the subjects, yet no specific learning materials were developed for it. The assumption was that skills in problem solving were acquired automatically and implicitlly as a result of training technical skills[3].

4. THE ROLE OF BASIC LIFE SKILLS

The relevance of basic life skills can be illustrated by several examples, especially of economic learning programmes which are intended to help participants to earn additional income. During their training, the group leaders of the Thai

village visited surrounding villages in order to get ideas about possible development activities, one of which was fish raising. When this had been suggested in the village, a group of some 15 people decided to form a learning group for fish raising. Without the existence of an explicit learning programme about basic life skills, the group managed to deal successfully with a number of problems concerned with management, organization, planning and finance. The members of the group organized themselves into a committee which carried out successful negotiations with government officials of the Agricultural Information Service about financial and material support, which was granted them for a period of three years, being decreased proportionally each year. By the end of that term the project was expected to run independently. One aspect of the government support was to train the group in fish raising techniques. For this purpose the entire group spent three days in the provincial capital, after which an extension worker paid several visits to the village.

This exemplifies that the vertical skills and knowledge with respect to fish raising are by no means all there is to know about actually running a hatchery. This requires answers to questions about the most suitable form of organization (a firm, a co-operative, a committee, individual undertaking), what activities must be planned and carried out, how the business is to be financed (private money, loans, subsidies, on what conditions), where to find a market, for what price to sell, what to do with profit or loss (as to the last question, it had been decided that part of the profit would be reserved for matters of general interest in the village). The committee had also decided to teach fish raising techniques to other villagers who wished to learn, particularly in order to start hatching in the irrigated rice fields.

This was a case in which the explicit instruction of basic life skills did not seem necessary as the people looked for answers without being prompted. Another example shows that greater awareness of these problems and explicit instruction may nevertheless be essential. In the Malay village a group of young men suggested to start exploiting bamboo and cane-work, mainly for simple furniture. Initially, discussions with the DELSILIFE project director were restricted to the question of where to find a resource person who might be able and willing to teach them the technical aspects of cane-work. Presently the question was raised what might be required in the nature of investments in equipment and buildings, and where the products might be sold. Our suggestion was to translate all the problematic aspects of cane production into a curriculum, so that the ins and outs of management, organization, finance, marketing and salesmanship could be dealt with in a number of sessions with the assistance, if necessary, of invited experts (resource persons) from outside the village. Should the project prove feasible and paying, during and after these sessions, a decision could be reached about further activities with regard to the technical aspects of cane production. If not, little would have been lost in the way of time, energy and financial means. Due to changes of project staff, however, this plan was not

carried out consistently. At any rate it seems to have been decided rather rashly that the project would be impossible financially. A government institution was asked to calculate the required investments. It made no more than one suggestion, which was technically rather complex and too expensive for the members of the group. The plan was consequently given up.

In this case further negotiations ought to have been held with the consulting officials so that alternative calculations might have been made based on the economic conditions of the participants. Such negotiations are too infrequent because of cultural and power relations, but equally because of a lack of familiarity and of experience.

The fact that increased awareness creates a tendency to ask more questions, is evident from the Indonesian example. Here several villagers had to be dragged almost literally into a government office by the project staff so that they might gain practical experience in dealing with officials. This single on-the-job training session in basic life skills sufficed to remove their fears and barriers. From then on, they applied to the authorities of their own accord.

Other examples of basic life skills are cost calculation and marketing. With some production-oriented learning groups (commercial food preparation in the Philippines, and cabinet making in Indonesia), it appeared that the producers failed to charge investments and expenses accurately, thus running the risk of making a loss rather than a profit. The market and competition element is an essential factor, but apparently the participants had insufficient knowledge of the relationship between expenses, effort and profit. If they had known more, they would have been able to make a realistic assessment of the efforts. The western notion that time is money, that working time is an investment to be passed on to the selling price, does not seem to mean much to the rural inhabitant. This may be due to their experience from time immemorial of having to dedicate their services to the more powerful classes in return for extremely low payments. Learning about the principles of expense calculation, however, makes them more aware of investment and effort and may ensure more accurate price fixing and higher income.

5. LIFE SKILLS AND CULTURAL IDENTITY

This discussion also raises the question of whether the basic life skills are a mere reflection of western values of rationality, ways of thinking and acting. This relates to the problem of cultural identity and exogenous influences on culture[4]. To raise this question is easier than to answer it. It requires first of all a study of indigenous values and customs with respect to problem solving, planning, negotiation, etc. Even if the concepts are unknown to the people concerned, their views and behaviour can be analysed and accounted for on the grounds of cultural factors as tradition, custom, religion, of structural factors such as power relations, and sometimes on the grounds of individual psychological traits. Our

main thesis is that wherever people live, problem solving, planning, negotiation etc. occur. This becomes explicit in DELSILIFE and basic life skills come to be seen as learned behaviour. This implies a possibility to learn different ways of behaviour that are more effective in getting things done in the interest of the individual, the family and the community. It is true that this implies a change of behaviour, or loss of cultural identity. It is too late because there is no community left which is entirely closed off from the outside world. Any measures taken, or events that occur in the district, province or state are bound to affect village life, which is even influenced by international relations: the income of the tapioca farmers in the Thai village is directly subjected to the price that Dutch importers are willing to pay for their product [5].

Almost all communities are showered with government programmes of various kinds, however defective they may be, and are approached by private business to buy and sell products. Moreover, it is wrong to reject a more explicit and planned way of problem solving while government and private institutions approaching the community make use of those skills to a much greater extent. This puts the village community at a disadvantage. The acquisition of more effective skills means less vulnerability and dependence as regards the world without[6]. This might be essential to maintain confidence and a set of significant cultural elements. Apart from this, basic life skills are shared unequally even within a village or community, and vary according to economic position, even though the latter may be unfavourable for almost everyone.

6. LIFE SKILLS AND POWER RELATIONS

Another important question is whether the absence or possession of basic life skills is perhaps no more than a function or a reflection of existing power relations among individuals, groups and strata. There may be some truth in this: power relations can probably be partly explained by a discrepancy in the control of basic life skills. Nevertheless, experiences in the four pilot villages disproved the absoluteness of this fact, when it appeared that changes were certainly possible as a result of greater awareness and better planning. There is a vast area of development possibilities in which power relations are no immediate barrier; if they are, another possibility of success lies in negotiation and planning capacities. This can be illustrated by several examples. In Malaysia a small group of women had started a workshop for weaving mats. A local old woman, who was an expert weaver, was prepared to let the younger women have the benefit of her skill. Before long they were faced with the problem of finding a market: who was going to buy their products? The first solution was the least realistic: outsiders who happened to make a passing visit, like myself, were accosted. It was an unrealistic solution since the number of visitors from the town or from abroad is extremely limited. The point was to find a more regular market. Several months later, after a series of interviews with a government consulting institution, they

succeeded in selling their products to a government-owned handicraft centre in Kuala Lumpur on a permanent basis. In Indonesia a discussion on a village survey made the inhabitants realize that there were more women than men living in the village, whereas no women were represented in the community council (*Lembaga Ketahanan Masyrakat Desa*, or LKMD). After talking the matter over in the LKMD they decided that a particular women's association was to have a seat. The absence of women in the council was evidently a matter of habit rather than the result of hostile intentions on the part of the male population.

7. LEARNING AS A MEANS OF PROBLEM SOLVING

The example of women's representation introduces the relationship between identification of a problem and the choice of a solution. In the original DELSI-LIFE approach an identified problem is translated into a learning problem, i.e. one aims at finding a solution through learning. Frequently, however, the answer to a problem is not in the formulation of learning needs and the creation of a learning group, but in the use of other means. We are then concerned with individual as well as community problems in the nature of medical care, infrastructure, water supply, electricity, etc. When the problem is the absence of women in the LKMD, the creation of a learning group will obviously have less immediate result than the direct admission of women. In spite of this a great many identified problems can be translated into learning programmes. In the present case, one might think of a programme on the role and functioning of the LKMD and other services, training both men and women to play a suitable role in them.

In Thailand several interesting examples can be found of how community problems have been tackled through learning groups. The village had a serious lack of water in times of drought and storage facilities were needed to ensure sufficient water at all times. For this purpose, several learning groups were formed and trained in making storage jars with simple techniques and inexpensive materials. The idea was that each house in the village should have a number of jars, either by taking part in the production or by purchasing from the group. This is how the villagers attempted to solve their water problem unaided, in which case the creation of a learning group seemed a realistic and effective approach. An alternative solution would have been to turn to the authorities and to ask for a better water supply from outside the village, tapping the existing irrigation canal, but this would have increased their dependence on decisions taken elsewhere. Yet this too was an alternative that the inhabitants wanted to include. The lack of medicines in the village was also dealt with by means of a learning group. A number of inhabitants joined in a co-operative, deposited money for the purchase of medicine, and were instructed as to its use and distribution, in return for which they charged a small fee. The success of the co-operative was completed by accurate bookkeeping.

8. PROSPECTS

The DELSILIFE approach enables better use to be made of government programmes of all kinds, and of the total supply of outside information, goods, services, and technology. Needs are defined internally, bottom-up, not externally and top-down. Naturally this implies the need for a change of attitude of all service institutions, which is undoubtedly a longterm process. Some top officials in government institutions, however, show growing awareness of this necessity. They are gradually coming to realise that many government interventions are not adapted to local needs and conditions, and that great waste may be avoided by more decentralization of decisions. Moreover, understanding is growing of the fact that the authorities simply lack the funds, materials and staff necessary to solve development problems effectively, and that local resources and initiatives should be allowed much more scope. The DELSILIFE approach may offer a positive contribution in this context.

Notes

1. Conscientization and consciousness are predominant in Freire's terminology. In INNOTECH's vocabulary the synonym awareness prevails.

2. Some examples are given in: (a) W.P. Napitupulu, *Illiteracy eradication programme in Indonesia* (Jakarta, 1981); (b) Indonesia: implementation of a large-scale nonformal education project (Amherst/Jakarta, 1982); (c) F.G. Barnardino and M.M. Ramos, Planning nonformal education, *Courier* (Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education) no. 27, April 1983 p. 1-5.; (d) Final report of the regional conference on non-formal education, convened by SEAMES Bangkok 16-21 August 1976 (Bangkok, 1976); (e) T. Neville Postlethwaite and R. Murray Thomas (eds.), *Schooling in the Asian region: primary and secondary education in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand* (Oxford, 1980); (f) M. Ahmed and Ph. H. Coombs (eds.), *Education for rural development, case studies for planners* (New York, 1975).
3. See: C.J. Leven et al., Work oriented adult literacy pilot project in Iran, automotive maintenanc and repair (Esfahan, 1970).
   An example of learning about problem identification, problem solving and planning by means of practical exercises can be found in: Rajesh Tandon, Participatory training of marginal farmers, published in: Om Shrivastara and Rajesh Tandon (eds.), *Participatory training for rural development* (Udaipur, 1982, p. 109-128).

4. For further discussion, see the chapters by L. Dubbeldam, C.P. Epskamp and A. Kater, in: C.P. Epskamp (ed.), *Education and the development of cultural identity* (CESO, The Hague, 1984).
5. The major part of Thailand's tapioca export is imported into EEC-countries through The Netherlands.
6. A more profound identification of problems will ultimately lead to the analysis of inequality in society. In all likelihood this is one of the reasons why little emphasis is placed on basic life skills in learning programmes. See: R. Kidd and M. Byram, Demystifying pseudo-Freirian development: the case of Laedza Batanani, *Community Development Journal*, Vol. 17. No. 2, April 1982, p. 101.

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VI.
Towards a Conceptual Framework of Adult Basic Life Skill Training in the Delsilife Project

Kees P. Epskamp

1. INTRODUCTION

Studies on education, culture and productive life are primarily concerned with all manner of practical training for specific skills, on lower and intermediate levels, and catering for less privileged groups in society. They are skills which are essential for improving the quality of personal life as well as the development of the community as a whole. These studies discriminate between vocational, technical, non-technical and commercial skills.

The two categories are chiefly related to self-actualization within productive life. In formal education this is realized in the context of vocational, technical and commercial training. Non-formal education operates with the didactic system of the workshop in the context of adult education.

Another feature of these studies is the development of more general 'life' skills and an enhanced awareness concerning labour, culture and society. This includes social skills as well as expressive skills. The central issue in all these studies is to explore ways of learning as creative processes of immediate problem solving. Of course the existing and functional didactic styles will play an important role in the culture at hand, since all those forms of practical training are based on the transmission of indigenous skills and knowledge prevalent from time immemorial.

According to Bateson (1973: 115 and 140) the most important learning process is people 'learning to learn'. This is possible because they learn to see the similarities and the differences between past, immediate and future problems. They learn to spot differences between one problem and the next. People "become more and more skilled in the solving of problems", according to Bateson by "acquiring 'insight' into the contexts of problem solving". According to him, the advantage of skills is the ability to do things without thinking about them. They become a habit, or, as it is sometimes called, a 'second nature'. Skills, therefore, are a prerequisite for the economy of conscious thought.

2. QUALITY OF LIFE IMPROVED BY TRAINING BASIC LIFE SKILLS

The DELSILIFE approach aims at improving sustainable problem-solving capacities in communities by activating a process of learning among the rural poor, thus enabling them to alter their own circumstances. One of the core elements of this educational intervention system is the training of instrumental skills and basic life skills, both primarily aimed at increasing income.

The central role played by basic life skills in the DELSILIFE project is due to a coincidence. The need to focus on these basic skills was a result of the transformation process being started in the pilot communities: those skills became manifest as aspects of a changing society. The instrumental skills had been contained in the curriculum of this education intervention system from the start, whereas the training of basic life skills were a later derivative. This accounts for the specific form given to basic life skills (BLS) within project DELSILIFE, as this paper is meant to demonstrate.

In the DELSILIFE project there are various skills under the heading of basic life skills. According to Kraak's inventory (1987): (1) literacy and language skills; (2) numeracy and its applications; (3) the entire problem-solving process; (4) coping with risks and uncertainties; (5) social skills in negotiations; (6) communication techniques; (7) learning to operate on a new general technical level. The demand for these skills was introduced into DELSILIFE from the grassroots, i.e. from the pilot communities. The project management gave a willing ear to the calls for this specific training aspects. In spite of that, this training aspect has received no systematic place within the overall approach up to this moment. Hence the need for a more profound study of the origin of the ideas and the theoretical background of what is generally understood to be basic life skills.

To get a clear understanding of basic life skills it is necessary to investigate them on a wider sociological, economic and anthropological level. Only after investigating basic life skills at this general social-science level will it be possible to make any statements about the individual psychological mechanisms, the ideas on self-actualization and the worldviews which determine an endogenous and authentic view on educaton, culture and productive life. It has been demonstrated in the DELSILIFE project that in the various countries the training of basic life skills is all about the same mechanisms, with slightly different accents for each culture due to environmental factors.

3. LEARNING PACKAGES IN ADULT EDUCATION

Extension work, propaganda, awareness raising, community training, education and information have a common purpose: to influence and to persuade. Where they differ is in their perspective, the measure of respect for the object and the degree of participation on the part of the object. Some persuaders operate from

outside and top-down, with a minimum of respect and participation. Others operate from within, from the grassroots, encouraging a high degree of participation and allowing the public to decide about their own actions.

Recently it was generally felt that over the last few decades the vogue in educational planning had been concentrated on the formal education systems; it was high time to adapt them to non-formal adult education in the rural areas of developing countries, with due emphasis on the use and production of adequate, modest income-generating learning packages. This was considered the area in which technical assistance could be valuable. The main role of the advocates of adult education programmes was not to design learning packages, but to train the basic organizations to design and control these themselves.

One way of attaining these aims was by means of literacy programmes. Hence it was argued that when teaching people to read and write, one might as well do it on the basis of elementary knowledge about subjects which are of interest to the students or which might be of practical use in their immediate living environments. In this way many adult literacy classes were set up teaching women about child care and child nutrition, and teaching men about agriculture, the stock market and sanitation. This approach was called 'functional literacy'.

But in many countries activity in non-formal education could be summed up as sporadic and incompetent. Extension officers and instructors seldom received any systematic and practical training. In the mid-seventies non-formal education became problem-centred and action-oriented, based on and tested by local action research. The transmission of abstract knowledge in non-formal education was intended to start from the immediate environment and, ultimately, the experiences of the educatees, with due feedback.

That same period knew the 'renaissance of the barefoot expert' in development research programmes, analogous to the 'barefoot doctors'. A revaluation of local and indigenous knowledge in the field of architecture, fishery, agriculture and the arts was promoted by the major departments of the multilateral UN organizations. Local artists became cultural animators in the field of adult education.

Adult education now came to denote: "the entire body of organized educational processes (...) whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or return them in a new direction and bring changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development" (Tandon 1982: 4).

4. MINIMUM LEARNING REQUIREMENTS

Prior to the stage of the problem-solving process, the identification of minimum learning requirements within a community is of utmost importance. A list of

such requirements bears no relation whatever to any educational theory. It can merely be regarded as an arbitrary enumeration, which enables technocrats to survey educational shortcomings. Consequently, there is no use in defining the minimal learning requirements for the sake of social and economic participation. They are bound to be different from one community to the next, besides.

Minimum learning requirements are related to the 'educational poverty line', which immediately takes us back to the basic needs as formulated by Maslow (1970) and to the 'basic needs approach' to development, as formulated during the mid-seventies by international development experts:

> "The basic needs strategy aims at providing minimum levels of satisfaction of the needs of the poorest members of a society. It seeks to create conditions whereby those people not now enjoying it can achieve a minimum standard of living - defined in terms of an individual's consumption of food, shelter and clothing, and in terms of access to essential social services, including safe drinking water, sanitation, health care, public transport, and educational and cultural opportunities. The basic needs approach explicitly seeks a redistribution of the economic benefits of development in favor of the poor" (Allen, 1981: 212).

Returning to the basic needs as mentioned by Maslow the educational poverty line relates to all those learning needs dealing with 'survival strategies'. It is very much the question whether one might speak of a strategy in the case of people whose physical existences are immediately endangered. The concept involves a certain degree of planning, a view of the future, whereas the very focus of survival is 'here and now'.

Defining 'survival strategies' from the angle of creativity makes it possible "no longer to view the poor as merely acting on traditional codes of behaviour which they will not and cannot change, as was commonly assumed in the seventies (cf. the alleged 'resistance to change' among peasants)" (Lieten 1987: 8). From this angle it becomes evident that the poor are active in finding alternative ways of survival, th- irecting the process of social change.

According to Allen (1981: 222) there are considerable dilemmas involved in the challenge to define an education for basic needs linking up to the specific social framework of satisfaction. The pedagogical foundation of such a type of education will need to be in harmony with the cultural lives of the participating social groups. In no way should it serve as a device for imposing an outside ideology and lifestyle. Neither should it be a mere repository for a people's folklore.

> "People are likely to derive satisfaction from education only if it helps them make sense of both the old and the new. (...) The pedagogy of basic needs education must be as concerned with helping people use concepts, symbols

and thought processes as with helping them use other tools. Such a pedagogy would thus be challenged to devise ways by which functional-vocational types of learning situations could become the means not only to 'skill acquisition' but also to cognitive development" (Allen, 1981: 222).

As a matter of fact consciousness raising of basic needs must necessarily go beyond the educational poverty line to self-actualization. Unless the participants are enabled by the learning process to achieve self-actualization, one cannot speak of basic education, self-help or self-reliance in a development process leading to an intensified cultural identity.

5. THE IDENTIFICATION OF LEARNING NEEDS

In development strategies as, for example, the basic needs approach there is a persistent tendency to ignore (though unintentionally and implicitly) in the target groups all aspects of their human existence but the purely economic ones.

Economic problems relating to physiological and safety needs are doubtless most pressing in the daily lives of the rural poor. However, villagers are not exclusively motivated by need satisfaction in the economic sense. They have their own standard systems on which identity and self-esteem are based. They have, in short, their human dignity.

Because the villager prefers a safe, orderly, predictable, organized world which he can count on and in which unexpected, unmanageable, or other dangerous things do not happen, he needs those standard systems as much as anything else. To regard these aspects of community life as inhibitions, resistance to change, etc. is both naive and wrong, because they are the basis of efforts to cope with daily reality and, ultimately, with survival.

In this context it is perhaps cynical, but realistic nevertheless, to bear in mind that these groups will never attain in their lifetime such a level of prosperity as is communicated to them in distorted images by the mass-media. So they will be confronted by a picture of a quality of life that is distant and, to a considerable extent, emotionally disturbing. Hopefully they will make some progress, and in this process they will have to keep finding a new balance in their treatment of the standards. It is here that we must look for the cultural significance of life which may be a source of continued motivation.

If we take basic needs (food, shelter, clothing, child care etc.) as a point of departure in the identification of learning needs, community members will probably express their learning needs in terms of sectoral knowledge, skills and attitudes, and indicate which sectors they find more or less important. These learning needs indicated by the community members might be called subjective learning needs. Some researchers, like for example Thompson (1980: 7), refer to these needs as 'felt needs'. In practice they will result in sectoral skill development programmes dealing with a number of basic needs. Outsiders, like pro-

fessionals, however, also perceive a number of learning needs, which could be called objective learning needs. The two categories usually do not quite correspond.

One of the principles central to DELSILIFE is that the target group should identify its own problems and define its learning needs which can be translated into learning objectives and programmes. Thus learning needs are defined internally, bottom-up, not externally and top-down. Nevertheless there is some degree of outside intervention, by way of resource persons monitoring the main stages of the learning process.

One of the assumptions in DELSILIFE is that people are most likely to take positive action on problems that they themselves identify and perceive to be important. Another assumption is that the level of awareness of problems can be raised through the use of appropriate materials and activities. According to Van der Molen and Kraak (1982: 11), the assumption that awareness of problems can be raised is probably correct, but to conclude that people will take positive action to solve the problem is somewhat naive. It will very much depend on the circumstances and conditions whether or not people are able or allowed to take action. After all, participation is also conditioned by cost factors in terms of time, funds, energy, risk and accessibility.

The DELSILIFE approach, according to Socrates (1982: 58), operates on the assumption that "learning objectives are to be derived from life needs, perceived, internalized and verbalized by the people themselves". In view of all this, learning needs might be identified by (1) having the community members express their subjective learning needs, and by (2) inferring learning needs from (a) the expression of basic needs, (b) the expression of desired skills, and (c) observed constraints and inhibitors.

6. SELF-ACTUALIZATION AND PROBLEM SOLVING

In Maslow's terms (1970: 33), self-actualization is conceived as:

> "the desire for self-fulfillment, namely, to the tendency for one to become actualized in what one is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming.(...) It is not necessarily a creative urge although in people who have any capabilities for creation it will take this form."

Self-actualization can take place on two preconditions: freedom of enquiry and of expression. Without these basics self-actualization will not develop.

Enquiries into learning processes are essential. They include the full sequence of problem solving: identification of the problem, finding alternative solutions, defining criteria for decision, taking a realistic decision, checking consequences, preparation for action. This sequence of enquiries is absolutely

essential to reach a high level of self-reliance and self-actualization.

Kraak and Van der Molen (1983: 5-10) made a clear-cut analysis of the problem-solving learning process. They argue that much so-called problem solving does not really solve any problems at all. Observation and analysis of the discussions about problems and conflicts reveal that they mainly result in an unstructured listing of complaints, inhibitors and much wishful thinking. To them the full problem-solving process consists of four basic stages, each involving its own quality of action:

1. *collecting information*, by:
    a. identifying and defining the problem;
    b. collecting information relevant to solving the problem;
    c. listing possible solutions;

2. *judgment of solutions*, by:
    d. arriving at shared criteria for selection of the right solution;
    e. assessing the group's competence, commitment and resources;
    f. reviewing the consequences of alternative solutions;
    g. checking identified alternative solutions against shared criteria, competence, commitment, resources, consequences;

3. *decision on optimal solution*, by:
    h. selecting the optimal solution;
    i. reinforcing the group's commitment to the selected solution;

4. *implementation of action*, by:
    j. organizing action (who does what, when, how);
    k. agreeing on the manner of evaluation, and on the manner of controlling the action process as time goes by.

A precondition for real problem solving and real commitment to action is the right to participate, on the part of all group members, in those four stages and/or their actual participation throughout. Real problem solving and real commitment to action can be ensured only in case of more or less equal participation among the members throughout the entire sequence.

The crucial moment in problem solving is the 'realistic decision'. 'Realistic' involves that the decision and its consequences should not be above, nor, for that matter, below the level of competence, available resources, and commitment of the group itself.

In this sense all planning in the scheme is perceived as a mixture of active and reactive action, a distinction of which few planners are aware. Planning is reactive when it implies largely an adjustment to changing external factors that

are impossible or undesirable to manipulate for the planner. Active planning in the extreme presupposes that all factors can be manipulated. The road to self-reliance invariably means a process of discovering that one is capable (or can develop the capability) of influencing more factors than one had ever imagined.

7. SKILL TRAINING IN NON-FORMAL AND ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Bobillier (1987: 7-8) deems it advisable, prior to surveying training and skill needs, to pay attention to the difference between, on the one hand, the problems in rural areas and the features of rural vocations, and on the other hand, those in urban districts. Wages of rural workers vary from one season to the next. Rural work requires a greater variety of skills than work in the urban sectors. In between seasons agricultural workers have to find alternative ways of making a living. It takes the skills of a craftsman to do maintenance work on one's tools and equipment.

Survival skills require more specialization in rural areas than they do in urban areas. In rural areas the required skills are different for each person, activity, location and environment. Moreover, the rural sector necessitates the worker to be both producer and manager. Thus the rural environment features skills which are directly applicable for profitable work. These are production skills, which may be called vertical skills for practical purposes. There are other necessary skills related to product processing and marketing. These managerial and commercial skills are called horizontal skills.

Of course one could use different categories for the required skills. Regarding skill training from the angle of non-formal and adult education in rural districts, one might follow Gorham's working definition (1983: 20) of non-formal skill development:

> "(...) any systematic, structured non-school education or training activity aimed at improving rural productivity, income and/or employment for both young people and adults."

This definition leads Gorham to the following classification of training needs: (1) skill development training for employed manpower, (2) skill development training for unemployed manpower, and (3) skill development training associated with income and productivity but not specially connected to labour force participation.

In Gorham's view (1983: 38) it seems that the components of a rural skill development programme are determined by the following factors: (1) the perceived production needs of on-the-job training, (2) the extent of pre-training competency among trainees, and (3) the degree to which training seeks to increase social, political and economic awareness on the part of the target

groups.

Again, skill development training connected to labour force participation refers to sectoral skills and would involve what has been called 'vertical skills'[1]. Skill development programmes associated with income and productivity but not specially connected to labour force participation are referred to as 'horizontal skills', including literacy and numeracy programmes, community development schemes, family improvement education, nutrition and primary health care training, local decision making, leadership training etc. In this type of skill development programmes the emphasis is mainly on the areas of social skills and problem solving, rather than instrumental or technical skills.

> "Where the focus of attention is less on transmitting a body of technical knowledge associated with a particular occupational category, and more on developing problem-solving capacities, the content of the specific learning activity will be determined more by the needs of the particular situation than by the desire to systematically order the components of an activity in a pedagogically advantageous way" (Gorham, 1983: 37).

Let us not forget that non-formal education takes place in all kinds of environments. The training is environment-aimed and is expected to make a close link to the daily living and working situations of the participants.

This is where we see the greatest weakness in most skill development programmes. Where they are lacking is not in adequately tailor-made didactic formats, adjusted to local environment, culture and conditions. But those very cultural conditions may be a constraint to access. Such a cultural constraint is manifest in for example Muslem societies where it is hard to organise out-of-home skill training for women.

In other districts it may be quite the opposite case. In some countries, such as Ethiopia, there are powerful guilds preventing participation in occupational practice as well as in the traditional training process required for such occupations. Where artisan skills have a long and thorough history the access to training may be effectively blocked by the class or caste nature of certain types of skills.

> "This situation in many parts of the Indian sub-continent and in North and West Africa with regard to weaving, printing, carving and jewelry making is illustrative of this kind of potential problems, but it also exists with regard to less exotic trades such as pottery and blacksmithing in Ethiopia and parts of Kenia" (Gorham, 1983: 34).

Some cultures, as of subsistence pastoralists, are virtually unfamiliar with specialisms in craft-like or artisan-like skills. To try and create a need for these

skills would be to neglect local interests and demands.

8. INSTRUMENTAL AND BASIC LIFE SKILLS ACCORDING TO THE DELSILIFE EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION MODEL

The learning group is the essence and the centre of DELSILIFE's basic training formula. In the DELSILIFE approach there are, in principle, no limits to the learning needs of the villagers. Any cognitive subject, any skill can be made the objective of a learning group. The basic assumption of the DELSILIFE approach is that villagers, having grasped the importance and potentiality of the instrumental skills, are able to identify their learning needs, and to implement a learning process. This process aims at raising the level of knowledge, attitudes, and skills on the part of the participants, but cannot be effective without an external input. The assumption is, again, that resources and resource persons are available.

The DELSILIFE training formula consists in the integration of technical and basic life skill exercises into a learning process. Basic life skills are perceived as covering all areas of specific instrumental skills and forming a vital basis for these different skills. In graphic respresentation, the basic life skills would be qualified as horizontal, the instrumental skills as vertical columns.

In education in general, and in adult education in particular, we are familiar enough with vertical skills and learning programmes. They refer to specific substantive learning needs in more or less distinctive fields of economic, social or cultural activities like planting, harvesting, irrigation, animal husbandry, cooking, motor mechanics, health practices, child care, etc.

