

Section 3



Conducting EE&C Activities

Chapter 10

Building Capacity through Training

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Training is a key element of many GreenCOM projects. The trainees may vary from teachers to policymakers to project staff. But in every case, training involves some type of professional development to support a change in practice. Changing practices imply a change in behavior. As stated in Chapter 2, behavior change is more likely in a supportive environment. Successful training programs, therefore, include ways to change the culture, climate, and reward system. They also provide positive reinforcement for the new behavior.

A good training program can be a key element in larger efforts to share information or change behavior. Teacher training can lead to the acceptance and use of a new curriculum about the environment. Journalist training can result in more articles in the public media on environmental issues. Training in desktop publishing can lead to the publication of regular newsletters and attractive materials. In every case the training provides a supportive foundation for new behaviors that are instrumental in achieving societal change.

TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Although any educational activity that passes information from one to another may constitute “training,” the workplace context of professional skill training developed when master craftsmen trained apprentices in the skills of their trade. By watching, copying, and then working with guidance, youngsters eventually became adept at new skills through practice. The apprenticeship strategy changed by necessity during the Industrial Revolution when large groups of laborers needed to learn

new skills quickly. In these industries, work-force training undertaken by the management continued to follow the traditional “show, tell, do, check” format. Over the decades training has evolved into a more flexible enterprise that is more akin to professional development (Miller, 1987).

In many parts of the world, “training” and “professional development” are two terms for the same concept. The term “professional development” refers to a process through which individuals increase their knowledge and understanding and improve their skills, to perform better in their current positions. Learners have an opportunity to develop their own solutions to problems. They are given leeway to translate the information into their own situation. Echoing tenets of adult education and a philosophy of participation, this type of training is ideal for EE&C programs.

DESIGNING TRAINING FOR THE ADULT LEARNER

The three perspectives described below can be used to design a training program.

Adult Education

Educators who work with adults have developed the following list of characteristics of adult learners that can help trainers think about who will attend the program (Braus and Monroe, 1994):

Adult learners:

- ◆ Expect to be treated with respect and recognition
- ◆ Need the support of their peers in their learning
- ◆ Want practical solutions to real-life problems

Training provides a supportive foundation for new behaviors that are instrumental in achieving societal change.

- ◆ Can reflect on, analyze, and share their own experiences
- ◆ Can be motivated by the possibility of fulfilling their personal needs and aspirations
- ◆ Are capable of making their own decisions and taking charge of their own development.

Trainers should expect their participants to be competent, interested, motivated individuals who may have as much to say as the leaders. Furthermore, not only are the participants skilled and knowledgeable, they may want to share their experiences and learn from the experiences of their colleagues. This exchange of information can be a key part of a training program. Creating an atmosphere that is conducive to helpful, informative, equitable exchange is the responsibility of the trainer.

Cognition

From a different professional perspective, cognitive psychologists might approach the task of professional development by considering how the human brain processes information. Their training program might be designed with the following principles in mind:

- ◆ People learn new information as it relates to what they already know.
- ◆ Practicing, applying, and discussing information helps create flexible mental models.
- ◆ Stories, examples, and role models help bridge the unknown.

The presentation of new information should be carefully orchestrated to resonate with learners and remind them of related concepts they already know. Establishing effective relationships helps insure the new information will be stored and recalled appropriately. One easy way to accomplish this feat is to make sure participants talk about their experiences and what they know.

New information can be presented through examples, models, case studies, analogies, stories, and other teaching methods that help learners build appropriate and functional mental models. By considering these techniques, the initial doctrine

of “let people talk” is farther refined into “engage people” in considering the real application of the new information. Such activities allow participants to work with and use the information, arriving at a more thorough and complete understanding of the concepts through this process.

Behavior Change

And finally, social psychologists who study behavior change would remind us that professional development is really behavior change—a process of suggesting and encouraging professionals to use new or adapted skills in their work. The following ideas may be important for a training program to consider from this perspective:

- ◆ Behaviors are based, in part, on the knowledge people have about the issue, about how to perform the new skill or behavior, and about the consequences of performing this behavior.
- ◆ People have relevant attitudes about the importance of this behavior in solving the problem, their ability to perform the behavior adequately, and the likelihood of their action in making a difference.
- ◆ A host of real and perceived barriers may stand in the way of the performance of this behavior.
- ◆ A variety of extrinsic motivators (policies, resources, legal threats, time inconvenience, etc.) and intrinsic motivators (building community, self-assurance, feeling frugal, etc.) may work to prevent or encourage this behavior.
- ◆ People care about what others think about the issue, the behavior, and their performance of this behavior; social norms are important.

Most training programs include knowledge and deliver that information in a way that motivates and through which positive attitudes are shared. But good training programs are designed to affect more components of the affective domain. Attitudes about competence, the ability to perform skills, and the perceptions of barriers to this behavior can also be shaped. Educators should consider

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the ways social norms can be supported or changed by using models, stories, opinion leaders, and shaping a community of like-minded participants into their own norm-producing group.

A COMPOSITE MODEL

These three perspectives provide relevant and overlapping suggestions. Because adults come to training programs with specific needs in mind, with a variety of relevant experiences, and with competing interests and demands, adult training should be different than an education program for youngsters. Because humans are information-processing organisms, it helps to think about how to best convey information so that it can be remembered and used. Because the goal of professional development is ultimately some type of change in behavior, a training program should be designed to reduce perceived barriers and support those indicators that are likely to produce a change.

Workshop facilitators can learn from each training experience and improve future programs through an evaluation program. Successful training programs include materials for supervisors and strategies to provide on-going support. The characteristics of adult learners and guidelines from other fields above can be translated into a model of training for facilitators:

1. Training programs should focus on the work-related issues that participants care about.
2. Participants should be involved in discussing ideas and sharing experiences during the training program.
3. Where possible and appropriate, participants should be engaged in practice.
4. Training programs should provide some choice and flexibility in the schedule.
5. Training programs should include opportunities for participants to record reactions and suggestions for improvements and measure program outcomes.
6. Training programs should consider the supervisors, the reward structure, and strategies to provide on-going support.

