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Planning, Implementing and Evaluating A Paralegal Training Programme

A MANUAL
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INTRODUCTION

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The International Commission of Jurists (ICJ) has been promoting a series of seminars in Asia, Africa and Latin America on the provision of legal services to the rural poor and other disadvantaged groups. The purpose is to discuss how the poor and disadvantaged can be provided with the basic legal services which more affluent people enjoy. In Asia the seminars have sought to involve lawyers, law teachers and students and to strengthen co-operation between them and legal services and grassroots development organisations in educating the poor and disadvantaged groups about their rights and how the law can be used to secure these rights.

One of the recommendations of the seminars is that the most effective way to achieve this is to train "paralegals" who will live and work with their specific disadvantaged group, educate them about their rights, give them the necessary assistance to secure them and if there is no other solution, act as a link between the community and the legal services organisation.

The paralegal worker is someone involved in the rural community with a basic knowledge of the law. With this knowledge and other necessary skills such as communication and leadership, the paralegal can help his community with legal disputes, group conflicts, community mobilisation and numerous other areas. No specific knowledge is required of a paralegal trainee; only a willingness to learn and a commitment to helping the rural community. Paralegal workers may be community leaders, NGO, activists, social workers, doctors, nurses or any number of other individuals in the rural community.

In 1989 based on the experiences of organisations in Asia a Handbook on Paralegals was prepared by the International Commission of Jurists.

As a follow-up in January 1990, the ICJ organised an Asian Seminar on Paralegal Trainers in Puncak, Indonesia. One of the recommendations made by that seminar was in regard to the training of trainers. It was noted that the lack of systematic training of paralegal trainers hampers paralegal training both in terms of quality and the quantity of paralegals trained. It was stated at that seminar, "the training of trainers has by and large remained experiential and it seems that no systematic process of training and evaluation of trainers has been undertaken".

Therefore as a follow up to that seminar, in January 1991, the ICJ conducted an Asian Workshop in Thailand, for "Paralegal Trainers working with the rural poor". The training programme was to train lawyers, law teachers, law students, and representatives of legal aid, human rights and development organisations (in Asia) working in rural areas and involved in training paralegals. This was a training programme for trainers who will in turn train people at the grassroots. The objective of the training programme was to enhance the knowledge and skills of the trainers to enable them to organise paralegal training programmes and make use of alternative training methods in their programmes.

The ICJ also realised that preparation of a Training Manual would facilitate local organisations to plan and implement training programmes without seeking continuous help from international organisations.

Therefore, this Training Manual was prepared to help legal services organisations and trainers to

- design, implement and evaluate training programmes for paralegals; and
- integrate effective learning and teaching methods into such training programmes.

The ICJ is grateful to Mr. D. Gnanapragasam and Mr. D.J. Ravindran for preparing this Manual.

We hope that the Manual will be of practical use to legal services organisations.

Adama Dieng
Secretary-General, ICJ.

CHAPTER 1

THE BACKGROUND

The paralegal concept is based on certain value assessment on the role of law and legal processes in development.

The following statement illustrates some of the assumptions that underscore use of law for social transformation.

"The dynamic interaction between law and society often reflect the changing values and standards of a given culture. A study of this interaction not only provides us with a mirror for the analysis of social phenomena, but often guides us to areas where reform and change are necessary. The law remains not only the witness and deposit of our moral life, but a necessary instrument of social transformation.

Most legal scholars agree that the process of the law no longer operates in a vacuum. The issues of legislation and legal analysis are integrally linked with the evolution of economic and political criteria. Much of the impetus for interdisciplinary research has come from the law and Development Movement of the seventies, which steered legal scholarship away from a descriptive study of the formal laws, to a more sociological analysis of the dynamics between law and society. This movement was a concerted effort by legal scholars to make the law and the legal process more relevant to the needs of developing societies.

The law has historically been regarded as the conservative, formalistic arm of the government, reflecting the entrenched values of the status quo. And yet, third-world societies at the crossroads of their history are often forced to make choices among competing strategies of development, and between traditional and modern values. The law can no longer be the passive reflector of social life. It is increasingly called upon to become the architect of future growth and an active instrument for the collective expression of a society's will, whether at the national, or international level.

The important role that law can play in the process of development has recently been highlighted by legal thinkers throughout the third world. The law may be used not only to formulate the new values of a changing society, but also in the creation of institutional structures which will help guide the development experience. Lawyers are increasingly requested to devise new procedures, institutions and structures, which give expression to general policy without undermining the cause of social justice.

Though the law may be used to transform society and social norms, its actual effectiveness is greatly dependent on the legitimacy it enjoys in a given society. This legitimacy is conditioned not only by whether the institutions of the law allow justice to be done, but also by whether justice is 'seen to be done'. In this

regard, the institutions of the law must remain open to self-criticism. With the use of sociological methods, the process of the law must be constantly evaluated and reformed so that they may meet the expectations of justice fostered by a democratic republic."

RADICAL AND LIBERAL APPROACHES

By and large the debate concerning law and its role in social transformation is centred around two broad approaches summarised as follows:

- (a) First approach which considers law as an oppressive tool in the hands of oppressors and therefore cannot be used by the oppressed until a radical change takes place.
- (b) The second approach considers law as a tool for social engineering. The assumptions are that every one is equal in status and the disadvantaged could change their situation by acquiring skills and resources to use law. Therefore, it is merely a question of increasing access by providing legal services to those who are disadvantaged.

ALTERNATIVE APPROACH

In the last two decades another approach has emerged which situates law in the context of struggles undertaken by the oppressed to protect and promote their rights. This approach is more dynamic because it seeks to empower and give people a sense that they are in control of their own destiny. This approach which emerged as a critique of top down development model emphasises mobilisation and organisation of disadvantaged groups.

Law is considered as a tool or resource for mobilising and organising disadvantaged groups to promote alternative, self-reliant development. If law is seen as a resource for generating self reliance then the provision of legal services should emphasise the following:

- **Legal self-reliance** through education and awareness of laws and procedures, including alternative dispute settlement.
- **De-professionalisation** by dissolving the legal profession's monopoly over legal knowledge and skills while simultaneously developing such knowledge and skills within communities. Training paralegals or community workers in basic legal procedures can aid this process.
- **Group Advocacy** based on group entitlements which are not restricted to the courts. This will involve articulating grievances in various forums.

Finally, the people themselves have to decide when and how to have recourse to the Law and when not. In situations where the existing laws are **inadequate** legal resources should generate a critical ability in people to analyse and assess the nature of existing laws. The purpose is not to make them blindly accept existing laws but to enable them to transform them. This raises the possibility of law reform and appealing to higher standards of law (international human rights standards), as an essential element in any legal resources approach.

If existing laws are **repressive**, or there is total lawlessness, the use of law helps to confront **illegality with legality**. Here again recourse may be had to Human Rights standards. The people must be helped to evaluate the risks and gains of particular actions in order to minimise the risks and build peoples' confidence in themselves.

The following article² traces the growth of such an alternative approach in the Philippines. However, the phenomenon is not unique to the Philippines and is common to several countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The Philippine experience to a large extent reflects the conceptual development in the growth of alternative approaches to use of law in Asia and elsewhere.

" There has been a marked increase in the area of alternative lawyering in the country in the past decade and the best evidence of this phenomenon is the growth of different alternative law centers.

The terms that have been used are many - alternative law, developmental legal aid, human rights lawyering, public interest law - each term having its distinct nuance, but all pointing to the increasing use of law for the purpose of social transformation.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Many progressive lawyers in the Philippines today have been inspired by the work of the late Senator Pepe Diokno, noted human rights advocate. He is well remembered for his defence of the rights of political prisoners and is credited with popularising the term development legal aid.

"In ASEAN countries and indeed, in all developing countries, then, a new type of legal aid would rest on firm legal ground: the right of the people to development.

Efforts to practice this new type of legal aid, which for want of a better name I shall call developmental legal aid, have begun in ASEAN countries. Lawyers who had been imprisoned or had practiced traditional legal aid became convinced that, under conditions in their country, something more was needed. If the rights of the poor and the oppressed were to be vindicated, and just and humane development achieved, the job of developmental legal aid had to be done. But no one else would do it. So in a sense the practice of developmental legal aid was 'forced' on them".

Diokno drew a sharp distinction between traditional legal aid and developmental legal aid. "Traditional legal aid is, in fact, the lawyer's way of giving alms to the poor. Like alms, which provide temporary relief to the poor but do not touch the social structures that keep the poor, traditional legal aid redresses particular instances of injustice but does not fundamentally change the structures that gener-

ate and sustain injustice. And like alms, traditional legal aid carries within it the germ of dependence that can prevent those it serves from evolving into self-reliant, inner directed, creative and responsible persons who think for themselves and act on their own initiative. Unless this danger is guarded against, traditional legal aid can retard rather than promote development: for above all else, development is human development."

It is precisely this core concept of using law in order to have an impact on the social structures that breed injustice which is the hallmark of alternative lawyering today.

Another author who has contributed to the field of alternative lawyering and who has popularised the concept of legal resources is Dr. Clarence Dias of the International Center for Law and Development.

" By legal resources we mean something quite different from legal services; we mean the knowledge and skills which enable people themselves, working collectively, to understand law and use it effectively to perceive, articulate and advance or protect their interests. We mean more than a knowledge of relevant, official legislation and rules, and more than an ability to litigate in government tribunals (or an ability to work with lawyers for that purpose). The concept of law (used here) includes endogenous law and shared ideas about justice which can be employed to articulate grievances persuasively, to legitimate claims, to resolve conflicts and to create new community structures (as alternative to state-controlled structures) for the allocation of resources. We are interested in the ways by which people can use all of these various dimensions of law to formulate demands and press claims; to create their own norms for their own groups to carry out other social and economic functions. We are interested in the way groups can use law to change law and change their social environment".

The concept of structural legal aid was coined by the legal aid movement in Indonesia, principally the Lembaga Bantuan Hukum.

"This concept of structural legal aid emerged as the consequence of our comprehension of the law, its sources and functions. The legal reality confronting us is a product of social processes which occur in a certain pattern of relationships among the existing infrastructures of Indonesian society. Consequently, in our view, law is actually an everchanging superstructure, the resultant of the interactions between and among the infrastructures of the society system. It follows that, so long as the pattern of relationships between and among these infrastructures tends to be unbalanced, the realisation of a law which is just will be difficult. In that case, the injustices and oppressions which we so often perceive in our society actually do not come solely from the behaviour of an individual who consciously abuses human rights, but mainly have their sources in the unbalanced patterns of social relationships.

"As such, this means that structural legal aid shall consist of a series of programmers, both through legal means and other lawful ways, in the relationships which forms the basis of social life, towards more parallel and balanced patterns. This is the essential precondition for the development of laws which provide justice for the majority of the poor in Indonesia."

At the very heart of all these reflections is the increasing realisation that traditional legal aid has failed to address the structural problems of our society - poverty, oppression, gross violations of human rights and others - and therefore there was a need to have a redefinition of the kind and type of assistance which the lawyers are providing for the poor and disadvantaged.

THE THRUST OF ALTERNATIVE LAW CENTERS

In the spirit of giving flesh to the concept of developmental legal aid, the different alternative law organisations have tried new schemes and techniques in order that law as a resource may have the most impact on social relationships.

In terms of the areas of concern, the ALCs concentrate on three areas: human rights, assistance to disadvantaged sectors, and public interest issues.

The issues tackled by human rights lawyers usually revolve around illegal detention, arbitrary searches and seizures, extra judicial executions, disappearances, transgression of the right to free speech and assembly.

The campaign for the enforcement and protection of economic, social and cultural rights has not been as heightened as that of civil and political rights. One possible reason is the relative lack of enforcement mechanisms, specially judicial, the mode which most lawyers are accustomed to.

The next category pertain to those that are sector-or client-oriented. These lawyers render legal assistance to particular groups that are disadvantaged and usually do not or have very little access to legal resources - the peasants, the workers, fisherfold, women, prisoners, urban poor tribal groups.

The confluence between the sector being assisted and the mode of legal assistance (alternative lawyering) is not a mere coincidence, because assistance to these groups offer a potential for social transformation way beyond individual cases. Through assistance of these groups, some headway could be achieved in the policy arena of agrarian reform, security of tenure for workers, favourable conditions of work, ancestral domain, urban land reform, squatting, access to marine resources, conservation of marine life and others.

The next category are those centers that focus on certain public interest issues, like the environment, consumer protection and public utilities. The main difference of these groups from the second is that the issues they tackle cut across the different sectors or classes in society. Environmental protection affects the young and old, the rich and poor alike.

"Public interest law is the name given to efforts to provide legal representation to interests that historically have been unrepresented or underrepresented in the legal process. Philosophically, public interest law rests on the assumption that many significant segments of society are not adequately represented in the courts, Congress, or the administrative agencies, because they are either too poor or too diffuse to obtain legal representation in the marketplace.

THE RANGE OF ACTIVITIES

In the attempt to use law as a potent tool for social change, alternative legal centers (ALCs) have developed a wide range of techniques in the practice of law.

1. **Litigation.** By far this is the most common technique which most lawyers employ. The logical preference is for cases which involve groups rather than individuals or cases which have an impact on community standards or government policy. Litigation could also test the constitutionality of certain practices, like the case of Guazon vs. De Villa, GR 80508, which ruled that saturation drives (indiscriminate arrest of people in a squatter area) conducted by the military were violative of human rights.

2. **Paralegal Training/Community Legal Education.** This technique implies the empowerment of community groups and people's organisations by acquainting them of their rights, the laws and the steps to be taken in cases of transgression of rights.

3. **Monitoring Government Compliance with International Human Rights Law or National Law.** This is an attempt to make the government more accountable to their international treaty obligations or national statutes. Hopefully a negative report could alter government policy or realign budgetary commitments to strengthen government implementation in certain areas.

4. **Social-Legal Research.** Many areas of the law which affect a great number of poor people are simply in a state of confusion with hardly any serious thinking being done about these. Examples of these are urban land reform, claims by tribal communities to their ancestral land, agrarian reform in fishpond areas and community-based aquatic resource management. This is where socio-legal research comes in, where the sociological phenomenon is analysed, together with the existing legal or policy framework applicable to the phenomena. The existing gaps are then identified and a policy framework and/or remedial legislation is proposed.

5. **Advocacy.** Advocacy involves assisting people's organisations in presenting policy proposals or new legislation to appropriate branches of government. On the lawyer's part, this would mean thorough consultations with the affected sector, bill drafting and lobbying.

The thrust of alternative lawyering could be summed up as follows:

1. It takes on legal cases that have an effect on the unjust social relationships of society.
2. It relies on the participation of the affected group or sector for the resolution of the problem, instead of depending solely on the technical competence of the legal professional.
3. It tackles the problem on many fronts, not exclusively through the courts, but also through administrative bodies, the legislative, the line agencies and the others.
4. It places a premium not only on the relative chances of success of the case, but also the educative value of bringing a particular problem to the attention of the public at large.

The similarity of the development of alternative lawyering in the Philippines to the concept of new legal services in Latin America is striking.

According to an analysis made by Fernando Rojas of Colombia, new legal services refer to those legal services that are aimed at promoting social, legal, economic and political changes in Latin America. New legal services are characterised by the following essential features:

- * These groups seek to either promote or directly introduce social change.
- * Consequently, social change is restricted to neither reforming the law by a piecemeal process nor to solving particular legal disputes. Legal services are a means for reaching a fundamental social change which results in a new concept of justice and democracy.
- * Although operating with traditional legal instruments, new legal services also use other educational and political tools. Legal training of beneficiaries, community development, organisation and mobilisation of low income people are usually part of new legal services programmes and activities.

THE PROSPECTS

Despite the problems which alternative lawyering faces, the movement seems to be vibrant and promising for the future. As the country tries to achieve a stage where the development is able to address the basic needs of its people, new concepts of rights, justice, governance and conflict resolution will be evolving and seeking legitimation. On this score, the role of alternative lawyers will be very important.

Alternative lawyers are at the threshold of an emerging order, at the cutting edge of new theories in the practice of the law profession. And as long as there is poverty, powerlessness and underdevelopment, the need for alternative lawyers will always be there.

DEMYSTIFYING THE LAW

Alternative approaches to use of law are also seen as a way of demystifying the law and democratising the legal institutions. The following statement which is made from the perspective of problems faced by women would apply in general to disadvantaged groups.