In adult education the focus is mainly on applying and improving practices and techniques in these areas, and the educational content tends to be technical - even though often on a simple, basic level. Vertical skills are typically useful and applicable within specific sectors. Basic life skills, on the other hand, provide a basis for synergetic action in different life spheres. They pervade all sectors and are valid in different life situations at different times.

Kraak and Van der Molen (1983: 11-12) have indicated more skills directly related to the process of increasing self-reliance and improving the quality of life, and which are commonly represented in the various instrumental skills:

- proper use of language, enlarged vocabulary
- basic administrative skills (including record keeping)
- basic management skills (including costing and elementary marketing procedures)
- negotiating
- collecting and using information
- approaching agencies
- settling conflicts, etc.

The development of these skills can be integrated into the programme of the learning groups, for instance marketing procedures into the sale of ducks' eggs, costing into carpentering, tailoring and co-operative transportation of final products.

The basic method of integrating basic life skills is to introduce them where necessary, in vertical learning programmes, in a highly concise form and fully adapted to the substantive theme of these programmes. And each of them, in turn, can be developed into a full-grown vertical instrumental programme, whenever it is recognized as an objective by a learning group. When the approach proves successful on the community level, the trainees may discover new needs, part of which would no doubt be basic life skills in the form of vertical instrumental skills.

Originally literacy and numeracy were singled out as basic life skills to be integrated into the learning sequence. Also problem solving was conceived as an indispensable skill for people in deprived areas to become self-reliant and less dependent. Kraak (1987) was of the opinion that the entire problem-solving process would turn out to be the central issue pervading virtually the whole framework of instrumental and basic life skills. He saw another opening in using the dynamics of the workshop as a didactic formula, since it is the workshop which underlines such skills as observation, expression, identification and formulation of problems, the procedure and structure of action.

Problem solving implicitly contains basic skills such as sound perception and the observation of reality, including the circumstances, the others and the self. Because observation means rational, objective and systematic perception, many exercises during workshops deal with observing and being observed. Exercises in objective, systematic observation imply a considerable amount of unlearning, which is a difficult thing to accept for the trainees.

Apart from the exercises on observation, attention must be paid to patterning action in the course of time, giving the participants a sense of timing and duration, cause and effect relations in action sequences, production, liabilities and uncertainties, risk-bearing capacities, expense calculation and planning. Especially the context of active and reactive planning requires exercises in the basics of marketing, such as judgement, adaptability, negotiation, conflict settlement. Most of these exercises can be done by simulation games or socio-drama. Simulation is important for games in training planning and costing. Group dynamics, negotiation and manipulation are trained in the form of socio-drama.

9. FINAL REMARKS

With the exception of literacy and numeracy, most adult education programmes fail to pay explicit attention to the basic life skills discussed here. Some programmes teach the three Rs only, others are purely vocational and technical, and

few are a combination of both. Probably it is asssumed in these programmes that problem-solving skills would automatically and implicitly be acquired through exposure to technical skill training. The absence of reports on the training of basic life skills in other projects may indicate that basic life skills have been perceived as culturally and socially required and conditioned forms of behaviour, and therefore ignored as learning objectives.

The cultural component of development is very much taken into account in the DELSILIFE approach. Despite the fact that it is a question of outside intervention, the community council and the learning groups themselves have to formulate their own needs, determine on the training of skills, and to solve the problems which the learning process brings with it within the cultural setting of the community.

> "This involves the demonstration of the linkages between innovation and traditional local cultures, so that the latter not only continue to thrive during technological development of their societies, but also contribute towards the process, without at the same time suffering from dysfunctions or disruption and fracturing of their social fabric" (Smolicz 1982: 44).

This explains the attention the DELSILIFE approach gives to the study of indigenous learning processes. It is assumed that the relevant elements derived from indigenous learning systems possess an untapped potential which can enrich an educational intervention system such as DELSILIFE.

All basic life skills as identified and formulated in the context of the DELSILIFE project have a common central element, i.e. the problem-solving process, ranging from initial awareness raising to finalizing plans to take action. According to Kraak and Van der Molen (1983: 14) experiences with DELSILIFE learning groups in the four countries (Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines) have clearly demonstrated the importance of basic life skills. The lack of basic life skills resource materials and resource persons resulted in a bias towards technical-vocational training, for example cookery, food preservation, tailoring, mat weaving, duck raising, carpentry, rattan work etc. Participants in learning groups are eager to acquire these skills, mainly with a view to obtaining additional income generating and income raising possibilities. But practice has shown the need for additional skills in e.g. marketing, expense calculation, planning, organization, negotiating with sectoral agencies about potential input and assistance.

Technical and vocational skills per se are not sufficient to guarantee self-reliance, on the part of trainees, in improving their socio-economic positions. In the present approach, the rate of reward for the individual participant depends largely on the number of basic life skills already in possession, obtained through socialization, previous education or through specific life experience. For example,

having previously acquired the skill of sausage making, some female participants in the Philippines successfully employed their new food conserving and marketing skills and started profitable businesses. For others, however, conditions hardly changed.

The field experiments have demonstrated that illiterate, very poor, or otherwise deprived individuals participate less in learning groups than their more 'privileged' neighbours. This certainly does not imply that participants in the DELSILIFE training groups may be regarded as wealthy. The term 'privileged' most often simply implies that participants have a basic level of education (they are literate), which is an important basis for taking part in the training. Helping the poorest of the poor is a major issue as it is related to the core concepts of DELSILIFE and to the official development policies.

Although mobilising the poorest of the poor remains an immensely delicate question the world over, nevertheless DELSILIFE represents an effort in that direction, (1) by selecting (part of) the community, rather than the individual, as a focus of its pedagogy, and (2) by improving the quality of life in the community by means of motivated local initiators. The ideas underlying the DELSILIFE concept, trying to make openings for the poorest of the poor to improve their quality of life, have not been warranted as yet.

It may be that these ideas will prove too ambitious, perhaps expectations are unrealistic. Development activities in the realm of self-actualization tend to operate better in the case of receivers whose basic needs have been gratified. The lower strata of society tend to benefit from these middle-class initiatives as soon as they create unskilled work. Their income opportunities depend on the decisions of others.

As a consequence, there would be no justification in assessing the DELSILIFE approach merely on the grounds of its target group strategy. After all it promotes small-scale economic undertakings and it assists in solving community problems concerning health care, hygiene, infrastructure, water supply, co-operation and planning. Both fields of operation benefit the very poorest. In spite of that, we must continue to devote special attention to the most deprived groups, in particular where illiteracy prevents participation in sector-oriented learning groups.

Note

1. Training activities in this field deal with agricultural extension, farmer training centres, on-the-job training of rural craftsmen, apprenticeship agreements in case of training employed manpower. Activities designed to create access to employment for as yet unemployed workers would involve youth brigades, villages polytechnics, mobile training units, out-of-school vocational training courses and other programmes to build skills for entry-level jobs.

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Pre-testing of DELSILIFE training materials, Chacherngsao, Thailand
Photo: Ad Boeren

VII.
Beyond the Laboratory: From Model Development to Dissemination Strategies

Ad Boeren

1. PROJECT DELSILIFE, PHASE C

Phase B of project DELSILIFE came to an end in September 1984. During this phase the DELSILIFE model was implemented and tested in the participating countries. The approach had achieved positive results and proved to be a potentially useful instrument for rural development. This conclusion was equally shared by the participants of the project and by the external evaluators who had visited two project sites in 1984. In their report the evaluators ackowledged that the approach provides a better and more solid base for development in the village, for better local government and for more power in relation to external agents. Ministerial agencies working in the villages apparently appreciated the method and considered it to be in many respects quite compatible with, often complementary to, and sometimes better than their own methodologies. In their view it considerably enhances the absorptive capacity of poor villages, thus creating a more enduring and more organized base for local self-initiative and for government programmes (Wils et al., 1984).

The report also rightly observed that DELSILIFE is a demanding methodology, adjusting itself to the manner and pace of learning of the rural poor. It is demanding in terms of motivation, time and energy on the part of the field and monitoring staff using the approach. The authors were concerned that, without properly designed and executed dissemination strategies, DELSILIFE might easily lose its special thrust in the transition from the 'laboratory' to the 'field'.

However, examples of spontaneous dissemination were reported from the selected countries, notably Thailand and the Philippines. Villages surrounding the successful pilot sites adopted the approach, DELSILIFE staff members propagated DELSILIFE in other regions of the countries and requests were received from the 'market', i.e. institutions, programme staff and communities which had heard about it.

Because of the positive results the four participating countries issued a statement during the last consultative meeting of Phase B, held in Thailand in March 1984, in which they expressed their wish to continue the project activities and to expand the project's scope in their countries. Malaysia had some reservations

related to organizational problems within the ministry itself, and in fact DELSILIFE eventually was put under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Rural Development, since the Ministry of Education deals only with formal education and has no non-formal education department.

It was agreed that in the third phase of the project a dissemination strategy should be developed and activities for this purpose planned and carried out in each separate country. It involved the design of a support system and the provision of information and training needed at the various levels responsible for introducing and implementing DELSILIFE.

For the purpose of training the various categories of people who were going to disseminate the system, manuals and teaching aids had to be developed and produced which would be appropriate to the local culture and circumstances.

In the course of 1985, plans for the third phase of project DELSILIFE were drawn up by INNOTECH, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand. In 1986 the Netherlands government granted a financial contribution to the conduct of the third phase. The funds would be available mainly for INNOTECH, technical assistance visits, consultative meetings, and for the production and printing of training materials. Other resources involved would need to be supplied by the respective countries, notably for the appointment of core staff, training activities and other local operational costs. Phase C commenced early 1987. Three countries participated: Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines. Malaysia abstained due to administrative difficulties: apparently the selection of a ministry to assume responbility for the project was an unsurmountable dilemma.

2. DISSEMINATION STRATEGIES AND TRAINING

The three countries decided to adopt DELSILIFE as one of their more important development strategies, to integrate the system in the national non-formal education programmes, and to disseminate it through appropriate government structures and institutions.

Indonesia selected the *Lembaga Ketahanan Masyarakat Desa* (LKMD, Village Community Resilience Institute) as the core organizational unit at village level for the dissemination of DELSILIFE. This decision implied that approval was required of the National Guiding Team of LKMD, consisting of representatives of most of the ministries. In this way, DELSILIFE is taken to the villages in a similar fashion to many other government programmes. It means that the existing machinery is used to disseminate the system on a wider scale.

A support mechanism consists of Steering Teams at the national, provincial and regional levels, and Executing Teams at the district and village level. The support mechanism is intended to create a suitable umbrella for policy co-ordination between the different sectoral agencies which will have to support the

implementation of DELSILIFE and co-ordinate their activities as required.

According to the Indonesian plan the training for the dissemination of DELSILIFE takes place at three levels, i.e. provincial, district/sub-district and village level. In Phase C the DELSILIFE staff of IKIP[1] Ujung Pandang were assigned key roles as resource persons in the training, as they were most familiar with DELSILIFE. The village development programme (*Pembangunan Desa*) of the Ministry of the Interior is the main financial mechanism to implement the training. Financial resources are potentially available from the province and district funds of the current training programmes in provinces and districts.

Four provinces were selected for implementing DELSILIFE during Phase C: South Sulawesi, Central Java, East Java and West Sumatra. Villages were to be selected one from each of three districts in every province, in order to introduce the method. After Phase C, the results of the implementation are to be reviewed in a National Seminar, which is to provide insights and recommendations on possibilities for nation-wide dissemination.

In Thailand the responsibility for implementing DELSILIFE lies with the Department of Non-Formal Education of the Ministry of Education. During Phase C DELSILIFE was introduced by the Department in five provinces situated in five different regions. The Department made/makes use of educational volunteers and cluster leaders recruited from the villages for the introduction of the system at the village level.

The support system consists of a national Steering Committee and Operation Committee (the body responsible for implementing the programme), Regional NFE Centres as technical support bodies, Provincial NFE Centres to promote and initiate the method, and lastly the Local Development Committees. In line with the government regulation on rural development, and in order to achieve the target of the rural development plan, DELSILIFE is implemented by utilizing the existing rural/local development bodies in which the activities will be conducted in collaboration and co-operation among various concerned agencies.

Training takes place at three levels. At the provincial and regional level NFE staff are trained to 'sell' the method and to train the initiators. These initiators introduce the method at the village level and conduct the training of group leaders and community leaders. Staff members of DELSILIFE Phase B are engaged in the training at the higher level.

The dissemination activities are financed partly from the regular programme budgets for 'Quality of Life Improvement Project', which is one of the Department's new projects making use of the DELSILIFE method.

Depending on the results of the DELSILIFE activities in Phase C, a decision will be made concerning the wider dissemination of the approach.

The Philippines selected the Bureau of Non-Formal Education of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports as the implementing agency for DELSILIFE. Five

regions were selected for the introduction of the method during Phase C. At the sub-district level it is the NFE co-ordinator who initiates and monitors DELSILIFE in the *barrios* (villages). The support system involves various levels of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, through which non-formal education programmes are delivered. Training for DELSILIFE follows a descending line from the regional down to the sub-district level, and is carried out by the training division of the Bureau, with INNOTECH staff acting as resource persons.

Evidently the three countries opted for similar training approaches in the dissemination of DELSILIFE, following a pyramid shaped model. A national team trains regional and/or provincial cadres, who in turn train the district levels. The district staff are expected to promote and initiate DELSILIFE in the villages and to conduct the training of community leaders and leaders of the learning groups. At the higher levels the DELSILIFE teams of Phase B are called upon to act as resource persons.

The choice of the national governments to disseminate DELSILIFE through government agencies poses some doubts about its successful dissemination. It causes a paradox of spreading a method which is basically bottom-up through a process that seems mainly top-down. Governmental programmes are usually characterized by top-down planning, budgeting, human resource provision, time-scheduling and pre-stated targets. DELSILIFE, however, starts from the problems and needs identified at the individual and community level, and postulates that problems should be solved at the community level itself as much as possible. Outside interference by governmental and private agencies is allowed and desirable, but mainly as requested by the community.

Other concerns are prompted by the capabilities and attitudes of the average district officer who has to initiate the system, and by the selected training strategies which reflect a rather long route down the lines of the ministerial structure. The more steps along the route, the greater the risk that somewhere along the line the DELSILIFE approach will be distorted or lose its unique characteristics.

The success of the dissemination depends largely on the performance of the initiators. As observed by the evaluation team, theirs is a demanding task. Can we expect the average government official at the district level to make the desired input? One knows from experience that the missionary type constitutes a minority among the rank and file of rural adult educators. Can we also expect the non-formal educators to possess the right educational attitude needed for DELSILIFE? Will they be helping villagers in deciding for themselves what they want to achieve and learn, instead of delivering information and skills according to pre-set educational targets and models? Will the training be successful in bringing about a rather radical change in their attitudes and approach?

These concerns were shared by the participants of the project, but they felt bound to comply with the decisions of the local governments and the possibilities and realities of the executing agencies. All parties concerned, including the country teams, agreed that non-governmental agencies have an advantage in this respect, because of their more independent status, flexible organization and motivated personnel, and that promotion of the method through these channels should be encouraged.

Therefore, in drawing up plans for Phase C the participants were confronted with the dilemma resulting from the given support systems. The question was how to prevent DELSILIFE falling victim to the same characteristics and weaknesses of so many centrally planned programmes, while disseminating the method on a wider scale.

The answer indicated in the direction of information and communication. It was argued that any success in wider implementation presupposes that a great many high, middle and lower level staff are convinced of its value and trained in its approach. Information and training materials were to play a crucial role in this process. They needed to be self-instructional to compensate for possible shortcomings in or the absence of training courses, and to provide structured guidance to the various DELSILIFE actors in their respective roles and functions.

A package of training materials answering these requirements was thought to be an essential instrument, not only to structure and support the dissemination through the assigned government agency, but also to make the method available for implementation to other interested parties and organizations.

3. INNOTECH PACKAGE OF TRAINING MATERIALS

The 'packaging' of DELSILIFE was first taken up towards the end of Phase B. INNOTECH assumed the responsibility to design a set of information and training materials that could serve as an example for the development of training materials in the participating countries. It was understood that the countries were free to either adapt this sample to suit their particular requirements, or to develop their own set of training materials independently.

Basing the design of the package on the experiences with the DELSILIFE system in the pilot sites, INNOTECH came up with a set of six materials. The set included materials to introduce the concept of DELSILIFE to governmental and non-governmental agencies at the national, regional, provincial and district level; manuals for the training of various levels of DELSILIFE actors; guides for village leaders and leaders of learning groups on how to implement and co-ordinate DELSILIFE in the communities.

In more detail the INNOTECH package was composed of the following materials:

Booklet 1. *The DELSILIFE intervention system (with a promotor's guide).*

The booklet of 39 pages is meant to explain the principles and workings of the DELSILIFE system to promotors and initiators of the method, the members of the DELSILIFE Community Council, the group and area leaders in the village and the resource persons who will support the implementation of the learning programmes.
The Promotor's Guide lists the characteristics and functions of the promotor and how he/she can prepare him/herself for the activities she/he is expected to carry out. An example of a flipchart design is given.

Booklet 2. *Manual for the initiator.*

In 23 pages this booklet explains to potential initiators the nature of their functions and how to perform these. It makes suggestions on the selection of communities for the introduction of DELSILIFE, how to conduct a community assembly and how to assist the community in installing the system. It lists the training needs of the DELSILIFE Community Council, and explains how to monitor DELSILIFE activities in the villages.

Booklet 3. *Manual for training.*

The manual is aimed at all those who are expected to provide leadership roles in the implementation of DELSILIFE in a community. The booklet describes who will need to be trained, who will do the training and what the training will entail. It has 22 pages. Objectives and principles of training are explained in a general as well as in a DELSILIFE context. One chapter deals with principles of adult learning, and the booklet ends with some practical guidelines for training.

Booklet 4. *Manual for the DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC).*

The booklet (19 pages) describes how the leaders of a community function in the DELSILIFE system. It tells how the DCC is formed, what the functions of the DCC are and how the DCC can perform its functions.

Booklet 5. *Manual for the group leader.*

The manual describes in some detail the conduct of learning programmes, which is the core of the DELSILIFE system. It tells what a group leader is, how he/she is chosen, what his/her functions are and how he/she can perform his/her functions. The booklet is the most extensive volume of the set, contains 41 pages, and is mainly instructional.

Booklet 6. *Basic life skills.*

The 16 pages of this booklet deal with basic life skills (BLS) and how they are developed. It demonstrates the integration of BLS in vertical instrumental skills (VIS) learning programmes.

Once completed, INNOTECH distributed the package among the country teams. During the first consultative meeting of Phase C it was thoroughly discussed. The participating countries acknowledged the merit of the sample package as a useful source of inspiration providing interesting ideas for the development of national training materials. A general comment was that the content of the sample package was quite abstract and that much of the wording was too difficult for readers at lower levels. The package needed revision to make the materials more accessible, more instructional and more attractive. They particularly needed to be adapted to the specific conditions and situations in the respective countries.

The country teams expressed their worry about the development of suitable materials for the group leaders in the villages. Considering their, presumably, low levels of education the use of extensive written manuals as means of instruction could be ruled out. For this reason the INNOTECH *Manual for the group leader* seemed inappropriate. CESO was requested to provide technical assistance to the country teams in designing the training materials for the DELSILIFE village level actors.

4. THE COUNTRY PACKAGES

In Thailand and the Philippines the materials were designed by curriculum development units of the central ministries, while the package for Indonesia was made up by a team representing IKIP, DIKMAS[2] and BANGDES[3] of South Sulawesi Province.

The packages for the Philippines and Indonesia are virtually identical and show considerable resemblance to the sample package prepared by INNOTECH. In comparison with the latter, they show the following important differences:

1. The content of INNOTECH's booklet on basic life skills has been incorporated in the *Manual for training*. It was felt that knowledge about basic life skills and ways to integrate them in learning programmes would be primarily required of those introducing DELSILIFE into the villages and monitoring the implementation of the learning programmes. This is the group of initiators, who will be subjected to training courses on DELSILIFE prior to its introduction into the communities.

2. The manual for the group leaders has been replaced by two other materials. Both countries followed CESO's suggestion to produce a cassette programme

accompanied by a simple booklet with guidelines for the group leader. The cassette programme maps out the process of forming a learning group, selecting a leader, identifying problems, selecting feasible solutions, planning and organizing a learning programme and evaluating the outcome of a learning activity. The process is presented in the for n of radio drama interspaced with pieces of introductory and summarizing commentary. The complete programme, of approximately 100 minutes, is divided into four sections, each section concluding with a number of self-testing questions. The accompanying guide presents the main steps of the same process. Each step is described in simple language and is illustrated with an attractive and striking drawing. The guide serves as reinforcement and reference material for the cassette programme.

The suggestion for this particular choice was made on the assumption that the average villager might not have the required reading skill to be able to cope with an extensive written manual, and that for most people in the rural areas radio is the mass-medium with which they are most familiar. By selecting drama as the format for the programme a touch of humour and entertainment could be added to more effectively captivate the attention of the audience. The guide would provide a simple visual synopsis of the programme's contents.

3. A separate booklet of some twelve pages was developed to introduce DELSILIFE to policy makers and regional and provincial governmental and non-governmental agencies. The purpose of the booklet is to create an awareness of the DELSILIFE philosophy and its process of implementation. It is promotional at the same time, listing some of the successes that have been achieved with the project in Phase B.

The Thai package consists of eight printed works. Similarly to the packages of the two other countries, it contains a manual for training, a promotional flyer and a manual for group leaders. Although the latter is called a manual its format and contents are more reminiscent of a guide. There is no separate manual for the initiator. It should be recalled that in Thailand DELSILIFE is introduced by volunteers from the villagers who receive training on the introduction and implementation of DELSILIFE in their communities. As in the INNOTECH package there is a separate booklet on basic life skills. In a 20-page, richly illustrated booklet the reader is familiarized with the concept and importance of basic life skills in a story form.

The package further contains four booklets (14-20 pages) on particular basic life skills that will make the villagers more self-reliant. The topics covered are: how to contact governmental agencies, how to conduct a meeting in the village, the importance of participation in group activities, and practices of democracy. The booklets are written in simple language and richly illustrated with full colour drawings.

Thailand and the Philippines had their packages printed in a restricted number around the middle of 1988. The printing of the Indonesian package suffered some delay because the DELSILIFE team had to wait for the political clearance by the LKMD governing council (as mentioned above LKMD will be the structure of dissemination in Indonesia). The Indonesian materials came out in June 1989.

All three countries planned to add video films to the package, to be used for promoting the system, training the initiators and introducing DELSILIFE in the villages. In October 1988 CESO and INNOTECH produced, through funds from the Netherlands government, a video-documentary called 'Delsilife in the Philippines'. It aims to promote DELSILIFE to a forum of policy makers, donors, organizations and educationists in and outside the Philippines. In November 1988 CESO assisted the country team in Thailand in the design and production of two training films on DELSILIFE.

5. PRE-TESTING THE TRAINING MATERIALS

In the development process of the packages it was felt important to have the materials, especially those aimed at the village-level, pre-tested before mass-production took place. The object was to avoid financial disasters should the materials prove to be ill understood, accepted or appreciated by the receivers[4].

The three countries undertook this exercise in the middle of 1988, Indonesia independently, Thailand and the Philippines in co-operation with CESO[5]. The countries followed a similar approach in the try-outs. The emphasis was on the materials designed for villagers, i.e. the manual for the DELSILIFE community council and the various materials for the group leader. Two reasons explain this focus on the village level materials. Since DELSILIFE is fully implemented at the community level by villagers themselves, it was felt crucial to find out among the users whether the content of the materials was clear and elaborate enough to convey the message, and whether the chosen format and presentation complied with their educational levels, perceptions and preferences.

The development of training materials for rural people is a demanding job requiring great precision because of the lower education levels and their minor exposure to various media. The material designer has to bridge a wide gap with respect to education, perception, experience, attitudes and the like if he/she is to convey his/her message effectively to the rural people. Since the gap between the designer and the rural villager was bound to be wider than that between designer and higher-level DELSILIFE actors, the village level materials needed more critical attention.

Two strategies were employed during the try-outs. Some materials were tested page by page, to test the understanding, perception and appreciation of the texts and drawings by the respondents.

The other strategy entailed the distribution of materials, followed by an interview at a later date when the respondents had studied the materials. The interviews concentrated on comprehension of the contents, particular sections causing problems, and general appeal of the material.

The try-outs took place in a number of villages selected for the introduction of DELSILIFE during Phase C.

6. RESULTS OF THE PRE-TESTING

In all three countries the villagers showed a great interest in the materials and their contents. The materials were considered to be interesting, useful and practical. The respondents appreciated the simplicity of the language although in most materials a number of words proved to be unfamiliar to them. Examples of such words are the equivalents to the English terms 'skills', 'negotiation', 'process', 'resource' and 'budget'. In a number of instances the use of these words hampered understanding of the contents of a paragraph or page.

The respondents of the try-out villages proved to be critical judges of the quality of presentation of the message, a phenomenon frequently reported from all over the world. They had expressed opinions about the appeal and clarity of the drawings, the colours and lettering in the case of the printed materials, and about the acting quality and appropriateness of the dialogues in the cassette programmes.

The villagers seemed to be experienced in the recognition and interpretation of drawings. They especially liked those pictures depicting a rural setting or life style, and situations close to their experience. They favoured the use of (bright) colours, a close relationship between text and illustration and simple composition. The respondents looked at the drawings and listened to the tapes with normative eyes and ears. Text and drawings, they apparently felt, ought to describe or depict situations or persons in accordance with their sense of propriety.

The cassette programmes proved to be quite popular, although they also received criticism for reasons mentioned above. The villagers liked the medium for various reasons. Some respondents indicated that learning is easier by listening than by reading. Housewives prefered a tape because it enabled them to continue their work while listening to the programme. Another advantage mentioned is the fact that the tape can be replayed when some parts of the message have been missed or not quite understood. This is a considerable advantage over radio broadcasts. All listeners enjoyed the lively and entertaining qualities of the programmes.

The try-outs provided the developers of the materials with a wealth of information on how the respondents perceived, valued and understood the materials. The information clearly pointed out those parts and details which needed

revision, and what modifications were to be made.

The consistency of the findings in the different villages and countries gives the assurance that the materials, once revised, are capable of catching people's interest and will convey the message in the greater part of the rural areas in the three countries. More try-outs will be needed to find out whether this also holds true for people with a markedly different socio-economic and cultural background, e.g. the ethnic minority groups in the remote areas.

A question not answered by this type of try-out regards the impact of the materials. Actual utilization of the materials will have to prove whether the package contributes to the implementation of DELSILIFE as intended and expected. Future monitoring will have to provide answers to such questions as: are the materials being distributed among the proper actors? Are they being used? Do they prompt action? Is it the type of action intended?

7. A TENTATIVE CONCLUSION

The completion of Phase C marked the end of DELSILIFE as a research and development project. The implementing agencies in the participating countries had adopted the model and invested considerable efforts and finance in developing appropriate dissemination strategies and training materials. During Phase C Thailand and the Philippines managed to reach their objectives.

Training courses were conducted for various levels of DELSILIFE extension workers in the regions selected for dissemination. The training materials were field-tested and revised, and the promotion of DELSILIFE in the rural communities took off. By the end of 1989 DELSILIFE had been introduced in ten villages in Thailand, and about 130 in the Philippines. In Indonesia the training materials were tested and revised, but the political clearance of the DELSILIFE package took longer than expected, so that the training for dissemination had to be postponed till mid 1989.

As in the previous phases, collaboration between the participating countries, INNOTECH and CESO in Phase C was harmonious and fruitful. The consultative meetings again proved useful instruments in project planning and monitoring. These meetings drew together the policy makers at the highest level and the DELSILIFE operational core staff from the participating countries, providing an opportunity for intensive discussions and an exchange of views on experience with the system and its value as an instrument for development. The regional character of the project effected a productive kind of competition among the participating countries.

At that point enthusiasm and dedication prevailed in the dissemination of DELSILIFE in the three countries. However, the same concerns raised by the evaluation mission in 1984 still remained relevant in 1989, revolving around the central question: how to retain the thrust of the DELSILIFE method in large-

scale dissemination. Critical issues in the dissemination phase are the effectiveness of the training strategy, the impact of the training and training materials, and the motivation and attitudes of the initiators at the grass-roots level. Continuous monitoring and regular evaluation was and still is deemed necessary to ensure the effectiveness of the developed dissemination strategies, and the results of project DELSILIFE in the long run.

Notes

1. IKIP: *Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan*; Teacher Training and Educational Science Institute.

2. DIKMAS : Community Education, Ministry of Education and Culture.

3. BANGDES: Rural Community Development, Ministry of the Interior.

4. The need for, and the organization of, try-outs of educational material is explained in publications by Haaland (1984) and Boeren (1982).

5. On the try-outs a report has been written by A. Boeren (CESO - INNOTECH co-operation in Project DELSILIFE, Phase C, 1989).

