

# EXTENSION EDUCATION

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## **TEN QUALIFICATIONS FOR EXTENSION WORKERS**

1. Basic knowledge of the physical, biological and social sciences that are significant to life in the villages.
2. Familiarity with reliable sources of important information.
3. Knowing channels of communication, both up and down, and ability to communicate effectively.
4. Understanding the background, philosophy, objectives, policies and organization of the extension system.
5. Skill in applying principles of behavioural sciences to extension teaching, supervision and administration.
6. Understanding the processes by which village Extension workers can cooperatively analyze local problems and arrive at potentially sound solutions and develop an extension programme.
7. Ability to organize village people and stimulate leadership among them.
8. Knowledge of the problems and procedures of adult and out-of-school youth education.
9. Skill in organizing, interpreting, and presenting basic economic, social, technical and scientific data to village life.
10. Understanding techniques and processes of evaluating the effectiveness of an action programme.

## **A DOZEN ATTRIBUTES OF AN IDEAL EXTENSION WORKER\***

- Abounding faith** — in the importance of the work.
- Infinite tact** — in meeting trying situations.
- Unlimited patience** — in overcoming village inertia.
- Endless good nature** — in the face of all trials.
- A saving sense of humour** — when nothing else will meet the situation.
- A large vision** — of the work to be done.
- Ability to lose gracefully** — and to rebound after each defeat.
- Indomitable courage** — in standing for the right.
- Grim determination** — to see the work completed.
- Contagious enthusiasm** — to inspire local leadership.
- Unshakable optimism** — in spite of all discouragements.
- Unwavering belief** — in the importance of Farm Family to the nation.

\*Alfred Vivian.

## **SEVEN COMMANDMENTS FOR AN EXTENSION WORKER**

- Go to the people
- Live among them
- Learn from them
- LOVE THEM**
- Plan with them
- Start with what they know
- Build on what they have.

## Nature and Role of Extension Education

### EXTENSION EDUCATION-MEANING, SCOPE & OBJECTIVES

#### Meaning of Extension Education :

(The word 'Extension' is derived from the Latin roots, '*tensio*' meaning 'stretching, and '*ex*' meaning 'out.' Thus the term 'Extension Education' means that type of education which is 'stretched out' into the villages and fields beyond the limits of the schools and colleges to which the formal type of education is normally confined. That the word 'Extension' came to be used in this sense originally in the U.S.A. is evident from the meaning given to it in Webster's Dictionary as a "branch of a University for students who cannot attend the University proper". In other words, the word 'Extension' used in this context signifies *an out-of-school system of education.*

Before dealing with the full meaning, scope and objectives of Extension, it is worthwhile to consider briefly the need for Extension, as well as the necessity to study it as a science.

**Why Extension ?** ["You cannot apply yesterday's methods today and be in business to-morrow"] is a maxim which applies as much to the economy of a nation as to the business conduct of any group or individual. The need is obvious especially for the rural economy, with its major component of agriculture, to keep pace with the brisk changes characteristic of modern times. In other words, the rural people should know and adopt useful research findings from time to time, and also transmit their problems to the research workers for solution. The researchers neither have the time nor are they equipped for the job of persuading the villagers to adopt scientific methods, and to ascertain from them the rural problems. On the other hand, it is impracticable for the millions of farmers

to visit the research stations and learn things by themselves. Thus an agency is required to bridge the gulf between the research workers and the people at large, to play the dual role of interpreting the results of research to the farmers (in such a way that they accept and adopt the recommendations) as well as of conveying the farmers' problems to the research stations for solution. This agency is termed 'Extension', and the personnel manning this agency or organisation, are called 'Extension workers'. To equip the prospective extension workers for their job, it is necessary for them to be trained adequately in the formal "teaching Institutions". Thus we find that three kinds of inter-related services are essential in the process of rural development, as illustrated in Figure 1.

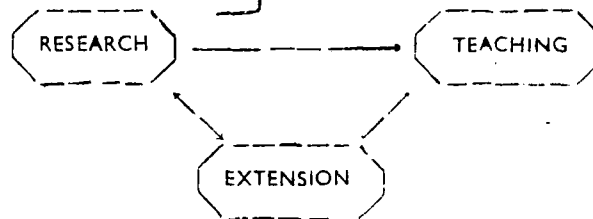


FIGURE 1 - THE THREE LINKS IN THE CHAIN OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

**Why study Extension ?** "To teach John Latin, it is necessary not only to know Latin but also to know John" says an English proverb. To be successful, an extension worker should know not merely *what* to teach but *how* to teach people. In other words, it is not enough if he is equipped with the technical knowledge in subject-matter fields; he should have the ability to successfully communicate his ideas to the people, taking the personal, social and situational factors into consideration. The following quotation aptly illustrates the need to study the subject of Extension.

The captain of a ship has to know not only his ship and the destination he wants to reach. He must also understand ocean currents and tides, and the wind systems of the world. All of these are powerful forces which can help him on his way or can wreck his ship. The extension worker needs to understand not only his own programme and objectives but also the currents of thoughts in the minds of the people with whom he lives and works. He needs to understand the *motives* of men; why certain people take to new ideas more rapidly than others, why certain people seek to take the lead, and why certain others hesitate. Light is thrown on many such questions by the knowledge accumulated by the social sciences.

Knowing that much has been discovered about tides, currents and winds, no captain will venture out without providing himself with that knowledge nor without continuously studying it....Similarly, the extension worker, aware of how much is and how very much more is yet to be known about the behaviour of people, will see that this kind of knowledge is essential to him... He will know that there are dependable currents in village life which can carry people ahead rapidly, and he can look for them, confident that they can be found. He will recognise that some of his obstacles are like hidden rocks which he had better avoid rather than try to drive the ship of his programme straight across them. He will understand the human forces which he can utilise and those with which he must contend.) This kind of knowledge is the field of study of psychology, anthropology and, based on them, of educational theory. Unfortunately, our scientific knowledge of people in India is negligible compared with our scientific knowledge of plants, animals, and soils. But what we have is important to Extension. We should study it constantly. And we should urge social scientists to work much faster in order more nearly to meet the needs of this country in their field of study.<sup>1</sup>)

#### ✓ Scope of Extension :

Before considering the full scope of Extension Education, we have to define the term. Here are a few good definitions :

1. **Extension Education** is an applied science consisting of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural sciences synthesised with useful technology into a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focussed on the problems of out-of-school education for adults and youth.<sup>2</sup>

2. **Extension Education** is the process of teaching rural people how to live better by learning ways that improve their farm, home and community institutions.<sup>3</sup>

3. **Extension Work** is an out-of-school system of education in which adults and young people learn by doing. It is a partnership

1 "Experiment in Extension — The GAON SATHI" Geoffrey Cumberlege. Oxford University Press, 1956.

2 Leagans. J.S.P. "Extension Education in Community Development", Directorate of Extension, Govt of India, 1961.

3 ibid.

between the Government and the people, which provides service and education designed to meet the needs of the people. Its fundamental objective is the development of the people.<sup>1</sup>

4. **Extension** is education of rural adults and of children out-side the school, in matters of their own choice and interest; education for freedom which seeks to help persons to use the liberty of action with which a democratic society is constructed.<sup>2</sup>

It may be observed that the common concept in the above definitions is that Extension is an informal education, or "out-of-school system of education". However, these definitions do not cover the entire scope of Extension Education which has now attained the stature of a distinct discipline with its own research, teaching and field (practice) activities.<sup>3</sup> Thus the following definition may be considered as more appropriate in the context of the present stage of its development.

**Extension Education** is a science which deals with the creation, transmission and application of knowledge designed to bring about planned changes in the behaviour-complex of people, with a view to help them live better by learning the ways of improving their vocations, enterprises and institutions.

Having defined Extension as above, we have to recognise the fact that the word has different meanings for different individuals and groups depending mainly on their personal interests, background and technical training etc. For instance, in U.S.A. where Extension work is purely educational in nature, the scope of the word 'Extension' may be summed up in one sentence: Extension is an educational *organisation*, an educational *process* and an educational *job*. (Similarly, in our country the word 'Extension' is used to connote mainly three different aspects of extension work—the *job*, the *agency* (or organisation) and the *means* (or process). Many workers and lay people feel that agricultural extension is merely the process of providing the farmers with the *supplies* and *services* required by them for increasing *production*. Some administrators think that agricultural extension means *planning* and *organising* a good *programme* of agricultural production at the national, state, district and/or block level, and ensuring its proper *execution*. On

1 Kelsey, L.D., and Hearne, "Co-operative Extension Work" Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, N. Y., 1963

2 "Experiment in Extension — The GAON SATHI", op. cit.

3 Dr. P. R. R. Sinha in his paper "The Dynamics of Extension Education" read at the 55th Indian Science Congress had discussed this aspect at length.

the other hand many of the agriculturally trained workers and teachers of Extension consider agricultural extension as an *educational process*, a system of teaching or extending useful information, based on research and / or practical experience, which if accepted and adopted by the farmers, will serve to increase production and net income.

There is some logic in each of the above concepts which may be defined as follows :

**(Extension Service :** An organisation and / or a programme for agricultural development and rural welfare, which employs the extension process as a means of programme implementation.)

**(Extension Process :** The extension process is that of *working with rural people through out - of - school education*, along those lines of their current interests and needs which are closely related to gaining a livelihood, improving the physical level of living of rural families, and fostering rural community welfare. The core of this definition is in the words italicised. The remaining part of the definition spells out the workable boundaries and essential emphasis of this process.)

**(Extension Job :** The job of extension in agriculture and home economics is to assist people engaged in farming and home-making to utilise more fully their own resources and those available to them, in solving current problems and in meeting changing economic and social conditions. In other words, through the educational and service approach, rural people are stimulated to make changes that result in more efficient *production* and marketing of farm products, conservation of natural resources, more comfortable homes, improved health, and more satisfying family and community life.)

The modern concept of Extension Education as the *means* for achieving Community Development, includes several facets and subject-matter fields, of which agriculture is more important than the others. Hence "*Agricultural Extension*" may be defined as a special branch of Extension Education which deals with the economic and social aspects of people engaged in or associated with agriculture.

### **(Scope of Agricultural Extension**

The following nine areas of programme emphasis<sup>1</sup> indicate the scope of Agricultural Extension work :

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<sup>1</sup> Kelsey, L. D. and Hearne, C. L. "Co-operative Extension Work" op. cit.

1. Efficiency in agricultural *production*.
2. Efficiency in *marketing*, distribution and utilisation.
3. Conservation, development and use of natural *resources*.
4. *Management* on the farm and in the home.
5. *Family* living.
6. *Youth* development.
7. *Leadership* development.
8. *Community* development.
9. *Public affairs*.

The following statements will further amplify the scope of Extension.)

#### What is Extension?<sup>1</sup>

1. Extension is fundamentally a system of out-of-school education for adults and youths alike. It is a system where people are *motivated* through a proper approach to help themselves by *applying science* in their daily lives, in farming, home making and community living.
2. Extension is education for *all* village people.
3. Extension is bringing about desirable *changes* in the knowledge, attitudes and skills of people.
4. Extension is helping people to *help themselves*.
5. Extension is working with men and women, boys and girls, to answer their *felt needs* and wants.
6. Extension is teaching people what to want, (i. e., converting *unfelt needs* into felt needs) as well as how to work out ways of satisfying these wants, and inspiring them to achieve their desires.
7. Extension is teaching through "*learning by doing*", and "*seeing is believing*".
8. Extension is working in harmony with the *culture* of the people.
9. Extension is a *two-way channel*; it brings scientific information to village people and it also takes the problems of the village people to the scientific institutes for solution.
10. Extension is *working together* (in groups) to expand the welfare and happiness of the people with their own families, their own villages, their own country and the world.

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<sup>1</sup> Adopted from "A Guide to Community Development" Ministry of C. D. and Co-operation, Govt. of India, 1962.

11. Extension is a *living relationship* between the village workers and the village people. Respect and trust for each other, sharing of joys and sorrows, result in friendship through which village extension work continues.

12. Extension is *development of individuals* in their day-to-day living, development of their leaders, their society and their world as a whole.

13. Extension is a *continuous educational process* in which both learner and teacher *contribute and receive.*)

### Certain Concepts

The following concepts throw further light on the scope of Extension.

#### 1. THE BASIC CONCEPT

The basic concept of *Extension* is that it is *Education*.

**What is Education ?** The modern definition is that *Education is the production of desirable changes in human behaviour*, -the bringing about of desired changes in knowledge (things known), attitudes (things felt) and skills (things done), either in all, or one or more of them. "Education is a process in which human behaviour is modified so as to be in closer agreement with some model or ideal determined by the values of society"<sup>1</sup>

The three kinds of changes in behaviour are illustrated below :

1. Change in knowledge - Too heavy application of nitrogen leads to excessive lodging of paddy crop.
2. Change in attitude - There is no reason to abhor the application of nightsoil compost to crops.
3. Change in skills - How to prepare good compost.

Skills are of two types - Mental and Manual (physical). In some instances, there may be a combination of all the three kinds of changes. For example, in a programme for rat control the extension worker teaches :

- a) that rats can be easily and cheaply controlled by the use of Zinc phosphide (change in knowledge).

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<sup>1</sup> Skinner C. E. et. al. "Essentials of Educational Psychology" —Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1961.

b) that it is no sin to kill rats which are responsible for huge national loss of foodstuffs (change in attitude).

c) how to use zinc phosphide as a poison bait, without undue risk (change in skill).

In education, emphasis is usually placed on changes in knowledge and skills, more or less neglecting the aspect of changing attitudes. But attitudes (or emotions or feelings) are important, because they tend to express themselves in action which may be favourable (positive) or unfavourable (negative) to public interests or progress.

#### How are attitudes changed ?

(A) *Changes in normal course* occur as follows :

1. As a natural result of changes in *age* levels.
2. As a result of assuming new *responsibilities*. e.g., from student to teacher, from bachelor to married etc.
3. As a sequel to marked changes in *status*. e.g., changes in financial status, official status (position of authority) etc.
4. *Abrupt changes in attitude* may occur as a result of some personal or national *crisis* :- e.g., prolonged illness or death in the family, war etc.
5. Attitudes are also changed through *rationalisation* in order to accept a persona. situation or to modify or ignore it.

However, most persons conform to the attitudes of the members of their group. Relatively few maintain independent attitudes.

(B) *Changes of attitudes due to planned sharing.*

(i) *Sharing in common knowledge* : This procedure would be the basis for acceptance or rejection of Youth Clubs, for instance.— Parents and others sharing club work by listening to the radio, reading the newspapers and magazines, but mainly by attending the Youth Club meetings and other club events, tend in due course to follow through with their own sons and daughters and their neighbour's children who are members.

(ii) *Sharing in planning* : If possible, each individual or group should have the opportunity of helping to plan a club project. In this way each person will understand it better and will feel more responsible for carrying it out.

(iii) *Sharing in decision making* : A person who has participated in making a group decision is likely to assume his share of responsibility for putting it into effect. "If we share, we care."