As simple as this list might sound, it contains profound suggestions. It is easy for a program manager to fill a training program with a lot of information that people ought to have. But a good trainer will carefully screen this information, assemble a variety of activities and discussion times for participants to use and adapt this information, and design a training program that achieves much more than sharing information. Participants should be able and willing to use that information to improve their work. All this can be achieved by using or adapting the following suggestions.

Focus on Relevant Work-related Issues

The topic, goal, and objectives of a professional development program should relate to the work of the participants. To discover what aspects of their work are most bothersome, interesting, or critical, conduct a needs assessment or a formative research activity (see Chapters 6 and 7). By surveying or interviewing potential participants or their supervisors, a trainer can develop a program that better targets the audience (see Box 10.1).

Involve Participants in Sharing Their Ideas

It is so important to engage participants in discussions that this aspect of a training program should never be jettisoned in favor of a shorter workshop or providing more information.

Training program planners hope participants will learn and accept new information, remember it, and use it. To help them understand new information and incorporate it into existing mental structures, workshop leaders should provide an opportunity for participants to express their ideas, to “try on” new concepts, and to relate the new information with their own experiences. It may be particularly important for the trainer to hear both what and how the participants’ think about the new information. In addition, a participant’s explanation may be more understandable than the trainer’s.

Organizing discussion groups can help participants get to know each other. This can establish an

BOX 10.1

Designing Relevant Training

The Ministry of the Environment and Natural Resources (MARENA) is responsible for protected area management in Nicaragua. GreenCOM provided training and technical assistance to MARENA in environmental education and communication.

A series of training workshops were developed to reflect the needs expressed by MARENA. These included developing inter-institutional working relationships and specific skills such as the abilities to give an effective talk or presentation, encourage community participation, and develop interpretive materials. The training program was based on the basic aspects of the participants' job responsibilities—being able to define key management issues in the protected areas, developing educational strategies and materials to address them, and educating local community adults and children about these issues. The training program used a combination of presentations, group exercises, participant presentations, group problem solving, and practical application of the new concepts and skills.

The training program was designed to include two week-long intensive training workshops, a guided practicum to apply new skills and work together in groups, technical assistance in the field, and follow-up with each group to encourage the continued application of these skills.

atmosphere of collegiality and trust. Such an achievement can result in increased support and a stronger professional network that operates long after the conclusion of the training program. In some circumstances, it may be necessary to conduct exercises specifically to build a level of communication that allows groups to function. Most trainers establish the tone for the day with an “ice-

breaker” that begins to achieve this goal. A room arrangement that enables participants to see and speak with each other comfortably can help establish the appropriate atmosphere for the program.

Engaging participants in discussions changes the dynamics of the program by changing the focus of attention from the leader to the participants. This allows people to be responsible for their own learning, empowering them with the significant idea that they, too, have important information and ideas to share. This technique can be an effective tool in building competency for tackling a new skill (see Box 10.2).

Practice

While some topics are best discussed, others are best practiced. As suggested by the education theo-

BOX 10.2

Building a Team

Teams do not always form naturally; they must be nurtured. During training workshops in Nicaragua, teamwork was encouraged in a variety of ways. Individuals were identified by team on their nametag, and teams sat together throughout the training. Introductions, presentations, and icebreaker activities were conducted with teams. This practice encouraged leadership within the teams, responsibility among individuals, equitable power-sharing, and participatory decision making.

Each team was made of participants representing different institutions and both genders; activities were conducted to emphasize the importance of listening to everyone, coordinating efforts, and recognizing individual skills and contributions. Many participants commented in their evaluation that they had not realized the importance of team efforts, and while it wasn't always easy, they preferred to continue to practice these strategies in their work.

We all remember much better what we have discovered and said ourselves than what others have told us.

ries of inquiry and discovery learning, when people of any age have an opportunity to physically work with the information or practice a skill, and particularly when the activity is designed so that they discover or reinforce concepts, learning occurs and the training is successful. We all remember much better what we have discovered and said ourselves than what others have told us (Hope and Timmel, 1984).

It is common to ask teachers in teacher-training workshops to participate in activities designed for students. This technique increases the teachers' familiarity with the new materials; it also engages the group and gives it shared experience. If the teachers also critique the activity, discuss how they might use it in their classroom, or analyze different outcomes for the discussion, they are investing in their ownership of the new curriculum. The chance to think with other teachers is often the greatest gift a workshop could give participants (see Box 10.3).

Conducting activities is also an ideal way to practice skills. Instead of simulations or role-playing, where some key elements of the skill may be artificial, use the real world for skill building. Not only are participants discovering and reinforcing concepts, but also they are simulating their work experience in the company and support of professionals they know and trust, with the safety net of trainers. The perceptions of "this is too hard" or "I'll never be able to do this" begin to evaporate as the group works through the activity. Skills that require time, or that should be done at each participant's work site may be embedded in a "practicum" experience, around which two sessions of the training are placed. The second training session then becomes an ideal opportunity to report on successes, compare experiences, and evaluate how the new practice could work better (see Box 10.4).

The purpose of most professional development activities is to change behavior, creating a new norm for that group of professionals. All the barriers that exist for individual behavior change operate at the group level, too. To the extent that a training program can help participants overcome

BOX 10.3

Training Activities

Workshop participants in Nicaragua applied the skills they learned in the training to their work sites, working together to develop environmental communication strategies. Some teams designed a survey, conducted observations, collected data, and interpreted those data at their sites to provide more insight into the management of their protected area. These studies helped participants focus on how local residents interact with the protected area and how their beliefs affect their actions. Participants collected valuable information about the residents' beliefs about water quality or collecting firewood, which added greatly to the development of interpretive messages.