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Part II:

Effectiveness and Impact of Delsilife

Constructing a model of a water pit, Ban Tab-chang, Thailand
Photo: Coen van der Molen

VIII.
Project Delsilife in Ban Tab-Chang and Cha-om, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

Sombat Suwantipak

1. BACKGROUND

In 1980 Phase A of project DELSILIFE was first undertaken in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om villages in Nakhon Ratchasima province. Four villages, administratively numbered 5, 6, 8 and 9 were selected to be the site of pilot project implementation. These villages are situated in Nong Rawieng sub-district, Muang district. They are four of the fifteen villages of the sub-district, which is located at twelve kilometers from the town of Korat. Local people are more familiar with the names Tab-chang and Cha-om than with te administrative numbers 5, 6, 8 and 9.

a. Physical condition

The four villages are situated in a plain and surrounded by paddy rice fields and cassava fields. There are two laterite roads leading from the villages to Korat. Mini-buses regularly run between the villages and this city.

Most of the villagers are rice farmers. There are 4,298 rais (1 rai = 0.16 ha) of agricultural land in these four villages, compromising 2,296 rais for rice fields and 2,002 rais for other crops such as cassava, beans and vegetables.

Since the water supply is not sufficient for rice cultivation, several dry land crops are grown on the higher lands. A concrete canal from a small swamp runs to 1,500 rais of rice field. This water benefits rice farmers and vegetable gardeners only in the rainy season. Vegetable gardens are usually found along the sides of this water-way.

The physical conditions of these four villages are similar to other lowland villages in the north-eastern part of Thailand

b. Demography

The total population of the four villages is 2,238, the number of households 361.

Like in other villages in Thailand, the population lives either in nuclear or extended families. As a rule newly married couples will settle near their parents' house. When the families expand, the children usually move out of the house-

holds of the parents to set up new households. As a result, many heads of households are younger than 40 years.

c. Home compounds

Houses in these four villages are not different from those in other rural villages in other parts of the country. Most of them are built 1.50 - 2.50 meters above the ground and have one or more rooms, a kitchen and large area.

Around the house one finds varieties of fruit trees, vegetables and edible plants, such as mangoes, coconuts, bananas, jack fruits, cucumbers and beans. The space under the house is used to quarter livestock and chickens and to store the farm tools. The compounds are in some cases big enough to serve as a playground for children and young people who play ball games.

Since 1982, the villages have been supplied with electricity. At this moment, 81% of all households have electricity, 33.5% television, and 71.7% radio sets.

The size of the house and material used reflect the economic status of the owners. Most of the houses owned by the middle class are made of hard wood and metal sheetings or tiles. Poorer houses are made of bamboo, dry grass or straw.

d. Economic condition

As mentioned previously, Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om can be classified as typical Thai agricultural villages. 78.5% of the householders have farming as their main occupation, while 13% are employees, less than 0.05% are government officials and merchants and 8% are in other vocations such as cattle breeding and vegetable growing.

The major economic activities of Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om are the following:

1. Wet rice farming is mainly of glutinous and ordinary white rice, both grown for household consumption and sale. About half of the cultivated lands in the villages is used for rice.
2. Cassava farming is considered to be the secondary farming, but is one of the most important sources of cash income, especially for the villagers in Ban Tab-chang (villages 5 and 6). Two or three years ago the price of cassava was high, 1000 to 1200 baht (US $ 40-50) per ton, but now it has become very low, 350-400 baht per ton. This resulted in a depression of the village economy, since more than 40% of the villagers get cash income from this product.
3. Cattle and poultry raising are subsidiary farming activities both in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om. They are a savings fund for the villagers. Native chickens used to be very popular some years ago, but their number has declined, due

to an infectious disease. Therefore only a few households still raise chickens for home consumption and for sale. Cattle breeding becomes a more interesting side-line, especially in Ban Cha-om (villages 8 and 9) where little land is used for cassava.

4. Vegetable gardening is considered to be one of the most important subsidiary economic activities. The statistic survey done by the sub-district development committee in 1986 revealed an average income range of 2000-3500 baht per year, and 88 households out of the total of 361 growing vegetables.
5. Fish farming is increasingly undertaken by middle-class farmers who can afford to build medium or big fish ponds. The method and the idea of fish farming were spread among the villagers after the first training in fish culture, encouraged by the DELSILIFE staff, for 10-15 interested participants. The village committee in Ban Tab-chang has received 20,000 - 30,000 baht from selling fish since 1985.
6. Other economic activities include small grocery and foodshops and rice mills. There are no crafts or small industries. The owners of the shops are the village headmen or their relatives and other rich men of the villages.
   There are four small rice mills in the villages, three in Ban Tab-chang and one in Ban Cha-om. The owners of these rice mills are mostly Chinese families, of which also the chief of the sub-district is a member. They play an important role in controlling and stimulating economic activities in the villages.

Seasonal unemployment seems to be a typical sign of the north-eastern region in Thailand, where a large number of villagers migrate to cities to find jobs during the season.

During the years 1984-1988 around 50 men have gone to Middle East countries to work in different industries, business, constructions and services. It was found that many of them were still in debt when they returned, because of low salaries and cheating by the broker company. Now seven or eight men are still working in foreign countries. A few of the returners have improved their way of living with the money they earned abroad.

e. Land ownership

Villagers in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om, like most villagers in the north-east are agriculturalists who own their lands, therefore the number of landless farmers in this area is very low. The village headmen revealed that 90% of all households own land, the sizes ranging from 1 rai to over 100 rais.

Other sources indicate that 30% of all households do not have land for rice farming, while 23% own 1-5 rais, 15% 6-10 rais, 24% 11-20 rais, 5% 21-50 rais, but no household possesses rice fields over 50 rais.

Actually most households also have lands for other crops such as cassava, corn and fruits, but no comprehensive and accurate data are available.

f. Daily and seasonal activities

Daily activities of the villagers in Ban Tab-chang vary as to the season. There are three seasons: the rainy, the dry season and a short winter season. Rice farming takes place from early May or June to January. The men work in the rice fields, women also leave home to do their daily chores or work in the rice fields as well.

After the rice is harvested, several households begin growing vegetables, but some families plant vegetables all the year round. After the rice harvest the women tend the vegetable gardens and cassava fields. Young boys and girls, if they do not go to school, lighten the workload of the father and mother as they get older.

Also cassava planting usually starts in May or June when the land is clear and before the rainy season begins. Cassava crops usually need nearly nine months to grow and require a high labour input. Many young men and women are hired to work in cassava fields.

During the dry months of March-May, underemployment and unemployment are often seen; a large number of villagers spend their time leisurely, working a little on the dry land and in the vegetable gardens. However, some young men and women then search for additional work in the cities.

g. Markets and trade

The villagers mainly depend on both the village market and the Korat city market, where mini-buses are available.

In these four villages there are 15 small stores selling commodity and food products. In addition there are at least five middlemen buying kapok, cows and buffaloes, hogs and farm crops from the villagers.

As far as the sale of farm products is concerned, it was found that little rice is sold, since most families cultivate rice for home consumption. If it is necessary to sell, the local market is the first choice. However, cassava farmers often sell their products to nearby dealers in other sub-districts since there are no cassava sale agents in these villages. For fruit and vegetables there are no markets. The villagers have to transport their products to the city market in Korat. At the same time vegetables are bought from the city market by village merchants to be sold at the village market.

h. Local power structures

The villages on which this study concentrates share more or less the same social structure.

The *Kamnan* is the chief of a sub-district, governing several villages; at the village level there are village headmen governing each village.

Within a village, there are several clusters of houses called '*Khum*'. The leader of each *Khum* is considered to be the representative as well as the co-ordinator of contacts between members of the *Khum* and the village headman or the *Kamnan*. In some cases he also arranges contacts between the *Khum* and other agencies. Each level has its own committee or council. The sub-district council has the *Kamnan* as the council's chairman, and all village headmen of that sub-district as members of that council. In each village there is a village committee. The village headman is the chairman of the committee and members of the committee are selected among the villagers.

Besides these official and appointed leaders, there are also some other authorities who receive much respect from villagers. For example, the abbot of *Wat Tab-chang* (monastery of Tab-chang) is much revered as the religious leader. He is the cousin on the *Kamnan*'s wife. Both the *Kamnan* and the abbot are very influencial in village affairs. Moreover, some important persons who have much economic influence in the villages, like the owner of the rice mill and the owner of the busline, are cousins of the village headmen.

i. Social classes

At present, according to the villagers' opinion, the people of these villages can be roughly divided into two classes based on their economic status. One class is the well-to-do people and the other class is the poor people. The well-to-do people live in villages 6 and 9, while the poor people live in villages 5 and 8. On the whole social life in these villages is peaceable and harmonious.

j. Families

Most villagers live in medium-sized families consisting of five members on an average. A new house is traditionally built by the parents for the newly married son or daughter in some vacant corner of the parents' land.

The families and communities serve as the matrix for moulding the children and inculcating upon them values and knowledge, because most children stay at home and hardly go anywhere. The transfer of knowledge to young members of the family is related to the parents' vocation such as agriculture, animal husbandry, vegetable gardening, house chores and food preparation.

The influence of television programmes nowadays confronts the youths with new experiences. Electricity was extended to these villages in 1983. Young people now learn about behaviour which is different from that in their society. The most popular television programmes are long drama series, cartoons and Thai boxing contests.

k. Culture

The cultural values of the people living in Ban Tab-chang/Cha-om do not significantly differ from those of other rural areas.

The villagers still believe in black magic, but not very strongly. For example, they heal physical illnesses by asking for treatment suggestions from sacred spirits through a medium. They apply traditional herbal medicine whenever children develop a boil on the skin. Their parents will make a paste of soap and pineapple leaves and then place it over the boil. In a corner of nearly every homestead stands the typical Thai spirit house.

Even though the promotion of fish farming has been a successful activity, a number of local people do not like to eat fish from the village pond. Because some people and animals are bathing there regularly, the fish is supposed to spread contagious diseases. They will only eat fish caught from natural lakes, reservoirs and other waterways with clean-looking water.

There are some traditional customs and values still in practice among farmers. One is the way of reaping rice with neighbouring farmers collectively in order to get the rice harvested and stored in due time. The same group of farmers will reap rice in the fields of each member of the group consecutively, in accordance with the earlier or later ripening of the grains. But this custom is gradually giving way to the practice of hiring reapers. Neighbouring farmers sometimes have no time to give a helping hand.

On any occasion of religious ceremonies traditionally handed down for generations, all villagers are happy to assist each other in making perfect preparation; the spirit of mutual assistance is high, especially among people of the same village.

Western influences on the youths, which find their expression in dress- and hairstyles, are not appreciated by most other villagers. The parents try to forbid their children to wear offensive dress- and hairstyles. Most youths in these villages still obey their parents unconditionally.

l. Educational and other learning approaches

In former times most children learned about different things around them through the guidance of their parents. The accepted educational institution in those days was the monastery. The monks used to teach children literacy and miscellaneous knowledge. The first school was established about two decades ago. Since then, the villagers have let their children take formal schooling.

The institutions of family and community have a great influence upon the children's and youths' learning. Around 500 children aged 3-14 years in these four villages obtain worldly knowledge by life itself. There is a pre-school child care centre in operation, but it takes care of only 25 children.

There are two primary schools. Most children visit school until they finish compulsory education (Grade 6), and only a minority can continue their studies in higher classes at a school in town. Some reasons why most parents do not let their children get higher education are that there is no secondary school in the local area, that most of them are poor and that the certificate of higher education cannot guarantee a job.

An interesting approach to children's training is derived from the parents' aversion to the Western cultural influence on the children. In order to safeguard the children from such cultural change, the parents have organized praying congregations on the Buddhist shaving days (one day before every fortnight interval preaching day). A persuasive campaign has moved some 40-50 youths to come regularly to the congregation. The training process starts with prayer, after which the monk will preach on worldly and moral subjects.

m. Religion

Nearly all the local people are Buddhists. The most usual place of religious acitivity is *Wat Tab-chang*, followed by *Wat Nong Muang*. From observation of their offering of alms on the preaching days, it was found that many villagers attend the religious activities at both temples. Both elderly people and youths show their appreciation of the monk's preaching by donating some money to the *Wat*. This money is allotted partly to the construction of temple buildings.

It has been acknowledged for generations that Buddhism is a great influence in the lives of local people. Thus, the general strategies applied to rural development, such as the promotion of activities to be launched in these villages, depend very much on the monk's co-operation. They serve as change agents as well as local leaders whose venerable status is instrumental in motivating villagers to accept innovative technology and development activities with positive attitudes. For this reason, most initiators of projects and other activities will contact the monks first. Especially the abbot of *Wat Tab-chang* has energetically suggested, promoted and facilitated such activities.

The Local Administration Department of the Ministry of the Interior has named Ban Tab-chang/Cha-om to be one of the idealistic villages called '*Paendintham Paendinthong*' (literally: area without vices, but full of prosperity). The villagers have been urged to lessen, or refrain from, drinking whisky and betting. This is in accordance with Buddhist principles. The villagers have realized this and try to live up to them. Fewer people drink and bet. They have vowed to stay away from vices and narcotics to mend their ways. Those who still cannot quit drinking are ashamed to do it in public.

A committee of devoted villagers and a co-ordinator called '*Makatayok*' have been appointed to deal with all business related to religious ceremonies and fund raising in the forms of donations, souvenir selling, and arrangement of the annual fair accompanied by folk entertainment. They also serve as intermediaries

between the monastery and local people. Since several of them are members of the village committees, the religious institution has a close relationship with the village development committee.

2. PROJECT DELSILIFE

a. Organization

The DELSILIFE activities have been fully integrated in the organizational structure set up to foster rural development. It has five levels.

1. *National level.* A National Committee on Rural Development (NRD) was appointed in which the Prime Minister is chairman while ministers from various ministries are committee members and the secretary-general of the National Economic and Social Development Board is secretary.
2. *Provincial level.* A Provincial Development Committee (PDC) (*Kopojor*) was also nominated with the governor as chairman, the heads of all the provincial offices as committee members and the provincial section head as secretary.
3. *District level.* A District Development Committee (DDC) (*Kopo-or*) was established in which the head of the district office is chairman and a senior district section head is secretary.
4. *Sub-district level.* A Sub-district Development Committee (SDC) (*Kosotor*) was established with the sub-district headman as chairman, other village headmen as committee members and a local teacher as secretary.
   There also exists a Sub-district Development Advisory Committee (SAC) (*Kopotor*) in which the sub-district headman is chairman and local government officials are members. The community development official is secretary.
5. *Village level.* At this level a Village Development Committee (VDC) (*Komor*) exists under the chairmanship of the village headman. The other members are villagers themselves.

b. Approach

As DELSILIFE operates within the existing local administrative structure, the DELSILIFE committee was the same as the one of the community development organization. The existing Village Development Committee (*Komor*) assumed the tasks of the DELSILIFE Community Council. An important role is played by the Educational Group Leaders (EGL). There are two types: one is more or less permanent and has the task to initiate learning activities and to assist the community council. The other type of EGL is the Learning Group Leader (LGL), elected by members of learning groups. They teach and demonstrate skills in their learning programmes. The LGL may or may not be an EGL. These

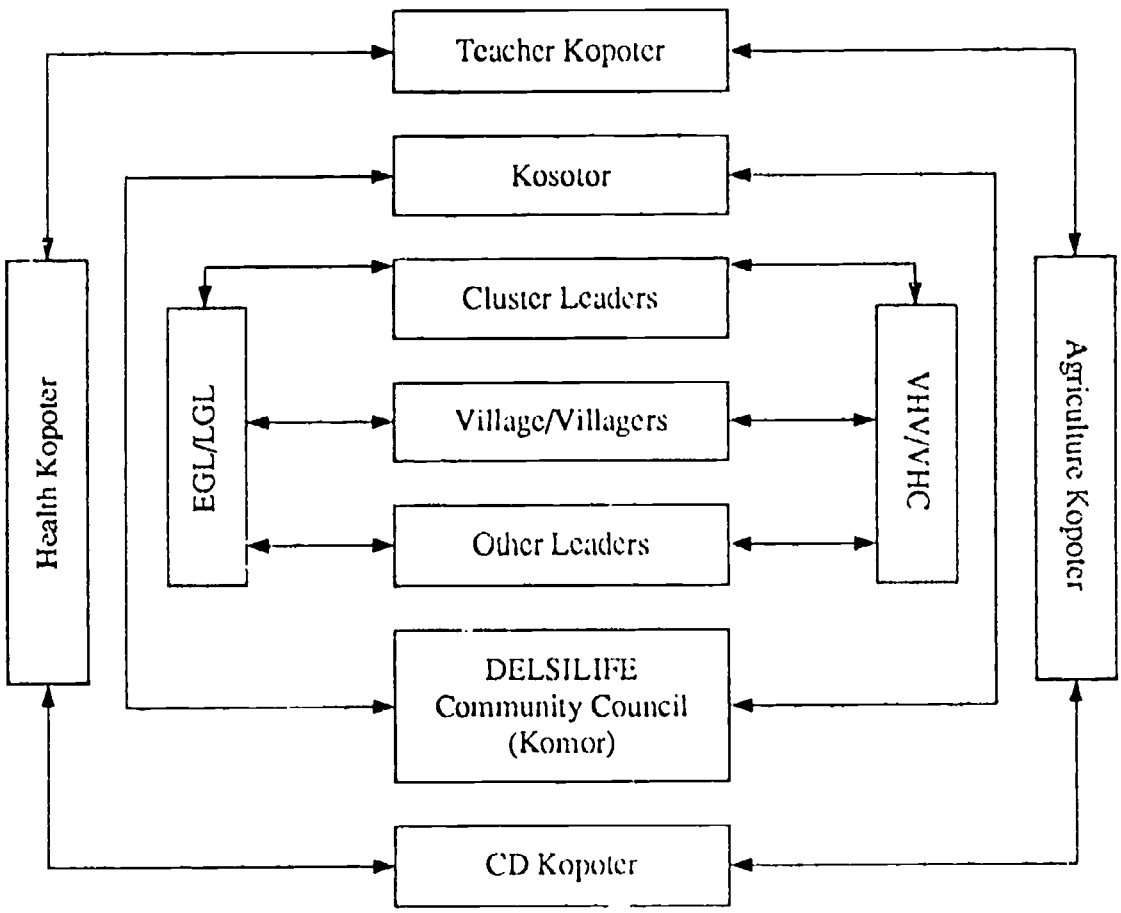
two agents, EGL and LGL, are comparable in function to the Village Health Volunteers (VHV) and Health Communicators (VHC) who operate in the programmes of the Ministry of Health.

It was decided, in order to reach the target group and to obtain maximum participation of the poorest of the poor, to divide the target villages into small clusters. Each cluster had its own administrative committee comprising a group of more than ten people, having a cluster leader as chairman of the committee.

Figure 1. shows how the various organizations are co-ordinated for the sake of village development and the integration of the DELSILIFE model in the actual Thai rural development system.

Fig. 1

Co-ordination among various local organizations in the development of the village.



c. Leaders of project DELSILIFE

As mentioned before, the community council (*Komor* or Village Development Committee) members were elected by the villagers to undertake the most significant roles in management and implementation of all developmental activities conducted within the community. In practice, they are the leaders who promoted or initiated the DELSILIFE system. They also played a role in supporting and carrying overall responsibility for initiatives, policies, obtaining and providing assistance to the inplementation of DELSILIFE.

Besides, in the teaching/learning process the *Komor*, especially *Komor* in education, together with the Educational Group Leader (EGL) played an important part in carrying out the learning programmes conducted in the village. They sometimes acted as instructors, demonstrators and trainers in the learning programmes.

Since the *Komor* is the operational body working directly for the improvement of the community, its members were intensively trained to know their roles and skills in leadership. They also learned how to secure the co-operation and support of sector agencies as well as to manage and solve community problems effectively through self-direction and self-reliance.

d. Learning groups

The group leaders of each village were responsible for the conduct of learning programmes. They were to identify the learning group and motivate the learners to join the learning programmes organized either in their neighbourhood areas or in a large group attended by the whole village.

The learning groups formed during the DELSILIFE implementation period are mapped out in Table 1.

e. Planning of learning activities

To plan the learning activities several meetings were held among villagers, in which the requests for learning activities were discussed. The group leaders in co-operation with the community members of the respective areas would extend their request to the project stafff for assistance and co-operation. If the activities were in need of resource persons the community council would try to locate the instructor from the sectoral agencies or contact skilled persons from other villages. If the activities could be taught by the group leaders themselves they would map out their own teaching plan and make their own teaching aids.

Table 1.
Learning groups

1. **Learning groups in vocational courses ranging from 30 to 150 hours**

No.	*Learning groups*	*Number of participants*	
		M	F
1.	Electrical wiring	21	1
2.	Small-engine repair	12	-
3.	Dress making	-	22
4.	Cosmetology	-	11
5.	Barbering	12	-
6.	Metallic welding, making of cement block, toilet bowl, water jar and water filter	10	-

2. **Learning groups in interest group learning programmes organized for 5-15 hours**

No.	*Learning groups*	*Number of participants*	
		M	F
1.	Compost making	5	-
2.	Trash-basket making	all households	
3.	Food preparation for pre-school kids	-	5
4.	Chicken farming	25	-
5.	Bee-keeping	5	3
6.	Making fish-sauce from fermented fish	-	3
7.	Fish-spawning and fish farming	17	2
8.	Mushroom growing	15	-
9.	Food & dessert preparation	10	-
10.	Handicrafts	-	15

3. **Learning groups in functional literacy programmes**

No.	*Learning groups*	*Number of participants*	
		M	F
1.	Functional literacy class organized in '82	89	67
2.	Functional literacy class organized in '86	16	16
	Total number of participants	221	182
	Grand total	403	

Table 2.
Learning and development activities

	Learning activities	*1982*	*1983*	*1984*
1.	Cement jar making	+		
2.	Food preparation/preservation	+		
3.	Cement water tank making	+		
4.	Toilet fixture & bowl making	+		
5.	Concrete block and pole making	+	+	
6.	Household water filter making	+		
7.	Selecting and testing fertilizers	+		
8.	Pesticides making	+		
9.	Compost making	+		
10.	Garment making		+	
11.	Electrical wiring		+	
12.	Engine repair		+	
13.	Mushroom growing		+	
14.	Functional literacy		+	
15.	Water pump making		+	
16.	Raising pond fish		+	
17.	Pillow making using kapok		+	
18.	Animal husbandry		+	
19.	Cashew nut growing		+	
20.	Bee keeping		+	+
21.	Basketry		+	+
22.	Reed mat weaving			+
	Development activities			
23.	Construction of reading centres	+		
24.	Improvement of village roads	+		
25.	Building the green house	+		
26.	Village co-operatives project	+	+	+
27.	Making household toilets		+	+
28.	Development of day care centre		+	+
29.	Drug co-operatives		+	+

f. Planning of learning programmes

When organizing and conducting the learning programmes the group leaders, in co-operation with the community council, prepared for their own areas the long-range plan of all learning and development programmes to be conducted in each geographic area of Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om. The result is summarized in Table 2.

In principle a distinction can be made between learning activities organized by the Non-Formal Education Centre, activities organized by other agencies and activities organized by the villagers themselves. In theory the difference between the first two is that the Non-Formal Education Centre tries to respond to the learning needs of the villagers, while other agencies provide training in the framework of their own development objectives. The establishment of training needs is done in a methodological way in which staff of the NFE Centre are involved. The activities organized by the villagers themselves naturally reflect their needs for training.

g. Involvement of sectoral agencies

The government established the sub-district council and the village committee. In the beginning these fledgling administrative bodies did not function very well in promoting developmental activities. With the advent of the DELSILIFE project several formal organizations and groups with varied interests were created. For example, there was the fish farming group, the bee keeping group, the concrete jar making group, the chicken raising group, the fish sauce production group and the vegetable gardening group.

These groups resulted from discussion meetings of villagers and extension officers. After a try-out the fish farming group has proved itself to be commercially viable, while the other groups experienced difficulties which caused the end of the experiment. This failure does not mean that the group activity had been useless. The villagers learned from organizing an activity with other people. Their new knowledge and skills will be useful tools in selecting feasible activities for the future. In other words, the experience obtained from struggling unsuccessfully taught them to think critically and to decide what to do with problems that arise.

Once the local people possess the potential of organizing a promising activity, agencies may see the possibility to propose activities and leave it to the local people to decide what is most beneficial to them. For example, the Department of Fisheries has promoted the Village Fish Farming Project. Many villagers have learned how to feed the fish, how to increase the number of fish through the method of artificial insemination. The Department of Livestock Development has promoted the setting up of a chicken raising group and a cattle breeding group. The Department of Agricultural Extension has promoted the

establishment of a pesticide fund. The Ministry of Public Health has launched a nationwide medical fund at village level, in conjunction with the appointment of reliable local people to be the public health volunteers. The Community Development Department has established a women's group, a youth's group and a savings group. Other agencies have undertaken infrastructural projects such as digging and removing earth to make reservoirs promoted by the Office of Accelerated Rural Development; road construction, making concrete jars and setting up an electricity generator (accomplished by the Job Creation Project in Rural Areas).

The pre-school child care of Ban Tab-chang/Cha-om first started operating in November, 1983. The establishment was devised, planned and operated by a committee whose members are villagers of Ban Tab-chang/Cha-om selected under the auspices of the teachers of the Tab-chang school; local agencies represented the four principal ministeries engaged in rural development. The initial idea to establish this Centre was a result of activities developed by project DELSILIFE. The incentives had been made in the housewives training project, and films were shown by the field-workers of the Ministry of Public Health. The villagers discussed the project in several sessions. During the training of village committee members and educational volunteers, organized by the Nakhon Ratchasima Provincial Non-Formal Education Centre, all participants visited several places of interest. These community leaders were very much interested in running a child care centre. Afterwards, they proposed the pre-school child care centre as an experimental project in the village development plan for 1983-1984. The Centre opened on November 17, 1983, and it has been a successful activity until now.

3. RESULTS OF DELSILIFE

During three consecutive years of project implementation, 1982-1984, in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om, several changes took place. Moreover, after the termination of the pilot project in 1984, many learning activities and development activities have been continued.

a. Project staff's perceptions and opinions

Project DELSILIFE started nearly six years ago and some project staff have in the meantime been transferred to other places. As a result only six persons of Phase B were available to be interviewed. Although these people took different duties and roles in DELSILIFE, they tend to express the same opinion and have the same perceptions of various aspects of DELSILIFE. They agreed that the DELSILIFE method is a desirable approach of community development which emphasizes the process of education in contrast to the previous community development strategies which heavely leaned on the contribution of external

resources. Secondly, all of them expressed that DELSILIFE created many changes in the target villages in the following aspects:

1. *Unity and co-operation among villagers in planning and carrying out development activities.*
   For example, they have orderly taken turn in feeding, catching and selling fish, looked after the village reading centre and have given rice and food to young kids in the day care centre.
2. *Attitudes and values with respect to morals, peace, government officials, health etc.*
   In former days moral conduct was mainly seen as a question of religion, but now people consider contributing to community affairs. Drinking and gambling have been reduced. Serious conflicts and violence between villages and among villagers have decreased. These four villages used to be centres of crime, but now they have been called the moral and golden territory.

   The changed attitudes to the government officials seem to be the most pleasing aspects for the project staff. The villagers understand government staff better than before.

   Attitudes to health care have gradually changed. Instead of depending on magic most villagers turn to a doctor or a village health officers when they are sick.
3. *Development of decision making.*
   It has been observed that a lot of villagers gradually developed the ability to make their own decisions without much influence from outside. For example, group leaders for learning groups were selected by villagers, and the Village Development Council was selected by concerned villagers. In addition the formation of a DELSILIFE working plan was made by the group leaders and learning groups without the interference of project staff or other government officials.
4. *Roles of women.*
   Women in DELSILIFE project sites have played more important roles than they formerly would in carrying out activities. For example, the Day Care Centre is run by a group of women in the villages. Moreover, at least ten women were selected to be group leaders and heads of village activities.
5. *Development of self-reliant behaviour.*
   The following indications of improved self-reliance can be reported:
   - The learning group on fish culture was able to mobilize local resources to build cement nursery ponds for fish insemination without any support from governmental or private agencies.
   - Villagers in fish breeding learning groups were able to develop a simple but clever technique of fish insemination. They rarely buy fry from the Fisheries Office because they can breed it themselves. Some five or six people in the villages are very skilful at this. It can be said that fish insemi-

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nation is one of the most successful learning programmes of DELSILIFE in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om. Some members of this group are often invited by other villagers to demonstrate how to inseminate. At present they prepare fry to be raised in the big fish pond of Ban Tab-chang. This usually results in an annual income of 15,000-30,000 baht.

- The continuation of the old learning groups and the establishment of new learning groups have been carried out under the management and the decision of villagers themselves. For example, a group leader contacted a resource person from some other agency to teach their members how to keep bees. When the group faced the problem of bees dying because of pesticides, they decided to take the bees to an agricultural extension office. This means that the villagers have developed the skill of planning, finding alternatives to solve problems and making their decisions instead of waiting for government officials to give directions.
- The villagers were able to solve the problem of the limited water supply for farming and drinking in the dry season. It can be claimed that the improvement of two big swamps and the building of cement water jars are direct products of project DELSILIFE. In the past Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om were considered among the most serious areas of water shortage in the dry season despite having an irrigation canal. During the implementation of DELSILIFE, the village leaders and their learning groups decided to make a plan to get financial assistance from the government to improve existing big swamps to store rain falling in the rainy season to be used for rice farming and to start making big cement jars for drinking water. The idea of providing water jars to local villagers was spread all over the north-eastern region. At present nearly 90% of the households in Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om have enough water for home consumption and for planting the whole year round.