2. A CONCEPT OF THE EXTENSION EDUCATIONAL PROCESS<sup>1</sup>

(Developed by Dr. J. Paul Leagans)

This concept identifies five essential phases in the extension educational process. Figure 2. shows the sequence of steps in a cycle that may be expected to result in progress from a given situation to a new or more desirable situation.

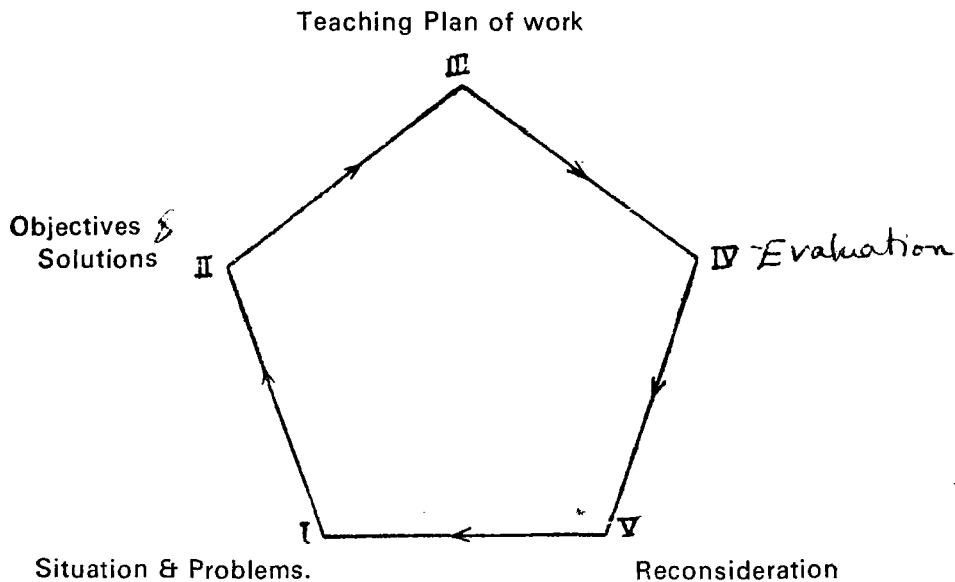


FIGURE 2 - THE EXTENSION EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

1. The first phase is *analysis of the situation*. This requires a large amount of *facts* about all aspects of the situation. Facts are needed about the *people*, their interests, education, what they think they need, their social customs, habits and folkways. Facts are needed about the *physical situation* such as soils, type of farming, markets, size of farms, cropping systems, housing condition, community services and communications. Some of these facts shape up into *problems*, local, national, and international. Other facts show the *resources* that are available through organizations and agencies. New facts and research findings should be introduced by the extension workers to stimulate a fresh approach to the problems of the people. A thorough analysis will examine changing conditions and take a careful look ahead, comparing "what is" with "what should be".

1 Kelsey, L.D. and Hearne, C.L. "Co-operative Extension Work" op cit.

II. The second phase is *deciding upon objectives*. It is necessary to distinguish between *levels of objectives* by separating the general objectives from the specific or working objectives. The planning process must enable the people to select a *limited number* of problems and to state their objectives *clearly*. The solutions to be offered must give *satisfaction*. Objectives should express the *behavioural changes* in people as well as the *economic or social outcomes* which are desired.

III. The third phase is *teaching*. This involves choosing (1) the *content* or what is to be taught and (2) *methods* and techniques of communication. The first two phases are inherently teaching opportunities, but now we must create *learning situations*. We must use from six to nine *different methods* of communication to stimulate learning. These will be chosen from mass media, group, and personal methods. The ability to choose and use those methods best adapted to particular objectives is the measure of an extension worker's effectiveness.

IV. The fourth phase is *evaluation* of the teaching. This should determine to what extent the objectives have been reached. This will also be a test of how accurately and clearly the objectives have been stated. Plans for evaluation should be built into the plans of work during earlier phases. Distinction is made between mere records of accomplishments and the process of comparing these results with the original objectives. The process of evaluation may be simple and informal or it may be formal and very complex.

V. The fifth phase is a *reconsideration* after evaluation has taken place. This step consists of a review of previous efforts and results which reveal a new situation. If this new situation shows the need for further work, then the whole process may begin again, with new or modified objectives. Hence this process is continuous. The new situation is different because: (1) the people have changed; (2) the physical, economic and social changes may have occurred; (3) the extension worker is better prepared to recognise new needs and interests.)

**In Summary :** this concept is intended only to clarify the steps necessary in carrying out a *planned educational effort*. It is not intended to imply that these steps are definitely separate from each other. Experience shows that planning, learning, and evaluation are taking place continuously, in varying degrees, throughout all phases of extension activities.

### 3. THE CONCEPT OF SALESMANSHIP

Extension teaching is sometimes compared to commercial salesmanship. It is pointed out that the extension worker is primarily engaged in the "selling" of ideas. Certainly many of the techniques employed by good salesmen in selling physical goods and services have direct application in Extension. But the one is a commercial transaction conducted for private profit, and the other is an educational process conducted by a public agency to bring about changes in the knowledge, attitude or skill of the individual.

#### **Distinguishing features of Extension Education**

There are striking contrasts between the (informal) extension teaching and the (formal) class-room teaching as detailed below:

1. The class-room teacher is concerned with the educational growth of *children and youth preparing for life*, while extension teacher works with *adults and youth* in actual *life situations*.
2. Participation in extension activities is wholly *voluntary*, while school attendance is largely *compulsory* (Captive audience). Adults have to be attracted to come and learn. Their imagination must be fired.
3. In extension, education the *learners vary* (more than in formal education) in age, educational level, experience, interest, intensity of need, level of living etc. There may also be difference in their value *systems* and *cultural background*. Most of the village audience is illiterate. This makes the job of the extension teacher more difficult and complicated.
4. Adults generally have *preconceived ideas* and notions because of their previous experiences. The extension teacher has to wipe off these notions and convince the people about the new ideas.
5. The plan of the extension teaching (unlike that of the formal teaching) should be *flexible* to meet the different needs and demands of the learners. In the formal education, pupils adapt themselves to the curriculum offered.
6. There are no *class-rooms*, no prescribed books, no fixed *periods* and no examinations. The extension worker does his job in actual life situations.
7. There is no fixed curriculum. Extension teaching helps farmers to discover, analyse and solve their problems, while in the formal type of education, students study prescribed subjects.

8. Extension teaching is often so informal that it becomes difficult to distinguish educational activities from service activities.

9. Extension teaching is invariably of the inductive type, while formal education is mostly deductive in approach.

10. The class-room teacher instructs the students whereas the extension worker also learns from those he teaches.

11. Class-room teaching is largely vertical, while extension teaching is largely horizontal.

12. In the case of formal teaching, the teacher alone instructs the students whereas the extension workers teach a great deal through leaders.

13. Students in school expect to be instructed by their teacher, because he is generally older and they take it for granted that he has more experience. But in adult education, the teacher is often younger and not more experienced than many of his 'pupils'.

#### **Objectives of Extension**

In the chapter on Extension Programme Building, we shall consider in detail the meaning and different levels of objectives. But at this point, it is desirable to have an idea of the objectives of extension in general terms.

The fundamental objective of extension is *the development of the people* or "the Destination Man" mentioned in the context of Community Development in India. M. C. Burritt, a master farmer and formerly Director of Extension, New York State said, "It is the function of the Extension Service to teach people to determine accurately their own problems, to help them to acquire knowledge and to inspire them to action, but it must be their own action out of their own knowledge and convictions".

More specifically stated, the following are *general objectives or functions of Extension*<sup>1</sup>.

1. To assist people to discover and analyse their problems, their felt and unmet needs.

2. To develop leadership among people and help them in organising groups to solve their problems.

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1. Rogers, F.E., Class notes, Extension Education Course No. 401 Missouri University, Winter semester 1960-61.

3. To disseminate information based on research and / or practical experience, in such a manner that the people would accept it and put it into actual practice.

4. To keep the research workers informed of the peoples' problems from time to time, so that they may offer solutions based on necessary research.

The major objectives of Extension may also be categorized as follows :

- (i) Material — increase production, income.
- (ii) Educational — change the outlook of people or develop the individuals.
- (iii) Social and cultural — development of the community.

## 2. PHILOSOPHY AND PRINCIPLES OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Education does not mean teaching people to know what they do not know; it means teaching them to behave as they do not behave. — Ruskin

Education is a social process...Education is growth...Education is not preparation for life; education is life itself.

— John Dewey.

### What is Philosophy ?

The word "Philosophy" has a wide range of meanings. It was originally used to denote the love of wisdom or knowledge, theory or investigation of the principles or laws that regulate the universe and underlie all knowledge and reality. For our present purpose, however, we may define philosophy as a *body of general principles or laws of a field of knowledge, activity, etc.* such as a philosophy of life or a philosophy of extension work. Essentially, philosophy is a view of life and its various components. The practical implication is that the philosophy of a particular field would furnish the principles or guidelines with which to shape or mould the programmes or activities relating to that field. For instance, a man's view of "what ought to be" is perhaps a clear indication of what sort of person he is, and what his philosophy is. Surely it is this view (or philosophy) which serves to motivate his actions. Every extension worker should know the philosophy of extension, because it provides the basis for working out the programmes and policies to be adopted in extension work.

### The Philosophy of Extension

In the words of Kelsey and Hearne<sup>1</sup>, the following is the philosophy of extension.

However much we may work with the humdrum things and the specific things of the farm and home, however well we may organize and pile up our scientific facts and services, the ultimate and primary purpose of it all, is the development of the men and women and the boys and girls themselves. The devices and methods are only necessary means to an end. The philosophy of extension work, therefore, is based on the importance of the individual in the promotion of progress for rural people and for the nation. Extension educators work with people to help them, develop themselves and achieve superior personal well-being. The extension worker who understands this and keeps this philosophy as his fundamental objective will approach his work as a teacher with adequate perspective and will have a permanent influence upon the situation in which he finds himself. This philosophy of extension work thrives best in the man or woman who holds a deep concern for the well-being of all mankind and an abiding faith in rural people and their ability to develop and reach the highest planes.

In most of the earlier attempts in India to improve the conditions of the villagers, the emphasis was on the improvement of cultivation methods and the increase of food production. It was taken for granted that the betterment of rural society as a whole was involved, but in most of the organised efforts this was regarded either as a means to the end or as a by-product of the process of crop improvement.

The present concept of extension has combined the concern of the philosopher and philanthropist for the development of the whole man with the concern for methodology and efficiency of an organised programme. It recognises the need for scientific knowledge and the large-scale application of scientific methods, and at the same time it goes deeper to the human need for dignity, self-reliance, freedom and moral responsibility. In short, it emphasises the need for development of the whole man, for total involvement, total participation, and total conviction. It is this change of emphasis that most clearly distinguishes present day extension educational work in India from the previous efforts in this direction.

<sup>1</sup> Kelsey, L.D., and Hearne, C.L. "Co-operative Extension Work". op cit.

Things are of no interest *per se*, but only as they are related to people. It does not matter how many tons of grain are produced unless the grain can be fed to the people, and it does not matter how many tons of steel are produced, unless that steel can be made into products useful to the people. Neither is it of any importance how much of worldly goods a man can have for consumption unless he is thereby made a better man, for "what shall it profit a man if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul"? It is partly for this reason that extension work is concerned not only with the individual but also with the community, for no man can prosper at the expense of his neighbour or without concern of the plight of his neighbour and still be a moral person. The ultimate goal is to improve every man, and the whole man.

The basic philosophy of extension work that it is directed at conversion of the whole man determines the approach that must be adopted for its implementation. Compulsion does not persuade, and even a beneficent act does not necessarily improve the man whose lot is improved thereby. The only way to secure the intelligent and whole-hearted co-operation of a person is to educate him. Nor does education mean the mere dissemination of knowledge or the peddling of facts though the facts are necessary. The primary aim is to transform the people by bringing about desired changes in their knowledge, attitudes and skills.

Irrespective of natural mental capacity, and despite the tenacity of prejudices and superstitions, education can increase the effective intelligence of an individual or a group. Even a savage tribe can profit by education; the most primitive people can learn new social customs, become law-abiding and improve their living conditions. The pattern of thinking of a young mind can be changed quite markedly by education, and even an older person sometimes alters his views radically if confronted with convincing evidence.

It is, of course, essential that the farmers and their families learn to grow better crops, to keep better homes, to educate their children, to make wise use of their resources; in short, they should absorb all the knowledge that modern science can provide, and benefit by it. It is essential that their material welfare should be improved. Greater than any of these, however, is the education that goes to make up the new peasant and the new peasant woman. As the villagers learn scientific facts through the democratic process, there is born in them a desire to continue the work, to approach every new problem with hope, determination, self-reliance, and a

sense of fair play. They develop a new attitude towards change itself,--an objective; inquiring attitude that neither embraces nor rejects a method simply because it is new or old. They learn to co-operate for the common good. They learn to discern real values. Their minds are opened, their energies released, their senses altered. They not only accept, but demand and achieve further progress. This is the essence of the education which extension work seeks to impart.<sup>1</sup>

Incidentally, it was the above philosophy of Extension that was stressed by the late Prime Minister Nehru in the following words during his address to the National Development Council on November 8, 1963 in connection with the Mid-term Appraisal of the Third plan.

In the ultimate analysis, it is the human being that counts ;- the human being, whether he is a minister or administrator, whether he is a man in the field or factory. All the machines in the whole world do not take the place of the human being. The human being makes the machine. The machine does not mould man ultimately. It is the human being that destroyed Germany, Japan and Russia and after the war, built it up again. In ten years time they became great powers and their production is increasing at top rate. Why is it so ? Because of the human beings there. The average man is a trained man. in those countries. They are all hard workers.

#### Principles of Extension

According to Mildred Horton<sup>2</sup>, the four great principles underlying extension services are :

1. The individual is supreme in democracy.
2. The home is a fundamental unit in a civilization.
3. The family is the first training group of the human race.
4. The foundation of any permanent civilization must rest on the partnership of man and the land.

If we accept these principles as those underlying our extension activities, we must plan our work in accordance with them. Our objective in extension work is to help people reach higher levels of

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<sup>1</sup> Adapted from Chapter II, Extension Education in Community Development op. cit.

<sup>2</sup> Mildred Horton, "Extension Philosophy" in "The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension work" edited by Bliss. R. K. et al., Graduate School, U.S.D.A., Washington, 1952.

living - - physically, mentally and spiritually. To reach these higher levels of living, people must be educated and trained to meet their responsibilities in relation to God, to their neighbours and to themselves. They must also know how to meet the responsibilities imposed by their environment. So we work with them as individuals, as families in the home, and with their environment.

#### **Some Principles Underlying the Philosophy of Extension**

The following working principles will serve to further clarify the philosophy of extension.