Another practical exercise from the training workshop was drafting an interpretive plan for each protected area that encouraged individual as well as institutional collaboration. The development of these plans and the interpretive materials are monitored and supported by GreenCOM in such a way that the participants' important efforts are recognized.

those barriers, it will be successful. Practicing the new behavior is one way to solidify the new information and supportive attitudes about the change. It also enhances confidence and competence. With support and follow-up activities, participants may be well on their way to a new behavior.

Study tours are another way to physically engage participants while exposing them to new ideas and strategies. A great deal of information can be exchanged when participants actually visit and experience a new site. Prior to planning a new interpretive center at Silliman University, for example, GreenCOM conducted a study tour for four faculty members, allowing them to visit a variety of marine aquaria, nature centers, museums, and zoological parks that offer similar types of collections

BOX 10.4

Guided Practicum

Even though a team works together during the workshop, will they continue to do so on their own? Will they actually apply and practice the skills they learned in the workshop? Will they successfully navigate around obstacles? A guided practicum period between workshop sessions helps provide a structure to assure positive answers to these questions.

During the first training workshop in Nicaragua, each team was given an assignment

to be carried out in their protected area with their new skills. Some time was allotted to discuss the assignment and create an action plan. The assignment was designed to engage each team in practicing the skills of program planning and including other stakeholders in the design of the program. GreenCOM staff visited each team during the practicum to provide technical assistance and motivation.

Evaluations indicate that participants appreciated the structure and assurance provided by

the assignment, the visits, and the follow-up presentation they made in the second training workshop. The assignments turned out to be much more difficult than participants expected, necessitating a considerable time period between workshops for problems to be resolved. The value of the experience was much greater than a simple homework assignment: it reinforced many of the principles from the training and continued to build team relationships and responsibility.

and programs to their proposed facility. The experience engaged them in thinking broadly about the possibilities for the physical facility, the program, the operation, and the long-term funding. The “road trip” helped strengthen friendships and give them a common experience as well (see Box 10.5).

Offer Choices

Although it is helpful to conduct a thorough needs assessment of participants prior to a training program, it is difficult to meet everyone’s needs. By offering concurrent sessions, independent workstations, and choices in the program, two things happen: The participant is empowered to determine his/her own course of action, and the likelihood that something will appeal to everyone is increased.

If the program cannot accommodate concurrent sessions, it may be possible to offer the group a series of simple choices. For example, the time of the first break, the location of the bus pick-up, and the order of the group reports, are decisions that do not affect the program, but give participants a

role in shaping the training to meet their needs (see Box 10.6).

Record Reactions, Seek Suggestions for Improvements, and Measure Outcomes

Evaluation is an important component of every GreenCOM activity. Through evaluation program managers begin to understand what worked and why. This information allows them to replicate their activity successfully, and share tips with others. Training programs offer three distinctly different evaluation opportunities.

Recording Reactions

During a training program and at its conclusion, participants should provide their reactions to the trainers. These three questions should be relatively easy to answer and quite helpful to program organizers:

1. What worked well; what did you like about the training?
2. What has not been helpful; what should be changed?

A training program is only as good as the results.

BOX 10.5

Study Tour Provides New Ideas and Experiences

A select group of Nicaraguan interpreters traveled to the University of Idaho to tour protected areas (i.e., national parks, city parks, private parks, and indigenous reserves) in the northwest U.S. and experience the various types of interpretation in these facilities. This study tour stimulated new ideas, techniques, programs, and materials that may be adapted to Nicaragua. It also helped develop a cohesive network of communication professionals among the group members.

On the trip back, the group visited El Salvador and met Salvadoran professionals who shared a similar study tour experience. The two groups toured protected areas that have developed interpretive strategies adapted from several North American ideas. This study tour and exchange was an important link to building regional expertise in environmental communication.

3. What suggestions do you have for the next training program; what changes should be made?

These questions can be used at the mid-point in the training to enable trainers to make corrections and modify the program as necessary. At the conclusion of the program, participants may take the time to carefully reflect on the advantages and disadvantages of each section of the workshop, and offer their unique perspective. Other questions may be added about the elements that most concern the trainers (e.g., feedback on the trainer's style or clarity, usefulness of materials, or room comfort.)

Seeking Guidance

In keeping with the philosophy of empowering professionals, trainers should also simply seek guidance, suggestions, and helpful advice from par-

ticipants about redesigning the program to best suit their needs. When cultural norms prevent critically thinking about changing a program (either positive or negative), try to design an activity to collect the information. Asking small groups to design the next training program, and providing sessions or questions about the program, could generate a product that translates participants feelings about the program into a new agenda.

Measuring Outcomes

Finally, a training program is only as good as the results. It is important to measure and document the changes in participant's work performance that may be due to the training program. The original training program objectives should be helpful in isolating specific indicators of success that can be measured three to six months after the program (see Box 10.6).

Consider Supervisors, Reward Structures, and Strategies for Ongoing Support

The best training program may generate excited participants, but without a supportive structure when they return to their jobs, it may be impossible to sustain new skills and behaviors. Training programs must carefully consider how individuals will be able to perform differently. Should supervisors be trained along with employees? Should a critical mass of individuals from the same institution participate? What reward and incentive structure exists and can it be altered to reflect the new program?

If the existing structure is well-entrenched, a training program that puts participants at risk should be avoided. Primary teachers in Zimbabwe, for example, found enormous external barriers to teaching problem solving skills instead of the standard curriculum. Parents, administrators, and even students preferred the traditional textbook curriculum which assured a secondary education for successful youth. In such cases, a campaign aimed at parents and education ministers to consider educational reform might be possible. Until then few

BOX 10.6**Evaluating Workshops**

In Nicaragua, GreenCOM used a series of evaluation methods to determine what participants learned and how they applied their new skills. Clear objectives for each session help measure the degree to which participants met these expectations.