6. *The improvement of the quality of life.*
   - The number of sanitary toilets has been increased from 5 to 70% of the total households. In addition 80% of the housegrounds are clean and tidy and usually decorated with green fences.
   - A number of villagers can now make an income from vocational skills gained from the training activities during the DELSILIFE implementation. Some young women who participated in dress-making courses were able to get jobs in the cities. Several villagers can make a large amount of money after attending the lessons on vegetable growing.
   - Many villagers have developed varieties of constructive skills in communication, expressing their ideas, organizing meetings and associating with others in a democratic way. There are indicators to show that meetings are of a consultative, rather than a decisive nature. In the meetings the members are encouraged to give their opinions and they are taken into consideration. It seems that the villagers have more confidence to express their opinions and dare to ask questions.

b. Perceptions and opinions of community council and group leaders

Community Council and group leaders are the key personnel of DELSILIFE at the village level. They are both co-ordinators and initiators of learning activities.

Most of them were more familiar with the word INNOTECH than the word DELSILIFE. All of them still recognized some DELSILIFE project staff. Nearly all of them appreciated the DELSILIFE approach which encourages and motivates local villagers to develop their own learning needs.

Actually most of them did not know the meaning and the concept of DELSILIFE; they just thought it was an English word*. However, they could recall the learning activities organized during the past four of five years. Their opinions are summarized as follows:

1. A large number of illiterates were able to develop their literacy and numeracy skills.
2. A number of useful economic and occupational skills were learned. The people were also able to improve the village water supply which used to be the worst problem in the village.
   All agreed that vocational activities and development activities initiated and established in project DELSILIFE gave a wide range of benefits to different groups of people and had improved the economic condition of the villages to some extent.
3. When considering health and sanitation aspects, the sample also revealed that the learning activities organized had much influence on the improvement of household ground and household sanitation, the promotion of health among family members and the development of food and drinking water.
4. Finally, many group leaders, especially village headmen and sub-district headmen expressed their sincere thanks and great appreciation to DELSILIFE for enhancing moral values among villagers. They mentioned that the improvement of spirit and attitude towards people in other villages, the development of self-reliance, the increase of villagers' participation in village affairs and the development of leadership among villagers mainly resulted from the learning activities organized in these four villages.

c. Perceptions and opinions of project participants and learning groups

As mentioned previously, there were at least 400 people participating in the DELSILIFE learning groups. However, it was rather difficult to identify these

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* (ed. note) It should be noted that in Thailand the word DELSILIFE was never used to label the approach. An equivalent Thai description was used.

people in the villages since many of them could not recall what they had done several years before. Moreover, a few of them had moved to other places. The researchers had to find key informants to obtain data and information. From talks with 20 people who had joined the DELSILIFE learning programmes evidence was gathered of changes in perceptions and attitudes.

It seems that most of the learning group participants did not understand the meaning, the concept and the underlying rationale of DELSILIFE; they only expressed their ideas and feelings about learning activities organized for them. They observed that a lot of learning activities had been organized for local people, attended by different groups of people. For them the programmes had been very interesting and useful. The following benefits were mentioned:

1. More income because of participating in vocational training courses.
2. More fish for food preparation since they can raise fish in the big pond, and have extra income for community development from selling fish.
3. Village reading centres have been established to be the places for meeting and recreation. The centres were built with donations and co-operation from villagers.
4. Water jars made with financial support from the centres have relieved the shortage of water in the dry season.
5. A number of poor people have gained more self-confidence, express more ideas and are able to negotiate.
6. Conflicts and violence in the villages have virtually disappeared. Security of life and belongings has increased because the villagers have more sens of social responsibility and there is greater co-operation with other villages.

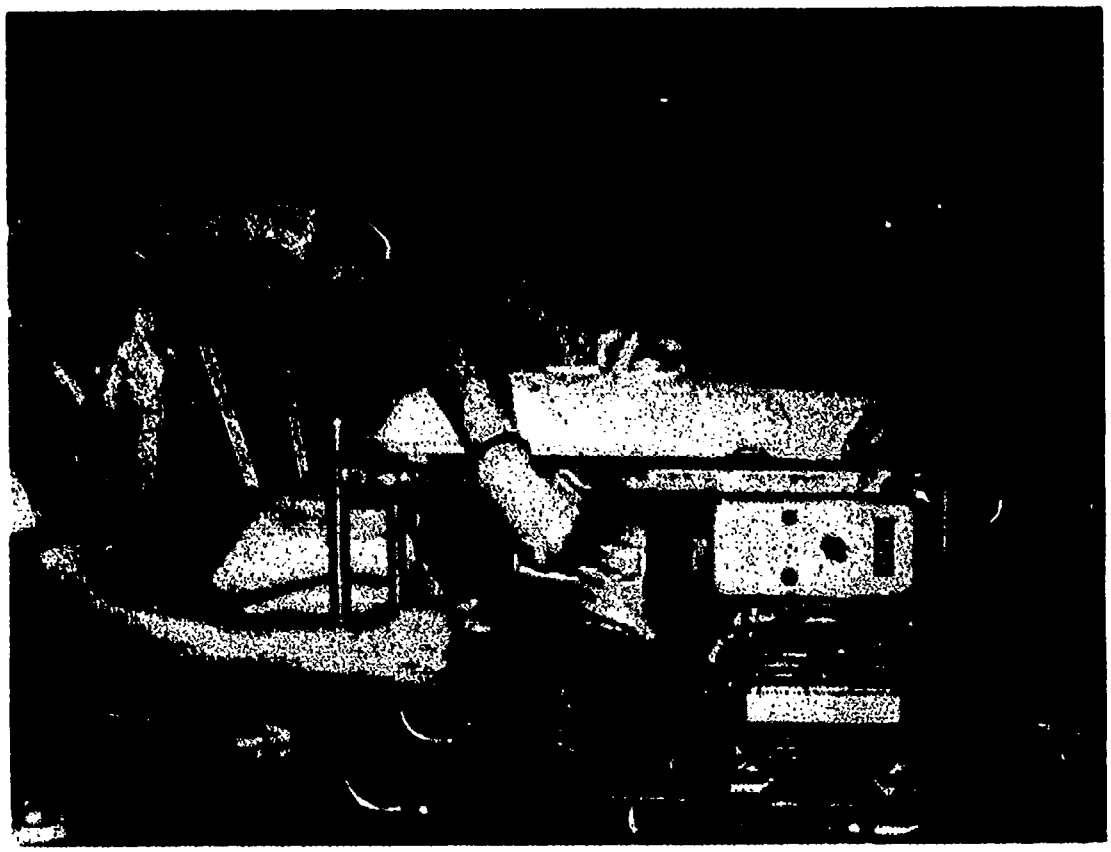
In summary, most of the project's participants agreed that this project was a good and useful one. Although the achievement of the project could not be identified in concrete or explicit results, at least it had encouraged and motivated local people to become more co-operative, constructive and to show initiative. As a result DELSILIFE was sometimes classified as the pilot project for preparing villagers to be responsible for community development activities.

d. Perceptions and opinions of non-participants and other villages

The four target villages of DELSILIFE are located in an area surrounded by five other villages. Interviews with a few villagers of Ban Nong Muang (village 3) about their perceptions and opinions towards DELSILIFE revealed that these people rarely knew about these activities. It was also found that the word 'DELSILIFE' was less known than 'INNOTECH' and 'Korat Provincial Centre'.

Village leaders in some other villages showed to be positive about the DELSILIFE approach and thought their villages should be the next target groups for implementation. They had noticed that several things in Ban Tab-

chang and Cha-om had changed for the better, especially the unity and the co-operation among villagers. However, they thought that DELSILIFE could not solve the problem of poverty in the villages since only the village leaders and their relatives had benefited from this project. In addition, some interviewees from other villages did not observe any specific changes resulting from the DELSILIFE method. One claimed that the improvement of the villages had been brought about by people from outside the villages, especially the merchants in the city.



Learning group on automotive electrical service, Loma de Gato, Philippines
Photo: INNOTECH

IX.
Project Delsilife in Loma de Gato, Bulacan, Philippines

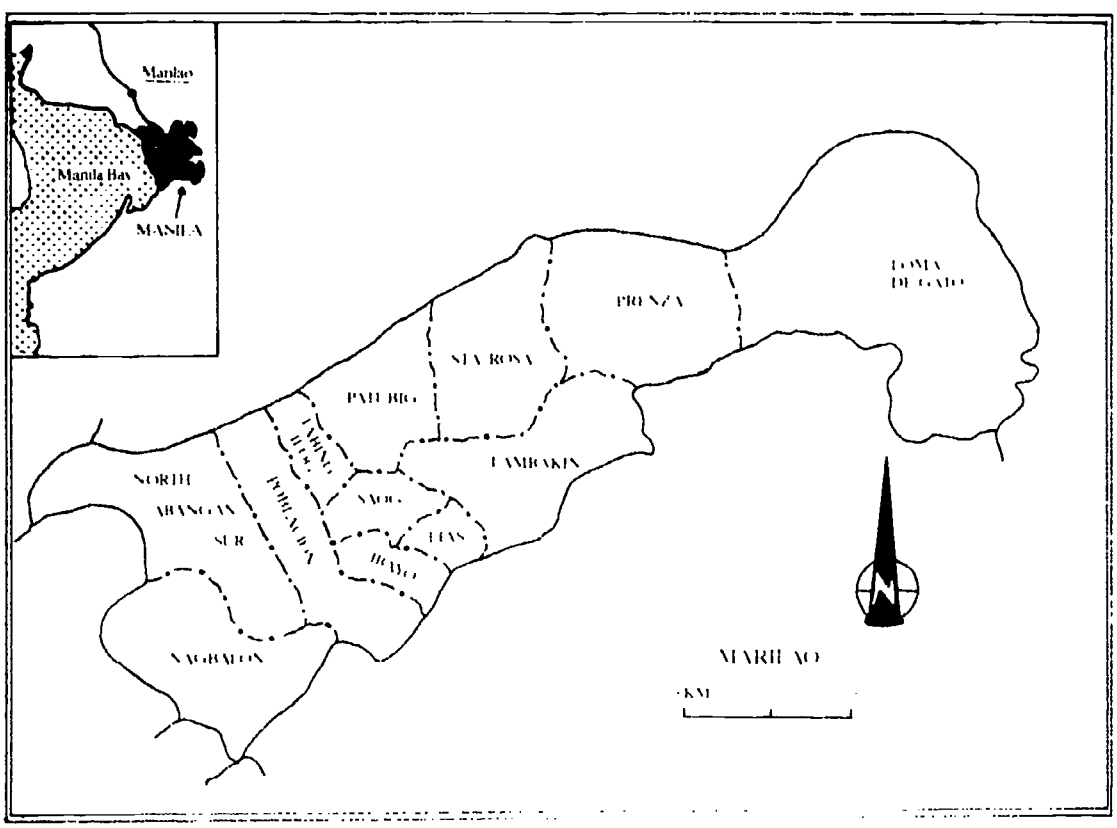
Celia M. Antonio

1. BACKGROUND

a. The province

Situated along the southernmost part of the central plain of Luzon is the province of Bulacan. It is one of the five provinces comprising the rice granary area.

Being an integral part of the central plains of Luzon, Bulacan boasts of her vast agricultural lands as the foundation of local economic activity. Coupled with a diversity of occupations and industries, Bulacan attracts people from neighbouring provinces to do business and engage in trade with its craftsmen.



b. The town

Marilao, located 20 kilometers north-north-west of Manila, is one of the twenty-four towns of Bulacan. It is the second town of Bulacan after Meycauayan.

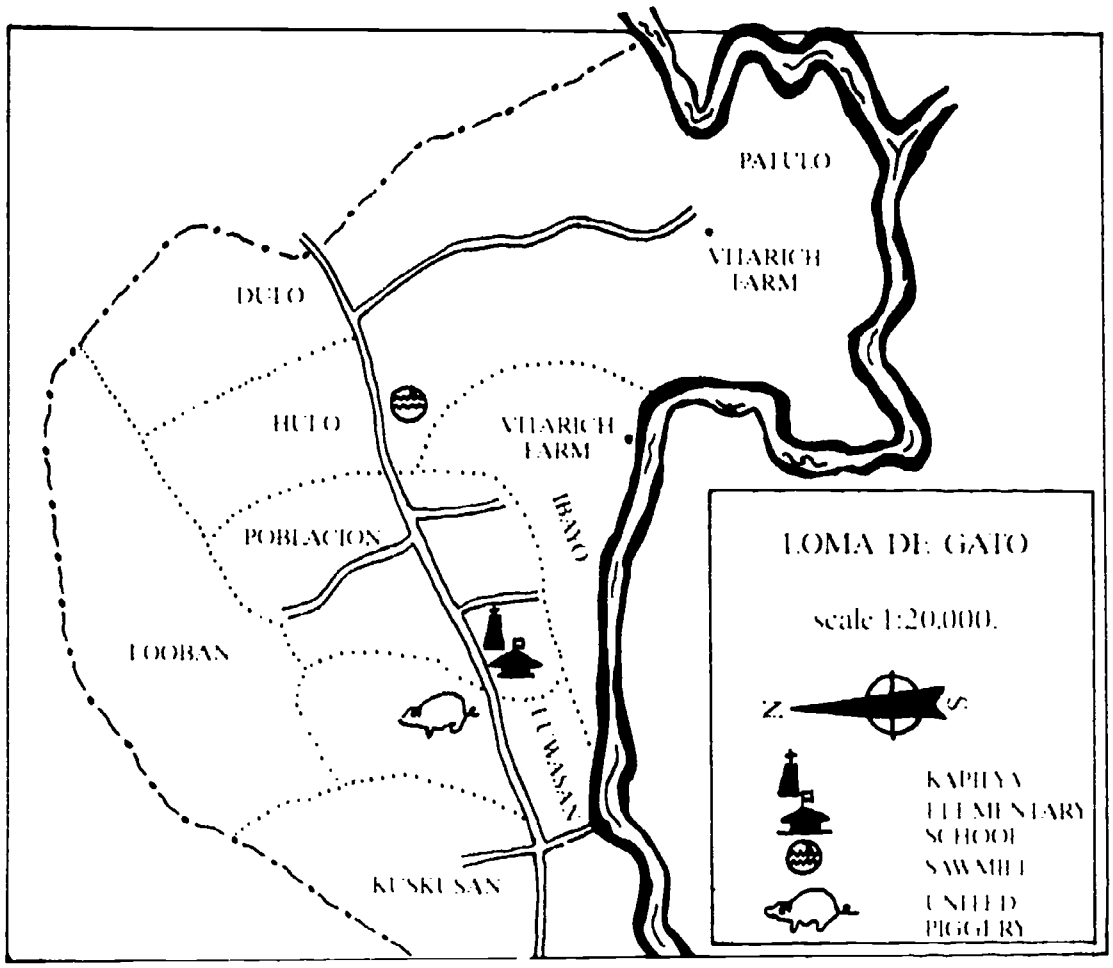
The economy is primarily agricultural but there is a gradual shift to the development of trade and commerce, agro-industry and expansion of small-scale cottage industries. There are branches of commercial and savings banks, first class diners, pubs and large factories contributing to the progress of the town and making Marilao a municipality not without esteem.

c. The barrio

Loma de Gato is one of the thirteen *barrios* (villages) of Marilao. It is located more than eight kilometers from the town proper. A rural community, the *barrio* has a total land area of 940 hectares.

The *barrio* has eight hamlets: Liwasan, Kuskusan, Poblacion, Ibayo, Looban, Hulo, Dulo and Patulo.

A legend says that during the Spanish time the *barrio* was once a burial place of cats, from which the Spanish term 'Loma de Gato' was derived, 'loma' meaning 'burial place' and 'gato' meaning cat.



d. The people

The *barrio* people are industrious and peaceful. They help each other in time of need, during baptisms, weddings and funeral wakes. Respect for elders is still important to the people here.

In Loma de Gato the typical family is closely knit and whether the houses are big or small, they are occupied both by the members of the immediate family and the extended family. Relatives live near each other.

The father is the head of the family, the authority and the provider. The mother takes full responsibility and control of child rearing and household chores. She budgets the husband's earnings. The children also help their parents. The elder sons join their father to work in the fields. They also help in the family piggery and poultry. The elder daughters help their mothers do the household chores and take care of the younger siblings. There is a clear delineation of work among the members of the family. Grandparents are the confidants of the grandchildren, particularly in their love affairs and other personal problems.

e. Material culture

Houses in the *barrio* are made of a variety of materials, galvanized iron, wood, brick, contrete.

Grouping of houses is generally based on kinship ties. Houses and lots are owned by the occupants.

Some houses in the barrio have television cassette recorders, refrigerators and gas stoves. All houses have electricity. Water supply comes from either the deep well run by an electric water pump or the hand pump public faucet.

Jeepneys and tricycles are the most frequently owned means of conveyance.

f. Religion

Loma de Gato is essentially a Christian community although the affiliations of the people vary. Approximately 95 percent of the total population are Roman Catholics. The rest are either 'Born Again' Christians or Protestants.

The villagers believe that everything that happens to them, e.g. sickness, good health, crop failure, all fortune and misfortune is the will of the Divine Providence.

The *barrio* has a chapel where mass is read every Sunday. It also serves as the centre for religious activities.

There are two active organizations connected with the church. One is the Legion of Mary, composed mostly of women. The other religious organization is the Adoracion Nocturna whose members are all males.

g. Education

The Loma de Gato elementary school offers classes from grades one to six. It also has a kindergarten class which is an outgrowth of a DELSILIFE learning programme among mothers.

Presently, a teacher-in-charge supervises the ten teachers, mostly natives of the place. There are eight classes that meet morning and afternoon.

After finishing grade six, most students go to Prenza High School in the nearby *barrio*. Others attend a private high school in the nearby town of Meycauayan.

h. The barangay health centre

Loma de Gato has a *barangay* (village association) health centre which was established in 1950. The one-storey structure is located inside the school premises. A midwife goes to the centre daily to attend to the needs of the *barrio*, particularly Patulo which is considered the most depressed of all the hamlets. The midwife is engaged by the municipal health office of Marilao.

Services given by the centre include minor treatments, distribution of free medicine to those in need, distribution of flour and powdered milk given by the Department of Social Services and Development and immunization of school children.

i. Political organization

The government unit of Loma de Gato is the *barangay* with the *barangay captain* as the chief administrative officer. He is assisted by the council men. These *barrio* officials act as intermediaries between the *barrio* people and the local government.

The provincial governor and the incumbent *barangay captain* belong to the same political party while the mayor of the town belongs to the opposition. This different party affiliation of the mayor and the *barangay captain* poses a problem in connection with local improvements. Projects require approval by the mayor. Loyalty to one's political party edges service to the people, which is a characteristic of Philippine politics. And that includes the *barrio*.

j. Associations

Social linkages in the *barrio* appear to be weak. This is perhaps due to the absence of enduring village-wide organizations with the exception of the Parent-Teachers Association. During the past years, *Kabataang Barangay* was an active youth organization sponsoring projects for the young people of Loma de Gato. It is now inactive because the members are too busy with their work or

studies. Other members are just too lazy to participate. The only time when the members are active is during the May festival and also when the *barrio fiesta* is celebrated.

Samahang Nayon, an association of farmers, lost steam and is now inactive. The members feel they can no longer afford the membership. The membership fees are turned into benefits for the members, like sick and death benefits.

Samahan ng mga Kababaihan (SAMAKABA), a women's association in the *barrio*, is no longer active. The members are too busy attending to their household chores or earning a living, so that they can no longer attend meetings or participate in its activities. The members find the meetings a waste of time, claiming that they are economically unprofitable. To them it seems more useful to spend their time on economic activities.

k. Economic subsistence

The primary means of livelihood in Loma de Gato is agriculture. The villagers plant once a year only because there is no irrigation. The fields are rain-fed. By the months of June and July, after the rains have fallen, the farmers start ploughing the fields using the traditional cultivating tools, namely the harrow, plough and buffalo. Some use the hand tractor. Harvesting is done toward the early part of November.

There are a few families in the *barrio* who own more than ten hectares of land. To prevent the land being claimed due to the land reform programme of the government, it is subdivided among the children. Some families own one to four hectares. One rarely finds a family owning seven hectares or more. If ever, it belongs to big business establishments like Vitarich Corporation.

Another source of livelihood for the people is piggery. Almost all families in the place have piggeries.

There is also a 'sharing system' in the *barrio* in connection with hog raising. A person buys several hogs and asks somebody to take good care of them. When the hogs are sold, the person who bought them and the caretaker equally share the profit.

Smoking fish is another source of income. It is a family enterprise in which all the members join. With a meagre capital of one thousand pesos (US $ 50) the family can earn a net profit of 50 to 70 pesos a day.

Other sources of income for the people are cow raising, tricycle driving, the variety store, automotive repair shop and jeepney driving.

The village also numbers professional workers such as veterinarians, teachers, mechanics, electricians and repairers of electrical appliances.

Others are employed in big companies, engaged in poultry and feeds and textile companies.

The *barrio* has four big piggeries owned by Chinese businessmen from Metro Manila. These piggeries have workers who are not locals. This also holds good

for the sawmill and the factory of plastic bottle caps. The municipality, not the *barrio*, is the beneficiary of the earnings of these piggeries and plants through annual taxes. It is only when they are approached for donations in cash or in kind for *barrio* projects that they extend their help to Loma de Gato.

Socio-economic ranking in the *barrio* is more evident in what people own and earn. A few families refer to themselves as "having more than enough" which means that they are owners of several plots of land, have a medium size piggery are living in concrete houses with appliances such as refrigerator, TV set, cassette recorder and own a jeep or motorcycle. An added source of income is usually brought in by a member of the family either employed in the government or in a private firm.

Several families refer to themselves as "having just enough", owning a small parcel of land, a modest semi-concrete house and lot, a TV set and radio-cassette recorder. They are also engaged in small piggery business and some form of part-time work like jeepney and tricycle driving or farm work.

Other families refer to themselves as having "less than enough", always worrying how to make ends meet, having no fixed income at all.

2. PROJECT DELSILIFE

Project DELSILIFE came about in Loma de Gato through the then Deputy Minister for Non-Formal Education, of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Honorable Felicitas G. Bernardino. She is a native of Marilao. Since the project is concerned with non-formal education she was the pre-eminent person to deal with project DELSILIFE.

INNOTECH chose Loma de Gato as the project site for DELSILIFE upon the recommendation of Mrs. Bernardino. Because the aim of the project is to improve the quality of life of the poor people in rural communities, Mrs. Bernardino thought that Loma de Gato would be an ideal site being the poorest among the thirteen *barrios* of Marilao.

For the people of the *barrio*, the choice of the place was more for political reasons than economic. Mrs. Bernardino, being a KBL member (*Kilusang Bagong Lipunan*, the political party in power during the Marcos regime) thought that she could easily woo the people concerning political matters knowing full well that Loma de Gato is strictly always or the opposite side of the fence politically. The people further contend that Loma de Gato is not necessarily the poorest area. They believe that there are other places in the province which are poorer and where DELSILIFE should have been introduced.

The project formally started in Loma de Gato in May 1980. The first part of the project, labelled as Phase A, aimed at describing the conditions of rural poverty. To achieve this aim, Phase A was devoted to gathering relevant information about the lives of the people. During the whole period of Phase A the field

staff of the project stayed in the area, getting a full picture of the place and at the same time improving their rapport with the people day by day. Everything about DELSILIFE was explained to the people. Phase A continued for a year and a half.

The second part of the project, labelled Phase B, started in October 1981 and aimed at introducing a change in the *barrio* based on the information gathered in Phase A. Meetings were held attended by the field staff and the *barrio* people. These were mostly on information dissemination about DELSILIFE. The DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC) had several functions, as formulating policies and rules for an effective implementation of activities and also to serve as the communication link between the *barrio* people and the field staff. There was also the organization of small neighborhood areas (SNAs), whose residents may have a common problem or find themselves having a common need. These people then organized themselves into a learning group. They elected a group leader whose job it is to perform such roles as co-ordinating the creation of a learning programme and participating in the learning activities. The DCC has the task to train the group leaders for effective leadership performance.

After the organization of learning groups came the development of learning programme. The following activities were organized:

Luwasan:	hair science, manicure, pedicure, automotive electrical service;
Poblacion:	hair science, goat raising;
Hulo:	garment making, embroidery;
Dulo:	manicure, pedicure, food preparation/food preservation;
Looban:	food preservation/food preparation, hair science;
Patulo:	tailoring, dressmaking;
Ibayo:	manicure, pedicure, *siopao* (fish or chicken snack) making, mushroom growing.

In the DELSILIFE Training Centre sessions for the community-based learning programme were held: leadership training, food preservation and preparation, co-operatives, livestock raising, manicure, pedicure, practical electricity, primary health care and vegetable growing. There were also learning programmes for religious development, hamlet development and youth and sports development.

As a rule sessions were held every day. The number of hours for the sessions varied. If the group leader was familiar with the required skill, he/she was the one who actually taught the participants. If not, a resource person, usually an expert on the skill, was invited. The resource person in most cases was connected with a government agency like the Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Extension, Bureau of Nonformal Education, Bureau of Co-operatives, Department of Local Government, National Institute of Science and Technology, National Manpower and Youth Council, Department of Health and

the local municipal government. The *barrio* people also acted as resource persons depending on their knowledgeability of the given skill. The DCC and the group leader took charge of inviting resource persons. The sessions of a learning programme went on for about one month.

There were people from the *barrio* who did not participate in project DELSILIFE. Although they were aware of DELSILIFE and the presence of the project staff (which to them is DELSILIFE), they preferred going to the field and doing their chores. Others were just too busy earning a living, driving a jeepney or a tricycle and working in the factory. Mostly the non-participants were the wage-earners in the family.

3. RESULTS OF DELSILIFE

For the people of Loma de Gato, project DELSILIFE gave a new dimension to their way of life. The DELSILIFE method gave the people the chance to learn various economically oriented skills by which they could earn a living. Food preparation made them aware that they could serve meals made of inexpensive but nutritious vegetables o fish.

Hamlet development strengthened their community consciousness, effecting greater participation in community meetings and projects and in managing community affairs. There was an increased general motivation to keep the place clean.

The learning programme helped the people to develop their social abilities through association and interaction with others, by presenting problems and ways to solving them and in considering group decisions. They became better acquainted with each other because they were able to share their new knowledge and ideas through frequent interaction and small community gatherings. Some participants in their respective SNA learning groups served as resource persons in other SNA learning groups. Among the participants, there was a mutual sharing of acquired skills, not only among themselves but also with non-participants.

For the youth, project DELSILIFE was most welcome. *Kabataang Barangay*, a youth organization existing before the advent of DELSILIFE, had more inactive members than active ones. The organization was active only on occasions like the May festival. The project staff learned of this dormant youth organization. The youth sector of the *barrio* was invited by the staff for a meeting. The purpose of the meeting was the revival of *Kabataang Barangay*. A small group of members attended the first few meetings. Later on the number increased because the staff thought of ways to motivate attendance. There were informal parties with parlour games. Basketball games were held and prizes were awarded to the winning team. Furthermore, the staff also donated balls and nets for volleyball. The *Kabataang Barangay* was reactivated by the DELSILIFE project staff. When the staff left the project site, the organization started to lose

steam until it became inactive again, which it has been to the present time.

The DELSILIFE Community Council proved to be an asset to the *barrio*. Upon the request of the DCC, government and non-government agencies provided services, materials, equipment and resource persons to the learning programme, thereby facilitating the entry of sectoral services into the community.

The local people were glad to acquire more economically-oriented skills. Through these acquired skills their mode of living was improved. They were able to meet their basic needs because of better income rates. However, their enhanced capacity to improve their quality of life was brought about individually.

In the DELSILIFE philosophy people with the same acquired skills (e.g. dressmaking) would pool resources and labour to put up a shop, then work together and divide the profits in proportion to the amount each had invested. This did not materialize. Instead the people became individualistic, each attending to his own work and earnings.

The beauticians, tailors and dressmakers had normally performed their trade at home but most of them were able to find work in bigger and better known shops located in the town proper or nearby towns.

A male participant who had acquired the skill of *siopao*-making was lucky enough to get a better job as a baker in a well-known bakery in Baguio City.

A great help to the barrio were the participants in the practical electricity learning programme. The reason why most hamlets in the community now have electricity is due to their co-operative work in putting up electricity posts and laying the electrical connections. One participant got a job in the Middle East because of this acquired skill.

Food preparation is not much of an income generating activity. Recipes learned are mostly for family consumption, in particular when there is a special occasion which calls for a celebration.

Embroidery has been one of the means of livelihood in Loma de Gato from before the DELSILIFE project. Ten female embroiderers are now engaged in this activity. One of them is the employer and is knowledgeable on the demand and the delivery places for embroidered materials for dresses and wedding gowns. The nine embroiderers are her employees and each is paid according to the achievement of the day. In fact, some of these embroiderers learned the trade from her. Before, they used to work as a group in the house of the employer. They now work in their respective homes but are still paid by the lady employer.

Embroidery as an acquired skill is not part of DELSILIFE's learning programme. At first it was planned to include it in the learning programme and the employer was considered as the resource person. But this plan was abandoned because there were felt to be enough embroiderers in the community. DELSILIFE requested the employer to hang a sign outside her house reading "EMBROIDERY CENTRE" so that when foreign visitors of DELSILIFE visit the community, they may easily find the place and observe the techniques and the finished products.