"One of the major stumbling blocks faced when women try to bridge the gap between laws that are on the books and laws that actually make a difference to their lives, is the commonly-held idea that law and the legal system is beyond the reach of "ordinary" people. Imposing and intimidating legal institutions, the use of confusing legal jargon and a highly formalised practice of law makes for a legal system that is understood and accessible to very few people. Laws are frequently written in a language and style that make them virtually incomprehensible to most people. Cases are processed through institutional bureaucracies according to set procedures by a small number of professionals at a cost far beyond the means of the vast majority of people.

While poor people in general are affected by this situation, women can be particularly disadvantaged, since they frequently have less access to news and information about new legislative changes than men and are less able financially to afford legal services. This is particularly unfortunate at a time when many new laws have been passed which could potentially improve women's legal status.

In response to these factors, many organisations and groups have initiated actions and activities in an attempt to "demystify the law", that is, to make the law more accessible and usable to the general population. By informing women of their legal rights and translating legal terms and procedures into information that can be understood and used by women. These actions are more than merely additions to the status quo. They represent a challenge to a universally entrenched and elitist legal structure.

Women everywhere frequently have less access to legal services than men, yet the situation is doubly serious for women in rural areas. The lack of adequate transportation to places where services are available and the demands of rural women's lives isolate and make it difficult to get needed legal services.

This physical and social isolation has major implications for our ability to organise and speak collectively on legal injustices. Traditional structures and customs remain firmly entrenched and new legal reforms that are of particular interest to rural women, particularly land rights and inheritance laws, are frequently not acted upon simply because they are not known about. Likewise in rural areas, customary law is a powerful force and operates concurrently and often in conflict with the national legal system.

In recent years, many women's groups and community-based groups have sought to address the multiple problems affecting rural women by offering rural legal aid services, through rural legal aid services, an other innovative programmes."³

PARALEGALS

"People who are poor usually do not know about laws that can help them. And there are very few trained personnel who can tell them about these laws. One solution to this problem has been to train people as paralegals. A paralegal is someone who, while not a professional lawyer, has a basic knowledge of the law and its procedures as a result of close association with lawyers and/or legal affairs. In the past, paralegals have been seen as assistants to lawyers, judges, and legal officials of government institutions and therefore, in other words, people who support the status quo.

Recently, changes have been taking place to redefine and expand the role of paralegals, and new methods for informing people about their legal rights as well as about the role of the courts and other legal procedures, have been set in motion. These new paralegals are often recognised community members, such as teachers, nurses, etc., and their efforts at increasing legal awareness and legal literacy serve are making the law more accessible to the people."⁴

Following are some of the basic concepts concerning paralegals as elaborated in the ICJ Handbook on the subject.

A Paralegal worker is a person with basic knowledge of law and procedures with motivation, attitude and skills to:

- conduct education programmes to enable disadvantaged people to become aware of their rights;
- facilitate the creation of a people's organisation to enable them to demand their rights;
- assist in securing mediation and reconciliation in matters in dispute;
- conduct preliminary investigation in cases which have to be referred to a lawyer; and
- assist the lawyer with written statements, required evidence and other relevant information necessary for dealing with such a case.

In South and South-East Asia, the groups which are engaging paralegals in their legal services programmes have trained the following persons as paralegals:

Community leaders, rural youth, social workers, representatives of specific disadvantaged groups such as tribals, trade union leaders, health workers, literacy teachers, religious workers, young lawyers, law students, student volunteers doing community work, development workers and political activists.

Of those trained as paralegal workers there may be some whose primary or sole function is to provide legal services to a disadvantaged group or community and there may be others who may function part-time as paralegals in addition to carrying out their normal activity (e.g. literacy or health work).

In some cases those who are trained as paralegals are not associated with any particular agency or organisation and they function on their own and render their services when their assistance is sought by a community or by individuals in the community.

There are also persons who are trained as paralegals to deal with a particular situation, for example a person could be trained to assist a community seeking help following a natural calamity. Similarly, a representative of a refugee group could be trained to deal with the problems faced by that group.

In general, the experience of groups has been that it is far better for a paralegal to be associated with an organisation (either as a paid worker or as a volunteer), so as to receive support to sustain his work as a paralegal.

ROLES OF PARALEGAL WORKERS

The following are some of the functions for which a paralegal worker should be trained:

Facilitating formation of a people's organisation:

Enabling people to organise themselves around specific issues as well as help them form their own organisations. In addition, a paralegal will organise meetings, cultural programmes and other events that will enable people to strengthen their solidarity and contribute to the formation of their own organisations.

Education and Conscientisation:

Creating awareness among the people about their rights as well as imparting information on specific laws of concern to them. In some instances this may involve giving information on specific development and welfare programmes initiated by the government and how to participate in them.

Social analysis:

This is to help the paralegal as well as the people to understand the structural nature of the problems faced by the people, and thus enable them to find long term solutions for them.

Advocacy:

Paralegals with the help of lawyers and others, bring to the attention of policy makers problems faced by the disadvantaged groups with whom they are working. In specific instances this may take the form of representing the case of the community or of an individual before officials, tribunals and quasi judicial forums.

Counselling, mediation and conciliation:

Paralegals should be trained to provide legal and other advice as well as to mediate and conciliate in disputes that arise between members of the community. As conciliators they encourage the members of the community to negotiate and settle their disputes among themselves.

Legal first aid:

The role of a paralegal here is to provide immediate or preliminary solutions in emergency situations. For example in the case of an eviction from a squatter settlement, obtaining injunctions temporarily prevent their eviction.

Networking:

This consists of establishing links with other organisations and groups as well as with individuals (journalists, researchers etc.) in order to generate support for the problems faced by the community to which the paralegal is providing assistance.

Enabling people to represent their demands:

This involves, when necessary, mobilising the people for mass actions or protests so as to represent (negotiate/dialogue) their demands with concerned authorities.

Documentation:

This will include keeping a chronicle of important events that take place in the community as well as a record of activities undertaken by the paralegal. Paralegals should also maintain files concerning cases that are litigated and copies of official documents that are relevant to the community. They may also need to keep financial accounts related to their work.

Drafting documents:

This involves helping the people to write applications, complaints, affidavits, petitions and other legal documents. In cases where official documents need to be translated into a local language, translating them (with the help of lawyer if necessary) and getting them authenticated.

Assisting the lawyer:

Where cases are to be referred to a lawyer, the paralegal worker may have to assist the lawyer by conducting preliminary investigations, interviewing clients, gathering evidence and preparing a summary of facts, and conducting legal research and even drafting simple pleadings.

In addition to the functions enumerated above, paralegals working with specific disadvantaged groups may need to perform some special tasks in relation to that group. For example, paralegals working with women would have to design programmes that take into account problems faced by women. Similarly, paralegals working with indigenous or tribal populations would have to deal with their specific problems.

QUALIFICATIONS AND QUALITIES OR ATTITUDES REQUIRED OF PARALEGALS

Qualifications:

Lack of formal education qualifications should not prevent a person from being trained as a paralegal. The experience of several groups has shown that members of disadvantaged groups who have been trained as paralegals, but who didn't possess literacy skills have functioned successfully as paralegals. However, a paralegal worker should be open to self learning (including acquiring skills to read and write) so as to become more effective in his/her work.

Some suggested qualities or attitudes for paralegal are:

- * Trust and patience with the people by listening to them.
- * An objective and analytical mind, so as to understand the problems faced by the people and devise suitable solutions jointly with them
- * Creativity to fashion different ways by which laws could be used for helping the people.
- * Self-criticism and the ability to analyse the shortcomings of their work.
- * Self-reliance so as to take initiatives to help the people and not totally depend on lawyers or the organisation they belong to.
- * Respect for peoples initiatives to facilitate their self-reliance and, in accordance with a democratic decision making process, to consult the people before taking decisions.
- * Self confidence to establish links and relate with different sections of the society, such as the confidence to deal with police officials, researchers, journalists, etc.
- * Capacity to make risk analysis and not endanger their security nor that of the people they work with.
- * Ability to foresee potential problems or issues in the community with which they work and deal with them instead of waiting for problems to emerge.
- * Ability and self-confidence to discuss with the people both the positive and negative consequences of a particular action. For example, when the community decides to engage in collective action in the form of protests, demonstrations, etc., the paralegal should explain to the people the possible consequences of such an action
- * Realistic estimation of their capabilities and not acting beyond their abilities. For example, while dealing with group conflicts that may arise in the community, the paralegal should not hesitate to seek outside help, if necessary.

- * Ability to render proper advice and not raise the expectations of the people by promising results that may not be feasible, given the nature of the problem.
- * Discretion and not jeopardising the interest of the community.
- * Not misusing their role to promote self serving interests.
- * Adopting a style and mannerism familiar to the people and avoiding the style of a conventional lawyer.
- * Upholding basic human rights principles and not condoning human right violations, even in situations where the entire community the paralegal works with violates certain principles (e.g. discrimination against minorities). Ability to generate internal and external support to oppose such violations.
- * Not contributing to or strengthening existing patterns of discrimination (e.g. discrimination against women), and if a particular law itself is discriminatory, creating awareness among the people to challenge the law by referring to internationally established human rights principles.
- * Respect for the people's knowledge and positive traditions and not upsetting the positive attributes of the local culture in the process of introducing legal principles.

The qualities or attitudes enumerated above are also relevant to the members of the organisation that engages the paralegal and also for the lawyers who assist paralegal workers.

SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED OF A PARALEGAL WORKER

Some of the skills and knowledge a paralegal worker should possess or develop are as follows:

SKILLS

Ability to work with people:

A paralegal should be able to relate and work with the people so as to develop solidarity among them and increase their participation in the programmes conducted by the paralegal.

Communication skills:

Paralegals should develop the skills necessary to express their thoughts clearly and explain laws and legal procedures in a language and manner in which people can understand them. Paralegals should also be able to prepare and use innovative and non-traditional methods of communications such as drama, dance, songs, puppets etc.

Writing and drafting skills:

A paralegal worker should possess or develop the skill to write down thoughts clearly and coherently for documentation and reporting purposes, as well as to draft petitions, applications, pleadings etc. In places where handwritten petitions and applications are acceptable (as in India), neat, legible hand writing would be an advantage. The drafting skills also include obtaining statements from potential parties and witnesses in cases to be taken to court.

Development of educational materials:

A paralegal worker should be able to prepare the necessary learning and teaching aids for use in education programmes.

Ability to conduct research:

A paralegal worker should possess or develop skills to do research, including the collection and analysis of information (use of surveys, questionnaires, etc.)

Ability to render advice or counselling:

A paralegal worker should be able to provide proper advice or counselling so as to enable the community or an individual in the community to decide on a proper course of action to deal with a problem.

Negotiating skills:

Paralegals may be called upon to negotiate with the authorities and others to settle problems faced by the community, and they should possess or develop the skills to negotiate successfully.

Evaluating skills:

Paralegals should be able to evaluate their performance critically as well as that of the people so as to enhance the impact of the programme.

KNOWLEDGE

In addition to the knowledge required to develop the skills enumerated above, a paralegal should have minimum knowledge of the political and legal system (including an indigenous legal system). A paralegal may also need to know the various judicial and quasi judicial forums that exist so as to seek legal remedies for problems faced by the community and by individual members of a community.

(The knowledge required is elaborated more fully in the section dealing with curriculum for paralegal training programmes)

LEGAL PROFESSION AND PARALEGALS

The experience of groups who have engaged paralegals in their programmes has shown that not only government officials but even lawyers can be antagonistic to the paralegals. Such antagonism should be removed by creating awareness among the public and in particular among the legal profession that paralegals are essential to create access to justice for the disadvantaged groups in the society.

Lawyers sometimes fear that paralegals will deprive them of clients. On the contrary paralegals will, where needed, bring cases to the lawyer which would otherwise go by default.

Bar Associations should sensitise the legal community to recognise the role of paralegals and motivate the members of the legal profession to train and assist them.

To prevent a paralegal becoming a tout by bringing cases to a particular lawyer or lawyers, the paralegal should not approach a lawyer on his/her own except in cases requiring urgent relief (e.g. bail, injunction).

The organisation which is engaging the paralegal should maintain a panel of lawyers to whom the cases could be assigned.

Members of the legal profession should not misuse the services of a paralegal by soliciting clients through a paralegal.

When a case is entrusted to a lawyer through the sponsoring organisation, the paralegal should be constantly in touch with the lawyer to provide the necessary assistance. It is essential that the client is present at all times when the case is discussed with the lawyer.

The lawyer concerned, after jointly discussing the case with the paralegal and the client, should explain to them the strategy to be adopted and the possible consequences thereof.

The lawyer who has taken up a case or who is providing assistance to a paralegal to deal with a case, should respect the knowledge and experience of the paralegal.

FORMAL AND CUSTOMARY LAW AND ALTERNATIVE MEANS OF DISPUTE SETTLEMENT

A Paralegal while working with a community may come across the use of customary law and alternative means of dispute settlement among the community and in certain instances it may be expedient for the paralegal to make use of such indigenous systems to deal with the problems of the community.

The use of such customary law and alternative dispute settlement procedures would also increase the self-reliance of the community and their ability to make collective decisions.

However, a paralegal should be able to differentiate between those indigenous systems that violate established human rights norms from those that promote human rights.

A paralegal while choosing indigenous systems to settle disputes should assess whether a remedy from the formal legal system would be better than that of the indigenous system. Expeditious and non expensive means of settling disputes should not compromise the principles of justice.

To sum up this section. In the last two decades based on the critique of topdown development model an alternative approaches to use of law has emerged which emphasises self-reliant model of development. Such an approach advocates legal self reliance, deprofessionalisation and group advocacy training and engaging paralegals is part of this process to promote legal self-reliance, deprofessionalisation and group advocacy. Therefore, paralegals are not to be viewed as technicians providing technical solutions to the problems of poor and disadvantaged groups. Nor they to be viewed as inexpensive solution to create greater access by providing poor particularly the rural poor second rate services in the field of law.

On the contrary training and engaging paralegals is part of the process of using law creatively to achieve greater democratisation and promote human rights.

The greater the understanding of people of their rights and their efforts to protect them, there is greater chances of real democracy developing. Paralegals can help shape a more democratic legal culture.

Therefore, it is essential to plan and prepare appropriate training programmes to train paralegals.

CHAPTER 2

ON TRAINING

Type of Organisations and Agencies that train and/or engage Paralegals

Independent lawyers organisations that are engaged in conducting legal aid or legal services programmes.

Human rights organisations that are engaged in popularising law as part of their work.

Bar associations and other official bodies of the legal profession that are engaged in providing legal aid.

Non-governmental organisations that are engaged in grassroot development programmes such as providing health, education.

Law faculties and other educational institutions. However, training of paralegals is not normally undertaken as part of the academic programme.

Government agencies that train their personnel as part of their extension programmes in rural development, health etc.

Organisations that are formed by the rural poor and other disadvantaged groups themselves (Peoples Organisations).

Trainers

Lawyers play a major role in training paralegals. Very often, lawyers are invited by non-governmental organisations to provide information to their trainees on specific laws which forms a major part of the training. In some countries, in addition to lawyers experts from other fields also play a part in training of paralegals.

Trainees

Trainees normally fall into either of the following categories:

1. Those who belong to the disadvantaged groups such as peasants, tribals, indigenous populations and workers in organised or unorganised industries; and
2. Those who do not belong to any disadvantaged group but who work with different disadvantaged groups to help them claim their basic rights. For example students, representatives of NGOs, religious workers, trade union members and government officials.

Objectives of Training Programmes

Organisations that are working directly with a disadvantaged group provide paralegal trainees the necessary knowledge and skills that would enable them to build people's organisations and use law as a resource to protect their rights.

For others the objective would be limited to train paralegals to assist lawyers or for conducting legal education programmes.

PLANNING FOR A TRAINING PROGRAMME

The following 'action checklist' indicates various steps involved in organising a training programme.

1. Decision to organise a training programme
2. Define the general objectives and aims
3. Prepare a draft budget and seek funding
4. Set the dates of the training programme
5. Prepare a draft programme with methods to be used
6. Choose the venue and make necessary reservations for accommodation and meeting rooms
7. Define the criteria for selecting participants and if necessary publicise the training programme
8. Finalise the participants and send them the background documentation
9. Prepare a checklist of equipments required
10. Confirm the participation of resource persons
11. Review the list of participants
12. Visit the venue with the equipment checklist
13. Prepare an action checklist for the actual implementation of the training programme. For example responsibilities to be delegated to the participants, division of groups, conduct evaluation etc.
14. Prepare a report and send it to donors and others who would make use of the report
15. Send letter of thanks to all those who helped in organising the training programme.
16. Plan for any follow-up programme to be conducted.