1. Extension is an organisation to plan, execute and evaluate programmes *with* the people, and *not for* the people.
2. Extension is an organisation set up to *teach* people, and *motivate* them to action, *not to dictate* what the people should do not merely to render supplies and services, or not to give recipes.
3. An extension worker is a *catalyst*, a change agent, who sets up learning situations for the people. (Use demonstrations).
4. What an extension worker does *to* the people is more important than what he does *for* the people.
5. An extension worker should teach people *to help themselves*, and not do things for the people.
6. He should teach people *how* to think and not *what* to think.
7. He should help people to determine their own needs and the solutions to their problems.
8. He should reach the people where they are. (Deal with the known).
9. His aims and objectives should not be rigid and unchangeable, but *flexible* depending on individual and social needs.
10. His job is to change the *people* and not the subject matter.
11. He should have not only necessary *technical knowledge* but also the *ability and enthusiasm to teach people*.
12. He should understand, and have *love and sympathy* for the people with whom he works.
13. He should work in harmony with the *culture* of the people. (Close identity of extension worker with rural people.)
14. He should help people to work together in *groups*.

15. The aim of extension is the *development of individuals* in their day-to-day living, development of their leaders, their society and their world as a whole. (Voluntary participation).

**Guiding Principles for Successful Extension Work**

The following Do's and Don'ts may be taken to be a more or less comprehensive outline of the guiding principles for successful extension work.

1. Do be thorough and upto-date in your professional knowledge and skills.
2. Do study local conditions and practices including social background of people. (You have to learn before you teach).
3. Do keep village appointments.
4. Do introduce yourself during your initial contacts and indicate the purpose of your visit.
5. Do try to remember every villager as a person. (Develop good memory for faces and names).
6. Do greet every villager you know, (and do it every where).
7. Do make sure that you love villagers and you are sincerely interested in their welfare.
8. Do identify yourself with the villagers as much as possible.
9. Do be informal and polite but neither too effusive nor too reserved.
10. Don't begin by giving undue promises of benefits.
11. Do look and listen. (Develop the art of listening).
12. Do use simple, natural local language which is meaningful to the villagers.
13. Don't criticise or condemn the villagers.
14. Do avoid arguments.
15. Do give credit to villagers for their good ideas or suggestions (Don't let it seem that all the new ideas are yours.)
16. Do admit ignorance.
17. Don't correct a colleague or chide a subordinate in the presence of villagers.
18. Do talk in terms of the villagers' interests.
19. Do begin with simple and common needs which can be easily fulfilled. (Don't aim too high at first).

20. Don't try to solve villagers' problems for them. (Only help the people to help themselves).
21. Do insist that villagers or their representatives take part in preparing, executing and evaluating plans at the family, village and Block levels.
22. Do use local leaders and co-operate with all persons and organisations devoted to village improvement.
23. Do be the man behind the scenes.
24. Don't leave things half done. (Whatever you do, do it thoroughly, so as to inspire the confidence of villagers.)
25. Don't use any kind of compulsion (Emphasise the educational nature of extension work and avoid regulatory type of activities. Convince people through proper selection and combination of extension methods.)
26. Do avoid giving anything free except your services.
27. Do guide the villagers in securing the needed supplies and services.
28. Do keep out of factions and politics.
29. Do try to extend the benefits of Extension to all groups and individuals. (Don't tie yourself only to a few villages or to a few good friends. Do show your concern for woman and youth as well as to weaker sections).
30. Do record all your visits to your assigned villages (while the visit is still fresh in your mind.)

### 3. BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

*"As long as I live, so long do I learn"*

—Sri Ramakrishna

We have said previously that extension is education. So every member of the Extension service is an educator or a teacher. The Director is a teacher of his staff, the District Agricultural Officer is a teacher of his Extension Officers, the Extension Officer is a teacher of the V. D. Os, and the V. D. O., in turn is a teacher of all rural people, old and young. To do this job of teaching efficiently and effectively, every extension worker should understand and follow some basic principles of educational psychology.

#### What is teaching?

**Definition :** Teaching is the process of providing situations in which learning takes place; in other words, arranging situations in

which the things to be learnt are brought to the attention of the learners, their interest is developed, desire aroused, conviction created, action promoted and satisfaction ensured.)

**Amplification :** 1. The ultimate purpose of teaching is *not* merely to *inform* people but to *transform* them, to bring about the desired change in their behaviour.

2. If the learner has not learnt, the teacher has not taught.

3. Teaching is not filling a bucket; it is lighting a lamp.

4. Teaching is an intentional or purposeful process, not a hit or miss undertaking.

5. Effective teaching is done according to design, not drift; it is done by plan, not by trail and error.

6. Good teaching, therefore, requires careful planning of content, procedures, methods and techniques.

7. Good teaching is essentially good communication, and good communication requires sympathetic sharing, and clear explaining.

#### What is Learning?

**Definition :** Learning is a process by which a person becomes changed in his behaviour through self-activity.<sup>1</sup>

"Learning is a process of progressive behaviour adaptation".<sup>2</sup>

**Amplification :** 1. Learning is something that takes place within the learner.

2. It takes place within the individual when he feels a need, strives for fulfilling it, and experiences satisfaction with the fruits of his labour.

3. Learning is the goal of teaching.

We must, however, avoid any artificial separation, since teaching and learning are really one process; they are, so to say, the obverse and the reverse of the same coin. We can symbolize this interaction as the

Teaching ← → Learning process.

#### What is Learning Experience?

**Definition :** It is the mental and/or physical reaction one makes through seeing, hearing or doing the things to be learned, through which one gains meanings and understandings of the material to be learned.<sup>3</sup>

1 Leagans, J. P., "Extension Education in Community Development" op. cit.

2 Skinner, J. P., et. al., "Essentials of Educational Psychology" op. cit.

3 Leagans, J. P., "Extension Education in Community Development", op. cit.

Learning is an active process on the part of the learner. Hence, a learning experience is not attained by mere physical presence in a learning situation. It is what the participant does (i. e. his reaction) while in the learning situation that is all-important in learning. He must give undivided attention to the instructor and deep thought to getting the facts, understanding their meaning, and to seeing their application to his needs and problems. Effective learning experiences, therefore, can best be had in effective learning situations provided by a skilful instructor who knows what he wants, who has the materials to accomplish his goals and the skills to use them effectively.

#### What is a Learning Situation ?<sup>1</sup>

**Definition :** A learning situation is a condition or environment in which all the elements necessary for promoting learning are present; namely (1) Instructor (2) Learner (3) Subject matter (4) Teaching materials and equipment, and (5) Physical facilities.

Figure 3. is a symbolic representation of the reaction the learner makes to the other four elements and the way these five elements react to each other.

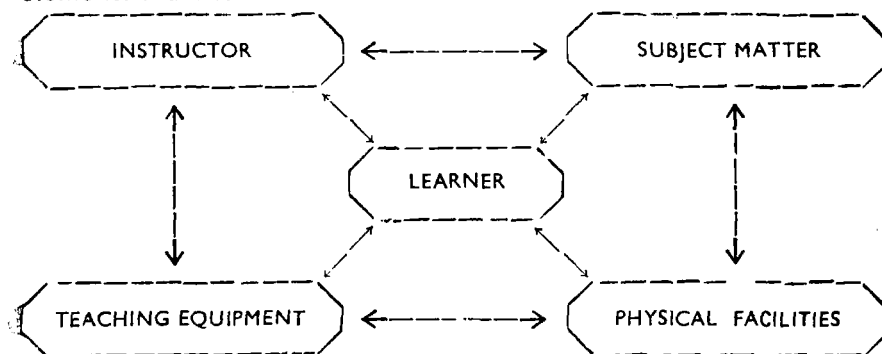


FIGURE 3 - THE ELEMENTS OF A LEARNING SITUATION

To have an effective learning situation, these five major elements should satisfy the following conditions :-

1. **Instructor :** Should
  - a) Have clear objective.
  - b) Know the subject matter and have it well organized.
  - c) Be enthusiastic and interested in the subject.
  - d) Be able to communicate with learners.
  - e) Be democratic in his leadership.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

- f) Allow student participation, ask for it.
- g) Be prepared, be prompt, be friendly, be courteous.
- h) Use a teaching plan.
- i) Speak so that all can hear.
- j) Set a good example of a good leader and teacher.
- k) Be skillful in the use of teaching materials and equipment.

**2. Learners :** Should

- a) Have need for information.
- b) Be interested.
- c) Be capable of learning.
- d) Use the information gained.

**3. Subject matter or content :**

- a) Pertinent to learners' needs.
- b) Applicable to real life situations.
- c) Taught at intellectual level of learners.
- d) Well organised - - logically presented.
- e) Presented clearly.
- f) Challenging, satisfying and significant to the learners.
- g) Fits into overall objectives.

**4. Physical Facilities :**

- a) Free from outside distractions.
- b) Temperature as comfortable as possible.
- c) Well lighted.
- d) Adequate space for the group.
- e) Furniture comfortable and well-arranged.

**5. Teaching Equipment and Supplies :**

- a) Meet the needs effectively.
- b) Readily available.
- c) Each item used skillfully.

The nature of each of these elements, their relationship to each other, their role in the educational process must be thoroughly understood by the instructor and skill developed by him in handling them. Effective learning situations are created through the skillful use of appropriate teaching methods and techniques.

**Principles of Learning and their Implications for Teaching<sup>1</sup>**

**A. Principle of Association :** *Learning is a growth like and continuous.* The kind of learning that takes place is the result of the

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<sup>1</sup> Adapted from Rogers, F. E., Class notes for Extension Education Course No. 401, Missouri University, Winter Semester, 1960-61.

kind of experiences we have. Experiences that occur together tend to recur together. Previous learning always sets the stage for subsequent learning.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Begin at the level of the learner.
2. New must be related to the old.
3. Adjust the pace to the learner's capacity, one idea at a time.
4. Bring the idea to the attention of the learner repeatedly (in a variety of ways) and over a period of time.

**B. Principle of Clarity : *Learning is purposeful.*** Learning varies directly with the meaningfulness of the material presented. Learning is increased when the learner sees the end sought by the practice.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Learning must make sense to the learner
2. Progress must be constantly appraised and redirected.
3. Purposes must be kept in sharp focus; (objectives must be clear to the learner and teacher.)

**C. Principle of Self-activity : *Learning results through self-activity.*** It is an active process on the part of the learner. Teachers can only set up the learning situation and stimulate a person to learn. The door to learning is "locked on the inside" and unless the learner opens the door himself, learning cannot take place.

Learning involves appropriate activities that engage a maximum number of senses.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Activities appropriate to the specific learning situation must be used.
2. Learning activities should engage a maximum number of senses, by using audio-visual aids. Senses are the gate-ways to learning.

**D. Principle of Readiness (*Motivation*) and Principle of Rewards (*Satisfaction*) : *Learning must be challenging and satisfying.*** Readiness does not connote mere desire to learn; it includes social and intellectual maturity as well. The more fully a person is in readiness to act in a certain way, the more satisfying it will be for him, and the more annoy if he is prevented from it. When not ready to act, he is annoyed if made to act. A favourable attitude accelerates learning; a bad attitude retards learning. Without drive or interest

a person does not learn. Consequently, learning depends primarily upon satisfaction of wants or needs, in other words, upon success. Rewards maintain and strengthen the learning process.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Teacher motivation of the student is essential in making learning more challenging.
2. Standards demanded of the learners should be suitable to their ability or capacity.
3. Appropriate and timely recognition should be given to student achievement.

**E. Principle of Practice** (or Law of Exercise): *Learning must result in functional understanding.* Memorization alone is temporary unless reviewed or put to use in a practical situation. The oftener a situation evokes or leads to a certain response, the stronger becomes the tendency for it to do so in future. *Practice leads to perfection;* (not mere countless repetitions).

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Course content should be organized into meaningful units.
2. Theory should be related to practice.
3. Provide activities that simulate (or resemble) use situations in real life. If possible, stimulate actual use situations

**F. Principle of Disassociation:** *Learning is affected by emotions.* The intensity of emotional feeling affects learning differently in different individuals. The most effective way of eliminating an undesirable response is to set up a desirable substitute, which must be made more satisfying than the original (undesirable) reaction.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. Strive to increase pleasant emotions and decrease unpleasant emotions of students in connection with the learning process.
2. Train the expression of emotions in the right direction.

**G. Principle of Timing:** Learning takes place more readily when the facts or skills are given at the time or just before the time they are to be used in a serviceable way.)

IMPLICATION FOR TEACHING

Select the appropriate time, depending on the learning activity; (neither too early, nor too late).

**H. Principle of Environment:** *Learning is affected by the physical and social environment.*

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

1. The general physical environment should be suitable to the kind of learning taking place.

2. Specific physical factors of the meeting place should be suitable to the activities selected for use in the learning situation.

3. The teacher should recognize and utilize the effects of the social environment on learning.

Summarising the major points, optimum learning takes place (1) when the learner is in a state of psychological and physiological readiness, (2) when he repeats at intervals the learning series which is to be mastered and (3) when that series is accompanied by an emotionally satisfying experience. The major task of the teacher is to arrange the learning situation so that these conditions prevail.<sup>1</sup>

#### 4. PRINCIPLES OF MOTIVATION IN EXTENSION

Motivation — Providing with a motive, incentive or instigator. A motive is some inner drive, impulse, intention etc. that causes or moves a person to do something or act in a certain way. *It may be defined as goalseeking or goal-directed behaviour or activity.* It is also defined as "a stage of the organism in which bodily energy is mobilized and selectively directed towards parts of the environment." This definition breaks down into two parts : (1) mobilization of bodily energy or drive and (2) direction.

People are motivated to learn if they can satisfy a basic need through learning. Basic needs, wants, desires, motives, incentives or urges have been classified in various ways. The following categories are reasonably adequate for extension teaching purposes.

##### Classification of Motives or Basic Needs<sup>2</sup>

1. The desire for *security* - - economic, social, psychological and spiritual security. Man wants protection for his physical being - food, clothing, shelter. Security also means security within a group. It may also mean an adequate reserve of wealth to secure more material things in the future. The wish for security may also be satisfied by spiritual beliefs in the here-after and by the individual's feeling that he has a chance of going to a desirable locale (heaven) after death. In fact, in history, whole cultures have put emphasis on security. The Great Wall of China, the Maginot Line, the Tower of Babel, the innumerable forts and fortresses in several countries are striking examples.

1 Skinner C. E. et al. Essentials of Education Psychology op. cit.

2 Adapted from Wilson, M. C., and Gallup, G., "Extension Teaching Methods"-Extension Service Circular 495. U. S. D. A. 1955

2. The desire for affection or *response*: companionship, gregariousness, and social - mindedness; the need for a feeling of belonging.

3. The desire for *recognition*: status, prestige, achievement, and being looked up to. Each individual feels the need to be considered important by his fellowmen.

4. The desire for *new experience* - - adventure, new interests, new ideas, new friends, and new ways of doing things. Some people primarily want the thrill of some thing new, something different.

The above four categories represent all the powerfull motivating forces stated in a general way.

A more specific classification of the incentives for adult learning as given by Dr. Irving Lorge is as follows :

1. *People want to gain*: Health, time, money, popularity, improved appearance, security in old age, praise from others, comfort, leisure, pride of accomplishment, advancement, increased enjoyment, self-confidence, personal prestige.

2. *They want to be*: Good parents, sociable and hospitable, up-to date, creative, proud of their possessions, influential over other, gregarious efficient "first" in things, recognised as authorities.

3. *They want to (do)*: Express their personalities, resist domination by others, satisfy their curiosity, emulate the admirable, appreciate beauty, acquire or collect things, win others' affection, improve themselves generally.