An economic activity which turned out to be a good source of income to many people in Loma de Gato is smoking fish, an occupation conducted before the coming of DELSILIFE. The *barrio* captain was the first to invest in this activity with the help of a knowledgeable *barrio* resident. This particular resident is not a native of the place. He came from a town in Pangasinan where fish smoking is also a source of livelihood. When he had enough money he started his own business. Many people learned from him and his sister-in-law. The sister-in-law served as a resource person in the food preservation programme, of which fish smoking formed a part. Workers in the fish smoking shop left their work to put up their own, seeing that it was a profitable activity.

Although DELSILIFE did not introduce this skill, it was partly instrumental in the success. The fish smokers said that it was DELSILIFE that made them aware of it as a good source of income.

The fish smoking business benefited many people, such as the workers in the fish shop, the jeepney drivers who transport the fish and the store owners and vendors. The latter are mostly from Patulo hamlet. The place where fish smokers worked became a DELSILIFE show-window for foreign visitors.

The co-operative in Loma de Gato, called Community Management Co-operative Incorporated (CMCI), started as a consumer's co-operative on October 14, 1984. Initially it had a capital of 5,000 pesos with 24 members, seven of whom were chosen officers. All the members attended a four-day seminar with the assistance of the Bureau of Co-operatives. The officers of the co-operative learned their duties and responsibilities from the seminar.

However, several months after it started, CMCI experienced an internal problem. The officers and members accused the president of autocratic leadership: she was doing all the duties of the other officers; there was no consultation on important matters concerning CMCI and no information was given about the state of affairs in the co-operative. There was a growing distrust in the president and to this was added the dissatisfaction with her performance. The president for her part claimed she had to do everything because the other officers neglected their duties and responsibilities.

The condition worsened when the president had an accident which meant hospitalization and a long period of rest. Because there was no one to manage CMCI, it was closed and the shares of the members were returned to them without any interest. The members were disillusioned and considered the co-operative a failure.

On April 19, 1987, the co-operative reopened. There was a reorganization and election of officers. It now has a new president who is really capable and trustworthy of the position in the view of the members. A sum of 25,000 pesos donated by visiting Americans through INNOTECH was a great boost to the revival of the co-operative. Less than a year after its reopening, the co-operative was able to give dividend to its members and helped improve the facilities of the elementary school through its cash donation.

Meetings are now held more often to discuss whatever problems and pressing matters need to be tackled. More people in the *barrio* are so eager to become members that it has become a credit co-operative. In August 1988 the application to be a multi-purpose co-operative was approved.

The mushroom culture activity only lasted for six months. This was attributed to the fact that, firstly, the soil in the community was not suited to mushroom seedlings. Secondly, it required a big capit .l, which was unaffordable. Thirdly, there was no market for mushrooms.

To the people of the *barrio*, the co-operative is the most visible legacy of project Delsilife, which to them is an organization of INNOTECH and partly affiliated with the Bureau of Nonformal Education of the Education Department. People perceived DELSILIFE in this manner because officers were elected, i.e. the DELSILIFE Community Council and learning groups were formed and joined by the people from different hamlets.

Phase B ended in 1983. Before the project staff left the *barrio*, the DELSILIFE Centre together with the equipment used in the learning programmes and other materials were turned over to the *barrio* school authorities. Many people were disappointed. They had expected that they would be left to the DCC to use in its activities. Today, the centre is being used by the school as library cum-classroom.

For most *barrio* people this was the end of project DELSILIFE because the staff were no longer there. To them, DELSILIFE was the staff. But the non-participants were fully aware that CMCI, a DELSILIFE project, is very much alive and in full operation. A DELSILIFE activity no one could forget was the contest held by the women of Loma de Gato. The proceeds of the contest were used in the construction of the stage and basketball court located inside the elementary school premises. It benefited the youth, who now have a place for sensible activities like basketball games instead of drinking sessions. These are some of the reminders of a wonderfully inspiring period in the history of the village.

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Project DELSILIFE proved to be effective in the community in spite of some constraints. It benefited people as they participated in the learning programmes, improved their self-conception and self-esteem as manifested by the DCC and learning groups. DELSILIFE has given the people the chance to learn and earn, to acquire sectoral skills which helped several people improve their income and alleviate their hardship. Others were not benefited, in spite of the new skills they learned, for the following reasons:

1. *Lack of capital to finance the income generating activity*
   The participants were happy about their acquired skills but they did not have the money to buy what they needed, e.g. a sewing machine, equipment for a beauty parlor.

   In fact the people expected financial support from DELSILIFE. They contended that DELSILIFE could have been more effective if their acquired skills had been put into practice through financial assistance from DELSILIFE. They cited CMCI saying that it would not have been revived and be what it is at present if not for the financial support.
2. *Lack of market*
   Even if people had the initial capital to invest in their acquired skills, there were not enough buyers of the finished products, such as coconut candy. Food preservation was considered a non-profitable activity.
3. *Delayed return of investment*
   If ever there were buyers of the finished products, it took them days to pay for them. In such conditions the producers preferred to discontinue their businesses since their capital, their only savings, was at stake.
4. *The unstable prices of raw materials*
   Since the raw materials needed for their products are not available in the *barrio*, like coconut for the candy, they have to be bought elsewhere. Prices are so unstable that they prove a serious business risk.

It appeared that the economically oriented skills introduced into the community and accepted by the people were abandoned by some, not because they failed to appreciate them, but simply for the reason that there skills did not bring increased economic prosperity to their lives.

Learning programmes were neighbourhood-based, which helped the people to develop their social abilities through associating with other people. Through DELSILIFE activities the delivery of sectoral services was co-ordinated, which strengthened the linkages with the different agencies, both government and private. Also, these agencies being now familiar with the community, it is easier for the people to seek assistance from them when the need arises.

DELSILIFE enlisted the support of respectable villagers in furthering a desired community-based management through the DCC, using the element of prestige as manifested in the officers and the functions they perform.

Training indigenous people to assume leadership in new skills and ideas was made possible by DELSILIFE through the learning groups and the DCC. An external expert or specialist can do little more than provide models which the people themselves have to work into the shape of their economic life. Participation is essential, which DELSILIFE did not overlook.

For the people the problem-solving approach was very effective. They now manage to solve whatever community problems crop up or, if not exactly solving the problems, offer alternative solutions. Also, the bottom-up approach was an

effective eye-opener for a gradual involvement of people from the grass-roots level. It also increased recognition of the dignity of the individual, especially of the less privileged.

The DELSILIFE approach proved advantageous to the community because of the economically oriented self-help programme. Another effective measure was the reconciling of the top-down and bottom-up forces that made sectoral services available to more people in the *barrio*.

The educational intervention system had a positive appeal to the people because they were exposed to various basic life skills, practices and processes which enabled them to interact while learning new things.

DELSILIFE has proved itself to be an instrument in bringing about changes in the quality of life of the people. Co-operation, collaboration and co-ordination with the different linkages ensure the succes of the DELSILIFE method.

DELSILIFE proved to be what it should be in Loma de Gato.

Discussing community problems in Camba-camba, Indonesia
Photo: INNOTECH

X.
Project Delsilife in Camba-camba, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Abdul Rajab Johari

1. BACKGROUND

a. Location

Camba-camba is a village in Indonesia about 99 kms to the north of Ujung Pandang, the capital of South Sulawesi Province. It consists of 23 districts, one of which is Jeneponto district. Batang is one of the sub-districts of Jeneponto; Camba-camba is one of the villages in the sub-district.

Part of this village is located on the main provincial road that connects Ujung Pandang to other capitals of southern districts of the province. The means of public land transportation available are buses and mini-buses for long distances and pick-ups for short distance travels along the main roads.

The topography of this village is rather hilly with an altitude of 80 to 200 m. above sea level. This area is part of the Lompobattang - volcano -zone but the soil is not fertile, its top soil is very thin.

This village has a dry climate. The dry season sometimes lasts for eight months per year. From October to March rain usually falls. There are two small rivers in the village which have little water during the dry season.

b. Population

In South Sulawesi there are four ethnic groups, namely Bugis, Makassar, Mandar and Toraja. Camba-camba is located in the area of Makassar ethnic group. The villagers in Camba-camba are all Makassar people by origin. The population of this village in 1985 was 3,383. The number of households was 727 with an average of 4.7 members (Abustam, 1988).

In a research on mobility of people in the village (Abustam, 1987) it was found that the villagers are rather mobile. One third of the population moves out of his village regularly, stays at the city for a number of days and then returns to their village. Most of them go to look for a temporary job as *becak* (bicycle taxi) driver or construction worker, particularly during the long dry season.

c. Economic activities

The structure of economic activities in this village is as follows. 91.75% of the population considered that their main economic activity is in the field of agriculture, 3.85% is in employed service, 4.40% is in the field of home industries and small retailers (Abustam, 1987). This does not mean that those who consider agriculture as their main economic activity do not work in other areas. Most of the villagers have more jobs during the year. There are farmers who also work as *becak* drivers, brick layers and in other construction work. There are also high school teachers who work in the paddy-fields during the wet season.

The villagers economic activities in employment services are particularly as civil servants, teachers and in the armed forces. The activities in home industry are related to planting, embroidery, and weaving.

The village is about two kms away from the sea shore. There are four households usually going to sea, when the moon is not bright in the evening, to catch fish by using simple nets. But no one earns his living by fishing only.

About 15 villagers, mostly women, are small retailers. Early in the morning they leave the village to the nearby markets to buy fruits, vegetables and other local products to be sold at the other markets. They go by pick-up truck and return to their village in the afternoon. There is one lady who is considered successful in this small retailing. She bought several pieces of paddy-field and in the end she could buy a small rice mill.

The agricultural use of land is not optimal. There is no well-irrigated land in the village. Although it forms part of the area that is irrigated by Kelara Irrigation most of the time the water that reaches the village is very limited. The rice fields are highly dependent on rainfall. Of the agricultural land 54% can be classified as partly irrigated and partly rain-fed; 43% is classified as dry agricultural land for small plantation; 3% of the land is used for housing and house yards. There are no fishponds and no forests (Abustam, 1987).

Agricultural economic activities in Camba-camba have not been able to increase the quality of life of people in the village. The agricultural products are meant only to satisfy their own basic needs. It is a subsistence agricultural system. The average area of rice field is only 0.456 ha/household and there is one harvest per year only. When the rainfall is not enough the harvest is very likely to fail.

After harvesting rice the villagers plant second crops such as soybeans, small green peas, corn and onions. Some of the paddy-fields are used by the villagers to herd their animals such as buffaloes, horses and goats. The number of animals is not high. Generally 5 to 15 animals are herded by one boy.

According to Abustam's research (1987) average income levels are as shown in Table 1:

Table 1.
Average annual income per head

25%	Rp.	45,000	-	79,000*
27%	Rp.	80,000	-	199,000
39%	Rp.	200,000	-	499,000
2%	Rp.	500,000	-	higher

*(1 rupee = 0.002 US dollar)

56% of the above income is from the agricultural sector and 44% from non-agricultural sector.

d. Access to means of production

Land is the primary means of production in this agricultural village. In the 1981 survey carried out by the DELSILIFE staff, the status of land-ownership was as shown in Table 2.

Table 2.
Land-ownership, 1981 survey

Land area (ha)			%
no land			6
0.01	-	0.25	9
0.26	-	0.25	23
0.51	-	0.75	13
0.76	-	1.00	23
1.01	-	1.25	4
1.26	-	1.50	6
1.51	-	1.75	10
1.76	-	2.00	4
	>	2.00	12
Total			100

(Country report, 1981)

The interviews with villagers revealed that no one in the village owns more than 10 ha of land. There are some who own about 5 to 7 ha, but the number is very limited, not more than ten people. The people who own more than 2 ha mostly

are high ranking in the traditional nobility system in the village.

Abustam (1987) in his survey, which was carried out in 1985, found that the land-ownership of villagers in Camba-camba was as follows:

Table 3.
Landownership, 1985 survey

Land area (ha)	%
< 0.25	18
0.25 - 0.50	36
> 0.50	46
Total	100

It can be concluded that there was a change in land-ownership during the years 1981 to 1985. The percentage of villagers who owned < 0.25 ha and 0.26-0.50 ha of land increased while those who owned >0.50 ha decreased.

e. Productive techniques

The level of technology in the village is low. In the paddy-field tractors or hand tractors are used. Most of the farmers use animals such as water buffaloes, horses or cows to drag their ploughs. Some of them are still using hoes or mattocks.

In processing their agricultural products, such as rice and corn, most of the farmers are not mechanized. Small knives for cutting rice stalks or sickles are used during the harvest time. Pounding rice by hand is still a common practice in this village. It is the work of middle-aged women in the morning. There are three small rice mills using diesel engines.

f. Trade

Only a minor quantity of agricultural products are sold, usually second crop products. Incidentally goats or other animals are taken to market. Some women sell their embroidery work. On the whole the bulk of local produce is for private compsumption.

There are some traders regularly visiting the village. They sell fish, vegetables, salt, sarongs, pieces of cloth, makeshift trousers, and other smaller items.

In the village there are some small shops selling daily basic needs, such as sugar, soap, vegetable oil, cigarettes etc.

As mentioned above, transport to neighbouring villages is good. The villagers can easily go to the markets nearby.

g. Government invervention agencies

There are at least three government agencies which deal directly with the improvement of the village. They are the Community Education Office, the Community Development Office and the Agricultural Department.

The former head of the provincial Community Education Office worked very closely with DELSILIFE in educating the villagers in Camba-camba. Package A, a literacy programme was carried out succesfully in co-operation with the two agencies. Learning funds are another provision of the Community Education Office. But when the head was replaced the situation changed. The new head was not well informed on the DELSILIFE programme.

The Community Development Office is responsible for activating the Village Community Council (VCC), a body at the village level that helps the village head in planning the village development programme. This body does not seem to function well, for several reasons. It should consist of people who have a high degree of dedication and knowledge. Dedication is important because the VCC works voluntarily. It is not easy to find the right people. Since the villagers who are knowledgeable are always needed they are too busy for this kind of work.

Agricultural extension workers most of the time work by order of their superiors, rarely do they respond to the real problems faced by villagers. When there is no instruction, no action is taken by the agricultural extension agents. Farmers did not consult the extension worker on the planting of onions, because the extension worker visits them only when he is willing, not when they need him. The extension worker lives next to the village office, about three kms away from the field where the farmers plant the onions.

In this village non-governmental organizations are not very active. There is an old well used by villagers in the north of Camba-camba for drinking water, laundry and bathing. This old well was repaired and cemented by a foreign social organization. According to the villagers the organization funding this repair is from Canada.

About 20 kms to the north of this village there is a project of an international social organization to help poor villagers to improve their lives. This organization, according to the villagers, gave them corrugated zinc to repair houses in the village. Goats were given to deprived villagers who wanted to raise the animals. The people at Camba-camba know and sometimes talk about the generosity of this social organization.

Very advantageous to these villagers is the construction of small irrigation canals to supply fish ponds in this neighbouring village. These canals can supply enough water regularly and enable the people to double the production of fish. The villagers raise shrimps at their ponds. Now they are eager to learn how to

cultivate the ponds more efficiently.

In short, conditions in Camba-camba have not yet managed to accelerate the economic improvement of the village. The natural resources of the village are limited, the vi lagers are poor and lack funds to carry out economic activities. Government and non-government support, credit or otherwise, are not easy to get. Village economic organizations, such as co-operatives, have not yet been established.

h. Socio-cultural life

Socio-cultural life in this village is still influenced by the traditional values of the Makassar ethnic group. The concept of *sirik* (disgrace) is central in these values. Frequently, the behaviour of the villagers is difficult to explain to outsiders but appropriate in the eyes of the other members of the community. A husband kills his wife because she has a love affair with another man. One would expect the relatives of the wife to be on her side, but that is not the case. If the wife is indeed involved in an affair, her relatives will support the husband.

Sirik is not restricted to 'serious' affairs, but also to trivial things. A young man went to his neighbour to watch a sports programme on TV. There were many youths in the house, and they were playing around until one of the chairs of the host broke. The host blamed one of them. This boy considered that he had been treated inappropriately. Only because of this the host was killed by the youth, with the help of two of his relatives, one month later.

In an interview with a teacher in the village, the teacher pointed out the influence of this traditional value on the education of the villagers. He said that the teachers in this village sometimes have to conside: 'the feelings' of the pupil's parents in making educational decisions such as pupil promotion or final examination results. This phenomenon also influences other types of relationship such as business.

The concept of *sirik* also strengthens the relationships of villagers, particularly among relatives, for example in arranging a wedding party. Marriage is an event in life that is highly respected, and occasion for a great celebration. The wedding is not considered as an individual matter but as something that regards all relatives. The husband's side is expected to give an amount of money and other things required to organize the party. The two sides negotiate on the amount and kind. If a man who wants to get married has about 50% of the money needed, it is usually considered to be enough. The rest will come from the contribution of his relatives in order that the man and his parents will not be *sirik*. The contribution of the relatives is called 'a debt not to be dunned'. But there is a moral responsibility to return the favour when called upon. There was the case of an onion farmer; after harvesting time he bought a water buffalo. When his father-in-law was going to Mecca on a pilgrimage he had to contribute and sold the buffalo. This happens repeatedly and strengthens the family ties.

Traditionally the villagers can be divided into three main local classes or castes. The upper class is called *karaeng* (noble men), the middle one is called *tau maradeka* (free men) and the lower one is called *ata* (slaves). Generally, it is easy to identify the class of people living in a particular house since the front part of the house is made in accordance with the class of the owner.

There is another seperate class in the community called *sayyed*. These people consider themselves to be the descendants of or at least related to the Prophet Mohammed. They are related to the Arabs.

At the present time, besides 'karaengness' and 'sayyedness', other factors are also considered in determining social status. These factors are the level of education, the position in the civil service and wealth. But the traditional values are still respected by the people of the village.

The head of the village is elected by the villagers. The village is governed by the *karaeng* class. The only important position in this village not occupied by *karaeng* is that of Chairman I of the Village Community Council. This man belongs to the middle class, but he and his family are respected by the villagers because of their university education.

In this village there are no formal associations as found in cities. Only family relationship counts. Relatives co-operate e.g. in arranging a wedding ceremony and building new houses. Formerly they also lived close together in one neighbourhood. But nowadays some have moved apart.

In this village, as in neighbouring villages, there is a tradition to help each other, particularly in cultivating paddy-fields. A man can invite other villagers to help working in the field. This inviting people to help can only be done by the well-to-do since it is understood that meals or snacks will be given in compensation. The poor cannot afford these.

i. Education

In this village there are three elementary schools. There is no kindergarten, no high school. If youngsters are willing to further their studies on higher levels they have to go to Bontosungguh, the capital of Jeneponto district. The level of education of the villagers, a sample of 300 taken from Camba-camba village records, can be deduced from Table 4.

j. Religion

Two different values are respected by the villagers, the traditional and the Islamic. The influence of religious teaching on day to day behaviour is mixed in with other traditional values, but loyalty to religion is very strong.

The only religion found in the village is Islam. The people feel very strongly about their religion, in a sense that they are ready to fight when people degrade it. In this village there are no specific branches of Islam. There is nothing like a

Syiah or Sunni division of the religion. There is no specific Islam education. If the villagers want their children to attend that type of school they send them to other areas.

Table 4.
Average school education

numbers of graduates	type of education
9 %	primary school
2.66 %	junior high school
2.33 %	senior high school
0.33 %	University

(based on: Evaluasi pelaksanaan [project DELSI-LIFE], 1984)

2. PROJECT DELSILIFE

a. Organization

The organization of DELSILIFE was arranged in accordance with the hierarchy of administrative bureaucracy in Indonesia. There were four levels of DELSI-LIFE organization in Indonesia: national, provincial, district and sub-district. The national, provincial and district levels functioned as advisory teams and the sub-district level functioned as an implementation team.

The members of the national team were the Minister of Education and Culture, represented by the Research and Development Board of the Ministry, the Directorate General of Non-Formal Education, the Directorate General of Village Development in the Ministry of the Interior and the Rector of IKIP (Teacher Training and Educational Science Institute) at Ujung Pandang.

The lowest level where the real activities of DELSILIFE took place was in the Village Community Council. There were five members. The General Chairman was the village head. Then there was Chairman I; Chairman II; the Secretary and Treasurer. Under this council there were ten sections, namely: Security; Education; Information; Economy; Construction of Infra-structure and Village Environment; Religion; Health; Population and Family Planning; Family Welfare Development; Youth, Sports and Arts; Social Welfare. Under these sections there were learning groups.

The IKIP teams were the core of the DELSILIFE project staff on the spot. Under the direction of INNOTECH, national, provincial, and district teams, the project staff ran the activities of DELSILIFE.

b. Selection of leaders

The leaders of this Village Community Council (VCC) were those of the upper class. The village head was automatically appointed to be General Chairman. Other members of the council were selected by the villagers and had to fulfil a number of requirements, e.g. being religious, loyal to the *Pancasila* (Indonesia's state philosophy), willingness and capability to act as a member (Country report, 1982).

c. Learning group participants

In the learning groups of DELSILIFE various groups participated. According to the report of project DELSILIFE all levels of the villagers participated, from the high ranking villagers to the poorest families, men and women. A summary of all participants is outlined in Table 5.

Table 5.
Participation in learning programmes

	Neighbourhood Area (R.K.)	*Not very poor*	*Poor*	*Very poor*	*Total*
1.	Pappasangang RK I	5	22	23	50
2.	Pappasangang RK II	11	32	34	77
3.	Torowa RK I	6	34	25	65
4.	Torowa RK II	22	27	16	65
5.	Torowa RK III	6	52	43	101
	Total	50	167	141	358

(based on: Evaluasi pelaksanaan [project DELSILIFE], 1984)

d. Activities

There were two phases of activities carried out by project DELSILIFE at Camba-camba; Phase A consisted in preliminary activities and Phase B in

implementation activities. The first preliminary activity was the introduction of DELSILIFE to the villagers. This was done with the full assistance and co-operation of the district office of Jeneponto, the sub-district of Batang, the IKIP Ujung Pandang team and personnel of the Non-Formal Education Department.

After this introduction, the DELSILIFE staff conducted a thorough survey on many aspects such as population, economy, culture, education, religion, the needs of the village and the villagers. This survey was conducted under the direction and supervision of INNOTECH Manila, the Research and Development Body of the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture and some foreign consultants.

As one of the results of this survey the National Team decided to carry out four kinds of activities during the remaining months of Phase A; a study trip to Java, alabio duck raising, poultry raising, and sewing and embroidering programmes.

The visit to Java had two aims. The first was to provide the community leaders with knowledge and experience related to the integrated improvement of rural communities, and the second to give them a larger scope of views on national development in general and rural development in particular.

The three learning programmes, alabio duck raising, poultry raising and sewing and embroidery, were carried out with financial support from several government agencies. The alabio raising programme was supported by the Village Development Office giving 140 chicks, Community Education, contributing feeds for the ducks, and a poultry-raising agency providing information and guidance. The chicken raising was supported by Community Education, the Village Development Office and a poultry raising agency. The sewing and embroidery programme was supported financially by Community Education with Rp. 125,000 (US $ 200) and other support from the Village Development Office and an industrial agency.

First it was announced to the community that there would be learning groups. The interested villagers then were selected based on their interest in the programmes and their potentiality to be succesful in these programmes. The lessons learned in these learning groups were used in carrying out the Phase B activities.

Administratively, the Village Community Council is under the umbrella of the Village Development Office. Therefore this office was active in forming the council with the assistance of the DELSILIFE project staff.

The structure of the Council was already available, uniform to all villages in Indonesia. The members of this council were selected. The process of selection consisted of two steps. First the village head and sub-village heads presented lists of candidates for the council. The community leaders in the meeting then arranged a discussion to decide who would be appropriate for what position in the council. The result of the discussion was the Village Community Council.

The Council members were trained by the DELSILIFE project staff in the management of non-formal education programmes. This training covered curriculum, facilitating skills, and presentation techniques. The content of this training was decided after discussing the profile of the VCC staff and their needs.

In the training of the VCC the idea of DELSILIFE was accepted and the council developed a plan in line with the DELSILIFE approach. The VCC identified five areas of learning: dress making, duck raising, carpentry, gardening and motorcycle repair, as important for the villagers to learn to improve their lives. Learning groups were established by the council. The procedure followed in the identification of the prospective learning group members was that first the co-ordinating team was selected from the VCC members. Each member of the team was responsible to get members for one learning group. The team informed the villagers about the learning groups in the mosque, public gathering or in private homes. What learning activities there would be and how they would be carried out was also explained. The interested villagers directly signed up.

After the learning groups were established, the members of each group selected their own group leader. Soon after the group leaders were identified, the VCC asked the DELSILIFE project staff to develop a programme for training the leaders.

The DELSILIFE project staff developed training materials for the group leaders. The materials covered awareness raising, ways of identifying problems, alternative solutions and ways of selecting them, and ways of developing learning programmes.

e. The learning groups

There were two basic activities undertaken by learning groups: activities related to the process of developing the learning programme and activities related to the process of implementing it. In developing the learning programme four steps were taken. The first was confirming the needs. In this step the survey data that had been collected in Phase A were used to confirm the needs. In the case of the duck-raising learning group, for example, one of the considerations for choosing khaki Campbell ducks was the fact that this duck did not need much water to raise, which agreed with the data collected on the dryness of the village.

The second step was stating the problems to be solved or learned. In the beginning it was rather difficult for the members of the learning group to state the problems. This was due to the fact that no one in the group had experience in raising ducks. But after discussion they finally were able to state some problems that they believed were important for them to tackle.

The third step was to determine the level of awareness of the group. This was done by completing the set of instruments developed by INNOTECH. To the villagers, who had difficulty in understanding the instruments, explanation was given by the DELSILIFE project staff.

The fourth step was arranging the learning programme, determining the hierarchy of the problems to be dealt with by the group and deciding on the schedule of the learning programme. The members felt it was difficult for them to arrive at a conclusion. Again, the DELSILIFE project staff were asked to help.

The second set of basic activities was related to the process of implementation of the learning programme. The first step was identification and sharing of basic tasks. In implementing the learning programme certain tasks should be performed which required mutual assistance. To increase an awareness of the importance of this, the learning group members discussed the subject. But the villagers tended to work in their own interest only. The staff were asked to help.

The second step in the process of implementing the programme, consisted of activities related to organizing and managing the learning group. The learning group members discussed the importance of group leadership. The ideal was shifting leadership. But this was difficult to realize since some members were illiterate.

The third set of activities undertaken by the learning group in implementing the learning programme was the conduct of learning sessions. The principle used was learning by experiment and the methods were group discussion, practical demonstration, simulation games, problem solving, questions and answers, and lectures. A difficulty encountered in the conduct of the learning sessions was the degree of illiteracy, since there were learning materials that required the ability to read and write.

The fourth set of activities undertaken was the evaluation of the learning outcomes. The learning group members compared themselves before and after attending each learning session. Those who where able to read and write could fill in the evaluation form.

What has been described so far are the activities carried out which were common to every learning group. In the learning groups the villagers hoped to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes in relation to the subject of the learning programme and they were also taught basic life skills such as problem solving, communication, managing groups, calculation, co-operation and risk calculation. These basic life skills were integrated into the learning programmes.

It is difficult to say who initiated those activities. They were not fully initiated by the villagers, but neither did the DELSILIFE staff make the decision. Maybe the DELSILIFE project staff showed the way and the villagers made their own decision.

3. RESULTS OF DELSILFE

a. Perceptions of the participants

The participants of DELSILIFE can be divided into two groups. One group

consisted of poor and less educated villagers. The others were not poor and most of them had at least graduated from High School. It was interesting to listen to the comments of the first group after I had introduced the purpose of my visit to them. Spontaneously they expressed what things they needed. For example, they said that they wanted goats, because these are easier to raise than the ducks given in 1984. Some of them wanted materials for building houses, or hand sprayers. It seems to me that their perception of DELSILIFE is that of a project that gives them something material. When I asked them about the learning groups they did not seem to remember much about what happened in these groups. They asked when the project would come again and what kind of things would be given to them then. This happened when I was interviewing villagers who had formerly participated in learning groups dealing with duck raising, motorcycle repair, carpentry and onion planting. There was no indication that they perceived DELSILIFE as an educational intervention to improve their quality of life through self-reliance.

It was different when I went to visit the villagers of the second group. I visited one former participant of the duck raising group, as an example. This man is a high shool graduate, a government official working at the information office at Bontosungguh. He explained what he had learned from the DELSILIFE activities. He showed me the records of his duck raising activities, how he had built the duck house, where he had bought the duck food and at what price, all was recorded. He told me that the cost of duck raising had proved too high, because the price of feeds was increased at the time. He learned how to make duck food from one of the DELSILIFE team from IKIP Ujung Pandang, but the food materials suggested by the team were difficult to find. Therefore he had stopped raising ducks since it was not profitable.

He explained about the steps in the DELSILIFE approach, activating a village community council, doing a community survey, forming learning groups, training the group leaders, developing learning programmes, implementation of the programmes and evaluation; valuable steps to raise the villagers' awareness and willingness to do something for their own improvement. Unlike the first group, the poor villagers, this second group did not perceive DELSILIFE as an agent whose main task it is to distribute money among the villagers.

b. Opinions of the other villagers

The DELSILIFE activities had mainly been carried out in the sub-villages Papasangang and Torowa, therefore most villagers in the sub-village Jeknetallasak had not participated. When villagers in this sub-village were asked what they knew about DELSILIFE, the answer was: a project giving ducks to the people, money to buy food for ducks, materials for doing sewing practice, onions to plant; in short, they understood the project mainly as an agent bringing

money.