PLANNING USING PERT MODEL

If a group is engaged in planning and organising a training programme. The following technique known as PERT or Programme Evaluation and Review Technique could be used.¹

Steps in using PERT:

1. The group brainstorms all the steps which need to be taken to implement their plan. These are written boldly with a felt marker on flash cards, spread on a table or pinned on a board.
2. All the activities are arranged in the order in which they will be performed and as they are related to each other. The group will discover that they left out quite a number of essential steps and that many activities must be done concurrently.
3. Missing steps are written on flash cards and added at their appropriate places.
4. The time when each activity is expected to be completed is indicated on the cards (best written boldly with a different colour marker). The group checks again the activities which proceed each step e.g. booking, ordering or procuring of necessary resources before an activity.
5. Roles are assigned. Names of people to perform each activity are indicated. This includes assigning monitoring and evaluation roles.
6. A review of the decisions is undertaken to find out any important activities or steps omitted.
7. The decisions are then recorded for future reference and guidance.
A table like this one might be useful.

Activities	Dates of Completion	Assigned to	Monitoring and Evaluation
Venue or place of implementation may be indicated; concurrent activities listed together.	Time indicated if it is important.	Names listed	Names of persons to make sure decisions are implemented and take action if they are not.

The above PERT technique could also be used by paralegals while organising group activity in the community in which they are working. Use of PERT would facilitate participatory action.

TRAINING PROGRAMME CURRICULUM

The curriculum is determined by the objective. The objective in turn would be determined by analysing the role or tasks of the trainees (paralegals). This is written down as a list of tasks which the worker will do.

The next stage is to find out what is involved in each of the tasks. This process is called task analysis. The result of the task analysis is a list of skills, with knowledge and attitudes which the paralegal will need for each task.

The skills, knowledge and attitudes will be the objectives of the course. That is, a list of the things which trainees will be able to do at the end of the course.

The third and final stage is to organise these objectives into a course or a lesson. This stage is called curriculum design. The curriculum consists of the objectives plus:

- * details of the general teaching methods which will be used (lectures, group discussions, work in the field)
- * assessment methods (when students will be tested, what kind of exam will be used)
- * timetable (how much time will be spent on each part of the course and where it will be taught)

For example, if the purpose is to train paralegals who will work with disadvantaged groups and build their organisation, the curriculum would include among others,

- minimum knowledge of the political and legal system including any indigenous legal system that exists among a particular disadvantaged group;
- basic knowledge of laws and procedures particularly those that are of immediate relevance to the community the paralegal belongs to or works with; and
- skills to work with people, to communicate, to write and draft, to develop educational materials, to conduct research, to negotiate and to evaluate his/her work.

If a training programme is intended to be participatory then the objectives and curriculum would be based on the following promises concerning learning and teaching

- * Any teaching should actively involve the learner in their own learning;
- * learning process starts from the needs, desires and perceptions of the learner;
- * learning experience to be structured in a manner so that it supports the learner in clarifying and expressing their needs;
- * an environment conducive to learner-centred learning is created;

- * the primary responsibility for and control over learning should be shared with the learner;
- * the role of the trainer is that of enabler and facilitator of learning;
- * everyone in the learning group has a positive contribution to make, based on their experience, knowledge, and talents;
- * the trainer has as much to learn from the learners as they have from the trainer and from each other;
- * self-evaluation is perceived as a primary learning tool, and recognises that the most useful assessment for a learner is self-assessment;
- * any necessary external assessment is perceived as the product of negotiation between the trainer and the learner.

PARTICIPATORY TRAININGS ARE RECOMMENDED BECAUSE:

Trainees learn more from developing their own ideas than from listening to someone else's.

Collectively, trainees have vast community experience and much to learn from each other.

Participatory techniques inform trainers about beliefs and practices of trainees and about their learning progress.

Paralegal workers need to encourage participatory learning in their communities and should experience it their training.

Participation is especially critical for learning problem-solving and decision-making skills which are essential for paralegal work.

The following table clarifies the basic difference between participatory and non-participatory training

Non Participatory	Participatory
Organisation of content around academic topics	Organisation of content around specific functions.
Emphasis on knowledge	Emphasis on attitudes and skills
Limited skill practice	Extensive skill practice
Use of competitive exams, mainly designed to evaluate rather than assist students	Use of noncompetitive exams to verify competencies and help students and trainers identify weak areas
Attitude that students must adapt to the teaching method	Attitude that teaching method must be adapted to the student
Separation of theory and practice	Close conjunction between theory and practice, preferably taught concurrently
	There is an open climate for discussion. All points of view are entertained and accepted as tentative answers that merit investigation, thus promoting a wholesome social atmosphere.

However, very often trainers (even trainees) prefer non-participatory training and following are some of the reasons for it.

They are familiar and comfortable to both trainers and trainees and thus require little trainer preparation or supervision.

Material can be covered much faster with conventional than with unconventional techniques (although it may not be learned as well).

Participatory techniques undermine the difference in rank between trainers and trainees.

Some unconventional methods may be totally inappropriate for a particular culture.

Course objectives may be threatened if trainers lose control of the discussion. Conventional methods are particularly appropriate for memorizing information.

Creative use of methods would facilitate participatory training and trainers should be familiar with training methods.

CHAPTER 3

TRAINING METHODS

Training methods and techniques are almost infinite in their variety. They can be used on their own, or in creative combination, but should always be chosen carefully to fit the activity underway, the stage of community mobilisation, and the local economy, politics, and culture.

We must remember the vision. Otherwise the methods and techniques lose their meaning.

Remember: the methods are only tools.

The effectiveness of training depends greatly on what is selected to teach, how they are prepared and what training methods they emphasise. Trainers sometimes assume that their responsibility is to **present** the curriculum and make sure major topics are addressed; in fact, their responsibility is to insure that trainees have **learned** essential competencies. Teaching methods, have great impact on a trainee's ability to learn.

Lecture Method:

The most common method used by organisations engaged in training paralegals is the lecture method. This method is used because it does not require much advanced planning. Very often the training organisation would contact a resource person to deliver a lecture and in this respect it requires less effort in comparison with other methods. Moreover, a lecture by a well known personality may also contribute to enhancing the reputation of the training organisation. The use of this method may also reflect the training organisation's lack of knowledge of other effective methods. Alternatively, it may also reflect the attitude of the training organisation in terms of their lack of appreciation in using more participatory methods.

In short, lecture method is not the best training method for most trainees. Only a small percentage of the most able trainees seem to benefit from this method. Discussions and other participative methods prove to be more popular and effective with the majority of trainees.

GROUP DISCUSSION

Group discussions are a useful training method when trainees have some knowledge, experience or opinions about the subject. (see Section II for more details on how to conduct group discussion).

BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a technique that encourages participants to say anything that comes into their minds in response to a question or problem, as a first step in generating options and strategies for continued action.

Participants who tend to be quiet or shy tend not to participate and the facilitator should take this into account while using this method.

In order to make brainstorming sessions purposeful the views stated by the trainers should be synthesised through a discussion and the main points should be summed up. A black board or a flip chart is essential for a brainstorming session so as to note down the views expressed by the participants.

CASE STUDY

Some training objectives are best achieved by drawing principles from real life examples or illustrations. In these instances a discussion of a case may be the most appropriate training method.

The use of a case study implies more than simply distributing copies of the case material to the audience. Following are the stages in using a case study method in a training session:

- choosing case material
- planning questions
- organising analysis of the case
- discussing the conclusions
- consolidating the results

Choosing case material

Case material should be:

- relevant
- realistic and interesting
- short enough to be analysed in the time available
- and it should contain a problem

Sources of case material include:

- published books, films, records
- company files and reports
- government reports and publications
- newspapers and magazines
- trainees own problems
- your own experience

Planning questions

You should include a series of questions with the case study which enable the students to draw the necessary principles from the material. The questions should be written or asked orally during the discussion phase with your training objectives in mind.

Organising analysis of the case

Usually case studies are presented in handout form so that the audience can study the material and answer the questions. Even if the case is presented in a film, the audience should have written copies of the questions so that they can spend some time considering their answers. This method of training does not lend itself to snap answers in response to questions thrown at the audience, although good questioning can be an effective way of guiding the discussion after the audience have had a proper chance to assimilate the material.

The cases may be analysed by individuals or by groups.

Discussing the conclusions

If the cases have been analysed in groups then one person from each syndicate should report their answers and conclusions. Each report should be followed by a general group discussion.

If individuals have analysed the cases, then you can choose a different person to answer each question and invite comments from the rest of the group.

Consolidating the results

As participants report their answers, these should be summarised on flipcharts at the front of the room. You can then give a final summary by going through these flipcharts. The answers can be duplicated and distributed to the participants afterwards.

ROLE-PLAYING

ROLE PLAYING provides an active, realistic way of practicing skills and developing new behaviours. A ROLE PLAY is an activity where people act out real life situations. Some may pretend to be persons with certain problems. Others may play the roles of family members, neighbours, etc., involved in problem-solving situations which may be found in real life.

ROLE PLAYING CAN BE USED TO DEVELOP

*** PRACTICAL SKILLS**

- Practice in trying out new techniques and ways of doing things
- Practice in helping others
- practice in solving problems step-by-step

* SOCIAL SKILLS

- experience in learning about others
- experience in relating to people with different needs
- experience in learning how to talk to others about problems

* TEACHING SKILLS

- practice in teaching others;
teaching neighbours and other community members
- practice in communicating new skills and ideas to others

* SOCIAL AWARENESS

- opportunities to look at habits, customs, attitudes and traditions.

SIMULATION

What is a simulation?

A simulation is a problem-solving learning activity that attempts to imitate, or "simulate", a real-life situation. A form of drama, it may involve the acting out of a story, the playing of roles, or participation in a game. But unlike a short drama or skit, the simulation has learning objectives, involves many persons playing roles, and has unpredictable outcomes. The activity is centered around a problem of concern to those involved, which becomes clear to them in the course of their participation.

The activity is both controlled and open-ended. The scenario or description of role is carefully designed by the trainer or facilitator, but both the unraveling of the problems and the outcome are unpredictable for either trainer or participants. The learners interact as though the problem situation were real, and in their involvement, they become aware of real complexities. What they learn through their participation encourages them to reflect upon past experience and to anticipate future situations. Their discussion of the experience, with the help of the trainer or facilitator, raises questions of how to meet anticipated problems.

Why do a simulation?

A simulation attempts to create a situation that learners may encounter in real life. In the course of the activity, they are confronted with the ambiguities and complexities that may occur in their lives. Particularly when learners are inexperienced in the workplace, the simulation can present the unfamiliar in a realistic manner. Thus it can pose problems learners may not yet have encountered and help to clarify the nature and extent of these problems. Learners discover that there may be a number of ways to approach or solve these problems. The simulation, then, gives participants the opportunity to experience indirectly what they may experience on the job in the future.

When is a simulation an appropriate activity?

A simulation is good learning activity when the trainer would like a high degree of participation or activity from the learners. It is particularly effective as a warm-up activity at introductory sessions at conferences, workshops, classes, and courses. It encourages participants to focus on the problems at hand and is a good means of energising them and creating interest and enthusiasm for the project. Because there is usually human interaction during a simulation, it is a good means of getting participants to relax and to know each other. There is no test of knowledge during a simulation, which encourages a spirit of friendliness and cooperation.

A simulation may be used to vary the pace of a workshop! When there is a lull in the activities. However, because simulations usually require considerable time, they should be scheduled when uninterrupted time is available.

FLANNEL BOARDS AND FLANNEL GRAPHS

A Flannel Board is simply a board covered with a soft flannel-type cloth, which is used as a back-drop for Flannelgraphs or figures with a rough surface on their back-sides. This rough surface sticks easily to the flannel so that the figures stay on the board when they are pressed firmly against it. flannel boards and flannelgraphs are useful for explaining an idea or topic by adding or taking away different figures one by one.

ADVANTAGES OF FLANNEL BOARDS AND FLANNELGRAPHS

- * Flannel boards are easily set up for use in the classroom as well as in the community. They are light-weight and easily transported, and there is no need for electricity or other expensive equipment.
- * Flannel boards and flannelgraphs can be used again and again, as long as they are carefully stored when not in use.
- * Flannelgraphs can be moved and rearranged. The subject of the lesson can be built up picture by picture, and the same figures placed in different positions to explain a topic or idea.
- * The flannelgraphs can be left up on the flannel board as long as necessary for the class to understand the topic or message, and can be used to stimulate a discussion.
- * Flannel board pictures can be effective in involving students in the lesson... they can stimulate learners to see, hear, discover and do by providing opportunities to participate in the lesson.

POSTERS

POSTERS are a useful way to transmit a message. In the training posters can be made and used to attract attention to or remind trainees of an idea, topic, concept, method or practice. Trainees could be asked to prepare posters to express an idea or their views.

Guidelines for planning posters

- * **KEEP IT SIMPLE.** Make the message on the poster clear and simple. If words are used, they should be clearly written and easy to read.
- * **MAKE THE TOPIC OF THE POSTER RELEVANT.** Center the poster around an idea or topic that relates to the subject matter of the lesson. Make sure the poster presents the idea in a manner that is well adapted to local customs, beliefs and ways of acting.
- * **THE MESSAGE OF THE POSTER MUST BE IMMEDIATELY APPARENT.** Make sure the message is understood correctly and presented through a few eye-catching words and/or easily-understood illustrations.
- * **PLACE POSTERS IN OBVIOUS PLACES.** Make posters large enough to be understood and hang them in places where they can be easily seen.
- * **INVOLVE STUDENTS IN THE PLANNING AND PREPARATION OF POSTERS.** Posters are an ideal way to involve students and ideas are reinforced as they create their own posters.

FLASH CARDS

FLASH CARDS are cards on which a simple illustration is drawn or on which a few words or phrases are printed or written. They can be used to encourage discussion about a certain topic or method, or to drill trainees on information. Generally flash cards are used one at a time and held in the hand in front of the trainee or a group of trainees.

Guidelines for planning flash cards

- * **KEEP THEM SIMPLE.** Use illustrations of words that are simple and clearly understood at a glance.
- * **MAKE THE CARDS STURDY, NEAT, AND INTERESTING.** Use stiff cardboard or several sheets of heavy paper neatly glued together for the cards. Illustrations and letters should be large enough to be seen easily, and if possible, coloured for variety and emphasis.

* MAKE SURE THE SUBJECT OF THE CARDS IS APPROPRIATE TO THE LESSON. Cards can be made in sets, with each set of cards representing a particular topic or concept. Keep the sets separate and be sure to use them with lessons which correspond to the topic of the cards.

* TEST THE CARDS BEFORE ACTUAL CLASSROOM USE. It is important to be sure that the illustration or drawing on the card is understood clearly and correctly. Asking others to identify the subject of the cards is a good way to find out if they are sending the intended message.

PROVERBS

Proverbs are short common-sense sayings that are handed down from generation to generation. They grow out of the experiences of people in each culture. They are like advice on how best to behave.

Some proverbs are straightforward-their meaning is obvious. Others are more complicated. The listener has to think carefully in order to understand them.

Purpose

Proverbs can support or illustrate point you want to get across.

Discovering local proverbs

You may already know many proverbs from the village or community where you work. If you do not, the best way to learn proverbs is to talk with the older people. They may often enjoy telling proverbs.

Educational use

Proverbs can be combined with talks, demonstrations, stories, dramas, or put on posters and flipcharts. Think of other uses. People are very familiar with their proverbs. When you use a proverb correctly. People will be impressed that you understand their culture. Since the proverb is familiar, they may try to abide by the advice it gives.

FABLES

Fables are make-believe stories that have been told to children for generations. The characters in a fable are often animals.

Purpose

The actions of the characters in a fable are supposed to teach children proper ways of behaving. Fables also show adults what values are important to the community.

Group Size

Fables can be used with individuals or small groups. They can also be used in radio programmes that reach a large number of people.

Talk to elderly people in the community to learn more local fables. Try to make up your own fables about the common problems in your community. First tell the fables to a few to see if they understand the main point. This is pre-testing. After making corrections, you can use the fable in your education programmes.

STORIES

Stories often tell about the deeds of famous heroes or of people who lived in the village long ago. An older person, instead of directly criticising the behaviour of a youth, may tell a story to make his point. He may start by saying, 'I remember some years ago there was a young man just about your age...' and then continue to describe what this young man did that caused trouble. Stories may also be a way of re-telling interesting events that happened in a village. So stories can entertain, teach, spread news and information, and also serve as lessons about behaviour.