Participants completed evaluation forms after each workshop, commenting on the most useful sessions, most practical skills, what they learned, and how they expected to change their work as a result of the training. Logistical and technical details of the workshop were also evaluated on a quantitative scale to rate the quality of technical presentations, practical exercises, food, and lodging during the week.

Evaluation of the guided practicums allowed for self-evaluation as well as of the team. Each participant was asked to rate the difficulty of key tasks during the practicum and then reflect on why s/he thought it was difficult or easy, and the result of their personal and team efforts. In addition, pre- and post-tests allowed GreenCOM to measure specific knowledge gained and the ability to apply this knowledge. These data can be desegregated by team, gender, or institutional affiliation.

teachers will be able to overcome the forces resisting change and may even endanger their job status by pushing for it.

Ministerial approval, administrative support, release time from work, projects relevant to the job site, and funding for supplies and resources are certainly components of a supportive system that can be used to remind participants that their new skills will be rewarded. Training programs that can do more, however, are more likely to be successful. In El Salvador, for example, a training program for journalists was followed by a national award for the top environmental reporter (see Chapter 13).

Such a technique insured participation from the trainees and support from the media outlets. In Tanzania, an ongoing system of training programs offered an opportunity for the same people to reconvene several times over a year to exchange successes and concerns, using each other as a support network. Since many international development programs finish up and close down, they should try to leave behind a skilled base of program participants to carry on the changes (see Box 10.7).

BOX 10.7**El Salvador's National Teacher In-Service Program**

El Salvador's Ministry of Education knew it would take years for the new elementary curriculum to filter through the rural regions and be practiced by current teachers. To increase the likelihood of teachers using the new materials, it selected Master Schools throughout the nation to serve as a hub for 10-20 nearby schools. Ministry officials trained the Master Teachers at a regional in-service, and these teachers returned to their schools to train local teachers. Because the cycle was repeated over several years, master teachers became accustomed to their new role as trainers, and other teachers looked to the Master Schools as local innovators.

SUMMARY

A variety of resources have been developed to help educators, communicators, environmentalists, and others design and conduct training programs. UNESCO's International Environmental Education Programme publishes several manuals for educators, and other international agencies produce guides and technical documents.

A good training program is a targeted professional development experience for the participants.

It builds a climate of trust and encouragement through engaging activities and discussions. It allows participants to explore new concepts and practice skills relevant to their work. It allows participants to make choices about the structure of the program or which skills they will practice. It establishes a supportive network of colleagues who can provide assistance after the training program has concluded and seeks ways to obtain administrative support as well. It is evaluated.

Professional development activities such as training are practical and results-oriented. They fail when they are extremely long-term, when they

are not job-related, when they are not specific in their outcomes, when they are not evaluated, or when they do not take into account strong workplace forces to maintain the status quo.

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Chapter 11

Media Campaigns

Brian A. Day

The media, that collection of opportunities for communicating with the masses, carries tremendous power. In the United States, we have seen television episodes plant seeds of change in a nation's conscience when Maude (a popular character on a prime time show in the 1970s by that name) chose to have an abortion or when Fonzie, a street-smart teenager, got a library card. The American public began to debate the merits of legal abortions and nearly one half million youths rushed to public libraries to get their cards.

We have also seen televised political debates sway public opinion after leading contenders falter. And we have seen powerful advertisements sell cars, toothpaste, and peanut butter. It is no wonder that environmental communicators seek to harness this powerful force aimed at informing and changing public opinion.

But often this power is quite difficult to use effectively. In some cultures, people are bombarded with over 3,000 advertising messages per day. What would make an environmental message stand out among that competition? Furthermore, environmental behavior is often a series of complex actions and opportunities. Is it realistic to expect a short message to make a significant change? Publicly broadcast communications reach the masses, but since the public usually holds a wide variety of beliefs and knowledge about any one environmental topic, it is difficult to reach the right group with relevant information. How can a message be crafted to communicate the right points to the proper audience?

This chapter will explore designing communications campaigns.

WHAT IS A COMMUNICATIONS CAMPAIGN?

Communications campaigns are varied, multifaceted, highly planned, and strategically assembled media symphonies designed to increase awareness, inform, or change behavior in target audiences. There are many forms of public media:

Paid and Public Service Advertisements

For instance, GreenCOM developed a series of six 30-second television and five radio spots on water conservation for Egyptian farmers. The spots were launched with a well-attended news conference where Ministry of Public Works and Water Resources staff expressed their pleasure with the campaign. At the same time, field engineers in the Ministry were given packets of information to support their discussions with farmers, and a press kit was distributed to reporters. Hats, posters, and a calendar for school children helped create a festive atmosphere that kept the serious subject of water conservation alive.

Making News

Many environmental organizations make effective use of "media events" to encourage news reporters to cover their stories. Greenpeace, for example, has climbed smokestacks to hang signs that draw attention to air pollution. Tired of bureaucratic delays, another group wrapped the Toronto City Hall with red tape and had reporters on hand when the first employees came to work. Less confrontational events might include a press conference, a

special lecture, a government hearing, the first showing of an important documentary, or a major announcement of a scientific finding. By themselves, these events can begin to increase awareness. Launched in conjunction with brochures, programs, and other activities, they can be part of a campaign.