According to the village head many people, even the government officials working at the Jeneponto District office, shared this perception. The officials frequently asked when DELSILIFE was coming back and what contribution this project would make to the villagers. This erroneous perception of DELSILIFE exists even among educated people who had not been directly involved in the project.

c. Motivation to participate

Ecomic reasons seem to have been the main motive for participation mentioned by the villagers. The villagers realized that their quality of life should be improved, and an increase of income was the first requisite for such improvement.

By participating in project DELSILIFE they saw a chance to increase their income. DELSILIFE worked closely with the Non-Formal Education Office that grants learning funds, and a trade fund could be given to the villagers. In the case of the duck raising learning group, the NFE office contributed money to buy food for the ducks until they would lay eggs that could be sold. With this money the duck raising could be continued and income levels of the villagers increased. When the costs of feeds increased and duck raising was not profitable any longer the villagers quit raising ducks. The same thing happened to the onion cultivation learning group. This group was given funds to buy good onion seeds through a learning fund of the NFE project. When funds had run out, the farmers planted onions in the traditional way, using small onion seeds since they were cheaper, so the farmers could carry on planting onions.

Mastering basic life skills did not seem to interest the villagers. Basic life skills, such as planning and communication, may be too abstract for the villagers to comprehend and apply in a concrete situation. The case of the onion farmers may serve as an example: after selling their onions they spent all the money to renovate their houses without saving to buy onion seeds for the next planting season. Planning is still difficult for them since there are immediate and pressing needs that they have to overcome.

Communication is another of the basic life skills taught to the villagers. When the duck breeders came across the problem of food for the ducks they contacted a chicken farm about five kms to the north, which had developed food for chickens from locally available food materials.

In short, one may conclude that the main reason for the poor villagers to participate in project DELSILIFE in an economic one.

d. Participation constraints

When non-participants were interviewed about their motives, they said that they

had not been asked to participate. There were villagers who answered saying that the activities had only been for the relatives of the village leaders, not for them. It seems that the number of participants was limited due to the funds available to support the learning groups.

But it is also a fact that there were some households, of course the ones that cannot be classified as poor families, which participated in DELSILIFE learning groups without financial support. There was a case of a high school teacher who had bought the ducks himself and participated in the duck raising learning group. He paid all the expenses in raising the ducks. This man is only one in the village that still has the khaki Campbell ducks introduced by DELSILIFE. In the village there used to be about 1000 khaki Campbell ducks, now there are only twelve owned by this teacher.

e. Participants' perception of the approach

In relation to the steps undertaken by DELSILIFE (activating a village community council doing community survey, forming learning groups, group leader training, developing learning programmes, implementing the programme and evaluation), only few villagers remembered about the steps and they seemed reluctant to give comment on them. They prefered not to say much. Whether this means that they liked or disliked the steps is not clear.

f. Non-participants' perception of the approach

The same happened when the non-participants were asked what they thought about the approach. The answers were not clear. Some of them did not even seem to understand the question. Their knowledge of the approach was very limited.

g. Perceptions of local authorities and representatives of agencies

When I visited Camba-camba village I met the village head and told that one of my tasks was to ask the opinions of the authorities concerning DELSILIFE. He said that almost all of the authorities who had been directly involved in this project had been replaced, so it was no use asking the new authorities' opinion, since it was quite likely that their knowledge about DELSILIFE, if any, must be very limited.

After visiting the head of Batang sub-district, the head of Jeneponto district and the head of the Non-Formal Education Provincial Office, I found out that what had been said by the village head was true. I went to the new head of Batang sub-district and he referred me to the village head. He said that the village head was the one who knew about DELSILIFE. The same thing happened when I visited the head of Jeneponto district. The head of the Non-

Formal Education Provincial Office said that he knew little about the DELSILIFE activities. Very limited written information has been sent to him about the activities.

The village head held a very high opinion of the project. He said that the steps carried out in the DELSILIFE approach were the best to educate the villagers, to make them aware of the village problems and work together to improve the general quality of life. Almost all of the target villagers actively participated in the learning programmes. But the educational programme alone was not enough, he said, it should be supported by other facilities such as good irrigation, financial support, information about appropriate technology, and qualified government officials who could advise the villagers. And of course also time is needed. The development of a village simply cannot be established in a couple of weeks.

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XI.
Concluding Remarks

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In this last chapter an attempt is made to assess the effects of the DELSILIFE project and intervention system on the basis of the results of the case studies, opinions and experiences of project staff members and outsiders. It also discusses in how far the assumptions of INNOTECH regarding the intervention system have been proved correct, and the conditions that need to be taken into account for a successful implementation of DELSILIFE.

1. RESULTS

a. The case studies

An assessment of the effects of DELSILIFE is not an easy task, as has been demonstrated by the case study reports. The opinions on the effectiveness of the system vary widely, not only among the three villages, but also among the various groups involved in the project. The time span that had elapsed between the end of the pilot period and the time of evaluation was 4 years. On the one hand this made it possible to get an idea of the sustainability of the activities initiated during the pilot period, on the other hand life had continued and time had influenced the memories of the villagers. The qualitative approach of the surveys provided rich and important data on the perceptions and opinions of the interviewees, but quantitative data are short in order to support or, if necessary, correct these perceptions.

Another factor that complicates the assessment regards the influence of the outer world on life and development in the villages. The villages cannot be regarded as isolated entities but form part of the world at large and are influenced by socio-economic developments that take place around them. It is, therefore, difficult to relate with certainty the changes that took place in the villages to the influence of DELSILIFE or that of other programmes and activities.

Looking at the three villages, similarities as well as gradual differences can be observed. All three are mainly agricultural villages, cultivating rice as the main crop, largely for home consumption. All have income from labour outside. The population of the villages consists of different social classes that are

recognized as such by them. There are also differences. Ban Tab-chang is situated in a province that has known a considerable economic development over the last decade. DELSILIFE was just one of the several activities of the Thai government. Apart from these governmental activities, the entire social and economic development in the area is in full progress. There are opportunities for individual progress for those who can find them. Camba-camba is situated in a more backward area. Economic development seems to take place in other parts of the country. New imputs from outside seem to be necessary. Loma de Gato is again different. Though not a backward area, it is situated near the outskirts of Metro Manila and on the fringe of urbanization.

In spite of these shortcomings and uncertainties, the case studies allow us to draw a number of tentative conclusions regarding the implementation of the project and the effectiveness of the system.

b. Benefits

There are differences in the perception of the results of the DELSILIFE activities. The researchers of the case studies distinguished between the perceptions of the community leaders, the participants in DELSILIFE activities, project staff, other government officials and 'others'. Each category defined the results in its own terms and according to its own interest and occupational background. However, all categories recognized material and other results of the activities.

As could be expected, the DELSILIFE staff phrased the results in the same terms used to state the objectives. They are used to formulating in educational/professional terms and by their own education are more apt to see the results in these terms. Community council and group leaders had an eye for the community education aspects, while for the participants of the learning groups material effects counted most.

A comparison of the three cases shows that the report on the experiences in Ban Tab-chang is more positive than those on the two other villages. The sustainability of DELSILIFE activities is apparently greater in Ban Tab-chang than in Loma de Gato and Camba-camba, and so is the enthousiasm of the respective villagers about the intervention system. The reports seem to suggest that the villagers of Ban Tab-chang have managed to include DELSILIFE principles into their lives, while in the two other villages, especially Camba-camba, DELSILIFE was primarily regarded as a project and consequently activities lost steam when the project staff left the village. One may guess that these differences are related to the economic development of the region in which the village is situated, the interplay between the sectoral agencies supporting the DESLILIFE activities in the village, the performance of the project team, the attitudes of the people, and the quality of leadership in the village. A more comprehensive study would be needed to shed light on the relative influence of these socio-economic factors on

the success of DELSILIFE in the villages.

According to the comments of the villagers and their leaders there were four categories of benefits stemming from the DELSILIFE activities: economic, social, health-related and mental. By participation in vertical skills learning programmes a number of individuals had managed to increase their income, to save on expenses, or to obtain a job. Learning programmes such as water jar making in Ban Tab-chang, building toilets in Camba-camba and cookery classes in Loma de Gato have helped to improve the health standards in the villages. The organizational principles of DELSILIFE tapped and developed local leadership, increased contacts and cooperation among the villagers, and strengthened their position in negotiating with sector agencies for support. In addition it was said that the people had improved on decision making and showed more initiative. Especially the reports on Ban Tab-chang and Loma de Gato underline these social and mental benefits.

It seems that DELSILIFE has been most successful at the level of the leaders, community as well as learning group leaders. The community leaders seem to have learned most from DELSILIFE; it improved their capability to organize, to negotiate and to deal with government agents. The same applies at a more micro-level to the learning group leaders.

Whether the improvement of leadership qualities also had positive effects on the quality of life of the poorer villagers depended to some extent on their moral qualities and, to a greater extent, on the social and economic conditions of the village.

In this respect it should be noted that leadership is not something that is created by a project. Leadership in the villages of the case studies is partly ascribed, partly based on wealth or family ties. Existing leaders also became DELSILIFE leaders, but not all of them did. In these societies leadership still has charismatic qualities. Although sometimes attached to office, it has to prove itself.

Nevertheless, the case studies underscore the crucial importance of good local leadership for the success of development activities and it seems fair to state that DELSILIFE made an important contribution to the improvement of leadership in the villages.

DELSILIFE is an educational approach. Although its final aim is the improvement of the quality of life of the rural poor, its more direct, educational aim is phrased in terms of self-reliance, awareness raising and psychological capabilities. The specific learning activities, in most cases, aim at material results, its is true, but these results are seen by the DELSILIFE promotors as instrumental in the learning process itself. One might say that there is no necessary link between the material success of a learning process and the psychological results. People can

acquire knowledge and skills that are effective in a production process organized by others, without becoming more self-reliant and without having to make decisions. On the other hand it is possible to learn from unsuccessful experiences. It should, however, not be forgotten that when people make the concious choice to participate in an organized learning exercise, they do so because of the benefits they expect to get from their participation. Though in some cases these benefits may consist in the pleasure of participating itself. We learn from the case studies that especially among poor people who have to make efforts to participate, the material benefits are crucial.

It must be admitted that several of the learning activities undertaken in the DELSILIFE framework were, at least in a material sense, not successful. The participants in the end were without any material gains, maybe sad, but hopefully also wiser women and men. It is difficult to assess whether the participants in such cases had indeed gained an experience that might improve their functioning.

c. Participation

The case studies make clear that the participation of the very poor in the learning activities has been less extensive than was hoped for. In the village of Camba-camba about 40% of the participants in the learning activities could be regarded as very poor. In the Malay pilot village 17% of the participants could be categorized as extremely poor, 43% as poor, and 40% as of average level. According to van der Molen (1984), the reasons for the limited participation of the poorest people are found to be closely related to their socio-economic position, sometimes simultaneous and mutually reinforcing. To begin with, the poorest are often landless labourers who depend on employers for their income. Lack of spare time and fatigue prevent them from joining in learning groups. Social prestige is another factor: each village has its own social hierarchy. Although its effects are not the same in all countries, the lowest strata are bound to have socio-psychological impediments about forming a learning group with individuals of the higher strata. A third factor is illiteracy which, relatively speaking, is most frequent among the poorest groups. The members of the vocationally and economically-oriented learning groups are interested primarily in widening their professional knowledge. Those who can already read and write will not be interested in the literacy of a learning programme and will grow impatient, making illiterate members feel like second-rate participants.

Mobilizing the poorest is difficult for various reasons, virtually all over the world. The hypothesis that the wealthy make more use of development opportunities than the poor seems to be confirmed even in the most deprived village. DELSILIFE's idea that the project would give the poorest a chance to improve their position by participation in a learning group is not quite proved. Also the realism of this expectation might be questioned. Development initiatives are usually engendered oy the middle and higher levels of society. However, it would

be unrealistic to assess the DELSILIFE system merely on the grounds of its target group strategy. After all it promotes small-scale economic undertakings and it assists in solving community problems concerning health care, hygiene, infrastructure, water supply, cooperation and planning. Both fields of operation benefit the community at large, including the very poorest. Nevertheless, the fact remains that special attention is required for the poorest groups, particularly where illiteracy is a barrier to participation in sector-oriented learning groups.

d. Needs assessment

In Thailand, and also in the case study on that country, the differences between the DELSILIFE approach and the 'traditional' community development approach has been underlined. The former is supposed to emphasize education while the latter is said to lean heavily on the contribution of external resources. Indeed, in the DELSILIFE system this seems to be an important difference. The main differences, as far as the approaches are concerned, are in the individual orientation of the DELSILIFE approach and the community orientation of community development. The other difference, according to DELSILIFE again, can be found in the fact that community development recognizes the necessity of a material input from outside and that DELSILIFE stresses self-reliance. However, in practice, also DELSILIFE relies on external inputs when these cannot be found in the community. But, ideally, these are provided to the community at the request of the learning groups.

The DELSILIFE system consists of learning programmes based on training needs expressed by the villagers. In Phase A of the DELSILIFE project a needs assessment was made on the assumption that it could serve as a basis for identifying learning programmes. According to van der Molen (1984), practice revealed that the creation of learning groups and learning programmes is a rather fluid and flexible process and does not follow strict rules. In the four experimental villages, the preliminary assessment yielded a number of priorities which, in the implementation stage some months later, proved to have already been altered.

Sometimes it looks as if the project organizers were too keen on obtaining a list of training needs. The lists reflected needs really brought forward by villagers themselves as well as needs suggested by outsiders and based on knowledge about possibilities for action or funding. Naturally an agency will try to 'sell' the packages it has already available. Moreover, it is not always easy to find the right solution to the expressed needs. When outsiders come to a village with the idea to help the villagers, they want to realize something and try to find 'projects' that they can cope with. When poor farmers express as their first need the need for capital, a Department of Non-Formal Education can do little about it. The educators will therefore look for other needs which they can answer.

According to Socrates, the field observations showed that also the resource persons and sector agencies quite often started from their own ideas on approaches and solutions, which were not necessarily in line with the needs of the learners. To overcome this problem, training and information on the DELSILIFE assumptions and principles seems to be required, especially on the principle that solutions have to be sought in line with the situation and potentialities of the learners.

Sometimes, the economic viability of the activities which were to result from the training, was not taken into account. The duck raising activities in Camba-camba are a good example. When the price of the duck feeds rose, the exercise was no longer beneficial. The most successful activities seem to have been those that linked up to previous developments. In Ban Tab-chang, where people had already taken the initiative to cultivate fish, their experience in this field gave rise to some questions that needed an answer. Here a learning programme proved the way to a real improvement. Other examples are fish smoking in Loma da Gato and embroidery in Camba-camba.

e. Basic life skills

According to the project teams, INNOTECH and CESO, experiences during Phase B of the project highlighted the importance of basic life skills. Skills like problem solving, planning, organization, marketing, simple bookkeeping etc. appeared crucial for the successful implementation of vertical skills and development activities in general.

According to Johari, in his case study on Camba-camba, the villagers were not interested in mastering basic life skills. He suggests that skills such as planning and communication are too abstract for the villagers to comprehend and apply in a concrete situation. The two other case studies do not corroborate his opinion. Granted that the concepts may be abstract for villagers and even initiators, the reports on the two other villages make clear that the participants understood and valued the importance of such skills as planning and decision making, cooperation and negotiating. Although very few learning programmes focused exclusively on basic life skills, because the participants had a marked preference for the acquisition of instrumental skills, the project activities underscored the importance of basic life skills. It is also clear that despite the importance attached to these skills the project failed to devise a strategy whereby basic life skills became an integral part of the DELSILIFE system in the eyes of the users. An impediment in this respect is formed by the bottom-up philosophy of the system which puts the responsibility for the selection of the contents of the learning programmes with the learners themselves. Given their immediate needs and interests and their non-familiarity with such abstract concepts as basic life skills, they are unlikely to choose basic life skills as a topic for learning. To give basic life skills the prominent place they deserve according to the project

staff would undoubtedly require a more influencial role to be played by an initiator who is knowledgeable about basic life skills and the ways to integrate them in learning programmes.

It is evident that more research will need to be done to come to a more comprehensive theory on basic life skills, their importance as a basis for self-reliance, their effects on the acquisition of instrumental skills, ways of acquiring basic life skills, and wider implications and effects of basic life skills in the context of community life.

2. ASSUMPTIONS OF INNOTECH

At the onset of the project INNOTECH formulated a set of assumptions that guided the design and shaped the try-out of DELSILIFE. These assumptions are listed in Chapter 2. It seems useful to briefly validate these assumptions against the findings of the case studies and other experiences.

In accordance with the assumptions, the *organizational features* of DELSILIFE indeed have played an important role in the success of DELSILIFE at village level. The installation of steering commitees, DELSILIFE Community Councils and learning groups in neighbourhoods has contributed to a better coordination and monitoring of development efforts, a broad participation in the activities and to the continued operation of the system.

INNOTECH's hypothesis that *the awareness of people of their problems and of their capability to resolve the problem will mobilize them to action* seems a rather idealistic statement. Most participants joined the DELSILIFE learning programmes for the expected benefits, not based on a thorough examination of the cause of their problems but on the basis of a pressing individual need. It seems that only in those programmes aimed at solving community-wide problems, i.e. a lack of safe drinking water, sanitation etc., awareness raising and discussion of viable solutions formed an essential part of the learning process. In addition, a decision to take action is to a great extent determined by the opportunities and resources at hand to implement a solution.

Especially the reports on Ban Tab-chang and Loma de Gato support INNOTECH's assumption that by the *voluntary participation in learning programmes planned and initiated by themselves, and by assuming various roles and functions, the villagers become more responsible, solution-oriented and socially engaged.* But it should be noted that this only applies to those who have been actively involved in the DELSILIFE activities.

INNOTECH expected that *by organizing small neighbourhood learning groups the intervention would reach the target group - the rural poor, particularly the poorest of the poor.* The case studies and experiences during Phase B demonstrate that, although the poorest of the poor participicated, their share in the activities was rather limited. Major impediments are their lack of time and funds, their

perceptions of the social situation in the village and illiteracy. It seems evident that to overcome the plight of the very poor intervention systems like DELSILIFE need to mount programmes specially targeted at this group involving literacy as an integral part and material/financial support to enable and stimulate initiatives on their part.

INNOTECH also assumed that *people can cope with the demands of their physical and social environments if they develop adequate problem-solving skills.* The experiences make clear that problem-solving skills are a requirement for self-reliance, although there are more. Whether people can cope with the demands of life largely depends on the social and economic possibilities of the environment in which they live. A comparison between the experiences of Ban Tab-chang and Camba-camba is illustrative in this respect. As argued by Epskamp, problem solving involves 'realistic' decisions related to the level of competence, available resources and commitment of the group itself. As such, problem solving should not be seen as the final answer but rather as a process of discovering that one is capable (or can develop the capability) of influencing more factors than one had ever imagined.

The assumption that *one can develop problem-solving skills through learning programmes* cannot be confirmed or disputed on the basis of the case studies. The continuation of DELSILIFE activities among the villagers could possibly be attributed to the fact that they have mastered problem-solving skills, but on the other hand one could argue that the villagers apparently appreciate the learning group approach to undertake new activities. The case studies make clear that the majority of the interviewees who had participated in DELSILIFE failed to recall what happened in the learning groups or the steps of the DELSILIFE learning process. The more educated members of the community and the village leaders apparently could verbalize this process. It would be unfair to draw the conclusion that, hence, only this group has developed skills in mastering the problem-solving process. Maybe it is just a matter of being able to express one's ideas in a particular analytical framework.

Another assumption of INNOTECH says that *education is an effective tool with which to help the poor people improve their quality of life.* In the original DELSILIFE approach an identified problem was translated into a learning problem, i.e. one aimed at finding a solution through learning. The cases make clear that frequently the answer to a problem is not in the formulation of learning needs and the creation of a learning group, but in the use of other means. This was observed in cases where community problems concerning medical care, infrastructure, water supply etc. were tackled. In these cases the problem-solving process was followed, and knowledge and skills were gained in the course of the implementation, but it seems too farfetched to label these activities as learning programmes carried out by a learning group.

3. CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION

As rightly observed by the external evaluators DELSILIFE is a demanding methodology, adjusting itself to the manner and pace of learning of the rural poor (Wils et al.; 1984). It is demanding in terms of motivation, time and energy on the part of the field and monitoring staff using the method. This also became evident from the experiences mentioned by Siltragool. To be a successful initiator not only requires motivation, patience and knowledge about the lives and conditions of the recipients, but also a keen understanding of the principles of DELSILIFE and a set of attitudes that coincide with the DELSILIFE philosophy. These attitudes and qualities cannot be induced by short-term training. If not already part of the initiator's character they need to be stimulated and developed. The same applies to the frame of mind of recipients who want to adopt and implement DELSILIFE. It is extremely important for implementing agencies to be fully aware of these preconditions and design training and monitoring programmes in accordance with them.

Similarly, sector agencies which are to support DELSILIFE activities initiated by the villagers need to be well acquainted with the approach, subscribe to a subservient rather than an initiating role, and be prepared to co-ordinate activities among themselves. It will be obvious that this is not an easy task.

It has become clear that self-reliance is not just a matter of learning to solve problems but also of social and economic opportunities. Especially the poorest of the poor lack the time and resources to uplift themselves. This group needs special attention and support to break their predicament, and learning programmes for them should include literacy and cannot do without financial and material support.

Basic life skills can apparently be considered as major contributors to the success of social and economic activities and, as such, are essential topics for learning, either in the format of a learning programme or as a derivative of a learning process. However, if the acquisition of basic life skills is to get the important place it deserves according to the project staff, then a more active approach by the initiator to promote basic life skills and their integration in learning programmes seems called for.

4. UTILIZATION

So far our attention has been focused on the value of DELSILIFE as an *educational intervention system* and little has been said on the effectiveness of DELSILIFE as a *research and development project*. The success of a research and development project is not only measured according to the apparent quality of the product it delivers, but also according to the applicability and utilization of the product. Prospective users will base a decision about the adoption of a product on a complex of considerations. Among them are the availability of

means and circumstances of a socio-economic, political and cultural nature. No less important are considerations regarding the relevance of the product for the implementing agency, not only in view of the tasks it has to accomplish but also in view of the strategies it employs to perform these tasks. Obviously, the chances for adoption and utilization of a research outcome are enhanced by involving the prospective users in the development of the product.

Project DELSILIFE is an example of a collaborative research project in which the prospective users played a major role. Throughout the project period the participating government agencies made major contributions to the project in terms of counterpart funds, staff and time. The involvement of the government agencies from the start of the project enriched the research, captivated the governments' commitment to the project and helped to ensure the applicability and sustainability of the project activities. The collaboration between the participating countries, INNOTECH, the Netherlands Government and CESO has been extremely cordial and fruitful. The regular consultative meetings which brought the country teams, INNOTECH and CESO together to discuss and reflect on experiences and further plans for action, and the technical assistance visits were instrumental in developing the model as well as in monitoring the progress of the project. No doubt, the major success of the project is the fact that three of the four participating countries, on the basis of their positive perceptions about the results of DELSILIFE in Phase B, have integrated DELSILIFE in their regular non-formal education programmes. In the course of Phase C (1987-1989) Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia have developed training materials, conducted training programmes and initiated DELSILIFE in a number of villages in selected provinces. On the strength of the experiences gathered in this phase the respective governments will decide on the scope and approaches for wider dissemination. Malaysia abstained in Phase C due to administrative reasons. The Malaysian government structure does not have a department for non-formal education and, consequently, the government faced problems charging a particular ministry with the responsibility for disseminating DELSILIFE.

As Soriano pointed out in Chapter I, research and development projects are faced with many problems in the development and dissemination stages. Many products of research and development projects are never implemented due to lack of political commitment to implement the product, lack of an implementation support mechanism, lack of funds, lack of cultural relevance and the like. Fortunately, the result of Project DELSILIFE is not 'gathering dust' on library shelves but is finding its way to many villages in South-East Asia. This can be attributed to the collaborative nature of the project approach, the commitment of the government agencies involved, and to the conviction of the local governments that DELSILIFE constitutes a promising and relevant approach in human resource development.

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Annexes

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Annex 1.
Short History of Project Delsilife:

major stages, meetings and activities

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

1.	*Fourth quarter 1977*	In-house planning at INNOTECH.
2.	*January to February 1978*	INNOTECH fields a questionnaire letter to 113 educators and social scientist to solicit their opinion about priority research areas in rural development and education.

CONCEPTUAL STAGE

1. *3-5 May 1978*
   INNOTECH's Governing Board confirmed the topic for research. Authorized INNOTECH to convene a seminar to conceptualize a research project on the theme: 'Improving the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor Using the Integration of Education and Economic Activities for Self-Reliance'.
2. *18-22 September 1978*
   INNOTECH convenes Regional Seminar 1 on the theme: 'Improving the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor'.
3. *19-21 September 1979*
   INNOTECH's Governing Board approves working paper 'The Improvement of the Quality of Life of the Rural Poor'. Authorizes and directs INNOTECH to organize and conduct a regional seminar-workshop.
4. *5 November 1979*
   The Netherlands Government agrees to finance Phase A of the project.
5. *28 January - 2 February 1980*
   INNOTECH convenes Regional Seminar-Workshop 2. The specific topic 'The Establishment of Approaches and Procedures Essential to the Development of Effective Learning Systems for the Rural Poor' allows the participants to study the research proposal which eventually will guide Project DELSILIFE.

STAFFING

February to April 1980
INNOTECH sends research proposal to Ministers of Education; requests identification of pilot sites; requests identification of national project directors; invites representatives to a consultative meeting.

PHASE A : 1 MAY 1980 TO 31 OCTOBER 1981

Planned stages and activities:

a.	*Preparatory Stage*	- four months	-	4 February
			-	15 June 1980
b.	*Data-gathering Stage*	- seven months	-	16 June 1980
			-	8 Febr.1981
c.	*Analysis Stage*	- four months	-	5 January
			-	3 May 1981
d.	*Development and Reporting Stage*	- four months	-	4 May
			-	2 Nov.1981

1. *5-7 May 1980, First Consultative Meeting (CM-A1); Manila - Philippines*
   First consultatives from each member country which include the project director and his secretary - researcher and a representative from the Ministry of Education and Culture attend the meeting.

   The CM is convened to finalize the research design, complete the necessary preparations for launching project DELSILIFE, and train the participants in the use of survey instruments.
2. *2-13 June 1980, TAV-1; four countries*
   Technical Assistance Visit 1 (TAV-1) was undertaken to follow-up the field try-out of the survey instruments in the four countries.
3. *21 July-5 August 1980, TAV-2; four countries*
   TAV-2 was undertaken with the aims of: (1) observing the data-gathering activities for Set-I Instruments in order to gain first-hand experience on the conduct of the study; (2) getting inputs relative to the completion of Set-II Instruments; (3) conferring with the field staff on the problems encountered during the data gathering activities and to assist in solving them; and (4) assisting the field staff in preparing for CM-2.
4. *29 September - 2 October 1980, Second Consultative Meeting (CM-A2): Manila - Philippines*
   Objectives of this CM were to come up with a synthesis of data on needs for the four project sites, a preliminary analysis of the data so far gathered, and with Country Status Reports.

5. *10-23 November 1980, TAV-3; Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines*
   TAV-3 was conducted with the following objectives:
   a. to determine the status of the work, specifically with regard to:
      - translation of Set-II Instruments
      - tryout of the instruments
      - sampling
      - data gathering
      - analysis of results
      - achievement/production of expected outputs
      - administrative aspects
   b. to help the field staff faciliate or improve data gathering with the use of Set-II Instruments;
   c. to guide the field staff in analyzing the results; and
   d. to discuss future plans for data gathering and analysis.
6. *15-24 January, 20-24 February 1981, TAV-4; Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand*
   TAV-4 was conducted to observe the data-gathering activities using the Set-II Instruments, to confer with the field staff on problems encountered in data-gathering and to share experiences with the field staff and members of the National Steering Committee.
7. *24-27 March 1981, Third Consultative Meeting (CM-A3); Manila - Phillippines*
   The overall goal of the four-day meeting was to make a comprehensive report on conditions of poverty in the target communities on the basis of the survey data. Models were developed to translate life needs into educational needs, and guidelines for deriving learning objectives.

   Innotech Director Liceria B. Soriano presents the first conceptualized model of the DELSILIFE Intervention System.

   CESO Director J. Kraak for the first time attends, on behalf of the Netherlands Government, a DELSILIFE Consultative Meeting.
8. *13-17 July 1981, Fourth Consultative Meeting (CM-A4); Manila - Philippines*
   The countries present and discuss their country reports on the small project or sub-programme undertaken in their respective sites and on the research findings on the Phase A research questions. The participants also discuss with INNOTECH the Phase B Research Proposal.
9. *20-30 September 1981, TAV-5; Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand*

PHASE B : MARCH 1982 TO 31 AUGUST 1984.

1. *8-12 March 1982, First Consultative Meeting (CM-B1); Manila - Philippines*
   The participants discussed and finalized the draft Master Design of the intervention system. They prepared sample in-country learning programmes with some learning materials, and received training in the training of group leaders.