Purpose

Stories can be used to give information and ideas, to encourage people to look at their attitudes and values, and to help people decide how to solve their problems.

Group size

Stories can be told to individuals or to small and large groups. They also can be used on the radio to reach communities, regions or even whole countries.

Characteristics of a good story

The story should be believable. The people in the story should have names. They should do the kind of work that people in your community do. Their actions should be normal, not strange. Be sure that you do not name or describe real people in your story. If they hear the story they may become embarrassed or angry. The story should be short, otherwise people will become bored. They may also forget parts of the story. Five to ten minutes is all you need.

The story should make a clear point in the end. It should be obvious to the listeners which action is good and which is not.

Avoid scornful and unkind words in the story.

Simply describe the actions of the people in the story. Let the listeners make up their own minds. If you tell the story well, the listeners will be able to judge correctly.

Always follow a story with discussion and questions. Do not tell the listeners which person in the story did the best thing. Ask the listeners for their own opinions. By encouraging people to think about the story and to discuss the points that impressed them, you will help them to learn more.

DEMONSTRATIONS

A Demonstration is a way to show trainees how to do something step-by-step so that they can learn new skills and how to do something themselves. Each step of a demonstration is accompanied by an explanation of what is being done, how and why. In this way, students have an opportunity to see how to do something before they actually try it themselves.

Sometimes a demonstration can point out a better way or method of doing something by comparing a currently used method with a new or improved one. When both methods are compared during a demonstration, students can see the difference between the two and better understand the need for change.

A demonstration should always:

- * be well-planned and well-practiced
- * present a topic or method which meets the needs of the students, yet at the same time is simple enough to be clearly understood
- * be based on a practice or method which is correct and effective
- * be given using locally available materials and equipment
- * involve the students in its preparation and presentation. Telling the students in advance about the demonstration gives them a chance to be prepared enough to participate. They can also help by bringing needed materials from home.
- * be done in a clear and simple with easy-to-follow instructions so that students can repeat the method they are being shown.
- * introduce a new method which shows improvement over the currently used method and encourage the students to try the new method themselves.
- * allow time for questions and answers following the actual demonstration

LOCAL OR TRADITIONAL MEDIA

In many countries educational messages may be communicated through traditional media such as art, town criers, songs, plays, puppet shows and dance.

ART

Shapes such as hearts, crosses or those of certain leaves have meaning for people. The meanings are different in different cultures. The use of animals in art also has meaning. An owl in one culture may mean wisdom, in another it may mean evil. Other animals are used as symbols to represent such characteristics as honesty, cleverness, laziness, and courage.

Colours have meaning. A painter or weaver will choose colours for a purpose. Some colours are considered lucky. Some colours are thought to be best for children, some for adults. Meanings may range from bravery to cowardice, purity to evil. Some colours are used for special circumstances.

Talk with the weavers, painters, carvers, potters and other artists in your community. Find out the meaning of certain shapes. Signs, animals, plants and colours. Use these symbols when you design a poster or other visual aids such as flipcharts, and flannelgraphs.

Your educational message will be clearer if you use traditional art forms and symbols.

Involve the traditional artists in your village in designing and making educational tools.

Songs

People sing to express ideas and feelings. Many songs are about love and sadness. Songs may tell a story of a famous person or event. Some songs are religious, others are patriotic. Songs are sung to help children fall asleep or to celebrate special occasions. They can also help to educate people. Singing comes naturally in certain cultures, but not in others.

Purpose

Songs can be used to give people ideas about their rights. If the tune is attractive, people will remember the song and the information it contains.

Depending on the local culture, songs can be used at the beginning of a talk, a meeting, or any other organised programme to create enthusiasm and interest. They can also make a meeting end on a happy note.

Size of group

The group can be large or small. Songs may also be played on the radio to reach a wider area and audience.

PLAYS

A play portrays life and people and tells a story that usually involves conflicts and emotions. The action and the dialogue are typically designed for theatrical performance with dramatic effects.

Purpose

Just like stories, plays make us look at our own behaviour, attitudes, beliefs and values in the light of what we are told or shown. Plays are especially interesting because you can both see and hear them. They can even be used to raise funds for community self-help and other projects.

Size of groups

Plays are usually performed for large groups and are intended to reach whole communities.

Content

A play is based on a story. The story may be true, or it may seem like the truth. The story has a beginning and an end. The people who are putting on the play know the whole story, but the audience does not.

A play has characters. That is people who act the different parts in the story. You can have any number of characters.

A play has scenes. If a story was acted out just as in real life, it could take several days. A play is generally a couple of hours long, but can be less. So, a play is made up of important short scenes or events.

A play can have a message. It may have a definite ending where all the problems are solved for better or worse. In this case, the lesson or message people learn from the play is usually obvious. Some plays have uncertain endings. They stop before the problems are solved. This makes the audience think hard. They wonder what might finally happen. They are curious about the characters. After this kind of play people like to talk and discuss. Since the message is not clear, people ask themselves 'What would I do next if I were that character?' This helps them practice decision-making skills.

Types of Play

Traditional

In many cultures there are traditional plays that are performed during festivals and at special times of the year. They are often based on the lives and actions of ancestors, spirits, and famous people from the past. Traditional plays have a theme or message for the community. Such plays are closely tied to community values and beliefs. This makes people feel close to their culture and community when watching them. Social support grows out of this feeling. You may even write a play of your own resembling the traditional type.

Modern

You can write plays about present-day people. You could write out the words and actions for each character. To create more participation and interest, you could gather a small group of people who are willing to act in the play. Tell them the story. Let them choose what characters they want to be. Then ask the group to make up the speeches and action themselves on the basis of the story.

PUPPETS

Puppet shows are very similar to plays. The main difference is that puppets do the acting. People are still needed, however, to make the puppets move and talk.

Purpose

Just like stories and plays, puppet shows give examples of how people behave in real-life situations and can make us reflect on what is good and bad.

Uses of puppets

Puppets are made to look like small people or animals, but they behave like real people and become involved in a series of events resulting in conflicts and problems. Since you can make puppets look like animals, you can also use puppets to act out fables. You can even use a puppet to help you give a talk.

Size of group

Since puppets are usually small, it is best to show them to relatively small groups—about 20 people. In that way, everyone is able to get close, and see what is happening. Of course, you can make puppets as large as children or as small as a mouse. Children usually love puppets, and their parents often enjoy watching with them. There are many types of puppet. Here are three common types.

Hand puppets

These puppets are made of cloth. You put your hand inside the puppet to make its arms and head move. You can hold hand puppets on your lap, or you can go behind a table and use the table as a stage for the puppets to stand on or you can make up a stage using a box and some cloth for curtains, as shown in the illustration.

String Puppets

These puppets have stings tied to their arms, legs, head and mouth. You stand above the puppet and pull the strings to make it move. String puppets can be made of wood, cloth, cardboard and other common materials. Local artists such as wood carvers can help you make puppets.

Shadow puppets

Shadow puppets are flat pieces of paper, wood, or metal, made in the shape of people or animals. These are painted and decorated with faces and clothing. Sticks are attached to arms and legs to make them move.

Shining a light on these puppets makes their shadows appear large on a wall screen behind them. These puppets would be used at night or in a darkened room.

A similar idea is to place the flat puppets behind a white sheet or a thin screen. A light is shown on them from behind, so that their enlarged shadows appear on the sheet or screen. The audience only sees the shadows so it is not necessary to paint or decorate the puppets.

Planning the puppet show

The steps that must be followed in planning a play also apply to puppets. Selecting the story, words and action, drawing or painting scenery where necessary (though for smaller scenes), choosing a good place to show the puppets, and encouraging audience participation and discussions, all need to be carried out carefully.

Dance

People can communicate ideas through movement of their bodies. This happens, for example, when you wave your hand or wink your eye. In some cultures, traditional dancing is used to tell stories.

Some dances do not tell specific stories, but they mark certain events. There may be special dances for births or funerals. There may be a special dance for the beginning of the planting season to express hope that the land will be fertile and the crops productive. A dance at harvest time may be to give thanks. Such dances communicate ideas.

Purpose

To bring people together in fellowship and happiness and to provide feelings of support and communicate ideas.

Size of groups

If dance is a common means of expression in the culture where you work, use it, together with plays, during a talk or at a meeting to communicate appropriate ideas and feeling of support.

Tape recordings

The type of tape we are concerned about here is the cassette tape. These can be played on small, portable machines that use batteries.

Because of the expense of buying the machine, the tapes and the batteries, it is unlikely that this tool can be used by community workers.

Purpose

To provide information and strengthen messages already given.

Audience

The most common use of tapes is with groups. sometimes individual can be requested to listen to a tape on a topic related to their interest or problem.

TYPES OF TAPE PROGRAMMES

Lectures

Once a lecture has been recorded, it can be played whenever there is a group or an individual who wants to hear about the topic. To make the recording more lively and interesting, it is a good idea to play some music briefly at the beginning of the tape. The whole recording should be short, no more than 10 to 15 minutes. Since the audience has nothing to look at, they will become bored if the talk goes on for too long.

Radio Programmes

These can be taped and played again for anyone who missed hearing them.

Role-playing and group discussions

When you play back the tape of a discussion or role-playing exercise, people can hear themselves. This will teach them about their behaviour, attitudes and values. Before recording a discussion or play, ask everyone if they agree to be recorded. It may surprise or embarrass some people if you record them without their knowledge. It is usually better to erase the tapes after the session. People may have said things that they do not want others outside the group to hear.

Statements from important people

Short recorded statements from important people can be used to liven up and reinforce your own lecture or health message. It also adds prestige and weight to the statement.

TAPE WITH SLIDES

Slides and tapes together make an interesting programme, but it needs to be planned carefully. The talk that you want to record on to the tape should be written out first. This is called the script. The script should be clearly marked to show exactly when to change the slides. The person operating the machine will read the script while the tape is playing, and change the slides at the right time.

FILMS OR MOVIES

People like films, because they provide action, colour and sound. They are a useful communication medium.

Purpose

Many different kinds of films are made. Some provide mainly information. They look like lectures that use sound and visual aids. Some demonstrate skills. Others are like plays, and show real-life situations. People can learn about the behaviour, attitudes and values in these films. Many are for entertainment.

Group Size

Films can be shown to the whole community, but the larger the group, the less participation there will be. If possible, show films to groups of 30 people or less.

Where to find films

Ministries, libraries, voluntary agencies and some companies have films that can be borrowed. You will also have to borrow a film projector and possibly a small movie screen. Obviously you need electricity or a generator to show films. You may also need a skilled person to run the projector.

Choosing films

Do not base selection of a film only on the title. You should see the film first or talk to someone you trust who has seen it. Before you agree to show the film ask yourself these questions.

- * Is the film in a language that the people
- * Does the film have correct and up-to-date information?
- * Will the culture of the people in the film and the setting of the film look familiar to the people who watch the film?
- * Does the film contain ideas that are practical for the community?

If the answer to any of the questions is 'no', do not choose that film.

You may think it is difficult to find a film for which the answer is 'yes' to all those questions. This is often true. Films are expensive to make. It is not possible to make a film to match the needs and culture of every community. It is often better to use plays, stories, puppets and demonstrations, because these can match your local culture.

After showing the film hold a discussion session. Ask the audience questions about the film. Get them to ask you questions. Make sure they understand the film's message. If the group is large, break it up into smaller groups. Ask other health and community workers to help with the discussions in each of these sections.

NEWS PAPERS

Purpose

The main purpose of newspapers is to spread information. They print 'news', which usually consists of reports of events. They also include 'features', which are articles on a particular topic, and 'editorial', which express opinions about various subjects.

Newspapers reach many people, very quickly. The press can play a very important part in increasing people's knowledge about their rights.

Using newspapers for education

Newspapers can be used for education in several different ways.

One way is to help your own professional growth. It is important for you to be aware of what is happening in law and community development. Newspaper articles are a good source of new ideas. For example, there may be a story on a successful community programme in another part of your country. You may wish to discuss it with your community leaders to see how it might be adapted to your own community.

Cut out and save interesting articles. You may be able to use them later on in your talks, discussions, or community meetings.

The second way in which newspapers are useful is as a way of sharing information with others. Even though many of the people you serve may not be able to read, there will be some who can. Often these are among the community leaders. They will appreciate your sharing information with them.

Writing your own news story

If an interesting event is going to happen in your neighbourhood or village, you should consider writing a news article, and taking or sending it to the newspaper that serves your area. Of course, it may not be printed. But if the event is unusual, and the story is well written, it will stand a good chance. Newspapers, especially local ones, often need new material.

Even if the story is not printed, the task of writing it is a very good exercise. It forces you to think about how to express your message in a few clear, understandable words. This in turn makes it necessary to decide what are the most important facts and ideas you wish to communicate. This discipline will help you to communicate your message more effectively through other means as well.

Study a few examples of local news stories. You will probably find that most of them have several common characteristics. They are generally quite brief, with between 100 and 300 words. They use simple words, short sentences, and short paragraphs. They tell the reader the most interesting or important things first. They answer the questions who? what? when? and where? and then tell why and how if there is enough space. Some news stories tell about an event before it happens. Others report on it afterwards. Both kinds of report can be useful.

Magazines

Magazines are another branch of the mass media with some uses in education. They tend to be less accessible for the paralegal worker than newspapers. They are generally intended for audiences in a very wide geographical area and are therefore less likely to be interested in local stories.

Many magazines do, however, carry useful information. Like newspapers, magazines can be an important source of continuing education. In fact, magazine articles tend to be longer and more detailed than newspaper stories. Also, as with newspapers, such articles can obviously be shared with readers in your community and used as a basis for discussion.

From the education angle, however, probably the outstanding feature of magazines that they are a source of pictures. Magazine pictures are usually more numerous and often of better quality than those in newspapers. Many are in colour. Frequently you will find attractive and useful pictures. These pictures can be used on posters and flannelgraphs, and in many other ways.

RADIO

Of all the communication media, radio may now be the most effective for teaching very wide audiences with important messages. Certainly this is true in large parts of the developing world. Even in remote areas many farmers carry radios with them to the fields.

Purpose

Radio programmes serve many purposes. Some are purely for entertainment. They provide popular music and dramatised stories. Others are informational. There are several news broadcasts each day on most radio stations, at regularly scheduled times, and entertainment programmes may be interrupted for a news bulletin if something important happens. In addition, some radio programmes are designed for instruction or education.

Coverage

The size of the area covered by a given radio programme or station varies widely. Some are national or even international. In some countries, all the radio programming is done at the national level, and the local stations in smaller cities outside the capital, if they exist at all, are used mainly as transmitters. In a number of other countries, however, there are local radio stations in smaller cities and towns. These may transmit national news and some other national programmes and also broadcast local news, local advertisements, and local educational programmes. So, even on the same radio station, some programmes may be designed for an audience of millions and others for the much smaller target of a district or region.

Special educational programmes can be broadcast, ranging in length from a few minutes to an hour or more. These can be in the form of talks, interviews, or discussion programmes at the radio station.

Because radio is a very important entertainment medium, some of the most effective messages can be delivered through songs, stories or plays. In many places there are very popular dramatic programmes usually dealing with the problems faced by a family or group of individuals. The audience does not realise that it is being educated as well as entertained, but it does receive the message, which is all the more likely to be remembered because of the form in which it is conveyed. Care needs to be taken with this method to avoid being over-emotional or trying to force people to change their views.

Radio meetings

It is usually possible to obtain a schedule of broadcasts in advance from the radio station that serves your area. This is important information for you.

If you find out that a programme on a subject of importance to your community will be broadcast in a few days, spread the word. Put up notices in key places. Inform members and community leaders. Urge everyone to listen. Better still, invite people to meet in a convenient place and listen together. Ask them to come a

few minutes before the programme is scheduled to begin, so that you can introduce the topic. Then encourage discussion and questions as soon as the programme ends. One of the so-called disadvantages of radio is that it is a one-way medium. People cannot ask questions or talk back. By holding radio meetings, you can turn this disadvantage into an advantage.

Getting your community programme on the radio

If you live within reach of a local radio station that does some of its own programming, you may be able to use radio more directly. Many local radio stations, like local newspapers, need interesting news items, interviews, or public service messages.

Radio news items, like those for newspapers, need to be brief; in fact, perhaps, even briefer than for newspapers.

In many places radio interviews offer a special opportunity. If your community is having an important campaign or event, and especially if your para legal is well known and a good speaker, you could suggest to the radio station that they carry out a radio interview.