Entertainment and Celebrities

The entertainment industry offers highly effective opportunities. GreenCOM worked with a local television producer in the Philippines to adapt a series of daytime drama episodes where popular characters discussed issues. Many advocacy groups, from animal rights to ocean protection, use prominent actors as spokespersons for their causes in newspaper articles, paid advertising, entertainment, and public service announcements. Actress Meryl Streep’s concern about pesticides on apples was orchestrated by the Natural Resources Defense Council in a campaign called “Mothers and Others” that focused attention on pesticide residues on food and the inane but widely shown “Naked Gun 33 1/3,” a movie about government policies for alternative energy sources, was created with support from well-respected environmental policy groups.

A communications campaign may involve a variety of these strategies, or only one. The design of a campaign depends upon the financial resources available to create, field test, and implement the campaign, the goal of the campaign, and to a certain extent, the existing awareness and controversy associated with the issue. Some of the many possibilities for communication channels are listed in Table 11.1).

DEVELOPING A CAMPAIGN

When a decision has been made to use a media campaign to advance an environmental cause, it may seem natural for those closest to the situation to define the main message of the campaign. “One less car,” or “Don’t litter” may come to mind. This is a temptation that must be overcome. Premature efforts to identify the message may lead to missing the needs of the audience. Experts on the issue often know little about the audience. It is crucial to know the audience—to know what they already know about the issue, what they associate it with, how they feel about it—in order to design an effective message. In Egypt for example, officials of the Ministry of Public Works and Water Resource told GreenCOM that they know what messages would get farmers to conserve water. But in a pretest of only 40 people, 39 did not even understand the ministry’s message—let alone find it persuasive.

As with an educational effort or a training program (Chapter 10), the development of a communications campaign should follow a basic process that involves carefully developing a realistic goal, assessing the audience, developing a strategy that uses appropriate media, and, finally, crafting a message that pre-tests successfully with the audience (Chapters 6–8). All of these elements: the goal, the audience, the media, the strategy, and the message, interact with each other to create a successful campaign.

After the campaign is launched, it can be evaluated in several ways: by recording the exposure (number of ads in number of magazines with a circulation of so many people); by surveying people asking them to recall the message; and by observing changes in behavior or the environment that could be attributed, in part, to the campaign (see Chapter 9).

Table 11.1 Sample Communication Channels

Media events	Media releases	Interview shows
Editorials	TV shows	Topical theater
Advertisements	Posters, signs, and banners	Radio soap operas
Flyers and brochures	Comic Books	Pencils
Public service announcements	Manuals	Hats

To select the most effective behaviors, it is necessary to explore what people already know, believe, and care about.

Think of a communications campaign as having four stages (see Box 11.1). In the first stage formative research helps define the goals and the target audiences, as well as the “media diets” of the audiences. In the second stage, the audiences’ the campaign strategy is developed, messages are developed and pre-tested. Third, the campaign is implemented. Finally, the results are evaluated and used to further refine the strategy.

Stage 1: Goal, Audience and Medium

In the first stage, formative research helps define which behaviors the campaign will attempt to change to achieve its broad goals. To select the most effective behaviors it is necessary to explore what people already know, believe, and care about (see Chapter 6). You must understand the difference between those who already perform the desired behavior (“doers”) and those who do not (“non-doers”). Finally, formative research for a communications campaign should explore the media “diet” of our audience. Are they literate? Do they listen to radio? If so, which station(s) and at what time(s)? Do they read any publications regularly? Do they have access to TV, Internet, or other media and do they use it regularly? This information, along with your budget, will help define the strategy and choice of media.

With the goal in mind and information about the “media diet” of the audience in hand, strategic decisions can be made about selecting markets, media, sequence, frequency, and times. These factors form the essence of the campaign. Critical information about funding and how to obtain access to a variety of media opportunities will be needed at this time. Is the effort blessed with a charismatic spokesperson? Is free radio time available? How many newspapers cover the target region and is it possible to advertise in them? Does the audience travel along a particular route frequently, making road signs an option? How often should the message be repeated to achieve your goal? Is it necessary for the campaign to generate more resources to enable you to achieve the goal?

BOX 11.1

Formative Research Changes Campaign Focus

In GreenCOM’s work in Egypt, the Ministry expected us to create a campaign that discussed how farmers could save water. Initial research made clear, however, that some farmers already used conservation techniques, and that others did not believe water needed to be conserved. A carefully crafted initial campaign began by explaining the treaty that limits the amount of water that is available and continued by acknowledging the fine efforts that some farmers employ. A later campaign was more specific and directed toward additional conservation strategies. In this case, formative research indicated that people would not respond well to being told what to do, but first needed to hear support for the positive behaviors already in place.

Stage 2: Message

Finally, the main message of the campaign can be crafted, along with the design of all the media products—comic books, posters, story booklets, radio spots, billboards, etc. A team of creative people should work with the content experts and rely upon the results of the formative research for guidance. The process often requires several revisions before everyone on the team is pleased with the type of illustrations, the flow of the storyline, the wording, the gender implications of the message, and the ultimate action.

The experts are, of course, not the audience, so every element of the campaign should be pretested with the intended audience. This can be done through focus groups, interviews, classrooms, meetings, and other existing networks. But pretesting must be done. There are many examples of media products that were distributed broadly before the organizers realized they were not com-

municating the desired message. For example, Chevrolet neglected to pre-test the name of its compact car in Latin America, only to learn after public embarrassment that Nova, or “no va” means “no go” in Spanish. Translation errors are frequent, even for major advertising firms. Make sure local people, not just experts, are in the pre-test audience. Pre-testing is one of the most important ways to prevent spending money and effort in the wrong direction.

Stage 3: Implementing the Campaign

Implementing a campaign is never easy, but if stages one and two have been done well, implementation should go smoothly.

Stage 4: Monitoring and Evaluation

Evaluation should begin during implementation and be used to make mid-course corrections (see Chapter 9).