2. *20-29 May 1982, 10-17 June, TAV-1; four countries*
   The main objectives of TAV-1 were: (1) to provide inputs to the in-country seminar aimed at finalizing the in-country designs of the learning intervention system; and (2) to share guidance in the training of personnel and material development.
3. *29 July - 4 September 1982, TAV-2; four countries*
   The main objectives of TAV-2 were: (1) to insure the completeness of materials developed and/or gathered; (2) to insure that preparations for the testing stage were adequate; and (3) to prepare the field staff for CM-2.
4. *9, 14-17 and 23-25 September 1982, 1, 12 and 19 October 1982, 4 November and 16 December 1982, 10-21 January 1983, TAV-3; four countries*
   TAV-3 was conducted with the following purposes: (1) to insure the progress of the testing stage; (2) to share ideas on the first administration of the evaluation instruments; and (3) to provide inputs for the analysis stage.
5. *25-29 October 1982, Second Consultative Meeting (CM-B2); Manila - Philippines*
   Experiences were exchanged and discussed with regard to the implementation of the educational intervention system in the pilot communities, and the master design was validated and refined on the basis of the initial efforts to apply the design.
6. *9-22 January, 28 February - 13 March, 26 April, 10 June, 12 and 25 August 1983, TAV-4; four countries*
   The purpose of TAV-4 was to assist the country teams in the analysis of data.
7. *23 April - 6 May, 7 October and 25 November 1983, TAV-5; four countries*
   The main objectives of TAV-5 were: (1) to share ideas for the in-country model development; (2) to provide inputs for the final report of the field staff; and (3) to prepare the field staff for CM-3.
8. *15 April - 6 May 1983, Field Mission; Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines*
   Professor J. Kraak and Mr. G. van der Molen of the Dutch team undertook a joint INNOTECH - CESO field mission to the project sites of Indonesia, Malaysia and Philippines.
9. *20 August - 11 September, 9-15 October 1983, 12 January 1984, TAV-6; four countries*
10. *5-9 March 1984, Third Consultative Meeting (CM-B3); Nakhon Ratchasima - Thailand*
    The country teams presented and discussed the educational intervention models, as developed in each country on the basis of the experiences with the application of the DELSHIFE Master Design. Plans were discussed for the dissemination and implementation of the system to other communities.
11. *5-19 July, 29 August - 17 September, 27 November - 4 December 1983, 27 February 1984, TAV-7; four countries*

12. *3-7 September 1983, 3 and 15-19 July 1984, TAV-8; Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand*
13. *5-19 July 1984, TAV-9; Thailand*

PHASE C : JANUARY 1987 TO DECEMBER 1989

1. *26-31 January 1987*
   Prepatory visits were undertaken by the Head of the Research and Evaluation Division, INNOTECH to confer with the country teams on Phase C of the Project.

   The visit emphasized the conditions of the grant - the production of the DELSILIFE Package, the extensive implementation of DELSILIFE at local expense, the conduct of Consultative Meetings and Technical Assistance Visits (TAVs).
2. *19-21 May 1987, First Consultative Meeting (CM-C1); Manila - Philippines*
   The country teams of Indonesia, Thailand and the Philippines reviewed the state of affairs concerning Project DELSILIFE in their country, presented and discussed their plans for the wider dissemination of DELSILIFE in rural areas. A provisional time planning was made for the activities in the countries and the imputs of INNOTECH and CESO.
3. *Countries produce their "package" of DELSILIFE training materials*
4. *13 July - 7 August 1987, TAV-1; Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand*
   TAV-1 was conducted by Mr. A. Boeren of CESO and the Head of the Research and Evaluation Division, INNOTECH to assist the country teams in the finalization of the package.
   It was also a familarization visit for Mr. Boeren who was not involved in Phase B of DELSILIFE.
5. *21 September - 29 October 1987, 1-9 March and 22 April 1988, TAV-2; Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand*
   TAV-2 involved Mr. A. Boeren of CESO with the aim to assist team members in Indonesia and the Philippines in the design of training materials for village level DELSILIFE actors.

   In March 1988 a Senior Specialist of the Research and Evaluation Division, INNOTECH, attended a seminar on Indigeneous Technical Knowledge in Bangkok, Thailand. He spent an extra day purposely to monitor the production of the DELSILIFE package.

   In April 1988 the Deputy Director of INNOTECH visited Thailand and met with the Director General of Non-formal Education, Thailand on the progress of the preparation of the DELSILIFE package.
6. *1-5 August 1988, Second Consultative Meeting (CM-C2); Manila - Philippines*
   The teams reported on the nature of the DELSILIFE training materials being developed and the status of its reproduction. The country team of the Philippines presented its plans for training and dissemination. A CESO

paper on Basic Life Skills by Mr. C. Epskamp was discussed.

7. *October - December 1988, video productions in the Philippines and Thailand*
   Production of the video - documentary "DELSILIFE in the Philippines", and two video training films on DELSILIFE in Thailand. A collaboration between CESO, INNOTECH and the country teams of the Philippines and Thailand.
8. *8-20 February 1989, 1-4 March, 4-9 May 1989, TAV-3; Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand*
   TAV-3 was conducted by INNOTECH staff members to gather as much information as possible about the implementation activities of Project DELSILIFE in Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand.
9. *7-11 August 1989, Third Consultative Meeting (CM-C3); Kanchanaburi - Thailand*
   The teams shared information and experiences, discussed problems and further plans for the dissemination and implementation of DELSILIFE.

POST-PHASE C : 1990

1. Production of the final INNOTECH package of DELSILIFE Training Materials - INNOTECH
2. Production of a paperback on project DELSILIFE - CESO

Annex 2.
List of Participants in Project Delsilife

1. INDONESIA

NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE

Chairman	
Prof. Dr. W.P. Napitupulu	*Director General of the Department of Non-Formal Education*
Vice Chairman	
Mr. Sumitro	*Head, Centre for Innovation of Culture*
Operation Chairman	
Mr. Abdul Karim	*Rector, IKIP Ujung Pandang*
Committee members	
Mr. Sukirman	*Head, Directorate of Rural Development, Department of Labour*
Mr. Anwas Iskandar	*Head, Directorate of Mass Education, Department of Education and Culture*
Mr. Yursan Sibly	*Head, Directorate of Rural Development, South Sulawesi Province*
Mr. H. Palangkey Dg. Lagu	*Mayor, Jeneponto District*
Mr. Abd. Wahhab	*Head, Mass Education, South Sulawesi Province*
Mr. Iskandar Sila	*Head, Office of Department of Education and Culture, Jeneponto District*
Mr. Andi Liuddin, B.A.	*Head, Sub-Directorate of Rural Development, Jeneponto District*
Mr. M. Sudomo, M.A.	*Lecturer, IKIP Malang*

FIELD STAFF

Phase A

Project Director	Mr. Kamaruddin
Secretary/Researcher	Mr. Wahiduddin Ridha
Researchers	Mr. Hasanuddin Salam
	Mr. Sarita Pawcloy
	Mr. Kahar Pary
	Mr. Hammado Tantu
	Mr. Ali Latief
Clerk/Typist	Mr. M. Asfah Rahman
	All from IKIP Ujung Pandang.

Phase B

Project Director	Mr. Kamaruddin
Executive Secretary	Mr. M. Saeruddin Mandra
Researchers	Mr. Wahiduddin Ridha
	Mr. Hammado Tantu
	Mr. Ali Latief
	Mr. Hasanuddin Salam
	Mr. Kahar Pary
	Mr. A. Kadir Suma
Curriculum Writer/ Illustrator	Mr. Sofyan Salam
Clerk-Typist	Drs. M. Asfah Rahman
	All from IKIP Ujung Pandang
Assistant Researchers	Mr. Bochari L, *Rural Development*
	Mr. Sirajang, *Community Education*
	Mr. Patta Lolo, *Senior High School Teacher*
	Mrs. Patta Lolo, *Elementary School Teacher*
	Mr. Mangngantarang Fauzy, *Student*
	Mr. M. Basir Amir, *Student*
Consultants	Mr. H. Sudomo, *Lecturer, IKIP Malang*
	Dr. Sumardi HS, *BP3K, Dept. of Education and Culture*
	Mr. Adji Pramono, *(idem)*

Phase C

Project Director	Mr. Kamaruddin, *IKIP Ujung Pandang*
Contributors	
IKIP Ujung Pandang:	A. Kadir Suma
	Kahar Pary
	M. Ali Latief
	Salahuddin Tahir
	Hasanuddin Salam
	Sahlan NS
	M. Saeruddin Mandra
	Tawany Rahamma
	Wahiduddin Ridha
	Amalius Sahide
BANGDES South Sulawesi:	M. Djabir Ramli
	Abdullah Rakhman
DIKMAS South Sulawesi:	J.A. Rachman
	Mansyur A.M.
	Muh. Jusuf Latief
	Muhammad Amir
	Ibrahim
	Sukasmo
	Hamid Maming
	A. Rachman Sanusi
BALITBANG DIKBUD:	Wignyo Atmosochardjo

2. MALAYSIA

NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE

Chairman	
Tan Sri Dato' Haji Murad bin Mohd. Nor	*Director General of Education, Ministry of Education*
Co-Chairman	
Dato' Ismail bin Mansur	*State Secretary of Negeri Sembilan*
Vice Chairman	
Dato' Abdul Rahman bin Haji Arshad	*Deputy Director General of Education (I), Ministry of Education*
Secretary	
Mr. Muhammad Zain bin Kasim	*DELSILIFE Project Director, Ministry of Education*

Committee Members

Dato' Haji Ahmad bin Haji Saleh	*Director of Educational Planning and Research Division, Ministry of Education*
Dato' Idris bin Taim	*Director of School, Ministry of Education*
Dato' Haji Ali bin Ibrahim	*Director of Teachers Training, Ministry of Education*
Mrs. Asiah bte Abu Samah	*Director of Curriculum Development, Ministry of Education*
Dr. Abdul Hamid bin Haji Osman	*Director of Religious Division, Ministry of Education*
Mr. Tan Boon Lin	*Director of Technical and Vocational Division, Ministry of Education*
Mr. Saw Chu Thong	*Director of Mass Education Division, Ministry of Education*
Dr. Wan Hoh. Zahid bin Mohd. Noordin	*Director of State Education of Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. M.R. Baskaran	*Principal Assistant Secretary, Foreign Affairs Division, Ministry of Education*
Dato' Sufian bin Abd. Majid	*Director General of Implementing Co-ordinating Unit, Prime Ministers Department*
Dr. Mohd. Nor bin Ghani	*Director General of Management and Man-power Unit, Prime Ministers Department*
Prof. Dr. Isahak bin Harun	*Dean of Education Faculty, University of Malaya*
Dr. Marimuthu	*Deputy Dean of Education Faculty, University of Malaya*
Mr. Mohd Ridzuan bin Abd. Halim	*Director General of MARA, Ministry of National and Rural Development*
Mr. Mohd Nor bin Azam	*Deputy Director General of Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka*
Mr. Shahadan bin Haji Abdul Manas	*Director General of Community Development, Ministry of National and Rural Development*
Mr. Sofian b. Abd. Rahim	*Director of Youth, Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports*
Mr. Osman bin Said	*Director of Development and Modernization RISDA, Ministry of Land and Regional Development*
Mr. Mohd Ridzuan bin Mohd Noh	*Deputy Director of Agriculture Department, Ministry of Agriculture*

Dr. Mohd Fadhil	*Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Ministry of Agriculture*
Ms Zuraidah btc Merican	*Fishery Department, Ministry of Agriculture*
Dr. Wijasuriya	*Deputy Director General of National Library*
Mr. Abas B. Salleh	*Ministry of Information*
Dr. Megat Burhanudin bin Megat Abd. Rahman	*Director of Training and Manpower, Ministry of Health*
Mr. Syed Abu Bakar Barakbah	*Director of Schools, Ministry of Education*
Mr. Mustapha bin Mohd. Zain	*Assistant State Secretary of Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Abdul Aziz bin Yusof	*State Director of Agriculture, Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Ong Eng Chee, Pjk	*Director of Drainage and Irrigation Department Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Mohammad bin Haji Othman, Pjk	*Director of Town & Rural Area Planning, Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Mohd. Akbar bin Baba	*State Development Officer of Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Ahmad Din bin Haji Babjee, Pjk	*Director of Public Works Department of Negeri Sembilan*
Mr. Radzi bin Yusof, Pmc	*District Officer of Jelebu, Negeri Sembilan*

FIELD STAFF

Phase A

Project Director	Mr. Muhammad Zain bin Kassim *Lecturer, University of Malaysia*
Secretary/Researcher	Mr. Amir Sharifuddin Wong bin Abdullah
Researchers	Mr. Mond. Raus bin Mohd. Nor Ms Noraini Binti Abdul Aziz Ms Asnah Binti Musa Ms Aminah Binti Majid
Clerk/Typist	Ms Latifah Binti Mohammad

The Local Steering Committee (District Level)

Chairman	
Mr. Radzi bin Yusof, Pmc	*District Officer of Jelebu*
Secretary	
Mr. Muhammad Zain bin Kassim	*Project Director*
Other Members	
Mr. Yahya bin Hasan	*Assistant District Officer of Jeleby*
Mr. Abu Hamzah bin Haji Mohd. Salleh, Pjk	*Officer in Charge of District Drainage and Irrigation Department, Jelebu*
Ms Ramli bin Manaf	*District Information Officer, Jelebu*
Ms Nilawati Binti Pilus	*Assistant District Agriculture Officer, Jelebu*
Mr. Mohd. Ghani bin Yufos, Pis	*District Youth, Culture and Sports Department Officer*
Mr. P. Shanmuganathan, Pjk	*Assistant District Engineering Officer, Public Works Department, Jelebu*
Mr. Mohd. Kassim bin Yusof	*Village Head of Sungai Bulah*
Mr. Arshad bin Kassim	*Village Head of Jerang*
Mr. Abdul Aziz bin Sudin	*Principal of Sungai Buloh Primary School*

The Local Steering Committee (Village Level)

Chairman	
Mr. Mohd. Kassim bin Yusof	*Village Head of Kampung Sungai Buloh*
Secretary	
Mr. Baharuddin bin Arshad	*Secretary, Village Security and Development Committee*
Other Members	
Mr. Mahmud bin Canap	*Village Mosque Committee*
Mr. Yunus bin Ibin	*Village Mosque Committee*
Mr. Musa bin Ahmad	*Village Mosque Committee*
Mr. Ahmah bin Mat Amin	*Village Security and Development Committee*
Mr. Mohd. Sabri bin Ismail	*Village Youth Society's Chairman*
Mr. Kamaruddin bin Yusof	*Village Youth Society's Secretary*
Mrs. Sawiyah Binti Yahya	*Village Youth Society's Treasurer*
Mrs. Shamsiah Binti Haji Mahmud	*Teacher, Village Primary School*

Phase B

Project Directors	Mr. Nordin bin Awal (First Part) Mr. Izhab bin Harun (Second Part)
Researchers	Mrs. Fatima bt. Sihi Mr. Ismael bin Omar
Co-ordinator	Mr. Mahadzir bin Hashim
Facilitator	Mr. Hamzah Othman

3. PHILIPPINES

NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE

Phase A

Chairman	
Dr. Felicita G. Bernadino	*Deputy Minister for Nonformal Education, Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports*
Secretary	
Pedro B. Trinidad	*Assist. Schools Division Supt.*
Committee Member	
Feliciana C. Santiago	*Asst. Superintendent*

Phase B

Chairman	
Dr. Abraham Felipe	*Deputy Minister of Education*
Secretary	
Dr. Feliciana C. Santiago	*Division Superintendent, Bulacan*

Phase C

Chairman	
Dr. Remigio Romulo	*Director, Bureau of Nonformal Education, Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports*
Vice Chairman	
Dr. Estrella Ll. Garcia	*Assistant Director, Bureau of Non formal Education (BNFE)*
Committee Members	
Mr. Lauro G. Bautista	*Chief, Staff Development Division, BNFE*

Dr. Magdalena Dugenia	*Chief, Learning Resource Development Division, BNFE*
Dr. Mercedes M. Agpaoa	*Chief, Program Development Division, BNFE*

All Chiefs of Non-formal Educ. Division in the 14 DECS Regional Offices

FIELD STAFF

Phase A

Project Director	Pedro B. Trinidad
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	Ms L. Resurreccion, *EGT*
	Ms Eva Trinidad, *EGT*
Clerk/Typist	Ms Carmelità Diaz, *EGT*

Local Steering Committee

Chairman	*Mayor* Nicanor V. Guillermo
Members	Mrs. Adelaida P. San Juan
	Ms Natividad G. Raymundo
	Mrs. Cecilia Roxas
	Dr. Remedios Sandel
	Mrs. Eva Ruiz
	Councilor Jose Gulinao
	Barangay Capt. Almario dela Cruz

Phase B

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Curriculum Writer	Mrs. Feliza S. Roxas
Clerk/Typist	Ms Carmelita G. Diaz
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Facilitator	Ms Lucila S. Resurreccion
Mimeograph Operator	Mr. Ricardo Gulinao

Phase C

Project Staff, material and traning development

Project Director	Dr. Remigio P. Romulo, *Director, Bureau of Nonformal Education, DECS*
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Interviewers	Emma Ranola Malve Seranilla Luz Casin Senen Rapay Norma Sabaybay Pablo Ced *All NFE Co-ordinators*

4. THAILAND

NATIONAL STEERING COMMITTEE

Phases A and B

Chairman	
Dr. Saiyut Champatong	*Deputy Undersecretary of State for Education*

Vice Chairman	
Khunying Aree Kultan	*Director General, Department of Non -formal Education*
Committee Members	*Director General, Department of General Education*
	Director General, Department of Educational Techniques
	Director General, Department of Community Development
	Director General, Department of Health
	Director, Bureau of the Budget
	The Governor, Nakorn Ratchasima Province
	Dr. Thanoo Swaengsakdi
	Mrs. Wilaipan Somtrakool

Phase C

Chairman	
Mr. Virat Kamudamas	*Director General Non-formal Education Department*
Vice Chairman	*Deputy Director General Non-formal Education Department*
Committee Members	*Director, Plannning and Research Division, Non-formal Education Department*
	Director, Non-formal Education Development Division, NFE Department
	Director, Central Regional NFE Centre
	Director, Northeastern Regional NFE Centre
	Director, Eastern Regional NFE Centre
	Director, Southern Regional NFE Centre
	Director, Vocational Training and Development Centre for Thai People Along the Thai-Kampuchaen Border Areas
	Director, Nakhon Ratchasioa Provincial NFE Centre
	Chief of NFE Supervisory Unit
	Head, Material Development Section, NFE Development Division
	Head, Personnel Development and Training Section NFE, Development Division

Secretary	*Director Operations Division, NFE Department*
Assistant Secretaries	*Head, Regional NFE Development Section Operations Division* *Head, Foreign Relations Section, Planning and Research Division*

Operation Committee (DELSILIFE Staff)

Chairmen	Mr. Chaloem Bandhamcharoen (first part) Dr. Vichai Tunsiri (second part), *Deputy Director General NFE Department*
Vice Chairmen	*Director, Operations Division, NFE Department* *Chief, NFE Supervisory Unit*
Members	*Directors of Provincial NFE Centres which participated in DELSILIFE*
Secretary	*Head, Regional NFE Development Section, Operations Division*
Assistant Secretaries	Ms Wisanee Siltragool Mrs. Wilaipan Somtrakool

FIELD STAFF

Phase A

Project Director	Dr. Thanoo Swaengsaki, *Inspector General of the Undersecretary of State for Education, MOE*
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Phase C

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Training Committee	Dr. Kanikar Yamsakorn Mr. Wacharin Tumpee Mr. Chaiyod Imsuuan Mr. Sombat Letsuriyakul

	Mr. Paramet Sukmak
Instructional Media and Evaluation Committee	Mrs. Wilaipan Somtrakool
	Ms. Wisanee Siltragool
	Mr. Boonsom Nawanukhor
	Dr. Sombat Suwantipak
	Mr. Anusorn Chummuengrak
Secretary	Ms. Chutaporn Suttiwiwat
Assistant Secretaries	Ms. Wanwimon Insawang
	Mrs. Kornkaew Yiumrak
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Provincial staff	Mr. Chan Somboonying
	Mr. Udom Piamcharoen
	Mr. Niwat Boonsung
	Mr. Kamol Tantichayakorn
Video production:	
NFE staff	Ms. Wisanee Siltragool
	Ms. Wanwimon Insawang
	Ms. Benchaporn Chaithiemsilpa

5. INNOTECH

Dr. Liceria Brillantes Soriano	*Director, 1976-1986*
Dr. Dolores F Hernandez	*Director, 1986-1989*
Dr. Zanti Arbi	*Deputy Director for Research and Evaluation Division*
Dr. Jose B. Socrates	*Head, Research and Evaluation Division*
Dr. Francisco A. Trespeces	*Head, Research and Evaluation Division*
Ms. Elizabeth Pico	Head, Technical Resources Unit
Dr. Eligio B. Barsaga	*Senior Specialist*
Dr. Melba A. Tugade	*Senior Specialist*
Mr. Sasbani	*Senior Specialist*
Dr. Waini Rasyidin	*Senior Specialist*
Dr. Melba Dayao	*Senior Specialist*
Ms. Anita Nazareth	*Associate Specialist*
Mr. Sutichai Tharatorn	*Associate Specialist*
Mr. Soenarwan	*Associate Specialist*
Mr. Bert Dador	*Video operator*
Mr. Danilo Lopez	*Graphic artist*

6. CESO

Professor J. Kraak	*Director, 1969 - 1986*
Professor Dr. L.F.B. Dubbeldam	*Director, since 1986*
Mr. G. van der Molen	*Staff member, till 1987*
Mr. A. Boeren	*Staff member*
Dr. A. Kater	*Staff member*
Dr. C. Epskamp	*Staff member*

Annex 3.
Annotated Bibliography

1. BOOKS

Socrates, J.B.
DELSILIFE : an educational intervention to improve the quality of life of the rural poor / J.B. Socrates
[Manila] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1986. - 27 p.
INNOTECH research monograph series ; no. 1

Essay on the general history of DELSILIFE project, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the learning programmes, the learning groups, the training of group leaders and basic life skill training.

Project DELSILIFE Malaysia appendix : rural poverty
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [198?]. - [var.p.]

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2. ARTICLES

Jacobs, Robert
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3 (1979) no. 1, p. 1-6, *INNOTECH Journal*

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Improving the quality of life of the rural poor : a framework for research design / D.G. Nichols
3 (1979) no. 1, p. 7-14, *INNOTECH Journal*

In his article the author remarks that programmes for improving the quality of life of the rural poor can be designed not for the purpose of prescribing quality-of-life improvements but rather to provide means whereby the rural poor can decide upon and facilitate improvements in their own lives.

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A learning process approach to working with the rural poor / D.C. Korten
4 (1980) no. 1, p. 11-23, *INNOTECH Journal*

In the article the author concludes that the successful examples of rural development have grown out of village experience and evolved through a bottom-up approach. This allows the achievement of a high degree of fit between beneficiary needs, programme outputs, and the competence of the assisting organization.

Socrates, Jose B.
Needs assessment : the experience of project DELSILIFE / J.B. Socrates
4 (1980) no. 2, p. 4-13 , *INNOTECH Journal*

In this article the author reports on the approach of needs assessment in project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The target communities are involved directly or indirectly in the gathering of data, that are substantially built into the educational intervention schemes of the research.

Thompson, Alexander R.
The role of education in rural development / A.R. Thompson
4 (1980) no. 2, p. 22-32, *INNOTECH Journal*

An article with reflections on educational interventions to improve the quality of life of the rural poor.

Thomson, Peter
The basic needs of the rural poor : a review of the literature with particular emphasis on educational needs / P. Thomson
4 (1980) no. 1, p. 24-34, *INNOTECH Journal*

The review focuses on educational aspects of the problem and looks at some

of the implications for INNOTECH's work in developing an educational intervention system for the rural poor.

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DELSILIFE : an integrated educational intervention system / J.B. Socrates
6 (1982) no. 1, p. 57-63, *INNOTECH Journal*

Article on DELSILIFE project, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the history and objectives of the programme in general and with the problem solving process at community level in particular.

Hernandez, Dolores F.
Patterns of relevant education for countryside development / D.F. Hernandez
6 (1982) no. 1, p. 6-19, *INNOTECH Journal*

The article points out some techniques and guidelines to make education more relevant to the everyday life of the rural community. These include determination of specific needs at the grassroots level, analysis of the data, specifying the areas for curriculum development and determining points of entry.

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Educational research and development : the INNOTECH experience / L.B. Soriano
7 (1983) no. 1, p. 6-15, *INNOTECH Journal*

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Molen, G. van der
DELSILIFE, an intervention model for non-formal learning / G. van der Molen
In : *Education and the development of cultural identity : groping in the dark* / ed. by K. Epskamp. - The Hague : CESO, 1984. - p. 28-40.

Article on DELSILIFE project, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the general history of the project, the identification of learning needs, the workshops on basic life skill training and learning as a means of problem solving.

Leeuw, B. van der
Volwasseneneducatie op z'n Thais / B. van der Leeuw
21 (1985) no. 24, p. 67-73, *Intermediair*

Article on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. This article pays special attention to adult education activities in rural areas in Thailand.

Soriano, Liceria B.
Project DELSILIFE : a strategy for human resource development / Liceria B. Soriano
In : *The Philippines at the crossroads* / B.M. Villegas [et al.]. - [S.l.] : Center for Research and Communication, 1986. - p. 773-789

Article on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the conceptual framework and working model of the project as an educational intervention system.

Siltragool, W.
Youth programmes and transition : a case study from Thailand / W. Siltragool
In : *Paving pathways to work* / ed. by E. Droogleever Fortuyn, W. Hoppers, M. Morgan. - The Hague : CESO, 1987. - p. 181-187
CESO paperback ; no. 2

Article on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with youth programmes and non-formal education within the context of DELSILIFE in Thailand.

Nakabutr, T.
Product or process? / T. Nakabutr
[S.l. : s.n., 198?]. - 5 p.

Paper on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with DELSILIFE within the context of adult education and rural development in Thailand.

3. INNOTECH REPORTS

Pnase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor : a technical proposal.
[Front cover title: ..... : a research proposal]
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1979. - 38 p. : tab.

A technical research proposal on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, establising approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor.

- * -

Phase B : designing and model development of effective learning systems for the rural poor : a research proposal
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1979. - 23 p. : fig., tab.

Research proposal on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a draft model of the DELSILIFE educational intervention system research design.

- * -

Draft report INNOTECH regional seminar II, 28 January - 2 February 1980, Manila [on] phase A : the establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - (420) p. : tab.

Draft report on the second regional seminar on project DELSILIFE phase A, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting country reports on Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand, dealing with the establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of non-formal learning systems for the rural poor in South-East Asia.

- * -

First technical assistance visit reports (TAVI)
[S.l. : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980]. - (115) p.

First technical assistance visit report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

- * -

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Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - (155) p.

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Thomson is included.

- * -

Proceedings of the 2nd consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor, 29 September - 2 October 1980, Quezon City
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - (262) p.

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- * -

Progress report no. 1, May - October 1980 : DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - viii, 51 p.

Progress report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the research design, the project sites and the field organization of the project in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE : manual for the field staff phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor 1980-1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1980?]. - 20, 85 p.

Manual for the field staff of project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, establishing approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor : a research proposal 1980-1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1980?]. - 128 p. : tab.

Research proposal of project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting

the research design and methodology of a programme on the development of a coordinated intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE trip report on the 2nd technical assistance visit (TAV2) July 21 - August 5, 1980
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - 40, 5, 2 p.

Second technical assistance visit report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

- * -

Some phase A instruments
[S.l. : SEAMEO/INNOTECH], [1980?]. - 27, [44] p.

Stencil on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting some phase A research instruments.

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Appendices [to the] proceedings of the 4th consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - (375) p. : fig., tab.

Working papers for the 4th consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of and educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes. Papers by: Dr. Socrates on the DELSILIFE coordinated educational intervention system and on its application in Indonesia ; by dr. Barsaga on the learning intervention system focused on its management and on programs to improve the quality of life of the rural poor ; by dr. Tugada on implementing DELSILIFE in Thailand ; and by dr. Pagcaliwaga on implementing DELSILIFE in Indonesia. Indicators of self-reliance and the improved quality of life are presented. Finally constraints and inhibitors of the DELSILIFE approach are mapped out.

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Proceedings of the 4th consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor, 13-17 July 1981, Quezon City
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 96 p. : photos

Proceedings of the 4th consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A,

an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of and educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes.

- * -

Proceedings of the third consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A, 24 to 27 March 1981, Quezon City
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - (207) p.

Proceedings of the 3rd consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of and educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes. Short country reports on Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand are included.

- * -

Progress report no. 2, November 1980 - April 1981 : DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1981]. - (219) p. : tab.

Progress report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor in South-East Asia, dealing with the data gathering instruments, like interviews, diairies, household case studies, small group meetings and questionnaires.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE : final report phase A, May 1980 - October 1981 : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor
Bulacan : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iv, 370 p. : fig., tab.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective non-formal learning systems in adult education for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE phase B : designing and model development : a research proposal
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 2nd ed. - 132 p. : fig., tab. - 1st ed. : 1979

Research proposal on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a draft model of the DELSILIFE educational intervention system and the overall research design.

- * -

Proceedings of the first consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B : designing and model development, 8-12 March 1982, Quezon City
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1982. - (500) p. : ill.

Proceedings of the 1st consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B, and educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of an educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes.

- * -

Proceedings of the second consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B : designing and model development, 25-29 October 1982, Quezon City
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1982. - (148) p.