If this should happen, you would probably be expected to draft a list of suggested questions that will bring out the information you wish to convey. You will also need to be sure that your paralegal worker or spokesperson gets to the radio station in good time, so that he or she and the announcer can get to know each other a little. You also need to be sure that the people of your community are gathered to listen.

TELEVISION

No other medium creates such lively interest as television. It can have a great impact on people. It can extend knowledge, influence public opinion, introduce new ways of life in urban areas and even in rural communities. This is especially so when the workers are able to integrate television programmes into their local activities, and to extend the impact of the medium through group discussions on the lines we have already discussed for radio programmes.

There is a new aspect of television that has much potential for education. This is the use of video films. In some areas, video films are shown to small audiences by local groups. These groups may, or may not, have commercial interests. There are even places where series of films are projected throughout the day and people go to the show just as they would go to a cinema.

PART II

A TRAINING PROGRAMME PROCESS

This section deals with the sequences involved in a training programme for providing basic knowledge and skills to a paralegal worker.

This is only a model and should be adopted according to the objectives of a given training programme.

1. CREATING A CLIMATE

Objectives: To "Warm up" group members and break down communication barriers at the beginning of a workshop.

Non-verbal exercises, e.g. milling around and exchanging information or feelings to other members without talking.

Brief interviews in pairs - no restrictions on topics of discussion. Pairing changed several times to allow participants to meet as many new people as possible.

Singing any songs known to most of the members or learning new ones.

Dancing - many groups enjoy participating in traditional dancing especially while waiting for late arrivals.¹

Have a go-around in which people one by one introduce themselves by name and organisation; give people name-tags to help them get to know each other during the workshop.

An enjoyable way of doing introductions is to use the wordwheel method. Here you ask people to stand in two circles of equal numbers, one inside the other, so that each person in the inside circle faces someone in the outside circle. You ask people to introduce themselves to each other. After a minute or two, you ask the outside person to move one place to the right. You then ask people to do a second introduction or to say something about themselves or their work.²

2. EXPECTATIONS OR HOPES OF THE TRAINEES

The trainer or the organizers might wish to learn from the participants what are their expectations or what they hope to gain from the training. This would help involve the participants in the programme as well as give the trainer/organisers an opportunity to review the objectives and the curriculum in the light of the reality within which they will be working.

Setting: A quiet, informal meeting place.

Materials: A tentative schedule for the workshop, as developed by the planning committee (written on newsprint or on sheets for distribution). Newsprint and felt pens (for use during small-group sessions). Tape or thumbtacks.

CONDUCTING THE ACTIVITY

Note : If participants begin a training session by expressing their expectations, they anticipate that these expectations will be met to some extent during the programme. The use of this exercise, therefore, requires a degree of flexibility in the plans. The schedule should not be completely "set" in advance, and trainers should be willing to make revisions in their plans. In one workshop, the trainers asked for participants' expectations and then ignored them. Not surprisingly, the frustrated participants became antagonistic toward the trainers.

Step 1: Divide participants into small groups. If there is a planning committee, assign one member of the committee and a consultant to each group. He should behave as a full participant although he may help to clarify points without imposing his ideas.

Step 2 : Ask each group to choose a recorder/reporter. Give members an opportunity to talk about their own backgrounds, interests, and expectations of the workshop. What kind of events and results do they hope to see? Have the recorders list these hopes and expectations on newsprint sheets.

Step 3: Reconvene the participants. Have each recorder make a report from the group's newsprint sheets. Tape or tack the lists on the wall so that everyone can examine them.

Step 4: Ask a member of the planning committee to put up the tentative workshop schedule and show where and how various group expectations are already included in the plans.

Step 5: Indicate ways that the planning committee will work to incorporate additional hopes expressed by the group. Point out any individual expectations that may not be accommodated in the workshop and explain why not.

SITUATING THE CONTEXT

Another way of reviewing the curriculum and also assessing the expectations of the trainees is to make the trainees narrate the profile of the disadvantaged group with which they are working. They should also narrate what they expect to gain from the training and how they would use it with the disadvantaged group they are working with.

IMAGES OF LAW

As part of the introductory session it would be helpful to make the participants share their attitude to law and legal processes. A similar exercise was conducted in a paralegal trainers training programme in Sri Lanka and the following extract from the report explains the need for such an exercise.

"Before the formal sessions began. It was necessary to determine participants' attitude towards the law. Given the turbulent conditions of the country over the past few years, it was thought that some participants would view the law cynically and question its value as a resource for empowerment. After assessing the participants' preconceptions about the law, the programme could then be suitably adapted.

The method adopted to determine the perceptions of law was for each person to toss a stone into the center of the room while giving his/her own impression of law. This activity emphasized the participation of all and insured that none would totally dominate the discussion.

The substantive aspects highlighted were depressing; the majority of attitude expressed by the participants toward law were overwhelmingly negative. Much of the feedback concentrated on the unequal treatment meted out by the legal system towards those who had financial resources. Participants also expressed an element of helplessness about understanding law".⁴

3. GROUP DISCUSSION

In the training programme or in the community in which a paralegal is working would be participating /leading group discussions and therefore it is important to impart some basic principles of a good group discussions.

The following exercise would help run a training session on how to conduct group discussions.

Setting: Any quiet, large enough meeting place.

Materials: 4" x 5" index cards or paper slips, each with a lively discussion topic written on it. Blackboard and chalk or newsprint and felt pens.

CONDUCTING ACTIVITY

Step 1: Explain in your own words, using newsprint to note major points, that a lively discussion, where ideas and opinions are exchanged, is always a way of learning from others. A discussion helps:

People to talk about and consider new ideas, the group to work together in finding solutions, the discussion leader to learn the ideas and feelings of others.

Step 2: Ask the participants, "What is the role of the discussion leader?" Encourage discussion about the question and write the responses on the chalk-board or newsprint.

Note: Help your group to discover for themselves that a discussion leader guides the discussion and keeps it going by knowing the subject well, through quiet encouragement, and without forcing opinions, on the group. The discussion leader helps the group to look at the problem posed, discuss its causes and possible solutions, and consider ways of selecting and bringing about the best solution.

Step 3: Distribute the discussion topic (see material above) or let trainees select another topic or particular personal interest.

Step 4: Divide the large group into subgroups of five or six persons, and call for a volunteer in each group to be the first to lead a five-or six minute discussion of the topics that were distributed. (Each sub-group member should have a turn at being the discussion leader)

Step 5: Return to the large-group format and once again ask, "what is the role of a discussion leader?" (Help them in their search for answers that best apply to their own experiences). Allowing ample time for answers, ask the following questions:

What kind of behaviour on the part of the discussion leader motivates active participation?

What should the discussion leader do if:-

members of the group have conflicting views?
Sensitive issues are raised?

How can the discussion leader:-

encourage quiet people to participate?
keep one person from talking too often?
build questions based on responses?
keep discussion focused on the topic?

Note: If participants do not bring up the following important points, you may wish to suggest them yourself: a discussion leader should avoid all the talking, should ask questions, should introduce new ideas if dis-

cussion stops, lags, or begins to repeat itself. If two or more members begin to argue, the leader might quickly direct a question to an uninvolved member of the group, or introduce a new idea. The leader should acknowledge differing viewpoints and introduce facts that help to clarify them. The leader should be alert to sensitive issues. If discussion of the issue seems inappropriate at the time, the leader might say, "If anyone is interested, this can be discussed after the meeting."

Step 6: Summarise by reviewing the role of a discussion leader.⁵
An exercise called 'Fishbowl exercise' could also be used for introducing principles on conducting group discussions.

Fishbowl Exercise

In this exercise trainees volunteer to be in one of two groups of about equal size: the task group ('fish') or observer group ('bowl'). The exercise gets its name because it works best when the task group sits close together inside an outer circle of observers.⁶

The task group should be given a topic for discussion with a specific time limit. The observer group should observe the task group and at the end of the discussion comment on the manner in which the discussion was conducted.

The facilitator could raise questions like - Did every one participate in the discussion?

Did one or more persons dominate the discussion? Etc.

Based on the Observations made some general principles concerning conduct of group discussion could be evolved.

It might be helpful to repeat the exercise by reversing the roles of 'fish' and 'bowl'. Everyone then has a chance to observe, and participants get an immediate opportunity to put their new insights to use.

Following are some of the principles of group discussion that could be conveyed to the trainees.

General principles of discussion leading

1. Let the group have the freedom to express their own thinking and not be dominated by the conference leader.
2. Allow participants to express their thoughts fully.
3. Refrain from passing judgement on any contribution given by an individual
- let the group decide whether she is right or wrong.
4. Allow the group freedom of expression whilst maintaining overall control of the discussion subject.

5. State the basis of the discussion so that all participants may follow.
6. Be co-operative.
7. Allow individuals to retain their self-respect in the eyes of the group.
8. Remain impartial.
9. Control the discussion by asking questions.
10. Be precise and to the point.
11. Keep humour to an acceptable level.
12. Keep discussion moving.
13. Bring the group quickly to accept matters of fact. Keep to the schedule set for the programme.
14. Master the use of questions.

HOW TO MASTER THE USE OF QUESTIONS

The use of questions as a means of directing and stimulating discussion is one of the most effective techniques used by the discussion leader. Various types of questions are recommended, such as leading, suggestive or thought-provoking questions. Many of these may be addressed to the group as a whole or to individuals. They may be general or specific as to the nature of response required.

COMMUNICATIONS

One of the central components in any type of paralegal work is effective communication. The paralegal, whether acting as a facilitator in a group/community discussion, attempting to provide leadership in a particular project, or mediating in disputes, must have the skills to convey his/her ideas effectively.

Apart from the more obvious factors - the presentation and clarity of his own communication - the paralegal must be aware of the factors affecting the communication process. These could include the nature of the relationship between the involved parties, the mood or atmosphere existing, and even the type of message to be communicated. For instance, communication in group situations would involve different methods than involving individuals. Similarly, communication of an idea or concept would require more clarification and time than perhaps a general message. Finally, the paralegal must be aware that communication is a two way process - to be effective one must first listen before speaking.

A simple exercise called 'Rumour Clinic' would help initiate discussion on problems involved in communications.

Rumour Clinic

To illustrate the distortions in communicating information as it is transmitted from the original source through several individual to a final destination.

Group Size

Six participants plus an unlimited number of process observers.

Time Required: Thirty minutes

Materials Needed

- I. The Rumor Clinic Message
- II. Rumour Clinic Observation Forms
- III. Blackboard and chalk or newsprint and felt-tip marker.
- IV. Tape recorder (optional).

Physical Setting

- I. Meeting room. All observers are seated facing platforms or area where the rumour clinic is staged.
- II. Room where participants can be isolated.

Process

- I. The facilitator selects six members from the group to be the participants.
- II. Five of the six participants are asked to go into the isolation room. One will remain with the facilitator.
- III. The facilitator starts the tape recorder if he plans to replay the rumour clinic after the process is completed for clues to distortion.
- IV. The facilitator reads the message to the first participants.
- V. The facilitator asks the second participant to return to the room.
- VI. The first participant repeats what he heard from the facilitator to the second participant. It is important to keep in mind that each participant is to transmit the message in his own way, without help from other participants or observers.
- VII. The third participant is asked to return, and the second participant repeats what he heard from the first participant.
- VIII. The process is repeated until all but the sixth participant has had the message transmitted to him.
- IX. When the sixth participant returns to the room, the fifth participant repeats the message to him and he in turn writes the message on the blackboard or on newsprint so that the entire group can read it.
- X. The facilitator then writes the original message, and it is compared with the sixth participant's message.
- XI. The facilitator leads a short discussion with the entire group on the implications of the rumour clinic experience, utilising the tape recorder if the rumour clinic has been taped. Observers may be asked to report, followed by reactions of participants.

Each trainer could develop his or her own 'rumour clinic' message.

The following exercise could be conducted to generate discussion on various aspects involved in good communication, especially the problem of harmonising concepts and understanding of a task.

Materials: Pens, pencils and foolscap paper.

- Procedure:**
1. The facilitator announces that participants are going to be given instructions to follow as fast as possible.
 2. Participants are paired. Each pair is given one sheet of paper and a pen or pencil between them.

3. The facilitator explains or writes down instructions:

Each pair is to hold the pen or pencil together and without talking or gesturing draw a picture of a house. It is important that he does not elaborate on these instructions.

4. As soon as all pairs have finished drawing, the pictures are displayed.

5. A discussion on the problems faced is held to find out:

- * What problems did the pairs experience?
- * What caused the problems?
- * Who led? Why?
- * Who followed? Why?
- * Why did communication breakdown?⁸

In addition to imparting or clarifying basic concepts concerning communications, trainees could also be helped to enhance their public speaking, writing and reporting skills.

LEADERSHIP

Paralegals while working with a disadvantaged community would very often assume leadership roles and therefore it is important that they are introduced to basic concepts concerning leadership.

The following exercise known as 'Mirroring' could be conducted to generate discussion on concepts concerning leadership.

- Procedure:**
1. Each person chooses a partner and they stand facing each other with their hands up, a few inches apart. One partner is instructed to lead the other who has to follow all the movements without changing the distance between their hands. The take turns to lead and follow as the facilitator gives signals. After a minute or so the pairs are instructed to discuss how they perceive one another's leadership.
 2. For the second round same pairs or new ones mirror one another's movements but this time they are instructed to touch each other's open hands very lightly and change leadership when given a signal. At the end they give each other feedback.
 3. In the third round they are told to press their hands hard on each others and to change leadership without prompting by the facilitator. They then share their feelings about the experience.

Discussion: In plenary the participants give their experiences and answer the following questions:

- a) When was it easy and when as it difficult to follow their partners? Why?
- b) How did they feel in each experience as leaders? as followers?
- c) What does each variation of the exercise symbolize in real life in relation to leadership of other people?
- d) How does the simulation experience compare with actual practice of leadership?

A description of leadership styles and their effects on the group then follows.⁹

The following points would be helpful for generating discussion on different types of leadership styles.

WHAT IS LEADERSHIP

The attempt to study leadership scientifically has not succeeded in providing a widely accepted body of knowledge as to what leadership is and does. Leaders have been variously described, as those having a vision, commitment, and a passion for excellence; as people who think for themselves and are never willing to drift with the crowd; persons who when faced with a problem situation doesn't say "why doesn't someone do something"? but, "what can we do?" and proposes a course of action.

It is difficult to arrive at a unique definition of leadership, because concepts of leadership and acceptable leadership styles are context and culture bound. Attempts at identifying the range of leadership styles have, nevertheless, come up with three broad categories of leadership into which a range of eight different leadership styles may be classified.

- a) Authoritarian leadership
- b) Consultative leadership
- c) Enabling leadership

See Appendix for a chart summing up decision-making patterns corresponding to the different leadership styles.

Different situations may call for different types of leadership. An emergency situation may require that there is a strong and authoritarian leader who makes quick decisions and can influence others to abide by it. In a group situation such as a newly formed local women's group where members have no experience in participating in a non-family group context, they are likely to feel unsure of themselves and unwilling to commit themselves to expressing opinions, leave alone taking decisions. In such a situation, the consultative type of leadership may help them feel assured and secure. It may even be necessary to adopt this leadership style at first and then gradually shift to the enabling style of leadership which makes a greater demands on group members. However, it is only through the enabling leadership style that we can succeed in developing maturity and responsibility among the people and help them participate actively in decision making.

The enabling style of leadership demands a great deal of the leader. She has to be a good facilitator who not only steers the group towards its goal but also maintains the spirit and the enthusiasm of the group. Group needs that have to be met may be summarised as follows:

The leader needs help from the rest of the group to successfully meet these needs. Although she may at the outset have to respond to as many of these needs as she can herself, leadership soon becomes a shared process, with different members of the group assuming responsibility for different group needs. The group leader should then take responsibility for only those needs which no one else in the group seems to be meeting. Through this process, the enabling leadership style moves towards its ultimate objective, namely, help the group become self-governing through collective leadership.

GROUP DYNAMICS

Paralegals have to work with different groups and it is essential that they understand group dynamics and facilitate group functioning.

Discussion on group dynamics could be initiated by conducting an exercise called 'Broken Squares'.

Allow 20 mins

This can be played by 5 people, with the rest watching. Alternatively the leader can prepare enough material to provide for the whole group e.g. 5 groups of 5.

Preparation (For 1 group)

- * Rule 5 squares from a piece of card or stiff paper. (12 cm or 6" square would be a suitable size).