4. *They want to save*: Time, money, work, discomfort, worry, doubt, risks, personal embarassment.

Maslow<sup>1</sup> set forth a theory of human motivation which merits careful study by anyone who accepts the idea of human needs as being important in energizing and directing behaviour. The needs in order of importance to the individual are: (1) physiological needs, (2) safety needs, (3) love and belonging needs, (4) esteem needs, (5) self-actualization needs, and (6) the desire to know and understand.

### Implications for Extension Worker

#### *(Drives determine differences)*

The point behind citing all these examples of individual needs is that we have all sorts of people who have these basic drives - -

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1 Maslow, A. H. "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychol. Rev., 1943 Vol. 50, pp. 373-396

these four should wishes - - in different degrees in their make up. Or they may not have one or more of them at all.

Thus, we compose a society of individuals, each different from the other. And the degree of difference is based on the relative importance each one of us assigns to the different motivating forces and to the various interests we have, which impel us to act as we do.

It, therefore becomes the job of the extension worker to understand the basic wants or incentives of the people with whom he is working. He should show the learner how to satisfy these basic wants by learning new things (i. e., by adopting new methods or practices). The extension worker should find the personal goals of the learner and tie in his teaching with these goals. When people are shown how learning a subject will enable them to gratify a desire or realize a need, they are being motivated to learn. A great impetus is given to learning when the learner can see that what he learns will be of immediate value to him in making his own life more satisfying.

A desire or a want, therefore, is the most definite and dynamic of motives, from the educational point of view.

It is possible for extension workers to motivate people to satisfy the four categories of basic needs, as briefly indicated below :

1. The desire for *security* - The farmers can be motivated to adopt new practices, by convincing them that the new practices will increase their income and enhance their security.

2. The desire for *new experience* - As extension teaching aims at imparting new knowledge, new attitudes and new skills, there is ample scope in it, for the satisfaction of this basic desire.

3. The desire for *response* - Extension satisfies this need by encouraging people to work in groups.

4. The desire for *recognition* - Extension caters to this basic need by working with village leaders, by awarding prizes and certificates to winners in crop competitions, agricultural shows etc.

### Steps in Extension Teaching<sup>1</sup>

Based on the above four *psychological foundations of teaching*, are the following six steps in extension teaching. In order to bring about the desired changes in the behaviour of people, the extension

<sup>1</sup> Adapted from Wilson. M. C., and Gallup G., "Extension Teaching methods:" op. cit.

teacher should organise activities so that there will be repetition of the desired behaviour, each successive repetition building on the one before it. This conscious attention to organisation of teaching activities in a sequence greatly increases the efficiency of learning. This is the advantage of an educational programme over incidental and occasional exposure to learning. The extension teacher, therefore, plans and arranges situations and activities whereby the thing to be learned is called to the attention of the prospective learner, his interest developed, desire aroused, conviction created, action promoted, and satisfaction ensured.

**Step-1. *Getting the attention of the learner.***

Farmers are not always aware of the improvements they can make as a result of scientific research and successful experience of other farmers. In such instance, the first task of the extension teacher is to direct the attention of the farmers to the new or better idea. Until the individual's attention has been focused upon the change that is considered desirable, there is no recognition of a problem to be solved or a want to be satisfied. Attention is the starting point to the arousing of interest. In addition to supplying information to those desiring to learn, the extension worker creates a desire for information on the part of those who are indifferent to improvements in agriculture. In some instances it may even be necessary to overcome strong resistance to change.

**Step-2. *Stimulating the learner's interest***

Once attention has been captured, it becomes possible for the teacher to appeal to the basic needs or urges of the individual and arouse his interest in further consideration of the idea. The teacher, in easy stages, reveals to the learner how the new practice will contribute to the learner's welfare. The teachers' message should be presented attractively and in a manner that requires little mental effort on the part of the learner. The presenting of but *one idea* at a time, which is definite and specific, is another important factor in building interest.

**Step-3. *Arousing the learner's desire for information***

The teacher is concerned with the continued stimulation of the learner's interest in the new idea or better practice until that interest becomes a desire or motivating force sufficiently strong to compel action. The teacher explains to the learner that the information *applies* directly to the learner's situation; that the doing of the thing will satisfy a significant want or need of the learner.

**Step—4. *Convincing the learner that he should act.***

Action follows when desire, conviction, and the prospect of satisfaction make it easier for the person to act than not to act. The extension worker sees to it that the learner knows what action is necessary, and just how to take that action. He also makes sure that the learner visualises the action in terms of his own peculiar situation and has acquired confidence in his own ability to do the thing.

**Step—5. *Getting action by the learner***

Unless conviction is converted into action, the teaching effort is fruitless. It is the job of the extension teacher to make it easy for the learner to act. Blocks and annoyances that might prevent action should be anticipated by the extension worker and appropriate steps taken to remove them. Teaching farmers how to control a serious pest by using a new chemical in a particular way will not be followed by action by farmers unless the new chemical can be readily obtained at a fair price and within reasonable distance. If special equipment is needed to apply the chemical, that too must be arranged for. If action does not follow soon after the desire and conviction have been created, the new desire soon fades away, and people continue as before. This phase of extension teaching is often neglected.

**Step—6. *Making certain that the learner obtains satisfaction from his action***

The end product of the extension teaching effort is the satisfaction that comes to the farmer as the result of solving a problem, meeting a need, acquiring a new skill or some other change in behaviour. Followup by the extension teacher helps the learner to evaluate the progress made strengthens satisfaction, minimizes the annoyances, and builds the learners confidence in his ability to continue the action with increasing satisfaction. Because of the importance of satisfaction as a motivating force to further learning, the goals of learning should be kept simple and within the ability of the learner. The extension teacher should consider the possibility of braking down difficult jobs into smaller ones that are easier to accomplish. The satisfaction and confidence resulting from the successful completion of each small job will lead them logically to the accomplishment of the difficult job. "A satisfied customer is the best advertisement" applies to the extension worker as much as to the retail merchant.

These steps are illustrated in Figure-4.

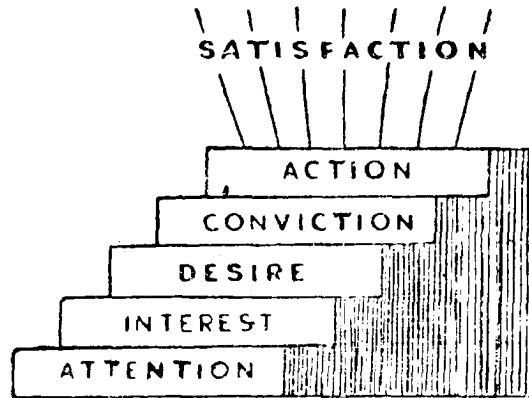


FIGURE 4. — STEPS IN EXTENSION TEACHING

It must be understood that the above six steps in extension teaching often blend in with each other and lose their clear-cut identity. There is similar overlapping in the extension methods used to advance each of the different steps; all methods are not equally effective for the different stages in this process; nevertheless, one method may, under certain condition, contribute to several steps.

So far, we have discussed the principles of motivation and the steps in extension teaching based on motivation.

Motivation which is a general term for describing "need-satisfying and goal-seeking behaviour", has intrinsic and extrinsic values. *Intrinsic values* are what a learner does for the sake of engaging in the activity itself, "The reward of a thing well done is to have done it". For instance a boy feeding a calf or chicken for the pleasure of it (as a hobby). *Extrinsic values* are those wherein an incentive or goal is artificially introduced into the situation to cause or accelerate activity; e. g. feeding a calf with a view to win a prize at a cattle show. Intrinsic motivation is desirable, especially in learning, because it contributes to active participation. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, has the promise of future awards at the end of the activity or later. Thus all our prize schemes are largely extrinsic in value. The results of the several crop competitions in our country go to show that competition serves as a good extrinsic motivation force. When properly guided and controlled, such competitions can be of great help, as means of motivation in extension work.

## Extension Methods, Tools and Techniques

### I. CLASSIFICATION AND DETAILED STUDY OF THE VARIOUS EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS

We have previously stated in general terms what a learning situation is. With specific reference to extension teaching, the elements of a learning situation may be briefly described as follows :

1. *Physical facilities* : The extension worker's class room is either a block, a district, a division or the State. He works with, and under natural conditions.

2. *Learners* : The extension worker's students are the farmers, farm women, farm boys and girls living in his jurisdiction, and they may or may not go to school.

3. *Subject matter* : His subject matter is based on the findings of the Research Stations, adjusted to meet local needs and conditions.

4. *Instructor* : The extension workers are equipped to their job by being graduates or trainees of recognised institutions of higher learning. They are supposed to be endowed with the essential characteristics of vision, initiative, tact etc.

5. *Teaching equipment* : The working tools with which the extension workers teach the people cannot be so easily described and yet, the degree of success that attends the extension workers' effort is, to a large extent, dependent upon the proper selection and use of the various teaching tools available.

In view of the contrast between the informal extension education and the formal university education (as previously described), the extension methods selected should be adjusted to the social, economic, physical and intellectual levels of the people and the requirements of the situations that confront the extension worker.

**Teaching methods** may be defined as the devices used to create situations in which communication can take place between the instructor and the learner.

Stated in general terms, the *functions of extension methods* are :

1. to provide *communication* so that the learner may see, hear and do the things to be learnt;
2. to provide *stimulation* that causes the desired mental and/or physical *action* on the part of the learner;
3. in brief, to take the learner through one or more steps of the teaching-learning process, viz., attention, interest, desire, conviction, action and satisfaction.

The methods used for extension teaching are classified in U. S. A. as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1 - CLASSIFICATION OF EXTENSION METHODS<sup>1</sup>

**I. According to Use :**

(a) *Individual contacts*

- i. Farm and home visits;
- ii. Office calls;
- iii. Telephone calls;
- iv. Personal letters;
- v. Result demonstrations.

(b) *Group contacts*

- i. Method demonstration meetings;
- ii. Leader training meetings;
- iii. Lecture meetings
- iv. Conferences and discussion meetings;
- v. Meetings at result demonstrations;
- vi. Tours;
- vii. Schools;
- viii. Miscellaneous meetings.

(c) *Mass contacts*

- i. Bulletins;
- ii. Leaflets
- iii. News stories;
- iv. Circular letters;
- v. Radio
- vi. Television;
- vii. Exhibits;
- viii. Posters.

INDIRECT  
INFLUENCE

<sup>1</sup> Wilson, M C and Gallup, G. "Extension Teaching Methods" op. cit

**2. According to Form****(a) *Written***

- i. Bulletins; ii. Leaflets; iii. News articles; iv. Personal letters; v. Circular letters.

**(b) *Spoken***

- i. General and Special meetings of all kinds; ii. Farm and home visits; iii. Office calls; iv. Telephone calls; v. Radio

**(c) *Visual or Objective***

- i. Result demonstrations; ii. Exhibits; iii. Posters; iv. Motion pictures, charts, slides, and other visual aids.

**(d) *Spoken and Visual***

- i. Method demonstration meetings;
- ii. Meetings at result demonstrations;
- iii. Meetings involving motion pictures, charts and other visual aids; iv. Television.

• DIRECT  
INFLUENCE •

In addition to the conscious dissemination of information through the various methods listed above, the indirect (or natural) spread of information, resulting from specific activities and from the total teaching effort is very substantial. This is what is meant by indirect influence.

Leaders in extension education all over the world have concluded that the principles and techniques fundamental in extension teaching are applicable to any country, community, locality or village. However, adjustments or variations in the selection and use of methods and techniques have to be made to fit existing conditions and situations. Accordingly a somewhat different classification of extension methods is adopted by some authors in India, on the following lines, depending on the way in which they are used by the extension workers.

1. Direct contact.
2. Demonstrations - - Result and Method.
3. Working with village leaders.
4. Village group action.

5. Visual aids - Photographs, Posters, Black boards, Bulletin boards, Flash cards, Flannel graphs, Puppets, Slides, Filmstrips and Films.
6. Literature - News Paper, Wall News Paper, Leaflets, Pamphlets and Circular letters.
7. Tours.
8. Songs and Dramas.
9. Specimens, Models and Exhibits.

Before considering the several extension methods in detail, it is better to understand a few terms used in this connection. We have stated already that one of the important functions of extension methods is to provide communication.

### COMMUNICATION

**What is Communication?** It is the process of transferring an idea, skill or attitude from one person to another accurately and satisfactorily. In other words, it is the sharing of ideas, attitudes or skills between two or more persons. The main purpose of communication is to influence the behaviour of people exposed to the communication.

#### Components of Communication Process

1. The *communicator* - one who provides initiative to the process of communication. (The giver of the message) e. g., V.D.O.
2. The *objective* - the purpose of communication; e. g., to increase wheat production. (There should be a clear-cut and specific objective : e. g., wheat-growing farmers of village 'x' to know that improved varieties give increased yield.)
3. The *audience* - the receivers of the message, the persons who are to change; e. g., wheat - growing cultivators of 'x' village.
4. The *message* - the content of the communication, the specific changes you want to bring about, e. g., improved varieties give higher yields.
5. The *channel* - the method or means used to get the message to audience; e. g., an informal group meeting.
6. The *treatment* - the way you put your message across, within a channel, i. e., what the audience actually sees, hears or does; e. g., showing of actual specimens of local and improved wheats, to dramatize the difference between the two.

7. *Feedback*-knowing the reaction of the audience to the message. e. g., farmers who attended the meeting were convinced about the superiority of the improved wheat over local variety.

8. *Evaluation* - measuring the effectiveness of the message. i. e. to what extent the objective has been achieved e. g.; 50% of the farmers in village 'x' have adopted the cultivation of improved wheat in the first year.

Needless to say, a good extension worker should be a good communicator. To be a good communicator, one should thoroughly understand the nature of the above mentioned elements of the communication process and manipulate them effectively to achieve his objectives. The suggestions given in Chapter I for arranging an effective learning situation can be applied here *mutatis mutandis*.

### EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS<sup>1</sup>

#### Direct Contact

(This includes individual and group contacts)

The method which the *Gram Sevak* will use first, and most frequently is direct contact — — face-to-face relations with village people individually and in groups. The most important thing for him to remember about direct contacts is to have something specific in mind he wishes to accomplish. In the first round of village "Get acquainted" visits, the *Gram Sevak* will be using almost exclusively the direct contact method. For these initial direct contact visits, the *Gram Sevak* should have four objectives in mind.

- i) he will want to see if he can discover to whom the village people tend to look for leadership and for what purpose;
- ii) he will want to explain the objectives and methods of the community Development Programme;
- iii) he will want to sound out possible villager interest, and
- iv) he will want to learn from the villagers what they consider to be their village problems, and what interest they have in solving them.

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1) Adapted from the following :

- a) "A Guide to Community Development" op. cit.
- b) "Extension Education in Community Development" op. cit.
- c) "Extension Teaching Methods" op. cit.
- d) Haas, B Kenneth and Ewing, H. Claud "Tested Training Techniques, Prentice-Hall, Inc. New York, 1950

As the *Gram Sevak* continues to work in the villages, he will make more and more direct contacts with villagers in groups. These group contacts will be for the purpose of arousing the villager's interest in new village problems and to get them thinking that it would be a good thing if they started trying to work out their own solution for a given problem. The danger is that the *Gram Sevak* will want to rush the villagers to take action on problems he feels are urgent.