Proceedings of the 2nd consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of an educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes. Special attention is paid to the training and development of group leaders and the formation of learning groups.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE : second periodic report phase B September 1982 - February 1983
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1983. - 42 p. : fig.

Periodic report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the learning programmes in the DELSILIFE context in Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand.

- * -

Project DELSILIFE : third periodic report phase B March - August 1983
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1983. - ii, 28 p. : fig.

Periodic report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the formation and operation of the DELSILIFE community council, training the group leaders and developing learning programmes in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand.

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Proceedings of the third consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B : designing and model development, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
Nakhon Ratchasima : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - (191) p.

Proceedings of the 3rd consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the development of an educational research model on an intervention system for improving the quality of life of the rural poor in South-East Asia through self-reliance in initiating non-formal adult education programmes. Several working papers are included on the organization of DELSILIFE, the learning programmes, on packaging the DELSI LIFE system, on building the DELSILIFE country models, on how DELSI-LIFE is envisioned to be implemented in new communities, on the effectiveness of the DELSILIFE system. A paper written by professor Kraak deals with the problem solving process as core element of basic life skills. Another paper by Van Der Molen deals with the organization, training and information strategies for the dissemination of DELSILIFE.

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Project DELSILIFE : technical report
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - v, 162 p. : tab.

Technical report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the methodology of the DELSILIFE educational intervention system and presenting an evaluative summary on indications of self-reliant individuals in the field of basic life-skills training in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand.

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Project DELSILIFE : a strategy for human resources development (executive summary)
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1986?]. - (26) p.

Executive summary of a strategy for human resources development as used

in project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C): first technical assistance visit (TAV-1) ; report
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1987. - (26) p.

Report om the first technical assistance visit in project DELSILIFE (Phase C), an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, to Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia to discuss ideas for DELSILIFE training packages.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : first periodic report. November 1986 - April 1987
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1987. - (?) p.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : second periodic report. May - October 1987 ; with enclosures
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1987]. - (110) p. ; enclosures - (107) p.

This periodic report on project DELSILIFE, and educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, includes a summary of the proceedings of the First Consultative Meeting (CM-1) as well as reports on the first and second Technical Assistance Visits (TAV-1 & TAV-2). The enclosures to the report consist of country programmes regarding training for dissemination of DELSILIFE, reports on the implementation of DELSILIFE in 3 regions in the Philippines and some local news reports on DELSILIFE.

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DELSILIFE in Barangay Sto. Nino
16 (1987) no. 5, p. 6-7, *INNOTECH newsletter*

Brief note on the responses to DELSILIFE project activities by participants in adult education programmes in the Philippines and in Indonesia.

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DELSILIFE lives in Ban Tab Chang
16 (1987) no. 4, p. 5-6, *INNOTECH newsletter*

Brief note on responses to DELSILIFFE project by the participants in adult education programmes in Ban Tab Chang in Thailand.

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Production of DELSILIFE packages underway
16 (1987) no. 4, p. 5, *INNOTECH newsletter*

Brief note on the production of DELSILIFE learning packages as designed by the participating countries taking part in DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : third periodic report . November 1987 - April 1988
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1988]. - 48, (17) p.

This periodic report on project DELSILIFE (Phase C), an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, includes an account of promotional activities and reports on technical assistance visits conducted by mr. Boeren to Indonesia and the Philippines and Dr. Barsaga to Thailand.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : report of proceedings second consultative meeting (CM-2) ; August 1-5, 1988
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1988]. - 112 p.

Proceedings of the second consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE (Phase C), an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The main purpose of this meeting was to share information on the nature of the DELSILIFE package and the status of its reproduction. Hence, the main part of the agenda consisted of the reports of the three participating countries. Discussed were also the procedures and results of the pre-testing of Thai DELSILIFE training materials.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : fifth periodic report. August 1988 - April 1989
[Quezon City] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH , [1989]. - (35 p.)

Fifth periodic report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research report initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The document compiles reports on technical assistance visits carried out by INNOTECH staff with the aim to record implementation activities in selected DELSILIFE sites in Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia.

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INNOTECH Project DELSILIFE (Phase C) : third consultative meeting (CM-3), 7-11 August 1989, Kanchanaburi, Thailand ; report of proceedings
[Quezon City] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1989]. - 114 p.

Proceedings of the third consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. In the meeting were discussed experiences in producing and utilizing the training packages, the success of DELSILIFE in improving the quality of life of the rural poor trhough self-reliance, and plans for further use of DELSILIFE in development programmes. The proceedings include country reports, a paper by mr. Boeren on North-South collaboration in research and research dissemination, a paper by Dr. Socrates on popularizing educational technology, and some notes by Dr. Suwantipak on evaluating DELSILIFE.

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4. CESO REPORTS AND PAPERS

Molen, G. van der
DESILIFE master design in development I : experiences of the first joint INNOTECH-CESO field mission / G. van der Molen and J. Kraak
The Hague : CESO, 1982. - 13 p., [11 p.]

Report on a field visit by the authors to Manila and the Philippine project site of project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. During their meetings with INNOTECH staff discussions were held on project conceptualization, implementation, evaluation and future dissemination.

Molen, G. van der
DELSILIFE master design in development II : experiences of the joint INNOTECH-CESO field mission in Malaysia, April 1983 / G. van der Molen
The Hague : CESO, 1983. - 11 p., [2 p.] ; fig.

Report on a field mission to the Malaysian pilot site of project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The report contains a range of observations and remarks, partly discussed during the mission, partly formulated as afterthoughts.

Kraak, J.
DELSILIFE master design in development III : experiences of the second joint INNOTECH-CESO field mission to Indonesia, Malaysia and Manila ; April - May 1983 / J. Kraak and G. van der Molen
The Hague : CESO, 1983. - 39 p. , [4 p.]

On the basis of their experiences with DELSILIFE in the pilot villages in Indonesia and Malaysia, the authors elaborate on a number of important

aspects in the DELSILIFE approach, such as : the problem-solving process, basic life skills, materials for vertical instrumental skills, administrative integration of DELSILIFE and support institutions, packaging and the planning of Phase B. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

Kraak, J.
DELSILIFE master design in development IV : brief observations based on the third joint INNOTECH-CESO field mission to Thailand and Malaysia, August - September 1983 / J. Kraak and G. van der Molen
The Hague : CESO, 1983. - 5 p.

Report with some comparative observations on the implementation of DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH; in Thailand and Malaysia.

Molen, G. van der
Organization, training and information strategies for the dissemination of DELSILIFE ; contribution to CM-3, March 5-9, 1984, Korat, Thailand / G. van der Molen
The Hague : CESO, 1984. - 18 p.

In this paper the author deals with the question how DELSILIFE as a method can be disseminated on a wider scale and what conditions have to be met in terms of strategies, organization, human resources, training, information, communication and finance. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

Kraak, J.
The problem solving process as core element of basic life skills ; first draft / J. Kraak
The Hague : CESO, 1984. - 26 p.

This paper analyses in detail the various steps of the Problem Solving Process, both in the perspective of intellectual activity and in that of group dynamics to provide a logical framework for developing teaching/learning materials, manuals and guide books in the field of BLS.

Molen, G. van der
Project DELSILIFE : report of the CESO mission to INNOTECH, Manila and the NFE Department, Bangkok ; April 28 - May 21, 1985 / G. van der Molen
The Hague, CESO, 1985. - 9 p.

Report on a CESO mission in the context of project DESLILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH ; to Manila and Bangkok to work with the INNOTECH staff on training manuals and materials, and to discuss the procedures and content of the country workplans.

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INNOTECH - CESO cooperation in the DELSILIFE project : reader of reports and studies 1982-1987
The Hague : CESO, 1987. - (237) p.

Reader of reports and studies (1982-1987) of the INNOTECH-CESO cooperation in the DELSILIFE project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated and conducted by INNOTECH (Philippines).

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Molen, G. van der
INNOTECH - CESO cooperation in the DELSILIFE project : observations on the first consultative meeting of phase C, 19-21 May 1987 / G. van der Molen
The Hague : CESO, 1987. - (115) p. : fig.

The main objective of the first consultative meeting of phase C was to review the state of affairs concerning project DELSILIFE in Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand, and to present and discuss the plans for the wider dissemination of DELSILIFE as a method for development in the rural areas. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

Boeren, A.
INNOTECH project DELSILIFE (phase C) : report on the second technical assistance visit (TAV-2) ; part I : the Philippines 21 September -10 October 1987 ; Part II : Indonesia 11 - 29 October 1987 / A. Boeren
The Hague : CESO, 1987 - 15 p. , 10 p.

Reports on technical assistance visits by Mr. Boeren to assist the country teams in Indonesia and the Philippines in the development of DELSILIFE training materials. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

Boeren, A.
INNOTECH-CESO co-operation in project DELSILIFE (phase C) : field-testing of DELSILIFE training materials in Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia / A. Boeren
The Hague : CESO, 1989. - 138 p. : tab.

This document consists of three reports describing the procedures and results of the field-testing of training materials developed for the dissemination of DELSILIFE in Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

Boeren, A.
CESO-INNOTECH co-operation in project DELSILIFE (phase C) ; report on consultative meeting 3, 7-11 August 1989, Kanchanaburi, Thailand / A. Boeren
The Hague : CESO, 1989. - 14 p.

Report on CM-3 of Project DESLILIFE, phase C, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH ; documented are the discussions that were held, the progress that was reported concerning the implementation of DELSILIFE in the three countries, and some observations on dissemination practices and dissemination plans for the future.

5. COUNTRY REPORTS

INDONESIA

Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE [for the] consultative meeting II, 29 September - 2 October 1980
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - iv, 237 p. : tab. [and] 160 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting general information on the project sites in Indonesia, and dealing with the research instruments, data gathering and preliminary results.

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Protocol analysis : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [198?]. - ii, 90 p.

Protocol analysis on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting an overview of individual case studies of interviewees at the project sites of Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book five : inputs for final report of phase A [for the] consultative meeting IV, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iv, 40, 27 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the final description of the research methodology, the procedures of analysis and the findings and implications of the research as applied at the project sites in Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book four : constraints and inhibitors [for the] consultative meeting IV, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iv, 67 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting constraints and inhibitors as related to the individual, the community and the project staff at the project sites in Indonesia, and those constraints and inhibitors as perceived by sectoral officials at district level.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book four : learning needs and small sub-projects [for the] consultative meeting III, 24-27 March 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 38 p. : fig.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with small pilot projects and the identification of learning needs on the project sites in Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book one : learning needs and priorities [for the] consultative meeting IV, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 61 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting sources and techniques of learning need identification, derivation of life needs to learning needs to learning objectives, as well as tables of recapitulation of learning needs and objectives as formulated for the project sites in Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book one H.H. analysis (set II instruments) [for the] consultative meeting III, 24-27 March 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 192 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the

objectives, research instruments and data gathering procedures in Indonesia, dealing with the educational attainment, economic characteristics and vocational and technical skill training at the project sites. Special attention is paid to agriculture, health and nutrition, the role of women and youth.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book three : alternative approaches; management structures and mechanism [for the] consultative meeting IV, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 6 p. : fig.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting ideas on alternative approaches and management structures and mechanisms of integrated educational intervention at the project sites in Indonesia, dealing with the Kejar approach and the total community approach.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book three : OM analysis (set II instruments) [for the] consultative meeting III, 24-27 March 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 46 p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the research instruments and the statistical analysis of the findings in Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book two : additional information of set II instruments [for the] consultative meeting III, 24-27 March 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - ii, 112 p. : fig.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting reports on small group meetings with the target groups and reports on household case studies made at the project sites in Indonesia.

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Country report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE : book two : small sub projects [for the] consultative meeting IV, 13-17 July 1981
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 25 p.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting preliminary reports on the initial educational intervention at the project sites in Indonesia, dealing with courses in duck and chicken raising and with

sewing and embroidering.

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Phase A final report : Maccini Baji - Jeneponto project
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - xiv, 404 p. : map, tab.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Indonesia, dealing with the learning needs of the rural poor and with literacy and numeracy skills. Project descriptions on alabio duck raising, tailoring and embroidering and rural technology are included.

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Country report Maccini Baji -Jeneponto project DELSILIFE phase B [for the] consultative meeting II, 25-29 October 1982
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1982. - iii, (192) p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Indonesia, dealing with the formation and operation of community councils, the training of group leaders, the development of learning groups and the implementation of learning programmes.

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Country report Camba Camba - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE educational intervention process phase B [for the] consultative meeting III, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - v, 66 p. : fig.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Indonesia, dealing with the formation and operation of community councils, the training of group leaders, the development of learning groups and the implementation of learning programmes.

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Phase B : process analysis : Camba Camba - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE [for the] consultative meeting III, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - iii, 81, [23] p.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the process analysis of DELSILIFE as conducted in Camba Camba (Sulawesi) in Indonesia.

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Phase B Camba Camba - Jeneponto project : effectiveness of the DELSILIFE system [for the] consultative meeting III, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - ii, 23 p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the effectiveness of the DELSILIFE system in Camba Camba (Sulawesi) in Indonesia.

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Phase B Camba Camba - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE country model : structure and process [for the] consultative meeting III, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - iii, 10 p. : fig.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the structure and process of a country model as applied in Camba Camba (Sulawesi) in Indonesia.

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Phase B progress report : Camba Camba - Jeneponto project DELSILIFE [for the] consultative meeting III, 5-9 March 1984, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - iv, 100 p. : fig., tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the results of introducing the DELSILIFE approach in the rural communities, the formation and training of group leaders, a survey of learning needs and problems, the formation of learning groups and the development and implementation of learning programmes and materials in Indonesia.

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DELSILIFE training programme Indonesia [paper for] CM-1 phase C, Manila, 19-21 May 1987
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1987. - 16 p.

Training programme of project DELSILIFE phase C, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, designed for the project DELSILIFE in Indonesia.

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Country Paper [for the] third consultative meeting (CM-3), August 7-11, 1989, Thailand
Quezon City : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1989]. - 11 p. , [3 p.] , 10 p. ; fig.

Country report describing the progress made in the development of DELSILIFE training materials and plans for dissemination of and training for DELSILIFE. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH.

MALAYSIA

Project DELSILIFE country report for Malaysia [for the] second consultative meeting 29 Sept. - 2 Oct. 1980, Manila [Part 1-3]. Samples of forms and instruments used in data gathering of socio-economical background : additional reports [Part 4]
[S.l. : SEAMEO/INNOTECH], 1980. - 4 vol.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the preliminary research findings on the project sites in Malaysia.

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INNOTECH project DELSILIFE Kampung Sungai Buloh, Jelebu, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia : part two
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - (254) p. : ill.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a.o. a syllabus for the training course i.t the tailoring and cutting of garments in Malaysia.

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INNOTECH project DELSILIFE, Kampung Sungai Buloh, Jelebu, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia : part one
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 163 p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Malaysia, dealing with formal, nonformal and informal education and with the research activities in the project sites.

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INNOTECH project DELSILIFE, Kampung Sungai Buloh, Jelebu, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia : part one [for the] third consultative meeting, Manila, 24 March - 27 March 1981
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, (254) p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Malaysia, dealing with the learning needs of the rural poor,

literacy and numeracy skills and learning skills in preparing nutritious foods, family planning and in household maintenance.

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INNOTECH project DELSILIFE, Kampung Sungai Buloh, Jelebu, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia : part two [for the] third consultative meeting, Manila, 24 March - 27 March 1981
Manila : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - [382 p.] : photos, tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on the activities in Malaysia, dealing with the socio-economic background of the rural communities at the project sites and describing community projects in the field of livestock rearing, housing rehabilitation, collective replanting of rubber land and fresh water ponds.

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Project DELSILIFE final report (phase 1)
[S.l.] : Malaysia Ministry of education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1981]. - iii, 49, [13] p. : fig., tab.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the research findings and project activities on the DELSILIFE learning intervention system in Malaysia.

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Project DELSILIFE Malaysia : final report
[S.l.] : Malaysia Ministry of education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1981]. - xi, 94 p. : fig., tab.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the conditions of poverty and the characteristics of the poor people of Sungai Buloh in Malaysia and with the life and educational needs of this community.

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Report for plenary sessions phase B
[S.l.] : Malaysia Ministry of education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1982?]. - (17) p.

Report for a plenary session on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, held by the Ministry of education of Malaysia on the organization and operation of the community council on the project sites.

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Project DELSILIFE final report (phase 2)
[S.l.] : Malaysia Ministry of education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - v, 53 p. : map.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the establishment of DELSILIFE community council and learning group among the pilot communities in Malaysia.

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Project DELSILIFE plenary session 1-8
[S.l.] : Malaysia Ministry of education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [198?]. - (68) p.

Report of a plenary session on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, as held in Malaysia dealing with community organisation, land settlement, local neighbourhood organisation and DELSILIFE training strategies.

PHILIPPINES

Country status report Philippines [for the] second consultative meeting, 29 September - 2 October 1980
Bulacan : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - ii, 180, [5] p. : map, tab., photos

Country status report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a report on activities in the Philippines, dealing with the formation and operation of community councils, the training of group leaders, the development of learning groups and the implementation of learning programmes.

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Country status report Philippines : experiences in data-gathering using set II instruments; identifying/deriving learning needs; description of proposed subproject [for the] third consultative meeting, 24-27
March 1981
Bulacan : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iii, 67 p. : fig.

Country status report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting an identification of learning needs among the rural poor of three communities in the Philippines.

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Country status report Philippines [for the] fourth consultative meeting, 13-17 July 1981
Bulacan : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - ii, 160 p. : photos, tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country report on activities in the Philippines, dealing with learning needs and objectives in the project sites and with the integration of DELSILIFE nonformal educational intervention system into existing management structures and mechanisms.

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Country status report Philippines [for the] second consultative meeting, 25-29 October 1982
Bulacan : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1982. - ii, 124, [13] p. : tab.

Country status report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a report on activities in the Philippines, dealing with the formation and operation of community councils, the training of group leaders, the development of learning groups and the implementation of learning programmes.

THAILAND

Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE first quarterly report, 1 May 1980 - 16 June 1980 phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor
Nakorn Rajsima : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNO TECH, 1980. - 46 p. : map, photos

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the first progress report on approaches and procedures essential to the development of non-formal learning systems for the rural poor in Thailand.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A : establishment of approaches and procedures essential to the development of effective learning systems for the rural poor : second quarterly report 17 June - 28 September 1980
Nakorn Rajsima : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ;
SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1980. - ii, 26 p.

Quarterly report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the research activities in Thailand, establishing an approach to the develop-

ment of effective learning systems for the rural poor.

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Country report Thailand present[ed] to fourth consultative meeting, 13-17 July 1981, Quezon City
Bangkok : Ministry of Education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 42 p. : tab.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, and educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the basic research results and the learning needs and objectives of participants in Ban Tab Chang in Thailand.

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Thailand country report on set II data collection and how to set up the learning needs : present[ed] to consultative meeting 3, Manila, 24-27 March, 1981
Bangkok : Ministry of Education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 27 p.

Country report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting data collection and identification of learning needs in Thailand.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A - book 3 : report of set 2 instrument : general information of Ban Tab Chang
[Nakorn Rajsima] : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iv, 211 p.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting general information of Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with data gathering on the project site through small group meetings, case studies and questionnaires on community resources.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A - book 4 : report of set 2 instrument : mini-case study of Tab Chang
[Nakorn Rajsima] : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - 182 p.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a mini case study of Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with 71 individual cases compiled and analyzed out of a total number of 285 respondents studied at this project site.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A - book I : report of set I instrument : community, family and personal needs of Ban Tab Chang
[Nakorn Rajsima] : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - (263) p. : photos, tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting an inventory of the community, family and personal needs of Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with the learning needs and skills in the community, with literacy and mathematical aptitudes and with the improvements in agriculture, food and nutrition, family planning, mother and child care and house keeping.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A - book II : report of set II instrument : community profile of Ban Tab Chang
[Nakorn Rajsima] : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - [11], iii, 214 p. : photos, tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project, initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a community profile of Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with the basic data of the community and the educational and economic characteristics, like employment status, vocational and occupational skills, income generating activities, household expenditures, health and nutrition and the role of women.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE report book six : final report : termination of phase A, future plans of phase B
Nakorn Rajsima : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - ii, [10], 136 p. : fig., photos, tab.

Final report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the future plans of the project for phase B to be launched in the rural areas of Thailand.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE report book six : research findings : the five research questions
Nakorn Rajsima : Provincial Non-formal Education Centre ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1981. - iv, [12], 114 p. : photos, tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, and educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the

research findings of questionnaires used in the rural areas of Thailand.

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Country status report [of] project DELSILIFE Ban Tab Chang Thailand [for] the second consultative meeting, 25-29 October 1982, Quezon City
[S.l. : SEAMEO/INNOTECH], 1982. - 28 p. : fig.

Report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country status report on Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with the formation and operation of the community council, the training and development of group leaders, and the development and implementation of learning programmes.

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Project DELSILIFE Ban Tab Chang first periodic report March - August 1982
[S.l. : SEAMEO/INNOTECH], 1982. - ii, 67, (11) p.

Report on project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a first periodic report on Ban Tab Chang in Thailand, dealing with the organization of DELSILIFE community council, with the reorientation of the community, with the identification and training of group leaders, and with the development of learning programmes.

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Thailand INNOTECH project DELSILIFE phase A : report book seven : delivery systems : a draft proposal : programmes of activities for phase B
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1982. - xvii, 95 p. : photos

Report on project DELSILIFE phase A, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the delivery systems, the administrative system and the management of learning intervention systems as used in Thailand in the field of agriculture, nutrition, family planning, health care, literacy and cooperative development.

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Project DELSILIFE Ban Tab Chang, Thailand : second periodic report September 1982 - February 1983
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1983. - xx, 54 p. : fig., ill.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting the research activities and the training of the community council and group leaders in Ban Tab Chang in Thailand

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Country report phase B : designing and model development [for the] 3rd consultative meeting of project DELSILIFE, 5-9 March 1984
Nakornrajsima : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - 27 p.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the formation, training and operation of the community council and with the development of learning programmmes and learning materials in Thailand.

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Project DELSILIFE third periodic report phase B March 1983 - February 1984 to be presented to the third consultative meeting 5-9 March 1984
Nakornrajsima : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - v, 45 p. : tab.

Report on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, presenting a country model for Thailand.

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DELSILIFE : a case study of Thailand experiences : paper presented at CM-2, Philippines on August 1-5, 1988
[S.l.] : Ministry of Education, Department of Non-formal Education ; SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1988. - 20 p.

Case study on project DELSILIFE phase B, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, dealing with the experiences in Thailand.

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Country Report ; 3rd Consultative Meeting of Project DELSILIFE, 7-11 August 1989, Kanchanaburi, Thailand
[S.l.] : Ministry of Education, Department of Non-formal Education, 1989. - 17 p.

Country report on the progress made with the production of training materials, the dissemination of DELSILIFE, and plans for further use of DESLILIFE in development programmes. DELSILIFE is an educational research project initiated and coordinated by INNOTECH.

6. CASE STUDY REPORTS

Johari, Abdul Rajab
A case study on the meaning of DELSILIFE method to the villagers in Cambacamba, South Sulawesi, Indonesia
[Ujung Pandang] : [IKIP], [1988]. - 40 p. ; tab.

Report on a case study carried out in 1988 to assess the effects of Project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, in the Indonesian pilot village of Camba-camba, South Sulawesi.

Antonio, Celia M.
Project DELSILIFE in Loma de Gato, Marilao, Bulacan, Philippines
[Manila] : [1988]. - 30 p. ; ill.

Report on a case study carried out in 1988 to assess the effects of Project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, in the Philippines' pilot village of Loma de Gato, Bulacan.

Suwantipak, Sombat
Qualitative analysis of the DELSILIFE method : a case study of Ban Tab-Chang and Cha-Om, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand
[Bangkok] : Department of Non-formal Education, 1988. - 74 p. ; tab.

Report on a case study carried out in 1988 to assess the effects of Project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH, in the Thai pilot villages of Ban Tab-chang and Cha-om, Nakhon Ratchasima.

7. TRAINING MATERIALS

INNOTECH

INNOTECH three-month training programme : DELSILIFE (a self-learning module) : module 7
[S.l.] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, 1984. - ii, 47 p.

A self-learning module of an INNOTECH three-month training programme for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH (Philippines).

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[Specimen of DELSILIFE training materials]
[Quezon City] : SEAMEO/INNOTECH, [1986]. - 6 booklets

1. Booklet Number 1 :
   The DELSILIFE Intervention System (With a Promotor's Guide) - 39 p.
2. Booklet Number 2 :
   Manual for the Initiator - 23 p.

3. Booklet Number 3 :
   Manual for Training - 22 p.
4. Booklet Number 4 :
   Manual for the DELSILIFE Community Council (DCC) - 19 p.
5. Booklet Number 5 :
   Manual fo the Group Leader - 41 p.
6. Booklet Number 6 :
   Basic Life Skills - 16 p.

A set of self-learning materials developed by INNOTECH for project DESLILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The INNOTECH materials served as examples for training materials to be developed by the country teams for the dissemination of DELSILIFE.

INDONESIA

Pendidikan Kedesaan Terpadu (DIKDESADU) ; [Integrated Village Development] Ujung Pandang : Kanwil Depdikbud Propinsi Sulawesi Selatan ; Direktorat Bangdes Propinsi Sulawesi Selatan ; IKIP Negeri Ujung Pandang, 1989.
Package of training materials (7 pieces)

1. *Petunjuk Umum*
   General Guide Book - 31 p. ; ill.
2. *Petunjuk Bagi Penggerak*
   Guide Book for the Initiator - 10 p. ; ill.
3. *Petunjuk Latihan*
   Training Manual - 25 p. ; ill.
4. *Petunjuk Bagi Pengurus LKMD*
   Guide Book for the LKMD Committee - 18 p. ; ill.

5A *Petunjuk Bagi Ketua Kelompok*
   Guide Book for the Group Leader - 13 p.; ill.

5B *Petunjuk Ketua Kelompok (KASET)*
   Guide for Group Leaders (script of the casette programme) - 55 p.

6. Casette Programme for Group Leaders
   Approx. 60 minutes, divided into 4 sections.

A set of self-instructional training materials developed for project DIKDESADU (DELSILIFE), an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH ; to be used for the dissemination of DIKDESADU in Indonesia.

PHILIPPINES

[Package of training materials for project DELSILIFE]
Manila : Bureau of Nonformal Education, Department of Education,Culture and Sports, 1988.
Set consisting of 8 training materials.

1. *Improving the Quality of Life of Rural People*. An Introduction to the DELSILIFE Educational Intervention System - 14 p. ; ill.
2a *Manual for the Initiator* - 14 p. ; ill.
b *Manwal para sa Tagapaglunsad* - 16 p. ; ill.
3. *Patnubay para sa DCC*
Manual for the DCC - 22 p. ; ill.
4. *DELSILIFE Training Manual* - 36 p. ; ill.
5. *Patnubay para sa Lider ng Pangkat*
Manual for the Group Leader - 13 p. ; ill.
6. *Iskrip para sa 'CASSETTE TAPE' na Kasama ng Patnubay para sa Lider ng Pangkat*
Script of the cassette programme for group leaders - 68 p.
7. Cassette Programme for Group Leaders
Approx. 50 minutes, divided into 4 sections.

A set of self-instructional training materials developed for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and co-ordinated by INNOTECH ; to be used for the dissemination of DELSILIFE in the Philippines.

THAILAND

[Package of training materials for project DELSILIFE]
Bangkok : Department of Non-formal Education, Ministry of Education, 1988.
Set consisting of 8 booklets.

1. Manual for Implementation - 144 p. ; ill.
2. Let us Join the Group to Develop our Village - 21 p. ; ill.
3. Manual for Group Leaders - 8 p. ; ill.
4. Basic Life Skills: how important are they? - 20 p. ; ill.
5. Democracy for Villagers - 14 p. ; ill.

6.

How to Conduct a Meeting in the Village? - 20 p. ; ill.

7.

How to Contact Agencies? - 4p. ; ill.

8.

Public Relations - 2p. ; ill.

A set of self-instructional training materials developed for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and co-ordinated by INNOTECH ; to be used for the dissemination of DELSILIFE in Thailand.

8. VIDEO PRODUCTIONS

DELSILIFE in the Philippines
CESO, The Hague/ INNOTECH, Manila.
1988 ; U-matic/VHS, 39 minutes - English commentary

Video documentary produced for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The video documentary shows the results of project DELSILIFE in two Philippine villages, and describes the implementation process of DELSILIFE.

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Introduction to Tab-chang
Department of Non-formal Education, Ministry of Education, Bangkok, in collaboration with CESO, The Hague.
1989 ; U-matic/VHS, 30 minutes - Thai or English commentary

Training film produced for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The video film shows the results of DELSILIFE in the village of Tab-chang, Nakhorn Ratchasima.

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How to implement DELSILIFE in your village?
Department of Non-formal Education, Ministry of Education, Bangkok, in collaboration with CESO, The Hague.
1989 ; U-matic/VHS, 20 minutes - Thai or English commentary

Training film produced for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The video film explains the implementation process of DELSILIFE.

DELSILIFE in Region XI, Southeastern Mindanao
Bureau of Nonformal Education, Department of Education, Culture and Sports, Manila, in collaboration with INNOTECH, Manila.
1989 ; VHS, 13 minutes - English commentary

Video film produced for project DELSILIFE, an educational research project initiated by SEAMEO and coordinated by INNOTECH. The film shows results of project DELSILIFE in region XI, Southeastern Mindanao, Philippines.

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