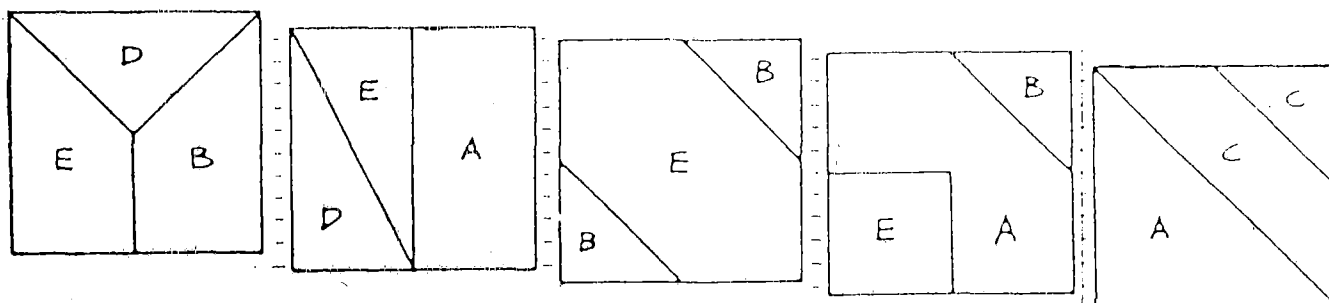
- * Rule each square into a pattern as below, and mark each shape with the appropriate letter.

(N.B. measurements should be made as accurately as possible).

- * Cutout the shapes and sort them into sets of the same letter. Put each set in an envelope marked with the same letter.

Procedure

- * Form a group or groups
- * Read out or write up the following instructions.
- on the starting signal - open your envelopes and take out the contents.
- The exercise will continue until each person has a square.
- You may pass a piece of card to another member, but you may NOT reach out and take one.
- No talking or any other kind of communication are allowed.
- You may at any time decline to take any further part.



Discussion

Usually at least one square is formed, which is not one of those illustrated. This will hold the group up until the person concerned dismantles it.

- * What happened?
- * Encourage group members to verbalize their feelings.
- * What does this exercise say about sharing.
- * Was the initial reaction to try and get your own square? What does this say about the way we operate in life (i.e. the way we aim first for security and a firm base to work from. This may seem sensible at the time but makes subsequent cooperation more difficult)

Following points could be used by trainers to discuss and clarify group dynamics.

"Group dynamics is the study of forces acting within a group of people.

Good internal dynamics do not happen by accident. They come from an awareness of how the group functions, aspects that need to be modified, and dynamics that need to be built upon to improve group efficiency and personal satisfaction among participants.

The following four areas help examine the way groups function: (1) some general characteristics of groups, (2) task and maintenance functions, (3) leadership, and (4) decision making.

SOME GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS

Cohesiveness: The degree to which the members of a group like and support each other. Depends on how much there is agreement on basic goals and values, how many good experiences members have had with each other. This is described later on as a sense of "community", to be enhanced by "community building exercises".

Climate: The Psychological tone of a meeting. How much attention do the members have for the issue at hand? Do participants feel easy with expressing their feelings? Is the spirit joyful, tense? The climate is affected very much by the physical arrangement of the meeting place. Is it too warm or cool; too crowded or noisy? Other factors climate might be time pressure and uncertainty over goals. The climate is often set by the perceived leaders.

Pressures: Compelling influences. What are they? Time? Money? Are they external or internal pressures? To what extent do they help the group reach its goals; make members act in rigid ways?

Goals: Ends the group strives to attain. Goals can be long and/or short-range. If goals are clear, little leadership is needed. If goals are not clear and/or members are unclear how to accomplish the goals, leadership functions need to be filled. Have individuals clarified their own goals to the extent that group goals are possible?

Structure: Interrelationship of all the aspects of a group, such as: the decision making process, different roles, membership, goals, styles and processes of communication. Structure may be formal, in that it is defined and deliberately followed by the group, or it may be informal.

Standards: Expectations regarding behaviour in the group, e.g., amount of involvement, or being on time. It makes a difference whether standards are set by "leaders" or all the members, and whether or not standards are conscious.

Control: Regulation of the group. How does a group insure its own continuation and the completion of its long term tasks? How are new members included or excluded? Controls of some sort are essential to the life of a group. Are controls used flexibly as needed? Do they work against the goals of the group?

TASK AND MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

The activities necessary for effective group operation can be divided into "task" functions, needed to help the group achieve its goals, and "maintenance" functions, needed to build and maintain the group. These functions are explained in charts A, B, and C.

Ability to perform these functions is not hereditary, but is learned. When people take on a group function they are commonly said to take on a role. The term "role" conveys to many a rigidity of behaviour not intended here. Because we wish to stress the importance of roles being filled by different group members as needed, we will often use the term "function" to emphasise the distinction between the person and the behaviour. Please note that when referring to task and maintenance activities we use the terms "role" and "function" interchangeably.

Understanding these roles will help your group discover and use its resources more fully. Interpersonal tensions may decrease as group members perceive many group problems not as

CHART A - GROUP TASK FUNCTIONS

This chart describes behaviour needed to help a group achieve its long or short range goals. A skilled member will assume these roles as they are needed.

Function/Role	Purpose	Technique
Initiator	Give direction and purpose to the group	Proposing tasks, goals, defining problems, suggesting procedures and solutions
Information-seeking	Make group aware of need for information	Requesting relevant facts, clarification
Information-giving	Provide group information relevant to its work	Offering relevant facts, avoiding reliance on opinion when facts are needed
Opinion-seeking	Test for consensus, find out group opinion	Asking for feelings or opinions about something
Opinion-giving	Provide basis for group decision	Stating feelings or beliefs, evaluating a suggestion
Clarifying	Eliminate confusion	Defining terms, interpreting ideas, indicating issues and alternatives
Elaborating	Reduce ambiguity, show consequences of plans and positions	Giving examples, developing meanings, explaining
Coordinating	Adjust issues or harmonize issues that may conflict	Suggesting ways that different issues can be handled
Procedure-developing	Establish an order to the meeting	Suggesting agenda, order of business, where to go next
Summarising	Show how ideas are related; draw ideas together	Pulling together related issues, showing contradictions, restating suggestions, offering conclusions
Philosopher-critic	Show that a particular issue is not unique; bring in insights from similar experience	Drawing general statements from specific ones; critically examining assumptions and ideas (not people)

CHART B - GROUP MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

This chart describes behaviour needed to build and maintain the group as a working unit. A skilled member will assume these roles/functions as they are needed to keep the group working together harmoniously.

Function/Role	Purpose	Technique
Encouraging	Bring out others' opinion and give others recognition	Being friendly, warm and responsive to others. Accepting others' contributions
Expressing feelings	Call group attention to reactions to ideas and suggestions made	Expressing own feelings and restating others' feelings and opinions
Relieving tension	Reduce tension, allow group to express feelings	Joking, clowning, attention expanders breaks, etc.
Compromising	Maintain group cohesion	Offering or accepting compromises; yielding status, admitting error
Facilitate Communication	Maintain open discussion, keep channels open	Drawing out silent members, suggesting procedures for discussions
Setting standards and goals	Make group aware of direction and progress	Expressing the group concern, suggesting tasks, stating standards for group to achieve
Interpreting	Explain, interpret what someone has already said	Paraphrasing initial speaker
Listening, following	Provide stimulating, interested audience for others	Accepting ideas of others; going along with the group

CHART C - TASK AND MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

The following functions contribute both to the maintenance of a group and to the accomplishment of its tasks. This is, of course, true of all the functions listed above, to some extent. Group maintenance is vital to group achievement, and, in most cases, group achievement is important to group maintenance.

Function/Role	Purpose	Technique
Harmonising, mediating	Reconcile disagreements, reduce tension	Conciliating differences, offering compromises
Testing agreement	Find out how close group is to agreement	Noting progress, stating areas of agreement, making tentative proposals for group reaction asking if agreement is possible
Evaluating	Keep group in line with goals, provide sense of progress	Measuring accomplishments against goals, noting progress and blocks"

STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

A basic component of any training programme is provision of skills necessary to undertake structural analysis of the society and the community in which the paralegal is working.

There are various ways of introducing some basic concepts concerning societal analysis, however, it is important to provide methods to undertake societal analysis rather than give them a pre packaged analysis of the society.

For example one method used in the Philippines which enables trainees to undertake their own analysis is called 'Conjunctural analysis'.

A framework for conjunctural analysis

The following process guidelines may be used for a session on conjunctural analysis. The objectives of the session is to produce an analysis of the current situation. This simplified framework of social analysis will allow the participants to identify the important events, surface relevant issues, pinpoint significant actors or force involved, and draw out trends and directions in the current situation.

Process of Analysis:

1. Select a **particular time period, or conjuncture** in the nation's history. This period shall be the subject of analysis.
2. Brainstorm on the **significant events** that occurred during this given time period. These events may have taken place on different levels: community, regional or national. They may also be events that happen in the political, economic or sociocultural spheres. An event is an observable occurrence in the environment, something which is actually experienced, seen or heard in the news or talked about by people.
3. Categories related events into clusters or groupings. Specify the issue that emerges from each cluster or category. There is an emergent issue whenever **problems and conflicts of beliefs, positions, or interests** arise from the interaction of individuals/groups/forces involved in the events.
4. Identify the **individuals, groups, and other social forces** involved in each issue. Also pinpoint their **responses and positions** regarding the issue. Observe similarities and differences, points of conflict and consensus on these positions.
5. Review the analysis made on each issue. Based on these analyses, make a **general analysis** of the national situation by determining the **over-all trends and patterns** that can be gleaned from the issues.

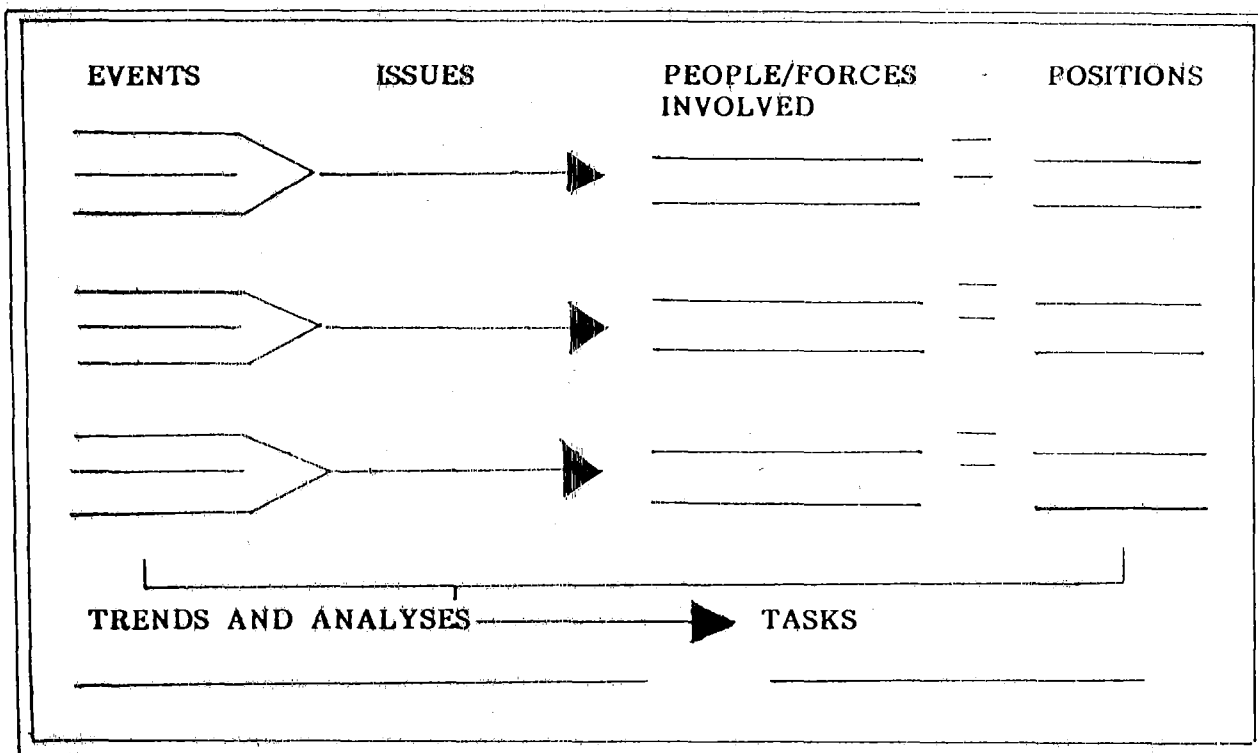
These trends and patterns carry the **judgements and generalisations** of those doing the analysis regarding the situation. These trends also attempt to find the **inter-relationships and linkages** between issues.

6. In phrases or short sentences, try to capture the characteristics of the **general situation** by pinpointing **dominant themes, directions and tendencies** relevant to the conjuncture being analysed. Select key words that reflect and synthesise the most significant issues and events of the national situation.

7. To culminate this exercise, relate this conjunctural analysis to the participants' level of involvement.

What are the implications to our present work and involvement? What relevant **tasks and courses of action** does this situation demand of them?

8. The following framework may be utilised for this analysis;



A simulation game known as 'Trade Game' or 'Star Power' is a useful exercise to generate discussion on the need to understand and analyse societies.

Collecting Information

For a paralegal to understand the dynamics of the community in which he/she is working and also to plan appropriate programmes, paralegal should develop skills in collecting and analysing information. This skill is also essential for him/her to assist the lawyer by collecting evidence and background information on a case.

Paralegals should be introduced to the three main ways of collecting information about people, groups, and communities. First, there is observation, which is the collection of information by watching and listening. Secondly, there is interviewing, which involves discussion and questioning. Thirdly, there are records and documents, which are the written observations and experiences of other people.

These three methods are often used together in order to give a complete picture of a problem or survey of a community and its needs.

The following points would be of use to a trainer to further elaborate on data gathering:

"For both the newcomer and the resident facilitator there is need for a systematic approach to data gathering through causal discussions, observation, individual and group interviews, as well as interactions with formal and informal leaders. The object of this process is to discover the indicators of community problems, to learn the needs and expectations of various groups or organisations. Paulo Freire has grouped collection of information on any community into six major areas which might be useful for organising a community survey:

1. Family related issues - e.g. sex habits and behaviour, marriage and marital status, child care size of families, beliefs about children, health, housing and shelter, roles of sexes, ages, groups; food and diet, etc .
2. Economy related issues - e.g. the daily activities of various categories, value and use of money and other valuable items, trade and commerce, skills in small or large industries, stage and type of technology, professions and their status, availability and supply of resources, the nature and type of agricultural and food related activities.
3. Leisure time activities -various types of entertainment, when people are free, rest time, ceremonies, games and their significance, types of traditional or modern amusements for various ages and categories of the population.
4. Beliefs- values, superstitions, taboos , religious practices, traditions, rites, customs etc.
5. Politics-Organisation, leadership, decision making, status and influence, structures, meetings and meeting places, formal and informal leaders.
6. Education-level of literacy, formal and informal types of education and training, child upbringing, aspirations of youth, professionalization, proficiency in use of various languages.

In collecting this information the facilitator needs to build a climate of acceptance and avoid asking embarrassing questions, being noisy or suspiciously prying into community affairs. He needs to gain sensitivity so that he does not alienate respondents. He needs to explain the reasons for getting any information and to explain how it will be used in planning activities and projects for the benefit of the community. Enlisting the support or assistance or being accompanied by a member of the community (especially and influential one) will help to make the community more responsive."¹⁰

Trainers could be asked to prepare a questionnaire as well as conduct a survey as part of the training programme.

NEGOTIATION

Paralegal workers will often be involved in a variety of situations requiring skills in negotiations. These may include domestic disputes, inter-community problems, labour-management conflicts and numerous other areas. For the paralegal to act as an effective facilitator in these problems, he must have a comprehensive understanding of the negotiating process. He must be able to analyze the participants, the positions taken, the power relations involved in determining his negotiating tactics and arriving at an equitable solution.¹¹

The discussion on the need to develop negotiating and mediating skills could be introduced through a role play involving a dispute. For example two persons among the trainees could be chosen and asked to aid the role of a lawyer and client respectively. They should aid out the scene depicting the dispute concerning the unwillingness of the client to pay the lawyer for being incompetent in dealing with the litigation. Also the lawyer refusing to part with the case documents unless he is paid.

A discussion should be conducted on the nature of the dispute and the manner in which it was dealt with by the lawyer and the client.