Since direct contacts revolve around conversations, the following are some suggested guides which will help make direct contacts more effective.

1. Be sincere in your discussions and relations. In other words, make it clear by your manner of approach that you understand and like village people and that you are out to help them.
2. Develop the art of listening.
3. Be sure of your facts. When you don't know, say you don't know, but that you will find out and give a report later.
4. When new and significant ideas develop out of the conversations, develop the skill of letting the individual or group feel that the idea has come from a person or persons in the group.
5. Use simple language having meaning to the village people.
6. Avoid arguments.
7. In leaving; feel and express a genuine friendliness and appreciation. Strive to create a desire on the part of the people to want you to return soon and often.

The above suggestions apply in general to all direct contacts. We shall consider some specific methods under this category, as each method has its own peculiarities.)

#### (A. INDIVIDUAL CONTACTS

##### Method No. 1. Farm and Home Visits

**What is it ?** — (It is a face-to-face type of individual contact by the extension worker with the farmer and/or the members of his family on the latter's farm or at his home for one or more specific purpose connected with extension.)

(**What are the objectives or purposes ?**

1. Obtain and/or give first hand information on matters relating to farm and home conditions.

2. Give advice or otherwise assist to solve a specific problem; or to teach skills etc.
3. Arouse the interest of those not reached by other methods.
4. Select local leaders, demonstrators or co-operators.
5. Promote good public relations.
6. Otherwise contribute to strengthening the extension organisation or facilitate extension programme.)

**Principles or procedure to be followed :**

1. Decide upon the place of the farm and home visit in the teaching plan outlined to advance a particular phase of the extension programme.
  - a. Consider alternative methods which might be employed.
  - b. Decide whether the visits are primarily for direct teaching or are needed to increase the effectiveness of group methods and mass media.
2. Clarify the *purpose* of the visit - Which of the purposes mentioned above are expected to be achieved by the visit ?
3. *Plan the visit :*
  - a. Review previous contacts with members of family.
  - b. Check subject matter information likely to be needed - - leaflets or bulletins etc.
  - c. Work out schedule of visits in the community to save time.
  - d. Remote and unfrequented farms and homes should always be kept in view.
  - e. Consider best approach in view of individual family situation.
4. *Make the visit :*
  - a. Punctuality and consideration for the time of the farmer should always be borne in mind. Contact the man preferably when he is on the job; e.g., discuss about improved plough when he is ploughing.
  - b. Be friendly, sympathetic and complimentary.
  - c. Gain and deserve interviewee's confidence.
  - d. Let the farmer do most of the talking.
  - e. Speak only when he is willing to hear.
  - f. Talk in terms of his interest.
  - g. Use natural and easy language, speak slowly and cheerfully.

- h. Be accurate in your statements.
- i. Don't prolong arguments.
- j. Compliment the farmer for good ideas.
- k. Be sincere in learning as well as teaching.
- l. Arouse interest and create a desire to take action.
- m. Render the farmer a real service.
- n. Leave clear impression as to object of visit.
- o. If possible, hand over a folder or bulletin etc., pertaining to the topic discussed, or a packet of seeds if necessary. This will help in developing friendship.
- p. Leave the farm or home as a friend.

5. *Record the visit :*

- a. Date, purpose of visit, what was accomplished, and follow-up commitments made.
- b. Make sure through appropriate office device that follow-up at appropriate time is not overlooked.

6. *Follow up the visit :*

- a. Send applicable literature or other things by post or otherwise.
- b. Extend invitation to attend a meeting; if any; on the concerned topic.
- c. Make subsequent visits if and when required.

**Advantages :**

- 1. Provides extension worker with first-hand knowledge of farm and home conditions, and the view points of farm people.
- 2. If made on request, the farmer or home-maker is likely to be ready to learn.
- 3. The ratio of "takes" (acceptance) to "exposures" (efforts) is high.
- 4. Builds confidence between the extension worker and the farmer.
- 5. May increase greatly the effectiveness of group methods and mass media.
- 6. Contributes to selection of better local leaders, demonstrators and co-operators.
- 7. Develops good public relations.
- 8. Useful in contacting those who do not participate in extension activities and who are not reached by mass-media.

**Limitations :**

1. Requires relatively large amount of extension worker's time.
2. Number of contacts possible is limited.
3. Comparatively costly.
4. Time of visit may not be always opportune from the standpoint of farmer.
5. Danger of concentrating visits on the progressive farmers, and neglecting those who are most in need of such personal contacts.

**Method No. 2 Office Calls**

**What is it?** It is a call made by a farmer or a group, on the extension worker, at his office for obtaining information or other help needed or for making acquaintance with him.

**What are the objectives?**

1. To facilitate quick solution to farmer's problems, by saving the time of extension worker.
2. To enable the farmers to bring specimens of diseased plants or insect pests etc., so that the extension worker can identify them and give necessary advice to the farmers.
3. To arrange for or ensure timely supplies and services.
4. To promote close contact between farmers and extension organization.

**Principles to be followed :***(General arrangements)*

1. Office should be located conveniently so as to facilitate large volume of calls.
2. Space and furniture should be arranged to permit orderly routing of callers.
3. It should be possible for caller to confer privately with the extension worker.
4. Office room should be kept attractive with bulletin boards, leaflets etc.
5. Office should be open during usual working hours.
6. Extension worker should regularly attend office, while at headquarters.
7. Arrangements should be made to provide information to the callers in the absence of the extension worker.

**EXTENSION EDUCATION***(During the interview)*

8. Cordial, sincere interest shown in visitor's problem.
9. Applicable reference material, including record of previous contacts readily accessible.
10. Unhurried consideration of entire problem without undue waste of time.
11. Caller made to feel welcome to call again.

**Follow up :** See that unfinished business connected with the call is completed as promised

**Advantages :**

1. (Visitor likely to be highly receptive to learning.)
2. Economical use of extension worker's time.
3. (Good indication of farmer's confidence in extension.)

**Limitations :**

1. (Extension worker cannot be at headquarters always.)
2. Callers in his absence may not be satisfied with the information or guidance obtained.
3. (Office contacts removed from actuality of farm or home situation may not reflect the real problem or accurately reveal pertinent conditions.)
4. (Visitors likely to be limited to those participating in other extension activities)

**(Method No. 3. Personal Letters**

Under the existing conditions of high percentage of illiteracy etc., this extension method is relatively unimportant in India. Nevertheless, instances are not wanting when a few farmers write to the extension worker for advice. Moreover with the obvious increase in the number of literates in rural India, and the involvement of educated youth in extension activities, this method (Personal letters) may assume more importance in future than at present.

**What is it?** (It is a personal and individual letter written by the extension worker to a farmer in connection with extension work.)

**Objectives:**

1. To answer enquiries from the agriculturists regarding specific farm problems, or supplies and services etc.
2. To seek the farmer's co-operation in extension activities.

**Principles to be followed :**

1. Promptness - - A letter asking for information should be answered promptly because the person writing the letter has more than passing interest in the matter and will be likely to use information which provides a satisfactory solution to his problem. Remember that information delayed is information denied.
2. Put yourself in the other fellow's shoes—Have a genuine concern for the other fellow's interest, view point, limitations and desires.
3. The letter should be :
  - a. *Complete* - give all necessary information to accomplish its purpose.
  - b. *Concise* - say what you have to say in the fewest words consistent with clearness, completeness and courtesy.
  - c. *Clear* - so that it not only can be understood but cannot be misunderstood.
  - d. *Correct* - containing no mis-statement of facts, or grammatical mistakes etc.
  - e. *Courteous* - tone appropriate for the desired response. How something is said as important as what is said.
  - f. *Neat* - free from over-writings, strikings etc.
  - g. *Readable* - short sentences, short words, and human interest make for easy reading.

**Method No. 4. Observation Plots (District Trials/Minikit Trials)**

(Note: Although this does not appear to have been mentioned in the published literature on Extension, this is the first stage which any new improved variety of seed, fertiliser, pesticide or any new practice, for that matter, must pass through, before it is taken to the stage of result demonstration or method demonstration and before advocating its large scale adoption. This is not an Extension Method in the strict sense of the term. However, the need for this sort of adaptive research as a pre-requisite for successful extension work has been widely recognised. So, it is essential for extension workers to understand the important features of this method. It must be remembered that unlike regular trial plots, which are laid out systematically to satisfy the requirements for statistical analysis, the observation plots are designed to give rough and ready, nevertheless, reliable indications about the performance of a new variety or practice. In the case of Minikit trials, the small sized observation plots are laid out simultaneously in a wide geographical area comprised of several agroclimatic zones.)

**What is it ?** (It is a method by which the suitability or otherwise of a new practice to a given locality under farmer's conditions, is determined.)

(A new practice may mean (i) the introduction of a practice not existing hitherto; e. g., planting sesbania along paddy field bunds or (ii) the introduction of an improvement over local practice; e. g., replacing cultivation of open pollinated maize with hybrid maize, or (iii) replacing an already established improved practice with a more improved new practice; e. g., Adoniscum cotton replacing Laxmi cotton which had replaced H<sub>1</sub> cotton earlier.

The new practice may be a varietal, manurial or cultural improvement, or a combination of two or more of these types of improvement.)

**Objectives or purposes :**

1. To test the performance under ryots' conditions, of a new practice which has been found to be promising on a research station.
2. To avoid possible losses to farmers and consequent loss of their confidence in extension due to large scale introduction of new practices without prior observations on a small scale.
3. To build the confidence of both the extension worker and the farmer in the utility as well as feasibility of a new practice.)

**Principles or Procedure to be followed :**

1. Determine the need for arranging the observation plot - i. e., whether there is a prima facie case for undertaking the trial, taking local conditions into consideration.
2. Be clear about the specific purpose of the trial.
3. Select about six representative centres in your jurisdiction for conducting the trial.
4. In these centres, select the co-operators in consultation with the local farmers.
5. It is desirable to select as co-operators for this purpose; such farmers who have confidence in extension and who also can afford to take the risk of possible failures (in rare instances).
6. Select in the co-operator's holding an average field, representative of the tract (i. e. neither too rich nor too poor) and also easily accessible.

7. Make it clear to the co-operator and to the other farmers that it is a trial or a rough and ready experiment only, and not a demonstration plot.

8. It is important that all operations right from preparatory cultivation to harvesting, threshing and weighing are done under the personal supervision of the extension worker.

9. Restrict the size of the "control" and "treated" strips to the minimum possible, so as to have a large number of replications.

10. Visit the plot as frequently as possible and record on the spot, your observations regarding the relative performance of "control", and "treatment" in the three phases, viz., vegetative phase (growth, tillering etc.), flowering stage (late, early, uniform, uneven etc.) and harvesting stage (uniform or uneven ripening, late or early, lodging or non-lodging, shedding or non-shedding etc.)

11. Accurate records should be maintained, showing the dates of important operations, the yields per acre, the cost of production, the net income per acre, and other relevant observations.

12. The average performance of the new practice should be observed for at least three seasons consecutively, before you think of recommending it for large scale adoption. (This time lag is minimised in the case of Minikit Trials).

#### **Advantages :**

1. Avoids the pitfalls of hasty recommendation and/or adoption of new practices.
2. Constitutes the first step towards the spread of a new practice after thorough testing.
3. Obviates the technicalities, difficulties, and delays involved in laying out regular trial plots, and analysing the results statistically.
4. Builds confidence of the extension and research workers on the one hand and of the farmers on the other, in the utility and feasibility of a new practice.

#### **Limitations :**

1. Makes heavy demand on the time and energy of extension worker.
2. Seasonal failures delay the assessment of the worth of a new practice, leading to consequent delay in its adoption.
3. Difficult to secure suitable co-operators sometimes.

4. Risk of failure of a new practice resulting in financial loss to the co-operating farmer.

5. (Conclusions may not always be unassailable because of the lack of statistical analysis of the data.)

#### Method No. 5. Result Demonstration.

**What is it ?** (A result demonstration is a method of teaching designed to show by example the practical application of an established fact, or group of related facts.) In other words, it is a way of showing people the value or worth of an improved practice whose success has already been established on the research station, followed by district trials or observation plots (i.e., method No. 4).

In this method the new practice is compared with the old one on ryot's holdings so that the villagers may see and judge the results for themselves. Such demonstration requires a substantial period of time and records need to be maintained. It is in no sense an experiment or a trial except perhaps in the mind of the co-operator (demonstrator).

(The result demonstration may (i) deal with a *Single practice*, such as the use of improved strains of paddy seed; or (ii) it may be concerned with a *series of related practices* as in the case of Japanese method of paddy cultivation; or (iii) in some instances it may include the entire farm, as in the case of balanced farming. (i.e., *Whole Farm Demonstration*).

(The result demonstration may be (i) varietal (ii) manurial (iii) cultural (iv) combination of two or more of the afore-said three types, or (v) composite demonstration in which all the essential improved practices in respect of any crop are included as a package of improved practices.

There are two common sense principles underlying this method.

(a) What a farmer himself does or sees, he will believe.

(b) What is good for one person will have general application to others (under similar conditions).

#### Objectives or Purposes :

1. To show the utility and feasibility of a recommended practice under village conditions.

2. Chiefly to establish confidence on the part of the farmer as well as the extension teacher.

**Procedure or Technique :**

**1. Analyse situation and determine need :**

(Determine the place of the result demonstration in your teaching plan)

- (a) Is it necessary to establish further confidence in local application of research findings and results of observation plots?
- (b) What has been the experience of the extension worker in guiding the carrying out of the practice under similar conditions?
- (c) Is it possible to locate good illustration of the practice locally, obviating the necessity of expensive result demonstrations?
- (d) Is the need for result demonstration felt by the farmers?

**2. Decide upon specific purpose :**

- (a) Which particular audience should have the learning experience?
- (b) What specifically do you want them to learn?
- (c) Is it to give confidence to the extension worker and provide him with teaching material?
- (d) Is it to establish confidence of farmer in the new practice?
- (e) Is it to develop confidence in extension on the part of a community or of a minority group with whom extension worker is not known well and favourably?

**3. Plan the result demonstration :**

- (a) Consult subject matter specialist.
- (b) Make as simple and clear-cut as possible. (The more complex the demonstration, the greater the difficulty in evaluating the results attributable to each of the practices involved).
- (c) Decide upon evidence needed and how local proof will be established.
- (d) Determine number of demonstrations needed to accomplish purpose.
- (e) Locate sources of material.
- (f) Reduce plans to writing (calendar of operations etc.)

**4. Select demonstrators :**

- (a) Consult with local leaders and select a demonstrator who commands the confidence and respect of his neighbours, and who is interested in improving his practices.
- (b) Visit the prospective demonstrator to make sure that all conditions for success of demonstration are favourable.

(c) The demonstrator should be conscious of his responsibility for the successful completion of the demonstration and its effect upon the community.

(d) The demonstrator should be willing for the demonstration to be used for teaching purposes such as publicity; pictures, meetings, tours and personal enquiries.

(e) The demonstrator should have to secure the necessary physical equipment, supplies and materials to carry the demonstration to a successful conclusion.