THEORETICAL MODELS UNDERLYING CAMPAIGN STRATEGIES

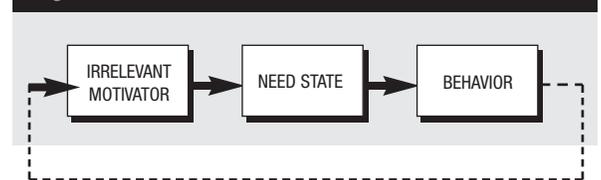
For centuries, educators have assumed that if they provide students with information, that information will lead to new attitudes. They have also assumed that these new attitudes will then lead to new behavior (see Figure 11.1). However, 20th century research shows, what many parents already knew—that the linkages between information and attitudes and, even more importantly, between attitudes and behavior are not strong. This age-old educator’s model is not really very effective at changing behaviors. The biggest gap in human nature is between what we know and what we do!

Figure 11.1 Educator’s Model



When the advertising industry was born in the early 1900s, it found the educator’s model useless in selling products, especially in getting consumers to select their product over similar products. They created a different, effective model that spawned a multi-billion dollar industry (see Figure 11.2).

Figure 11.2 Advertiser’s Model



The advertiser’s model clearly works. However it contains an element that can be unappealing to environmental communicators. Ads usually start with an “attention grabber” that we may think of as an “irrelevant motivator.” (The advertising industry does not use this term.) An irrelevant motivator is something that motivates the consumer to buy the product, but it is not related to the product. This motivator is connected to a “need state” of the potential customer. Some universal human need states are for status, sexual attractiveness, or being a good parent. The advertiser suggests that buying this product (changing your behavior) will fill this need. The examples below demonstrate this model:

- ◆ Automobile manufacturers try to connect the purchase of a specific automobile with status, power, or attractiveness to members of the opposite sex.
- ◆ Toothpaste manufacturers and breath mint makers suggest that the person of our dreams will suddenly show interest in us if we use their product.
- ◆ Cigarette producers try to convince us that their brand will make us “cool,” manly, and worldly.

As powerful as these appeals to human needs states are, a single exposure to an advertisement rarely has much impact on the consumer. Even after they buy the product, consumers may begin to question the link between the product and the need

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state—since in reality of course, there is no link. The new car did not make us rich and powerful. Brushing with Crest or Pepsodent did not get us a date. Lifesavers or Certs did not save our social life. Social researchers call this state “cognitive dissonance.” The consumer is performing a behavior (*buying Crest*) for a reason that he/she intellectually knows to be untrue (*It will help me get a date*). This is an uncomfortable state that most humans will seek to resolve so that their actions are in line with their beliefs and knowledge.

One way to resolve the situation is to keep listening to the original message for reassurance that you are doing the right thing. Thus advertisers typically repeat their message endlessly not only to attract new customers, but also to reassure current customers. This repetition creates a direct relationship in our minds between the product and the fulfillment of our needs. In fact most advertising is aimed at customers who have already made the decision to buy the product and is intended to reinforce that decision.

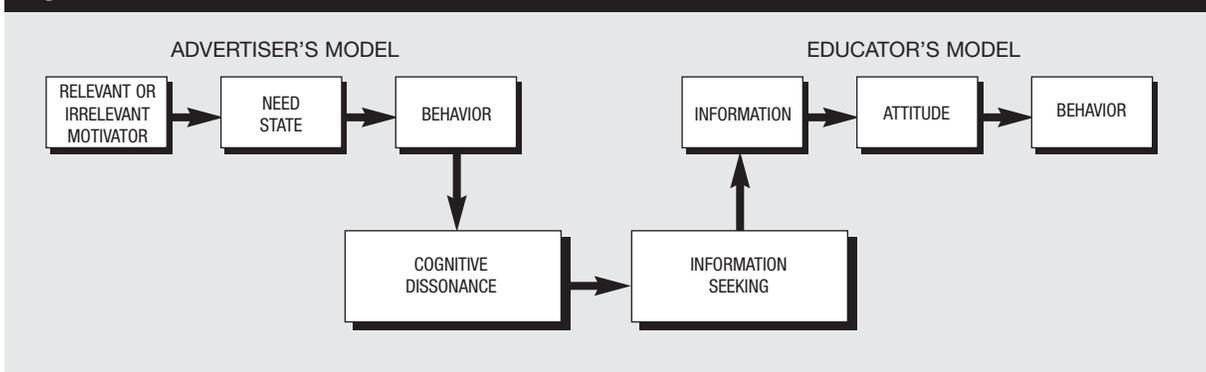
An Environmental Communications Model

Dr. Peter Sandman, a noted environmental communicator, developed a third model in the 1970s that combines the educational and advertising models (see Figure 11.3). Sandman’s model follows the advertiser’s model except that almost all envi-

ronmental messages can use a relevant motivator that addresses a need state to get people to perform an initial small behavior. Performing this behavior still induces some cognitive dissonance, as it does in the advertising model. For example, those of us who have circulated petitions know that it is better to ask people to sign quickly and *then* listen to the good reasons for supporting the cause. Once someone signs his or her name to a statement, he/she starts to question “Should I have done this? How will my name be used? Who is really behind this? Did I read it carefully enough?” Another example: children often nag their parents into doing something—such as recycling—that they learned about at school. At first the parent responds to please the child, but later will ask “Why am I really doing this? Is it really worthwhile?”

Here the Sandman model departs from the advertiser’s model. Environmental communicators have something that most advertisers don’t—*good* reasons to continue the behavior that can replace the initial irrelevant reasons. Rather than endlessly repeating the motivational message, environmental communicators can now switch to the real reasons for the behavior by providing information. Why not just provide the information in the first place? Because the audience wasn’t interested in it then. Now they are. They are interested in finding information that will support their new behavior. In fact, they are seeking it in order to resolve the

Figure 11.3 Sandman’s Model



uncomfortable cognitive dissonance they feel at performing a behavior for a not-very-good reason.