At the end of the discussion on the role play, the following point could be introduced to trainees. Principled negotiation on negotiation on merits can be boiled down to four points.¹²

- 1) The necessity to separate the people from the problem - The negotiator must not personalize the problem but must adopt an attitude of detachment and objectivity. Thus there are always two kinds of interests at play, that of the substance of the negotiation as well as the relationship involved.
- 2) The need to focus on interests, not positions. Interests define the problem. For a successful negotiation, one reconciles interests and not position. Without getting entangled in each others positions, try to get to the problem (each sides concerns, fears, and wants). Realize that there are often areas where interests can meet, even through ones positions may be oppositional.
- 3) The importance of generating a variety of possibilities before making decisions. This will increase chances of a solution and provide other alternatives if an initial choice has not worked. Moreover it may result in a choice acceptable to all parties.
- 4) Insist that the result be based on an objective standard. One must try to avoid the negotiation process becoming a test of wills, where one side must back down. By insisting on the negotiation being based on an independent criteria the chances of success are more likely.

The trainees could be provided with the following points to enable them diagnose and deal with conflict situations.

Diagnosis. There are many things to consider in seeking solutions to conflict. The main one is to try to discover what must be accomplished for both parties to feel that their needs are being met. Try to sort out the real disagreements from the perceptual disagreements (i.e., differences which parties believe exist because they are based on unfounded assumptions about the other party or about the situation).

The following variables may be helpful in sorting out what kind of problem exists.

1. The characteristics of the parties in conflict. What are their values and objectives? What resources (information, group support, self esteem) do they have for waging or resolving conflict? What are their approaches to conflict?
2. Their prior relationship to one another. What has gone on between them in the past (earlier in this meeting, before the meeting)? What are their attitudes and expectations about each other? What does each think that the other thinks about him or her?
3. The nature of the issue(s) giving rise to the conflict. How does each party see the issue? What effect will "winning" or "losing" the conflict have on each party? Does either party have traditions or beliefs that depend on the conflict?
4. The group environment in which the conflict occurs. What interest do others in the group have in the conflict and its outcome? Does the situation promote or discourage conflict? Are there group norms or influences which tend to regulate the conflict? Do other group members show irritation or boredom?
5. The strategy and tactics employed by the parties in conflict. Are rewarding or punishing tactics stressed? What threats are voiced and how are they backed up. How legitimate are the two parties to each other? How open and accurate is communication between them?
6. What time restrictions are affecting the conflict? Do the parties perceive plenty of time in which to wage the conflict, or are they under pressure to stop using group time for the disagreement?¹⁴

The exercise 'Broken square' on cooperation game referred to in the section dealing with group dynamics could also be used for generating discussion on conflict versus co-operation and how to mediate or negotiate.

In a training programme only some of the basic concepts underlying skills required for mediating and negotiating could be introduced and they should be upgraded through refresher courses, on-job training etc.,

Indeed, such follow-up training is required for all the topics so far introduced. Also it may be helpful to identify trainees who may want to pursue indepth a particular subject. For example some may be more interested on skilled in communication techniques. Such identification would be helpful for planning refresher and follow-up courses.

The subjects draft above are only suggestive and trainers/organisations may want to introduce other subjects relevant to the objective of their training programme. However, what is stressed here is that a paralegal training programme should not be restricted to providing information on laws but should include subjects discussed in the previous sections.

IMPARTING KNOWLEDGE ON LAWS AND LEGAL PROCEDURES

Normally, trainers find it difficult to impart knowledge on laws in an interesting and stimulating manner. To begin with laws are written in difficult language and lawyers who are called to provide information on laws tend to do it in a formal manner. As a result the sessions dealing with laws are very often dominated by dull and long lectures by lawyers.

Therefore, efforts should be made to simplify the language and also use creative methods to impart knowledge on laws.

IDENTIFICATION OF EXISTING RESOURCE MATERIALS:

As part of planning a training programme for paralegals trainers/training organisations should identify existing resource materials (booklets, pamphlets, Cartoon stories) that deal with laws and which could be used in a training programme.

For example in South Africa, Organisations that are engaged in training paralegals identified in a seminar existing resources and areas needing new resources or updated/improved resources.¹⁵ Including where they could be obtained from.

For example following are resources identified by them under the topic 'Land and Housing'. Including from which organisation they are available from.

- * 'Farmworkers and the Law: Part 2' - Deals with land laws, employees and their dependents, tenants, servitude holders, occupiers and rights of farm workers to land, housing, animals etc. Available from Black Sash Organisation.
- * Training Manual on Housing Law: Deals with state authorities concerned with housing, rent, permits, leasehold and the Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act. Available from Legal Resources Centre Advice Office (LRCAO)
- * General information on Land Acts is contained in Manual prepared by the Legal Resource Centre Durban.
- * Case studies on homelessness available from Black Sash Organisation.

The organisations have also identified areas needing resources under various topics. For example under 'Land and Housing' they have identified among others the following areas:

- * General update on changes in laws relating to land and housing
- * Evictions
- * Rent control
- * Housing Defects/Contracts
- * Tenant rights
- * Land claims

USE OF CREATIVE METHODS TO INTRODUCE LAWS

Language

As we stated previously, very often trainees find it difficult to follow sessions that deal with law and legal procedures due to the complex language used by the trainers. To deal with this problem, trainers should try and avoid difficult legal language or Should find ways of explaining them in a way that is easily understood.

For example instead of using the word 'affidavit', it could be explained by saying that it is 'a written statement which you swear is the truth'.

Indeed, Legal Education Action Project, an organisation based in South Africa, engaged in paralegal training has prepared a booklet entitled a 'Legal Dictionary for Paralegals' which explains in simple terms complicated legal word.

Trainers while preparing for a session or course on legal matters should in advance simplify legal terms that would be used by them in a session. For example while preparing for a session on civil law, all the legal terms related to that session should be simplified and if possible written and displayed. Therefore, it is essential that sufficient time is allotted for simplification of legal terms during the preparatory stages of a training programme.

IDENTIFICATION OF FOCAL QUESTIONS

In order to simplify the presentation of laws and legal procedures, it may be helpful to breakdown the main theme into a series of focal questions.

For example to introduce laws dealing with 'Entry', 'Search' and 'Seizure' and how to ensure that rights are not violated by law enforcement officials, the following focal questions could be asked.

- * What does 'Entry', 'Search' and 'Seizure' mean?
- * What laws give the power to Enter, Search and Seize?
- * What are your rights when your office or home is raided?¹⁶

Each of these questions could be elaborated by using a training method. For example a role play could be enacted depicting a raid and followed by presentation of the law and the safeguards to protect the rights

ILLUSTRATIONS OF CREATIVE USE OF METHODS TO INTRODUCE LAWS

In the following pages we illustrate how different methods could be used for introducing various aspects of law and legal procedures.

Based on these illustrations trainees could develop curriculum for different types of paralegal training programmes.

ILLUSTRATIONS

1. TO INTRODUCE AGRARIAN REFORM LAW

I. CONCEPT OF AGRARIAN REFORM

- A. QUESTIONS Why must there be agrarian reform?
 What is the agrarian reform the farmers need?
 What is the concept of agrarian reform under the law?
- B. METHOD (1) Participants are asked to list down what they understand by the term "agrarian reform" (for example: ownership of farmland, justice to the farmer)
- (2) The main points brought out are then summarised and listed down on a sheet of large paper, which is displayed to them
- (3) Besides this is then written(or posted) The concept as it seen under the law (or agrarian reform as provided by law is written beside each of their points, with emphasis on whether it matches or is equivalent to their concepts)
- (4) A question and answer part then follows based on the following questions:
- (a) What are the differences?
 (b) Why are they different (as to each point)?

II. HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF AGRARIAN REFORM LAW

- A. QUESTIONS How did the law develop from pre-colonial days to the present?
- How do we analyse this in terms of its socio-historical background?
- B. METHOD The exercise will focus on the experience of a particular area or community.
- A picture presentation will then follow based on the various agrarian reform laws passed during each stage of the country's history

III. COVERAGE OF LAWS

A. QUESTIONS How do we know which lands are covered or may be acquired under Agrarian Reform?

Can land which is covered later be excluded.

B. METHOD A play shall be presented wherein a landless farmer passes through different lands and tries to acquire it under the agrarian reform law.

He is rejected in each of them for a number of reasons;

it is not covered under the Act or excluded, exempted.

not yet covered under the prioritisation scheme

Finally, he settles on a parcel of land and is so happy, he kisses the soil, only to be told that the government is converting the land into a tourist resort.

The coverage, exclusions, exemptions and prioritisation scheme etc. will be briefly shown in the background all this time, posted on the wall.

The lesson ends with a brief explanation of each.

IV. MODES OF ACQUISITION

A. QUESTIONS What are the different methods by which land can be transferred under agrarian Reform Law?

What is the process of Acquisition

B. METHOD This topic shall be tackled by means of flowcharts (drawing form) and input.

V. REMEDIES

A. QUESTIONS What are the remedies farmers may take under the law?

B. METHOD (1) The participants shall be divided into groups, preferably by area or community.

They shall be asked based on their experience to summarise on a chart the process of a land/agrarian case, from its inception to the various stages of litigation.

Each will then explain their case

- (2) A brief lecture will be made on available remedies and participants would be asked to share their experiences.
- (3) The cases narrated would be referred again and evaluated according to the following question:
 - a. Was the case successful?
 - b. Why or why not?
 - c. What could have been done if it was not successful?¹⁷

2. TO INTRODUCE LABOUR LAWS

This illustration explains how labour laws could be introduced to workers.

1. Brainstorm about problems at work.

Examples of some of the grievances that would emerge.

- a. - Overtime (No choice. but to do)
- b. - Cannot take leave when they wish
- c. - Pregnant - not sure when maternity leave begins.
- d. - Did not sign any contract
- e. - Intimidation
- f. - Rude supervisors
- g. - Accidents due to unsafe working environment.
- h. - Division among workers
- i. - Lower wages for women
- j. - Hours of work no regulated.
- k. - Termination without due process.

2. Facilitator classifies the problems according to the Labour Act

- a. Contract of Service
- b. Termination of Contract
- c. Payment of wages
- d. Employment of women
- e. Children and Young persons
- f. Domestic servants
- g. Rest days/ hours/ holidays/ leave
- h. Maternity protection
- i. Lay off benefits
- j. Others

3. Divide them into small groups for detail discussion on the 3 different Sections of the Act to find out what they know, believe, the true situation at their place of work.

- Facilitator should provide them relevant questions on each section.
- For example overtime work. How many times in a month they do overtime and what is the pay for overtime?

4. Reporting by the groups.

5. Facilitator presents the position of the law on these sections and provides clarification on what they do/do not know

6. This would be followed by providing information on Procedure and Penalties for non implementation of the Act. Including information on complaint procedures under the Act. Could also include remedies available at the international level.

3. TO INTRODUCE HUMAN RIGHTS CONCEPTS

I. CONCEPT OF BASIC HUMAN RIGHTS

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| A. QUESTIONS | What are Human Rights?
What are the different kinds of rights and their inter relationship? |
| B. METHOD | Participants are shown a chair and asked if it remains a chair as each part is taken away (For example: Backrest, Leg, etc...) Finally, the seat is taken away and the same question is posed. Discussion follows. |

II. INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP RIGHTS

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| A. QUESTIONS | What are various individual and group rights? |
| B. METHOD | Participants draw lots containing various rights.
They enact by pantomime the right chosen.
The rest guess. |

III. SUMMING UP

4. TO INTRODUCE BASIC STRUCTURE OF THE STATE (SEPARATION OF POWERS BETWEEN LEGISLATURE, EXECUTIVE AND THE JUDICIARY)

Role Play to be used. Participants to be divided into four groups to represent three branches of the state and a disadvantaged group. Detailed description of the roles to be played by each group should be given. The interaction between the group could be based on actual event. If necessary interesting elements like staging a coup or imposition of emergency etc. could also be incorporated into the dynamics of the role play.

5. TO INTRODUCE COURT STRUCTURES

Case study could be used. A case study based on an actual case that had originated at the lower court and had reached superior courts could be given for discussion. The discussion should highlight the hierarchy of courts and their jurisdiction. In addition, participants could be taken to visit courts situated close to the venue of the training programme and explained where these courts stand in the overall hierarchy.

6. TO INTRODUCE DISCUSSION ON A BILL OR NEW LAW

- (a) Briefly give the context of the new law or Bill, if possible by relating it to a event or experience that participants are familiar with.
- (b) Explain what the law says.
- (c) Allow for people to ask questions.
- (d) Give (or facilitate discussion on) arguments for it.
- (e) Give (or facilitate discussion on) arguments against it.
- (f) End up by leading into a discussion on how it will work practically, how it will affect people, possible campaigns around it etc.¹⁸

In addition participants could also be asked to write their own version of the law and asked to compare it with the official version.

7. TO INTRODUCE LEGAL REMEDIES AVAILABLE

Jig-Saw Puzzle. A problem to be identified and a jig-saw puzzle prepared with various steps involved in seeking legal remedies. The participants should be asked to complete the puzzle.

8. TO INTRODUCE EVIDENCE GIVING OR TO FACE INTERROGATION

Drama or Role Play could be enacted if possible based on a real life experience. The same could be done for generating discussion on arrests, searches, and forced removal or eviction.

PART III

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

All paralegal training programme should include sessions to evaluate the training provided as well as impart the necessary knowledge and skills to the trainees to evaluate and monitor their work.

This section deals with evaluation of training programmes as well as evaluation of paralegals work in the community.

1. SOME IDEAS ON EVALUATING A TRAINING PROGRAMME

Evaluation occurs through out a training programme. The following Question will help evaluate a training programme.

- * During the training seasons. Is the learning of skills and the availability of resources going as planned?
- * At the end of the programme. Can all the trainees practice the skills they have been taught?
- * After the programme. Are the trainees able to put their new skills to use in the community?
- * Are there changes in the community?

Who evaluates Training and what do they consider?

Trainees evaluate

Convenience of training dates, duration, housing, and so forth.
Relevance of curriculum too interests and perceived needs.
Appropriateness of learning methods.
Their own individual progress towards learning objectives

Trainers evaluate

Relevance of content to trainee needs.
Relevance of methods to trainee learning capacities.
Progress towards course objectives.
Appropriateness of training materials.
Progress of individual trainees.

Adequacy of logistical arrangements.
Reaction of trainees and community residents to training.

Training designers evaluate

Adherence of courses(methods, content, and so forth) to plans and standards. Performance of individual trainers.

Appropriateness of content and methods to trainee needs and capacities. Appropriateness of training to field conditions and job requirements.

HOW CAN IMPACT OF TRAINING BE ESTIMATED?

Type of Evaluation	Description	Specific Question
A priori	Evaluation of training plans	Should workers be trained? Are projected costs reasonable, given other programme priorities?
Process	Comparison of training methods and content with standards	Were trainees taught the rights skills? Were participatory and practical techniques used appropriately? Were trainers adequately trained?
Output	Evaluation of trainee knowledge, attitudes and skills at close of training	Did trainees learn material covered during the course?
Retention	Posttraining assessment of knowledge and skills (material covered during course only)	Do workers remember what they learned?
Performance	Assessment of ability to respond to critical problems (as determined by professionals or by community residents)	Was training appropriate for field needs? Are workers performing as communities wish them to?

Evaluation systems, like other programme elements, need to be regularly evaluated and revised in order to maximize their effectiveness.

Type of instruments

An evaluation instrument is a data-gathering device administered at the appropriate stages. Instruments may come in a variety of forms and are usually divided into the following categories:

- * Questionnaires
- * Attitude surveys
- * Tests
- * Interviews
- * Observations

A model questionnaire is given in appendix.

2. MONITORING OR EVALUATING PARALEGALS WORK IN THE COMMUNITY

The various aspects of a paralegals work in a community could be analysed by using what is known as CIPP Evaluation Model.¹ CIPP stands for context, Inputs, process and product.

Context project

The will include the social, economic physical, political, cultural situation in which the group or project functions. The effects of these conditions in helping or hindering implementation of plans should be assessed.

Input

All that enters the project e.g. participants, materials, funds, trainers, all other resources. What is their quantity, quality or conditions for obtaining them? Are they suitable, adequate or inadequate? What are the effects of quality or quantity on project implementation and outcomes?