(f) Explain and agree upon procedure with demonstrator and leave written instructions preferably.

5. *Select the plot :*

(a) The plot should be located preferably in a roadside field for easy accessibility and publicity.

(b) The field should be representative or typical of the soils in the village (neither too rich nor too poor).

6. *Start the demonstration :*

(a) Give wide publicity before starting the demonstration.

(b) Get all the materials ready.

(c) Start the demonstration in the presence of the villagers.

(d) Assist in getting the demonstration under way to make certain that the omission of some key point will not make later work fruitless.

(e) Arrange for a method demonstration meeting where a skill may be involved in the beginning stage of demonstration, or later.

(f) Mark the demonstration plots with large signs, so that all can see.

7. *Supervise the demonstration :*

(a) Visit the demonstration plot with sufficient frequency to maintain demonstrators' interest, check on progress, and see that succeeding steps are performed as outlined.

(b) Maintain records and assist the demonstrator also in keeping proper records.

(c) Give publicity to the demonstration and the farmer at suitable stages.

(d) Conduct tours to successful demonstrations at proper times.

(e) Let the demonstrator himself explain to visitors, as far as possible.

(f) Mention in news stories, circular letters, radio talks etc., at critical stages.

**8. Complete the demonstration :**

(a) See that final steps to complete the demonstration are taken.

(b) Take photographs.

(c) Hold meetings at demonstration where visual evidence will contribute to confidence.

(d) Summarise records. Analyse and interpret data.

**9. Follow-up :**

(a) Give wide publicity to results of demonstration.

(b) Encourage demonstrator to report at meetings.

(c) Prepare visual aids based on the results of demonstration.

(d) Get other farmers to agree to demonstrate during the next season.

**Advantages :**

1. (Gives the extension worker extra assurance that recommendation is practical and furnishes local proof of its advantages.)

2. Increases confidence of farmers in extension worker and his recommendations.)

3. Useful in introducing a new practice.

4. (Contributes to discovery of local leaders.)

5. Provides teaching material for further use by extension worker.

**Limitations :**

1. (Requires lot of time and preparation on the part of extension worker.)

2. A costly teaching method.

3. Difficult to find good demonstrators who will keep records.

4. (Teaching value frequently destroyed by unfavourable weather and other factors.)

5. Few people see the demonstration at the stage when it is most convincing.

6. (Unsuccessful demonstrations may undermine the prestige of Extension, and entail loss of confidence.)

**National demonstrations :**

These are special result demonstrations sponsored by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (I. C. A. R.) for popularising the High Yielding Varieties Programme and the Multiple Cropping Programme. In each district there will be normally 25 National Demonstrations which will be conducted by a group of scientists or specialists of the Universities or Colleges of Agriculture. Farmers within a radius of 10 miles will attend these demonstrations at the time of important crop operations. The date, time and venue of operations to be carried out, the specialists available for consultation and discussion of field problems, will be announced in advance through the radio.

The farmers showing keen interest and initiative will be identified at the time of these demonstrations and they will be persuaded to repeat the same on their lands on return to their villages. These farmers will also act as convenors of the discussion groups (Charcha Mandals) formed in the villages.

The inputs for the National Demonstrations, specialists to carry out these demonstrations and the vehicles for the quick movement of the specialists etc., are provided by the I. C. A. R.

These National Demonstrations and Charcha Mandals, together with short-duration institutional training, constitute the main planks of the Farmers' Training and Education Programme which is now in operation throughout the country.

**B. GROUP CONTACTS (GROUP METHODS)****Method No. 1. Method Demonstration.**

**What is it?** It is a relatively short-time demonstration given before a group to show how to carry out an entirely new practice or an old practice in a better way. It is not concerned with proving the worth of a practice but *how to do* something; e.g., pruning grape vine. It is definitely *not an experiment or trial* but a teaching effort. In contrast to the result demonstration conducted by the farmer (demonstrator) under the supervision of the extension worker to prove that the recommended practice will work locally, the method demonstration is given by the *extension worker himself* or a *trained leader* for the purpose of *teaching a skill* to a group.

In the role of a skilled technician the extension worker or leader shows the *step-by-step procedure* in the operation, explaining each succeeding step as he proceeds. The learners watch

the process, listen to the oral explanation, and ask questions during or at the close of the demonstration to clear up points about which there is uncertainty. Where practicable as many members of the group as possible repeat the demonstration in the presence of the others. This helps to fix the process in the minds of the audience and increases confidence in their ability to master the technique.

(The method demonstration is the *oldest form of teaching*. Long before language was developed, men taught their children how to hunt, how to cultivate etc., through method demonstration. In the jungle, the tiger cub learns to hunt by following and playfully mimicking the tigress).

**Objectives or Purposes :**

1. To enable the people to acquire new skills.
2. To enable people to improve upon their old skills.
3. To make the learners do things more efficiently, by getting rid of defective practices.
4. To save time, labour and annoyances and to increase satisfaction of learners.
5. To give confidence to the people that a particular recommended practice is a practicable proposition in their own situation.

**Procedure or steps to be followed :**

**1. Analyse the situation and determine the need :**

- a) Determine that the subject-matter practice involves skills which need to be demonstrated to many people.
- b) Is the demonstration for new skills developed through research, or for old skills not being performed successfully?
- c) Is it suitable for visual presentation to a group?
- d) Can the demonstration be repeated satisfactorily by local leaders?
- e) Is the practice really important from the farmers' view point?
- f) Can people afford to follow the practice?
- g) Are supplies and equipment available in sufficient quantities to permit wide-spread use of the practice?

**2. Plan the demonstration in detail :**

- a) Gather all the information about the practice. Familiarise yourself with the subject matter. Check on research findings.
- b) Talk over the problem with a few village leaders. Let the

villagers help you plan the demonstration. Let them provide land and other requisites.

- c) Have a time table, depending on how much skill is required and how soon it is to be acquired.
- d) Have a job break-down or a demonstration outline giving the operations in logical steps.
- e) Identify the key points to be emphasised under each step.
- f) List out and select demonstration materials and equipment most likely to be available or readily obtainable.
- g) Arrange for diagrams, directions, and other teaching materials to be distributed.
- h) Prepare kits of special material needed by local leaders if they are to repeat the demonstration.
- i) Make sure that the work place is properly arranged: (lighting, no odours, no distracting noises).

### 3. Rehearse the demonstration :

- a) Practice demonstration until you are thorough with all the steps and know exactly what you should say or do at each step, so that the operation can be performed in a manner to inspire confidence.
- b) Make sure steps and points will be clear from audience's point of view.
- c) Check time required, to make sure there is opportunity for audience's questions and other expected participation.

### 4. Give the demonstration :

- a) Prior publicity should have been given about the place and time.
- b) Be at the spot early to check up equipment and material.
- c) Make physical arrangements so that all participants can have a good look at the demonstration and take part in the discussion.
- d) Explain purpose, and how it is applicable to local problem.
- e) Find out what they already know about the practice.
- f) Show each operation slowly step by step, repeat where necessary.
- g) Use simple words to explain each step of the operation.
- h) Make sure the audience can see and hear clearly.
- i) Emphasise key points and tell why they are important.
- j) Solicit questions at each step before going on to next step.
- k) Give opportunity to learners to practice the skill.

(l) Distribute supplemental teaching material (bulletins, leaflets etc.) pertaining to the demonstration.

(m) Summarise steps covered in demonstration.

(n) Get the names of participants who propose to adopt the practice. This helps follow-up.

(o) If demonstration is given before local leaders who will repeat it; emphasise teaching points to be made. Explain contents of demonstration kit.

**5. Follow-up :**

(a) Give publicity on the demonstration through press, radio, meetings etc.

(b) Arrange for reports on number of; and attendance at demonstrations given by local leaders.

(c) Make a sample check to assess the extent of use of the skill; and satisfaction derived by those attending the method demonstration.

**Advantages :**

1. Peculiarly suited in teaching skills to many people.
2. Seeing, hearing, discussing and participating in a group stimulates interest and action.
3. The costly 'trial and error' procedure is eliminated.
4. Acquirement of skills is speeded.
5. Builds confidence of extension worker in himself, and also confidence of the people in the extension teacher, if the demonstration is performed skillfully.
6. Simple demonstrations readily lend themselves to repeated use by local leaders.
7. Introduces changes of practice at a low cost.
8. Provides publicity material.

**Limitations:**

1. Suitable only for practices involving skills.
2. Needs good deal of preparation, equipment and skill on the part of extension worker.
3. May require considerable equipment to be transported to the work place.
4. Requires a certain amount of showmanship not possessed by some extension workers.

**Basis for Demonstration**

1. Most people retain 10-15% of what they READ, if the subject is explained in clear and simple language or in particular technical terms.

2. The majority remember about 20-25% of what they HEAR, if their concentration is not limited through listening "with one ear" to a speaker who perhaps fatigues them with a tedious lecture.

3. About 30-35% of what they have SEEN is kept in mind by the majority; even more if what is offered is well arranged and selected.

4. The majority remember 50% and more of what they have SEEN and HEARD at the same time, provided both presentations complement one another.

5. Up to 90% of what is taught is kept in mind by the majority of people, if they participate actively, and if ALL THE SENSES are involved.

"Only the demonstration can make teaching perfect."

**Method No. 2. General Meetings**

The term "General meetings" includes all kinds of meetings held by extension workers (See list under "Group contacts" in the classification according to *use-Table 1.*) There is a large variety of such meetings. In size they run from the small committee meetings to those held on special occasions; *Melas* or festivals attended by thousand. Geographically, the meetings may be held in a neighbourhood, a community or village, a block a district or State. The meetings may be held in a hall, home, field, shandy and so on. They may be held periodically or sporadically. The method of presentation may be the lecture or formal talk, informal or formal discussion, or the showing of slides, or a motion picture film. Special kinds of meetings often take the name of the meeting objective; e. g., Programme planning meeting, Evaluation meeting, Annual meeting, Vanamohotsava meeting, Farmers' Day meeting, meeting at result or method demonstration etc. etc.

(**Essential elements** : It is obvious that elements which make for a successful meeting will vary greatly with the kind of meeting being held. Nevertheless, there are certain elements which are essential in practically all meetings. They are detailed below;

1. *Determine the place of the meeting in the teaching plan:*

a) Is it felt desirable to reach many people quickly?

b) Is group action required? will the group - approach contribute to learning?

**TABLE 2. Observation, Result Demonstration, Method Demonstration (Comparison and Contrast)**

Particulars	Observation	Result Demonstration	Method Demonstration
Purpose	To try a new practice recommended by research workers with a view to observe its value, suitability or otherwise, in a given area under farmer's conditions.	To show locally the worth or value of a recommended practice.	To teach how to do a job involving skill; (to teach 'doing' skills').
Conducted by	Farmer (Co operator) under close supervision of extension worker.	Farmer (demonstrator) under the guidance of extension worker	Extension worker himself or local leader specially trained for the purpose.
For the benefit of	Extension worker to decide the suitability or otherwise of a new practice to a given locality.	The demonstrator as well as other farmers.	Persons present at the demonstration.
Comparison	Essential. Replications also necessary.	Essential. (Not necessary to have replications in the same field.	Not essential
Maintenance of records	Absolutely necessary.	Necessary	Not necessary.
Time required	Substantial Period.	Substantial Period.	Relatively very little.
Cost	Costly	Costly	Relatively cheap
Interrelationship.	Usually precedes result demonstration.	Usually follows observation plots; may involve one or more method demonstrations.	Often paves the way for result demonstration.
Steps in Procedure	(See details given under each of the three methods)		

c) Will it serve to focus attention on the problem, and provide material for news articles ; radio talks, circular letters etc., as additional means of teaching.

2. *Define the specific purpose of the meeting* and the segment of the extension clientele to be reached? Is it :

- a) To disseminate subject-matter information ?
- b) To develop interest in a new subject ?
- c) To change attitudes toward a problem ?
- d) To deepen understanding of public problems ?
- e) To determine programme or plan of action ?
- f) To develop leadership and local responsibilities ?
- g) To provide an opportunity for social contacts ?
- h) To evaluate the progress made under a project or scheme ?

3. *Plan in advance for meeting :*

- a) Decide number of meetings, places, and tentative dates.
- b) If the time and place are to be selected ; it is important to *select the time*--season of the year, day of week, and time of day--in terms of the work cycles of those persons expected to attend ; and *select the place* in terms of its accessibility to the majority of the persons who are to attend.
- c) After selecting the tentative date, check to see that there are no important competing events that will affect attendance ;
- d) Select meeting place which will provide suitable lighting, seating arrangement, ventilation and other necessary facilities.
- e) Encourage participation of local leaders in arranging and conducting the programme. Agree upon the part each will play and approximate time each will take.
- f) Outline a tentative programme or agenda.
- g) As far as practicable, hold day-time meetings ; to reduce number of night meetings.
- h) Secure speakers or resource persons as needed.
- i) Inform speaker regarding local conditions and suggest subject matter be adapted to needs of local audience.
- j) Select the audio-visual aids best suited to the occasion.
- k) Provide for social and recreational features.
- l) Utilise the methods of publicising the meeting that are necessary to ensure satisfactory attendance of those people the meeting is intended to reach.

**4. Conduct the meeting :**

- a) Start the meeting on time. Chairman, (usually a local leader) should open meeting promptly.
- b) State the purpose, and programme of the meeting. (Programme is developed in an orderly manner, the procedure, of course, depending on the kind of meeting.)
- c) Make introductions brief.
- d) Focus attention on central theme.
- e) Keep meeting moving on Schedule.
- f) Use appropriate audio-visual material.
- g) Watch reaction of audience. Encourage audience participation when desirable.
- h) At appropriate time, take action on matters calling for decision.
- i) Take advantage of group psychology and employ appeals that arouse interest; create desire and stimulate action.
- j) Close meeting on time with brief summary by chairman.
- k) Give recognition to individuals and groups that have actively participated.
- l) Hand out relevant folders or pamphlets at the time of break off.
- m) Take names of those interested in further information or follow up.

**5. Follow up the meeting :**

- a) Evaluate the meeting, to see if you can make any improvements in meetings to be arranged in future.
- b) Utilise what happened at meeting, in news articles, radio broadcasts etc.
- c) Make farm or home visits, or send additional information to persons requesting for it.
- d) Make sample check to determine satisfaction with meeting, and the extent to which the information is being used.

**Advantages :**

1. Reaches a large number of people.
2. Adopted to practically all lines of subject matter.
3. Recognises basic urge of individuals for social contacts.
4. Group psychology stimulates conviction to act.
5. Promotes personal acquaintance between extension worker and village people.)

6. Supplements many other extension methods.)
7. Has great news possibilities and publicity value.
8. Influences change in practice at low cost.

**Limitations :**

1. (Suitable meeting place and facilities may not always be available.)
2. (Wide diversity in character and interests of audience may create a difficult teaching situation.)
3. (May require undue amount of night work on the part of extension worker.)
4. (Circumstances beyond the control of the workers, such as conflicting attractions, unfavourable weather etc., may result in poor attendance.)
5. (Meetings which are poorly arranged or conducted may have far-reaching unfavourable effects.)
6. The holding of meeting may become the "real" objective, rather than the purpose the meeting was intended to advance.)