Sandman cites research done at the Ann Arbor, Michigan recycling station (in the days before curbside recycling) to explain how this works. Recyclers had to separate their trash and then drop the recyclables off at a recycling station in town—a considerable investment of time. At the station, Recyclers were interviewed about what made them come and how much they knew about recycling. New Recyclers didn't know much and were there for basically irrelevant reasons (e.g., their child nagged them to do it, they wanted neighbors to think well of them in this progressive community, they wanted to meet people like themselves). Long-term Recyclers however, could tell interviewers how many trees were saved by a month's worth of newspapers and how much energy was conserved by recycling glass bottles. They had replaced the irrelevant motivators with relevant reasons to continue the behavior. The Recyclers who did not make this transition to finding good reasons, stopped recycling. The original motivator was not enough to sustain the behavior of recycling. Thus information, delivered at the correct time and in a targeted manner, is crucial to maintaining environmentally friendly behaviors. The best place for Recyclers to get this information would be at the recycling station itself.

This research suggests that creating and maintaining recycling behavior requires two messages to two audiences. The first message contains an irrelevant motivator (or partially relevant) and is aimed at the Ann Arbor population. It might be something like "You meet the nicest people at the Ann Arbor Recycling Station" or show a child reminding a parent, "But Mom, You could recycle that!" The goal of the message is to get people to the recycling station once.

The second message is designed to reinforce the behavior of people who have made the trip to the recycling station. It contains the reasons why they are doing a good thing and builds on the behavioral commitment.

A national recycling campaign in the United States used Sandman's model. First, it encouraged people to call a toll-free number. The initial advertisements ended with the tagline, "If you are not recycling, you are throwing it all away," and an image of a crumpled Earth tossed into a waste bin. The message appeals to Americans' positive attitudes toward the environment and their ethic about not wasting things. The 200,000 people who called received additional information about why recycling was important, where they could take recyclable materials, how to package them, and how to start recycling program by finding local markets. The campaign didn't spend its own resources putting this detailed information out to people who weren't paying attention. The first ad got their attention (based on an emotional motivator) and convinced them to take a simple action. As a result of that action they were given factual information that would support a longer-term behavior change.

Positive attitudes support long-term behavior (see Figure 11.1). Information alone is not enough to support behavior, but information can lead to a change in attitude that can lead to behavior—just as educators have told us it would. But, without a motivator and an initial action to create cognitive dissonance and start the information seeking process, there is nothing to trigger the uptake of the information.

By combining the models of advertisers and educators, environmental communicators can have a bigger impact.

Chapter 12

Putting People into Policy

Raisa Scriabine and Brian A. Day

Good policies are the product of effective policy formulation, articulation, and implementation. As they are implemented policies should be monitored and readjusted to stay on target. Each component can be enhanced with a quality communication program that engages stakeholders, fosters partnerships, and mobilizes a common vision.

Policymakers throughout the world are coming to terms with a new agenda—one that pragmatically brings together concerns about environmental protection with those of economic growth. At issue is how to achieve environmentally sustainable development by meeting today's human needs without compromising the Earth's natural resource base upon which all life depends. But often policy makers focus on only the natural, political, and economic *systems* and leave out the primary actors—the people.

Environmentally sustainable development requires:

- ◆ A healthy political environment, characterized by environmentally aware leaders and greater popular participation in decision making
- ◆ Effective policies, laws, and regulations that empower citizens to make environmentally beneficial choices
- ◆ Capable institutions to implement policy, advocate reform, and educate both the people and their leaders

Ultimately, environmentally sustainable development is about more than sound policies, politics, and institutions: it is about people. People conserve resources or destroy them through their everyday actions. And people can serve as catalysts for the development of equitable and just policies.

Environmental education and communication (EE&C) can help bring people into the policy pro-

cess in a meaningful and effective way. When people see the link between policies, their livelihoods, and their children's futures, they become stakeholders in the policy process. As stakeholders, people catalyze policy change. They can organize, advocate, educate, and elevate local issues and concerns to national policy fora. And they are more apt to see that policies are understood by others and enforced.

As the complexity of achieving environmentally sustainable development is increasingly appreciated, the involvement of multiple stakeholders becomes a factor. Increasingly broader groups of people need to become engaged. In addition to natural resource consumers and managers at the grassroots level, stakeholders may include specialists (e.g., economists, sociologists, business leaders, farmers, foresters, engineers, lawyers, educators, health professionals, communicators, and many others). Environmentally sustainable development also calls for building bridges between groups, such as industry and environmental organizations that sometimes find themselves in adversarial positions. And it calls for building cross-sectoral coalitions to integrate all sectors—donors, industry, grassroots groups, etc.—that affect social and economic development.

Policies are intended to promote specific actions or behaviors at international, national, regional, or local levels. For example:

- ◆ *Local*—a fisherman adopting sustainable harvesting practices
- ◆ *Institutional*—a corporation integrating environmental concerns in configuring its bottom line
- ◆ *National and global*—a set of policies that support sustainable development.

Most elected officials are extremely sensitive to public needs and desires, and communication can assist them to understand those needs.

SHAPING, EXPLAINING, AND IMPLEMENTING POLICY

Environmental education and communication strategies contribute to three, interrelated facets of the policy process: formulation, articulation, and implementation. EE&C helps shape policy, explain it, and make it work.

Formulation

Formulation of good policies hinges on getting input from the people about their needs and wants. Most elected officials are extremely sensitive to public needs and desires, and communication can assist them to understand those needs. Often, the officials can't hear public opinion unless it is well articulated and strategically presented. EE&C skills can enhance this presentation. When people—particularly poor and vulnerable groups—are involved in the policy process, more equitable and effective policies reflecting real needs are likely to result. Empowered as shapers of policy, people begin to exert their rightful role in holding their governments accountable for carrying out appropriate policies.