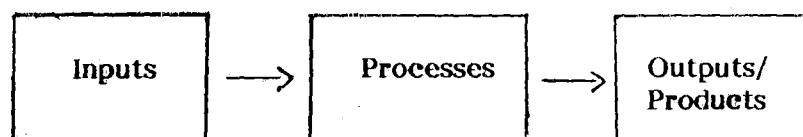
Process

Analysis of this aspect will involve an examination of treatment, actions taken, all things done e.g. training approaches, teaching methods, leadership styles, learning methods, organisations, planning etc. How are these processes carried out? What problems are encountered? How are they solved? What monitoring and evaluation is done, by whom? Why For example the following income generating activities might be considered - production, marketing, publicity, distribution, organisation, planning, management and monitoring.

Product or outputs

This concerns assessment of the level of satisfaction with the final product; the services given, outcomes and effects of project or actions, impact of actions on participants and general community. In the case of income-generating activities it is important to evaluate the quality, the designs, the numbers of items produced customer satisfaction and cost of production and marketing.

The CIPP Evaluation Model



CONTEXT

Following are some useful points that could be imparted to paralegal trainees:

Steps in preparing for evaluation

1. Decide what work will be evaluated.
2. Determine who from the group will be involved in the evaluation. Why and how will they be involved?
3. Identify what the group wants to learn about its work. What are the key questions you want the evaluation to address?
4. Look at ways your group already collects information about its work and keeps track of the work it's doing. Will the information you collect or record enable you to answer the questions you have about how your group's work is going? Is there additional information you need to answer those questions? How can you collect that information?
5. Summarize what you've decided so far, include any questions or concerns you have.
6. Decide whether you need outside help from a consultant experienced in evaluation or data collection, etc. Clarify what kind of help you want, what question you want to ask a consultant.
7. Estimate what the cost of evaluation may be.
8. Identify possible use of the evaluation results.
9. Revise the summary of decisions your group has made to include costs, uses of evaluation results and any advice you've received from a consultant.

There are five questions to consider in preparing for evaluation:

- * What work will be evaluated?
- * Who should be involved in the evaluation?
- * What does the group itself want to learn from the evaluation?
- * How can evaluation data be collected to meet the group's evaluation needs?
- * What is needed to proceed with the evaluation process?

A sample outline of an evaluation report

- * 1 Introduction to the project

Describe:

- a. how project was conceived and conceptualised, funded
- b. what project goals and objectives were
- c. who was involved
- d. project structures

* 2 Description of evaluation methodology

Describe:

- a. evaluation approach used and why it was chosen
- b. evaluation goals and objectives
- c. how evaluator was selected
- d. how instruments were designed and implemented
- e. how successfully the instruments chosen met the goals
- f. any limitations of the methodology to the work
- g. how (if interviewing was done) people were selected to be interviewed, who did interviewing, number of people interviewed, the range they represent

* 3 Analysis of evaluation results

- a. outline objectives for each phase of the project
- b. note the results from the data collected
- c. make focus clear and be precise about what was assessed
- d. describe how conclusions have been drawn from the data
- e. present numbers where necessary
- f. in examining the answers to the evaluative questions look for patterns of response-note and explain both similarities and differences in those response patterns and relate them to the project framework
- g. do not try to cover every aspect of everything that everyone wants-pick out patterns, recurrent themes and analyse what these relate to

* 4 Conclusion

- a. conclude with a summary of the work done and how well the goals and objectives were reached
- b. include recommendations for further work or recommendations arising out of the project

In keeping with the philosophy that training and engaging paralegals is to promote alternative self-reliant development and that all process should be participatory in nature-evaluation and monitoring should also be participatory.

A participatory evaluation starts with the perspective and interests of the participants in a group's work as the basis for designing and evaluation which allows the group to assess how well it is meeting its goals and objectives. Participant focused evaluation recognises the knowledge and expertise of those who direct and do the work and those who are the users or targets of the work. It encourages maximum input from the group itself and recognises and deals with the political action and social change orientation common to most women's groups (and other community groups).

Participant focused evaluation, in facilitating the description and documentation of a group's work, provides an opportunity for a group to increase its own and outsiders' understanding of issues and process and of why (as well as what) parts of its work are going well or are problematic. This kind of understanding makes it possible for a group to more readily repeat its successes and correct or avoid

repeating problems and difficulties. Participant focused evaluation is a constructive, respectful and rigorous approach to evaluation that can yield practical information for a group's strategy development and planning.

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I

ASIAN TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR PARA LEGAL TRAINEES THAILAND 7-17 JANUARY 1991

Statement by the participants of the Asian Training Programme for Paralegal Trainers organised by the International Commission of Jurists, Geneva and the Union for Civil Liberty, Thailand. The participants were from India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

The economies of South and South-East Asian countries are primarily dependent on agriculture and the rural poor constitute majority of the population. There is widespread inequality in the distribution of wealth and resources. In most countries the on slaught of industry and modern technology has worsened the existing urban-rural divide.

To attract and sustain foreign investment, some countries have adopted distorted priorities and policies leading to further impoverishment of the disadvantaged sections of society. To provide incentives for multinational companies, some governments even restrict trade union and other rights of workers employed by such companies.

Most of the countries in the region are heavily indebted to multilateral and private financial lending institutions. This debt burden adversely affects budgetary allocations for provisions of basic services. In some instances even the economic policies of the country are influenced by these lending institutions. The poor who constitute the majority of the population in these countries contribute to repayment of the loans even though they have not benefited from such borrowings.

The development policies pursued by most governments in the region have not adequately dealt with the basic problems of the deprived sections of society. Unemployment and underemployment is wide spread in most countries. In rural areas provision of basic services like health, education, housing and sanitation are grossly inadequate. Health services are urban oriented and higher education is affordable only by the affluent sections of society. Moreover, there is a growing tendency to privatise provision of such basic services. By and large development is urban-centered and encourages consumerist culture.

The development policies pursued by most governments have also contributed to environmental degradation and ecological imbalance. Destruction of the environment has further eroded the resource base of rural communities, in particular, that of the indigenous population, more often leading to total destruction of their culture and livelihood.

The development policies have also not taken into account the plight of women and children. In most countries, the women continue to be discriminated against in various forms and their status remains low. This applies in particular to rural women. In some countries women are also subjected to physical and mental violence. Trafficking and sexual exploitation of women, including sex - tourism is tolerated by some governments in the name of economic development.

In some countries policies adopted by the respective governments have further aggravated the existing divisions and tensions among racial, ethnic, religious and caste groups. Such conflicts have resulted in violence and counterviolence by the state and non-state entities leading to break down of rule of law. Moreover, there is a growing trend of militarisation and corresponding use of excessive force to suppress even legitimate dissent.

In the countries of the region, by and large, political power is wielded by the economically dominant sections of society. Moreover, the rural poor and other disadvantaged sections of society are deprived of their legitimate political role.

The elite of the countries in the region use law and the legal process to further their economic interests and to retain their political dominance. Very often, law is used as a tool of oppression.

In short there exists large scale violation of political as well as economic, social and cultural rights of the rural poor and other disadvantaged groups.

Therefore, there is an urgent need to redress the present situation prevailing in the south and South-East Asian countries by means of a radical option for the poor. Efforts should be directed at using law creatively to empower the poor and the disadvantaged so as to enable them to assert their rights. The Empowerment would lead to a change of development policies and make it more responsive to their needs - sum a charge in the development model would necessarily involve change in the political and legal system.

Empowerment of the rural poor and other disadvantaged sections cannot be achieved without their mobilisation and organisation. Legal knowledge and awareness of their rights would facilitate their mobilisation and organisation.

There is a need to develop alternative law and procedures which could be used by the disadvantaged sections to transform their present situation. The legal profession and the judiciary should develop such laws, procedures and jurisprudence to make the legal system responsive to the needs of disadvantaged sections. Bar Associations should play an active role in sensitising their members to perform this social role.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

ENABLING LEADERSHIP participation	CONSULTATIVE LEADERSHIP security	AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP survival	
<p>Leader Calls on Members to Identify Limits, Explore Situation, Make Decision</p>	<p>Leader Defines Limits, Calls on Members to Make Decision</p>	<p>Leader Presents Decision & Invites Questions of Clarification</p>	<p>Leader announces his decision, but responds on an impromptu basis with a rationale based on the questions of clarification from the members. (Dialogue with no expressed willingness to change decision.)</p>
<p>Leader Shares any "givens" (e.g., funds available, time parameters, etc.) and facilitates a decision by members on basis of limitations.</p>	<p>Leader Calls on Members to Make Decision, but Holds Veto</p>	<p>Leader Presents Decision but "Sells" It to Members</p>	<p>Leader announces his decision and shares the reasons behind it, which were prepared in advance. (Monologue)</p>
	<p>Leader Presents Situation, Gets Input, Makes Decision</p>	<p>Leader Makes Decision and Announces It</p>	<p>Leader announces his decision with no feeling of responsibility or accountability to share the reasons.</p>
	<p>Leader Announces his "tentative" decision and announces that he is open to questions of clarification and discussion. (Dialogue with willingness to change decision if necessary.)</p>		
	<p>Leader identifies situation or problem and moves into a facilitating role to surface assumptions and suggestions, then moves out of facilitating role and makes a decision.</p>		
	<p>Leader calls on group to identify situation and limitations, explore and make decision contingent on leader's veto power.</p>		

APPENDIX II

APPENDIX II

EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

General Evaluation

1. The following objectives were stated for the program. To what extent did the program achieve its objectives ?

	Completely successful	Generally successful	Limited success	Failed
A. To improve your understanding about the nature, requirements and responsibilities of a paralegal	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. To increase your knowledge of basic paralegals work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. To develop skills to successfully conduct the most common meetings and discussions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. To increase your effectiveness as a leader through a better understanding of community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. To improve your knowledge of laws with which you must work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F. To enhance your knowledge of how the courts and government department functions and the services available	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. If you wish to explain any of the above ratings, please do so.

3. What was your overall reaction to this program ?

Excellent

☐

Better than expected

☐

Satisfactory

☐

Below Average

☐

4. Did you feel that the program met your needs as a paralegal ?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No (Please explain)

☐

5. Do you feel that you appreciate more the importance of your job as a paralegal having completed this training ?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No

☐

6. Do you feel that you will be better able to do your job after attending this program ?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No

☐

7. Do you have a better attitude about your job now that you have completed this program?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No

☐

8. Would you recommend that other new paralegals attend this program ?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No

☐

9. Did you think the number of students in the group was :

Just right

☐

Too few

☐

Too many

☐

10. When and how did you first learn that you had been selected to attend this program ?

11 Trainer Evaluation

	Very Effective	Better than Expected	Somewhat Effective	Not Effective
A. Knowledge of subject	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Organisation and Preparation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. Style and Delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. Responsiveness to Participants	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. Creating appropriate learning climate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. Comments about the trainers

Method of Presentation

13. Do you think too many trainers were involved in this program ?

Just right	<input type="checkbox"/>
Too few	<input type="checkbox"/>
Too many	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. How do you rate the balance of lectures, group discussions, and group exercises ?

Too much lecture	<input type="checkbox"/>
Too much discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>
Too many exercises	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good balance	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. How helpful were the group exercises ?

Very helpful

☐

Helpful

☐

Not helpful

☐

16. How did you feel about the pacing of the program ?

Too fast

☐

Just right

☐

Too slow

☐

17. Did you have enough skill practice time ?

Yes

☐

Uncertain

☐

No

☐

Program Content

Please refer to the list of modules for the entire program while answering these questions.

18. What did you like best about the program ?

19. What did you like least about the program ?

20. If any of your attitudes have changed, please indicate what has changed and what part of the program had the most significant impact on bringing about that change.

No change

☐

21. Which module will be most useful to you on your job ?

22. What do you think should be added to the program ?

23. What do you think should be dropped from the program ?

24. Do you rate the program length

Just right

☐

Too short

☐

Too long

☐

25. How well was the program content logically sequenced ?

Very well sequenced

☐

Suitable

☐

Poorly sequenced

☐

26. How valuable was the program content to your current job ?

Very valuable

☐

Some value

☐

No real value

☐

27. How much did the program duplicate what you had learned somewhere else ?

Very much duplication

☐

Some duplication

☐

Very little duplication

☐

28. How do you rate the balance of theoretical and practical material in the program ?

Too theoretical

☐

Good balance

☐

Too practical

☐

29. Which term below do you feel best describes the training input of this program ?

Very difficult

☐

Difficult

☐

Suitable

☐

Easy

☐

Too easy

☐

30. Comments about program content

Training Materials

31. Did you think enough audio-visual aids were used ?

Just right

☐

Too few

☐

Too many

☐

32. How do you rate the quality of the audio-visual aids ?
- High quality ☐
- OK ☐
- Below expectations ☐
33. In your opinion, were the number of handouts you received during the program sufficient?
- Just right ☐
- Too few ☐
- Too many ☐
34. How do you rate the quality of the handout material ?
- High quality ☐
- OK ☐
- Below expectations ☐
35. Was the handout material relevant to the program content ?
- Yes ☐
- Uncertain ☐
- No ☐

Extra Mural Assignments

36. What did you think of the pre-program assignment ?
- Very valuable ☐
- Some value ☐
- No real value ☐
37. What did you think of the evening assignments ?
- Very valuable ☐
- Some value ☐
- No real value ☐

38. How do you rate the difficulty of the assignments ?

Very difficult ☐

Suitable ☐

Easy ☐

39. How do you rate the relevancy of the assignments to the program material?

Very relevant ☐

Suitable ☐

Not relevant ☐

Facilities

40. Did you like the seating arrangement of the classroom ?

Yes ☐

Uncertain ☐

No ☐

41. Did you think your chair was comfortable ?

Yes ☐

Uncertain ☐

No ☐

42. How do you rate the service (breaks, lunch, etc.) ?

Excellent ☐

Better than expected ☐

Satisfactory ☐

Below average ☐

43. How do you rate the physical classroom environment (temperature, ventilation, lighting, noise, etc.) ?

Excellent ☐

Better than expected ☐

Satisfactory ☐

Below average ☐

44. How do you rate the housing accommodation (if applicable) ?

Excellent ☐

Better than expected ☐

Satisfactory ☐

Below average ☐

Planned Improvements

45. As a result of this program, what do you estimate to be the increase in your personal effectiveness, expressed as a percent ?

_____ %

46. Please indicate what you will do differently on the job as a result of this program (please be specific):

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

NOTES

Chapter 1

1. Preface to the workshop on Paralegal Trainers, Sri Lanka, 7-14 March 1991, organised by the Law and Society Trust, Sri Lanka and the International Commission of Jurists, Geneva.
2. Hector Soliman; The Practice, Problems and Prospects of Alternative Lawyering in the Philippines; alternative Law Forum; Vol.vi, No. 2; Second Quarter 1990; Philippines.
3. The Tribune - A women and Development Quarterly; Newsletter 45; July 1990; New York; U.S.A.
4. Guidelines on Upgrading the Legal Status of Women, UN/ESCAP, 1989. p .15. Quoted in ibid.

Chapter 2

1. D.N. Nturibi - Adapted from - From The Field - World Education, New York, 1980. Taken from Planning and Management of community Projects; IPPF Africa Region; Nairobi; 1983.

Chapter 3

1. Descriptions of various methods were adopted from: Nutrition Education Series; Issue 10; UNESCO; 1984; The Tribune; No.29; 4th Quarter 1984; New York; And Education for Health; WHO; Geneva; 1988

PART II

A Training Programme Process

1. See note 1 Chapter 2
2. Working for Justice: The role of paralegals in South-Africa; Legal Education Action Project; Capetown; December 1990.
3. See note 1
4. See note 1, Chapter 1
5. See note 1, Chapter 2
6. As explained in 'Resource Manual for a Living Revolution'; Virginia Coover et al; New Society Publishers; Philadelphia; 1985
7. See note 1, chapter 1
8. See note 1, Chapter 2
9. Ibid
10. See note 5
11. Ibid
12. See note 1, Chapter 1
13. Getting to yes: Negotiating Agreement without giving in; Fisher and Ury; Hutchinson; London; 1981.

14. A Manual for group facilitators; The Center for Conflict Resolution; Madison; Wisconsin; U.S.A.; 1977.
15. See note 2 Chapter on Training Programme Process
16. Adopted from Police Powers - Part 3; A booklet of the Legal Education and Action Project (LEAP); Cape Town; South Africa; 1989.
17. This was prepared by the Philippine participants at the ICJ/UCL Training Programme for Paralegal Trainers; Thailand; January 1991.
18. See note 2, Training Programm Process

PART III

Monitoring and Evaluation

1. Adopted from Planning and Management of Community Projects (See note 1 of Chapter 2)
2. Taken from An Evaluation Guide for Women's Groups; Women's Research Centre; Vancouver; 1986.