Although the above elements relate to all kinds of meetings in general, it will be useful to understand the special features of some of the important kinds given below.

**Lecture :** The lecture method is extensively used to present authoritative or technical information to develop back-ground and appreciation and to integrate ideas. (The range of subjects that can be covered by this method is unlimited.) But the speaker at a given meeting presents a specific subject to a particular audience. The lecture is an excellent method for presenting information to a large number of persons in a short period of time. Its weakness is that people are not likely to master as much of the information as the speaker is likely to assume; because for the most part it is a one-way communication. Members of audience listen in terms of their interests and remember in terms of motivation and memory. To compensate somewhat for this weakness a discussion or question-and-answer period may be held following the speech. This is generally called a forum. However, lectures designed to entertain or commemorate (e. g., humorous talks; patriotic addresses etc.,) are more effective without a forum.

The chief characteristics of the "Lecture Method", are: (1) usually it is an organised presentation. (2) It can be used to cover thoroughly the subject matter. (3) It is adaptable to large groups. (4) It

appeals to the "ear-minded". (5) It conserves time. (6) Results are easy to check. (7) Listeners sometimes absorb information without thinking. (8) Material gained through lecture is not really learned. (9) The lecturer may "lose" his group or go over the heads of his group.

The lecture method can be used advantageously : (1) with large groups where the individuals have some common back-ground of information and experience; (2) when it is necessary to cover a large quantity of material in a given time; (3) when it is necessary to arouse enthusiasm in initiating a new programme or in further development of a programme; (4) when giving factual information; (5) when providing a common back-ground of information as a basis for further study; (6) where there is need to supplement other methods.

The lecture method is not effective : (1) when skills are to be developed; (2) when no testing is done; (3) when group participation is desired; (4) when problems are to be solved; (5) when "doing" ability is to be acquired.)

**Debate :** The common pattern is to have two teams, one representing the affirmative, and the other the negative side of the question. Usually there are two speakers for each side. Each speaker is allowed a definite amount of time to make his main speech and rebuttal after the main speeches have been completed.

In this case, there is two-way communication between the debaters, but one-way communication for the audience. The range of subjects for debates is limited to controversial topics. The big advantage in a debate is that more than one side of a question is presented. There is, however, one danger. If it is a decision debate; there is the temptation for the debate to become highly antagonistic. In such a case, the motive to win the debate by any means may lead to distortion of information, ignoring the primary need to inform the audience. This objection to the debate is overcome by holding non-decision debates or by having a forum after the debate.

**Symposium :** This is a short series of lectures; usually by 2 to 5 speakers. Each one speaks for a definite amount of time, and presents a different phase or subdivision of a general topic. The topic should be large enough or general enough to permit two or more subdivisions that are sufficiently significant to justify separate discussion by speakers. The subject may or may not be controversial. It is important that the speakers are of approximately equal

ability, to avoid one speaker dominating the meeting or giving the audience a distorted view of the subject. The speeches may be followed by a forum to facilitate mastery of information. The advantage of symposium over lecture is that two or more experts present different phases of the topic. It also has an advantage over the debate as it is possible to escape the antagonism that may accompany the latter.

**Panel :** It is an informal conversation put on for the benefit of the audience, by a small group of speakers, usually from 2 to 8 in number. They are selected on the basis of the information and experience they have. Members are seated so that they can see one another and also face the audience. The panel is generally rehearsed before it is presented to the public. The leader introduces the members of the panel to the audience and announces the topic. He has the responsibility to see that the conversation keeps going, by asking questions or making brief comments, and encouraging the less talkative members. There are usually 3 types of panel : (a) the question-answer panel in which the presentation is actually a series of questions by the leader (or Chairman) and answers by the members; (b) Set-speech panel, each one making a prepared speech; (c) the conversational panel in which members hold a conversation among themselves on the topic, with questions and comments going from one member to another. This third type is more nearly in line with the definition of a panel than the other two, and is the pattern to be achieved.

The panel may be used to present almost any topic that may be used for a lecture, debate or symposium. The special advantage of a panel is that a spontaneous conversation about some subject may have more interest for the audience than a lecture. For better mastery of information the panel should be followed by a forum.

**Forum :** It is a discussion period that may follow any one of the above methods of presentation. It consists of a question period in which members of the audience may ask questions or make brief statements. The forum provides an opportunity for the audience to clear up obscure points and to raise questions for additional information. It also gives individuals an opportunity to state briefly their understanding of a point and see whether they have interpreted correctly the material presented. It is primarily a means of understanding information.

**Buzz sessions :** (Phillips 66 format) : With large groups when there is limited time for discussion, the audience may be divided

into smaller units for a short period. This is called 'buzz session' or 'huddle system' or "Phillips 66". Groups of 6 to 8 persons get together after receiving instructions to discuss about a specific issue assigned. The secretary of each small group will report the findings or questions to the entire audience when they are reassembled. This is actually a device to get more people to participate in a forum than would be the case otherwise.

**Brain Storming :** Is a type of small group interaction designed to encourage the free introduction of ideas on an unrestricted basis and without any limitations to feasibility. It is a form of thinking in which judicious reasoning gives way to creative initiative. Participants are encouraged to list for a period of time all the ideas that come to their minds regarding some problem and are asked not to judge the outcome. At a later period all the contributions will be sorted out, evaluated and perhaps later adopted.

**Workshop :** It is essentially a long meeting from one day to several weeks, involving all the delegates in which the problems being discussed are considered by delegates in small private groups. There must be a planning session where all are involved in the beginning. There must be considerable time for work sessions. There must be a summarising and evaluation sessions at the close. The workshop as the name implies must produce something in the end a report, a publication, a visual or any other material objects.

**Seminar :**

It is one of the most important forms of group discussion. The discussion leader introduces the topic to be discussed. Members of the audience discuss the subject to which ready answers are not available. A seminar may have two or more plenary sessions. This method has the advantage of pooling together the opinions of a large number of persons.

**Conference :**

Pooling of experiences and opinions among a group of people who have special qualifications in an area.

**Institut :**

Consist of a series of meetings and lectures. They are a source of new information and new ideas.

**Syndicate Studies :**

These essentially follow the seminar method and the focus is on any particular subject or problem. The syndicate studies are con-

ducted with the help of group discussions, supplemented by the available literature on the subject and the end product is a erudite report. Resource men are utilized for the syndicate studies. The studies on any subject can continue for a month or more, with 10 to 12 sittings.

### **Method No. 3. Group Process<sup>1</sup>**

#### *(Village Group Action; or Social Action Procees)*

An extension worker should make use of group and group action as a means of focusing attention on a problem and mobilizing people for action.

**What is a Group?** A comprehensive definition and classification of groups is given in the chapter on Rural Sociology. At this stage, it is enough to understand that a group is a body of individuals drawn together around a common interest. A Social group may be simply defined as two or more persons in reciprocal communication and interaction.

In extension or any other social action programme, the following steps must be considered. To start a programme at the wrong stage or not to understand our part can lead to failure and inefficiency.

#### **1. The Social Systems :**

a) All Social Action takes place in a social system. This may be the State, district, block, community, etc.

b) We must have a general understanding of the social system to know what parts are important to our own social action programme.

#### **2. The Prior Social Situation :**

For every given Social Action there must exist some past experience in the social system which relates to the kind of Social Action now under consideration. We should determine the actual existing experience or prior experience relating to the proposed Social Action Programme.

#### **3. Problem (Situation) :**

a) Social Action usually has its start by two or more people agreeing that some kind of problem or situation exists and that something should be done.

b) Action may be started by people inside the social system, by someone with inside-outside interest such as an extension worker or an outsider such as a specialist.

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1. Adopted from Rogers, F. E., Class notes for Extension Education, Course No 401, Missouri University, Winter semester 1960-61.

c) Interests for originating action may be common (e. g., farmers wanting soil testing facilities) or complimentary (e. g., farmers want way to test soil and fertilizer, dealer wants soil tests to help sell fertilizer.)

#### 4. *The Initiating Sets :*

a) There must be sufficient agreement on the need by other people than the Social Action originators. These people who feel something should be done about the problem are the "initiating sets".

b) The initiating set consists of two or more people, usually not a very large group.

c) More than one initiating set may be involved. They add ideas, alternatives and actually initiate action on the idea or programme.

#### 5. *The Legitimation Stage :*

a) In almost every community, or social system, there are certain people or groups that seem to have the right authority and prerogative to pass on things to make them legitimate ideas. These people are called "legitimizers".

b) The initiating set usually takes the problem to the legitimizers. To by-pass this group usually spells failure.

c) Legitimizers may be :

(1) Formal administrators - Village Officers, Panchayat Presidents etc.

(2) Informal - certain individuals or cliques.

d) A legitimizer may have power because of money, family prestige, key position, knowledge, past correct judgements etc.

e) A legitimizer may heartily endorse, say "may be, yes, no, nothing, you may use my name, won't oppose, etc.".

f) If you by-pass a legitimizer his position is challenged. At times the legitimizers may actually have to be by-passed if it is felt the programme really merits action. This should be done with consequences in mind.

#### 6. *The Diffusion Stage :*

a) After an idea has been legitimized, it is ready to be moved to the diffusion stage.

b) At the start of this stage, only the idea originators, 4 or 5 initiators and the legitimizers might have heard of the idea.

c) At this stage we are ready to determine if the general public or a relevant part of the public will define it as a need.

- d) The diffusion people take the programme to the public. In each case careful evaluation should be made to see who does this.
- e) Quite often the idea originators make very poor diffusers.

#### 7. *Definition of Need :*

a) Once the diffusion set is established we try to make the problem become the people's problem. A number of techniques that can be used to get people to take an idea and define it as their problem are as follows :

a) *Basic Education* - - This is a long range programme. It does get the facts to the people.

b) *Programme Development Committees* - - Certain key people in the community study situation, problems, resources, etc. By this method people begin to see a need.

c) *Comparison and Competition* - - Use approach by "our community or our farm is not as good as someone else's" (e.g. people are going to another town because they have better amenities.

d) *Exploiting Crisis* - - When crisis arises, make a play on certain needs.

e) *Demonstration or Trial* - - Set up a demonstration to show that improvement can be made. Create a need by comparison.

f) *Building on Past Experiences* - - (e.g., we now use fertilizer, let us test soil and use fertilizer "efficiently".)

g) *Channeling Gripses* - - If people are against something, their negativeness can be transferred into being for something.

8. *Commitments to Action* - - Besides getting a definition of need from people, we must also get a commitment to do something. This may be - - agreement to attend meetings; to act at proper time; to pledge money; to take part in programme; vote of confidence etc.

#### 9. *Setting up Goals and Objectives :*

Once a felt need is established, out of it must come some definite targets, goals or objectives.

#### 10. *Explore Alternative Methods or Means :*

a. Usually we have more trouble in agreeing on how we are going to do something than on what we are actually trying to do.

b. All alternatives or different ways of doing the job should be considered.

c. After considering all alternatives, arrive at the best possible alternative and proceed.

**11. Set up Programme and plan of work :**

a. After we have set up our goals and objectives and have decided on the basic methods we should use, then we will want to set up a plan of work a programme with the organizational structure to carry it out.

b. In the plan of work such things should be considered as - -  
 (1) A time schedule (2) Committee set-ups (3) Kinds of personnel needed (4) Buildings required (5) Visual aids or other methods (6) Need for meetings (7) Publicity (8) Other items.

**12. Mobilizing and Organising Resources :**

Once we have laid down our plan of work, then we must mobilize and organize our resources so that the plan can be carried out. Thus once we have the plan on paper we must find - -

(1) The time (2) The people (3) The resources (4) The physical facilities (5) Whatever else is needed to actually carry the plan into action.

**13. Launching the Programme :**

a. As we move into gear in terms of Social Action, some programmes basically break down into sort of a launching process. This launching might take the form of campaigns, a series of tours, a fund drive, a publicity splurge.

b. The purpose of a launching programme is to make a big event so that people will know we are now in the action stages of the programme.

**14. Carrying out the Programme :**

This consists of the various action steps necessary to carry the programme forward.

**15. Continuous and Final Evaluation :**

a) Between each of the action steps as at all the places along the Social Action scale, we stop and evaluate. We evaluate what we have done; our next immediate goal; alternative methods of reaching that goal.

b) Evaluation should be continuous, not only in terms of a particular programme but also as it brings out a need for and would influence other Social Actions.

It can be seen from the above consideration or the group action process, that group discussion is an indispensable component of it. In a democratic society like ours, every individual has a voice

in taking decisions on matters which concern him, by way of participating in group discussions. It is, therefore, necessary for extension workers to be conversant with the features and techniques of this important extension method; i. e. group discussion.

**Method No. 4. Group Discussion, (Group Thinking Conference)<sup>1</sup>**

**Definition :** It is that form of discourse which occurs when two or more persons, recognising a common problem exchange and evaluate information and ideas, in an effort to solve that problem. Their effort may be directed towards a better understanding of the problem, or towards the development of a programme of action relative to the problem. Discussion usually occurs in a face-to-face or co-acting situation, with the exchange being spoken. And when more than two people are involved, it usually occurs under the direction of a leader.

**Purposes :**

1. To solve a problem (decision-making).
2. To exchange information (improve understanding)
3. To motivate.
4. To plan a programme of action.
5. To elect or select a person for a position etc.
6. To entertain.
7. To hear and discuss a report.
8. To form attitudes.
9. To release tensions.
10. To train individuals.

**Prodecure :**

1. Understand and adopt the proper technique. The technique of a problem-solving group discussion consists of the following six steps based on the "reflective thinking" pattern.
  - i. Recognition of the problem as such by the group.
  - ii. Definition of the problem, its situation and diagnosis.
  - iii. Listing of as many solutions as possible.
  - iv. Critical thinking and testing of these hypotheses to find the most appropriate and feasible solution or solutions.

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1. Adopted from :

- (a) "Group Organization and Leadership in Rural Life" by Hepple, L.M. Lucas Brothers, Columbia, Missouri. 1959.
- (b) "Discussion" by Howell, W. S., and Smith, D. K., the Macmillan Company, New York, 1956.

- v. Acceptance or rejection of the solution or solutions by the group.
  - vi. Lastly, considering how to put the accepted solution into practice.
2. See that one of the group members takes up the role of the discussion leader (or chairman). Extension worker should avoid this role as far as possible, because in such a case, a situation is likely to develop where the group listens and the chairman does all the talking.
  3. The size of group should never exceed 30 persons.

**4. The role of the chairman :**

- a) Make physical arrangement for the meeting, so that all members feel comfortable. Seating arrangement should be such that every one can see the faces of all other members. Circular seating is preferable. (Square, rectangle, U or V shape also used sometimes.)
- b) Introduce members, if they are new to one another.
- c) Announce the topic and purpose of discussion.
- d) Follow a plan.
- e) Hear all the contributions made, and from time to time give short summaries of the discussion upto that particular moment, especially when the group moves from one step to another (of the reflective thinking pattern).
- f) Build a permissive climate.
- g) Keep the group moving at the rate at which their thinking progresses.
- h) Give or get clarification of vague statement.
- i) Promote evaluation of all generalizations.
- j) Protect minority opinion.
- k) Try to get balanced participation.
- l) Promote group cohesion.
- m) Remain personally neutral.
- n) Give a final summary of discussion.