Sometimes affected groups of people—stakeholders—are invited to participate in the policy formulation process.

EE&C methods can help get the right information to the right people at the right time during this process. Research and communications skills are needed to gather, analyze, interpret and communicate to diverse audiences facts about problems and proposed policies. EE&C helps define *what* information is needed *by whom* and *in what form* to formulate appropriate policies. EE&C also provides both policy makers and advocates with the skills to define and articulate their agendas. This results in promoting constructive dialogue.

Articulation

Once made, a policy needs to be explained. In policy articulation, EE&C helps specific people understand how key issues affect them. It bridges the

information gap between governments and their constituents, the national level and local communities, and producers and consumers. EE&C can ensure that policies are explained to all members of a community, and can establish feedback mechanisms to examine consequences for environmental, social, economic, and cultural impact.

Implementation

If EE&C contributes to policy formulation and articulation in the ways described, implementation may progress more smoothly. People will more readily understand their stake in both the broad policies and the consequent laws and regulations. Ideally, stakeholder support will also contribute to an adequate allocation of resources for policy implementation, key to moving policy from words to action.

To implement policies more effectively, EE&C builds the capacity of national and local institutions to educate, inform, and communicate. Education and communication by governments, interest groups, political parties, and others, helps legitimize and activate policies.

Finally, it should be noted that policy development does not necessarily follow a linear pathway from formulation to articulation to implementation. Articulation, for example, may stimulate reexamination, and perhaps even reformulation of a policy. Similarly, implementation may identify glitches that can trigger reexamination. This circular process, which education and communication can help facilitate, in fact improves policy relevance and effectiveness.

EE&C AND STRATEGIC PLANNING

The strategic planning process adopted in many countries has resulted in National Conservation Strategies (NCSs), National Environmental Education Plans, Tropical Forestry Action Plans (TFAPs), and National Environmental Action Plans (NEAPs). This process provides an opportunity for national debate on environmental priorities and the formulation of related policy and action pro-

grams. Although most have yet to represent all stakeholders, these preparatory processes have attempted to involve a cross-section of society.

On paper, most plans recognize the importance of EE&C. For example, almost all NEAPs attest to the need to include education and public awareness in their environmental strategic objectives. In practice, however, these plans succeed only if the government can raise or allocate appropriate resources; if the plans receive high-level support; and if the people understand and are committed to the process. Therefore, effective communication is crucial. For example, when Madagascar first formulated its Environmental Action Plan, most support came from external advocacy groups. No internal constituency developed, partly because the benefits of sound natural resource management were not effectively communicated to the Malagasy people. Over time, a backlash resulted, setting back efforts to act on the nation's environmental agenda. On the other hand, when GreenCOM worked in Malawi and El Salvador on National Environmental Education Strategies, it began with broadly inclusive workshops that articulated the stakeholders needs in a policy. Both countries now have popular environmental education strategies.

FOSTERING POLICY DIALOGUE

EE&C facilitates policy dialogue between government and people, national and local levels, and among multiple stakeholders. For example, in the Philippines where national policy encourages greater sharing of power by communities and public agencies in forest management, field offices of the environmental ministry may not know how to make this policy work locally. EE&C can provide the needed training and materials. With the trend toward increasing decentralization and greater autonomy for regions and provinces, EE&C can help local governments, NGOs, and citizens work together.

In addition to fostering dialogue between people and their government, EE&C strengthens connections among other groups. For example, it can provide the tools to bring multiple stakeholders like

corporations and environmental groups together by identifying common ground and facilitating productive dialogue. Some corporations, for example, have instituted environmental changes in their policies as a result of listening to their customers, their employees, and/or the people who live near their facilities. Others have set up citizen advisory groups to help shape workable environmental reforms in corporate practice.

PUBLIC AWARENESS

Public awareness programs may be targeted to specific, local audiences, such as taxi drivers, to maintain their vehicles, thus reducing air pollution. Conversely, public awareness campaigns are typically conducted on a national, or even international, scale. For example, the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) mounted international campaigns to protect tropical rainforests and wetlands through coordinated national action of its member countries worldwide. These and other campaigns use mass media; advertising; special events; exhibitions; conferences, seminars and workshops; school-based programs; merchandising; and other activities. The Gambia's National Environmental Awards Scheme, developed by GreenCOM, is a good example of a public awareness program that engages people from a variety of walks of life (see Chapter 14).

PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Communication can also play an important role in linking the public to policymakers to establish direct lines of communication. New communication tools, as well as new ways of using those tools, have made these links easier to forge. Community groups have become more sophisticated about use of, and access to, communication media. Simplified technologies, such as the portability of video and editing equipment, desktop publishing, Internet communication and a host of others, have equipped regular citizens with new ways of influencing policy undreamed of even ten years ago.

Political upheavals, such as the overthrow of the Shah in Iran and the collapse of the Soviet Union, owe much to the tools their proponents were using, such as fax and the Internet. Advocacy, one of the recent strategies to emerge from the new role of civic participation, puts promotion of environmental issues into the hands of civic groups. To support the democracy and governance initiatives of USAID and other donors, communication plays a vital capacity-building role in the training and mobilization of advocacy groups.

BROADENING PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Participation of multiple stakeholders at an early stage increases the likelihood of policy or program

success. Actively involving stakeholders from various levels, sectors, and disciplines develops consensus among diverse and sometimes disparate interests. Bringing other key groups into development of environmentally beneficial policies also contributes to a stronger process. Engaging business, religious and academic organizations, the media, and other sectors of society broadens the constituency for environmentally sustainable development, leverages additional resources, and amplifies the popular voice for appropriate policy formulation and enactment.

In addition, as communities assume greater responsibility in managing their natural resources, members are encouraged to monitor, examine, and regulate the policies that they helped generate.