**Some Don'ts for chairman :**

- a) Never ask questions that suggest answers or can be answered with a Yes or No. (Put only thought-provoking questions).
- b) Don't favour one view against another when there is a conflict or difference of opinion among members.
- c) Never become emotional about the discussion.

- d) Don't become impatient with the group.
- e) Don't dominate the discussion or answer all the questions raised by the members.

**5. The roles of members :**

- a) Talk one at a time. No private conversation with neighbours. No speech making.
- b) Supply as much pertinent information as possible.
- c) Contribute one point at a time.
- d) Answer questions directly, specifically and briefly.
- e) Test all thinking by critical analysis.
- f) Listen attentively.
- g) Stay on the subject.
- h) Exhibit willingness to change his opinion when change is justified (i. e., open minded). A person may hold opinions, but opinions should not hold a person.
- i) Support the needed leadership.
- j) Promote group harmony even while criticising or disagreeing.

**6. The role of the expert (Extension worker or Specialist)**

There may be occasions when a group confronted with a problem does not have sufficient information to enable them to discuss intelligently. In such cases, the role of the expert is not to dominate the meeting, nor to suggest his own solution. He should only supply information, the group does not have; furnish technical information, present ways other groups have met similar situations, and present the immediate problem in its larger setting, with implications for integrating the solution of the problem with other group policies and action programmes.

**Advantages :**

1. It is a democratic method, giving equal opportunity for every participant to have his say.
2. It appeals to the practical type of individuals.
3. It creates a high degree of interest.
4. The strength of group discussion lies in the fact that the discussants approach the problem with an open mind and suspended judgement in a spirit of enquiry.
5. It is a co-operative effort and not combative or persuasive in nature.
6. Combined and co-operative thinking (Pooling of wisdom) of several persons is likely to be superior to that of isolated individuals.

7. A small group can think together on a problem in an informal fashion and work out solutions better and faster by using this method than by following rigid parliamentary procedure. (Even parliament and legislatures recognise this when they appoint *ad hoc* committees.)

8. Develops group morale. When a group discusses a question and then comes to a decision, that is "our" decision for the group and they will see that "our" decision is carried out. (Group action is encouraged).

9. It is a scientific method (employing the reflective thinking pattern).

10. Participants need not be good speakers or debaters.

11. Continued experience with such group discussions improves one's capacity for critical and analytical thinking.

**Limitations :**

1. (Factions in villages may hinder the successful use of this method.)

2. The ideal discussants with self-discipline (open mind and suspended judgement) are difficult to find. So also, it is difficult to find an ideal chairman or leader for group discussion.

3. (It is not suitable for dealing with topics to which discussants are new.

4. In large groups especially, and even in small groups to some extent, it is difficult to achieve group homogeneity or cohesion.

5. The size of the group has to be limited, because the success of the method is perhaps inversely proportional to the size of group ; other factors being constant.

6. It is not a good method for problems of fact.

7. It is not suitable for taking decisions in times of crisis or emergency, as it is a slow process.

8. Due to its informal conversational style, the scope for orderly or coherent arrangement of ideas is limited.

**Method No. 5. Working With Village Leaders**

This is dealt with in chapter V.

**Method No. 6. Field Trips (Conducted Tours)**

**What is it ?--** It is a method in which a group of interested farmers accompanied and guided by an extension worker, goes on tour to see and gain first-hand knowledge of improved practices in their natural setting (whether on research farms, demonstration farms, institutions or farmers' fields). It is a series of field and demonstration meetings arranged in a sequence.

**Purposes :**

1. To stimulate interest, conviction and action in respect of a specific practice; e.g., preparing rural compost. The cumulative influence of several ideal compost pits is more likely to provide such stimulation than a single illustration.
2. To impress the group about the feasibility and utility of a series of related practices; e.g., proper preservation of farm yard manure, rural composting, urban composting, green manuring - which are all included under the item "development of local manurial resources".
3. To induce a spirit of healthy competition by showing the accomplishments in other villages.
4. In short, to help people to recognise problems, to develop interest, generate discussion and to promote action.

**Procedure :**

1. provide for field trips at opportune time in the over-all teaching plan.
2. Prepare an outline of specific aims of the trip.

**3) Plan the trip :**

- a) Decide upon the places to be visited and the things to be seen and learnt. Do not crowd the programme.
- b) Then arrange for necessary permission from the concerned authorities to make the trip.
- c) Fix up date, time, means of transport, number of participants to be taken number of stops, arrangements for rest and refreshments in consultation with the village leaders.
- d) Accompanying staff should pay an advance visit to the actual sites before conducting the party.
- e) Give definite instructions to participants where and when to meet, insist on punctuality in arrival and departure timings at each stop.

**4) Conduct the trip :**

- a) Give guide sheets in simple language (if the majority are literate).
- b) Focus attention on the purpose of the trip.
- c) Let every one see, hear, discuss and if possible participate in the activities at the places of visit.
- d) Allow time for questions and answers.
- e) Help them to make notes of interesting information.

f) Follow the general instructions regarding conversation applicable to all direct contact methods.

g) Avoid accidents.

h) Adhere to schedule all through.

5) *Record the trip :*

Accompanying staff should note the details of the trip, the names of participants etc., to facilitate follow-up.

6) *Follow-up :*

a) Contact the participants individually and in groups.

b) Arrange for necessary supplies and services.

c) See that the desired action results.

d) Give due recognition to the successful learners.

e) Build up publicity material

**Advantages :**

1. Participants gain first-hand knowledge of improved practices, and are stimulated to action.

2. Eminently suited to the "show me" type of people.

3. (Percentage of "takes" to exposures is high.

4. Widens the vision of farmers.

5. (Caters to group psychology and leadership.

6. Has incidental values of entertainment and sight-seeing.

**Limitations :**

1. (It is costly.) 2. Difficult to fix up season and time suitable for all.) 3. Bottlenecks of transport and accommodation at halting places. 4. (Possibility of subordinating educational aspect to the sight-seeing aspect.) 5. Risk of accidents.)

### C. MASS CONTACTS

In addition to the personal contact methods and the face-to-face group teaching methods, mass media enable extension workers to greatly increase their teaching efficiency. Publications, newspaper articles, circular letters, radio, television, exhibits, posters etc., provide helpful repetition for those contacted personally or through groups. They also facilitate dissemination of information to a much larger and different clientele. Even though the intensity of the teaching contact, through mass media is less, the large number of people reached and the low cost per unit of coverage more than off-set the lack of intensity. The extension teaching plan which neglects the communication possible through mass media fails to fully capitalise on what has already been invested in the more intensive contact methods.

## ✓ I. Publications

(Extension Journals, Bulletins, News Letters,  
Pamphlets, Folders, Leaflets)

**General Purpose :** Your purpose in writing is to communicate information. Therefore your first consideration is your reader audience. If you were writing for a scientific paper, you would use a vocabulary and style different from what you would use when writing for the general public.

**Principles to be followed :** How clearly you communicate information to average readers depends on how well you *select, sift,* and *sort* your facts.

1. *Select facts :*

a) *Suitable subject matter :* Does it meet a need? Is it timely? Is it of current interest? Does it apply to your area? Is information practical?

b) *Readers :* Who are the people you want to reach? What are their problems, interests, and educational levels? Do they have the environment and capacity to make use of the information?

c) *Purpose of publication :* What do you want it to teach and accomplish? Do you want to stimulate interest in a programme or do you want to influence the people to do some thing?

2. *Sift facts :*

a) Sift essential facts necessary to give information clearly.

b) Screen out difficult concepts which are beyond reader's experience or understanding; e.g., pH. value; calorific value.

c) Give layman an appreciation of subject rather than a detailed explanation.

d) Express highlights.

e) Don't try to impress the lay reader with all you know.

f) Don't document everything.

3. *Sort facts :*

a) Arrange facts in logical order. b) Set out important points in 1-2-3 order (step by step). c) Guide reader with attractive subheads and suitable illustrations and pictures.

4. Remember the A B C's of journalism -- Accuracy, Brevity, and Clarity -- which are the fundamentals of all good writing.

5. Adopt the following tips for readability :

- a) *Short sentences*, clear in meaning, simple in construction, with few prepositional phrases and dependent clauses. (Average 12 to 17 words). Give one idea in each sentence.
- b) *Simple words* — familiar, concrete words.
- c) *Personal*, or human — interest words.

**Advantages :**

1. Can reach a large number of people quickly and simultaneously.
2. Can be read at leisure, and kept for future reference.
3. Generally people have confidence in the printed page.
4. Necessary supplement to other teaching methods.
5. Information usually definite, well-organised, and readily understood.
6. Influences adoption of practices at relatively low cost.
7. Provides scope for recognising achievements of individuals and groups.
8. May promote literacy.

**Limitations :**

1. Not suited for illiterate audience.
2. Frequent revision may be necessary to keep abreast of current research.
3. Information prepared for general distribution may not fit local conditions.
4. Impersonal; lacks social value of personal contacts and meetings.

## ✓ 2. Circular Letters ✓

**What is it?** It is a letter reproduced and sent to many people by the extension worker, to publicise an extension activity (like meeting, exhibit etc.) or to give timely information on farm and home problems.

**Purposes :**

1. To attend a meeting,
2. To stimulate interest in a subject.
3. To adopt a new practice.
4. To perform a service to community or block.
5. To answer a questionnaire.
6. To maintain interest and cooperation of youth club members, local leaders, cooperators etc.
7. To prevent spread of pests and diseases.

**Procedure and Principles :**

1. Determine the place of the circular letter in the teaching plan.
2. Determine specific purpose of the circular letter and the segment of extension clientele to be reached.
3. Plan the use of the circular letter :
  - a) Plan letter to serve definite purpose.
  - b) Should be important, timely, and related to specific needs and interests.

- c) Indicate for each subject-matter the number of letters, nature of contents, and approximate date of distribution.
  - d) Organise letters on a series basis, when desirable.
  - e) Have an up-to-date classified mailing list, according to problems and interests of people.
  - f) Check duplicating and mailing equipment in advance.
4. Write circular letters and get them duplicated :
- a) Appeal immediately to personal interest with a snappy statement in the first paragraph, pointing out the importance of the problem to the person addressed.
  - b) Give a cartoon or illustration containing the central idea. Have a single purpose.
  - c) State the facts concerning the nature or seriousness of the problem (how it affects the locality and the individual).
  - d) Suggest what the person can do to alleviate or solve the problem.
  - e) Letter must be neat and appealing to the eye, and free from errors.
  - f) Above all, personalise your letter by using.
    - i) Expressions you use in every-day contact.
    - ii. Direct statements.
    - iii. Simple sentences.
    - iv. Action words with few affixes.
    - v. Personal references. (the "you" approach).
    - vi. Appropriate anecdotes.
    - vii. Courteous conclusion.

**Advantages :**

In addition to the advantages given in the case of "Publications" (item I above), the following are the special advantages.

1. Convey timely information effectively to special interest groups.
2. Eminently suited to make announcements to get attendance.
3. Unlike news articles, circular letters have the advantage of making more direct appeal; (not surrounded by other reading matter and head lines to distract attention);
4. Especially helpful in maintaining interest and co-operation of local leaders, demonstrators or co-operators etc.
5. The author's enthusiasm and personality can put life in to the information carried in such letters.

**Limitations :**

1. Special equipment and clerical help necessary.
2. Too frequent use may minimise effectiveness.
3. Not suited to illiterate clientele.
4. Does not have the advantage of personal letters in catering to the needs of a particular individual.

### 3. News Articles (or News Stories)

**What is it ?** News is any timely information that interests a number of persons, and the best news is that which has the greatest interest for the greatest number. It is an accurate, unbiased account of the main facts of a current event that is of interest to the readers of a news paper.

**Purposes :** (a) To develop interest. (b) To inform general public (c) To disseminate subject matter information (d) To create favourable attitude. (e) To reinforce other extension methods like meetings and demonstrations.

**Technique :** 1. Remember that news should have one or more of the following characteristics.

(a) Something that actually happens (e. g., harvest of paddy crop competition plot in A's field). (b) Unusual (extra-ordinary) e. g., 3600 Kgs. of paddy per acre. (c) Important (not trivial). (d) Near to the point of publication or audience. (e) New, recent or timely. (f) Something that interests farmers - - (i) Catastrophe-e.g., Locust invasion. (ii) Fight, conflict, struggle e. g., competing for a prize in fruit show. (iii) New knowledge (e. g., about new type of machinery).

2. Use accepted principles of good reporting :

(a) Write the lead sentence - - which tells the crux of the situation, i.e., something of importance to the reader.

(b) Use the pyramid form of writing i. e., - put the important paragraphs first, so that it won't matter even if editor cuts off the last paragraph or two.

(c) Use the five W's and the H as guide i. e., see if you have answered the *Who, What, Why, When, Where,* and *How*. Get as many of these as possible in the first paragraph, as a safeguard against editor's cutting.

(d) Write in simple language.

(e) Avoid using your personal opinion.

(f) Be accurate, fair and brief.

(g) Include motivating appeals.

3. Evaluate effectiveness of news articles.

**Advantages :**

(a) (Low cost.) (b) Large coverage in short time. (c) Efficient source of timely information. (d) Carries the prestige and confidence of the printed word. (e) Reinforcing effect on other extension methods. (f) Tax payers come to know about extension activities (public relations).

**Limitations :**

(a) Of no value if people are illiterate or do not read or hear news paper.) (b) Difficult to check the results (c) Requires special training to write good articles.

✓ **4. Radio**

**What is it?** It is a medium for mass communication; a tool for giving information and entertainment.

**Purposes :**

1. To reach large numbers of people quickly and inexpensively.
2. To reach people not reached by other means.
3. To stimulate participation in extension through all other media.
4. To build enthusiasm and maintain interest.

**Procedure or Technique :**

1. Determine its place in the teaching plan.
2. Be clear about the purpose of your broadcast.
3. Keep the interests and needs of the audience in view.
4. Select topics of current interest.
5. Time the broadcast to synchronise with the farmers' leisure hours.
6. Decide what treatment to give - - straight talk, interview, panel, drama etc.
7. For writing the script, follow the principles given for writing news articles.
8. Encourage people to listen to rural programmes.
9. Encourage them to write to the broadcasting stations about their likes, needs and opinions.
10. Encourage talented local people to participate in broadcasting.

**Advantages :**

1. Can reach more people more quickly than any other means of communication.)
2. Specially suited to give emergency and timely information (e.g., weather, pest out-break etc.)
3. Relatively cheap.)

4. Reaches many who read little or none at all.
5. Reaches people who are unable to attend extension meetings.
6. A means of informing non-farm people (tax payers) about agricultural matters.)
7. Builds interest in other extension media.
8. Possible to do other things while listening.

**Limitations :**

1. (Limited number of broadcasting stations.
2. Not within reach of all farmers.
3. Recommendations may not apply to individual needs.
4. No turning back if not understood.
5. (Frequently loses out in competition with entertainment.
6. Difficult to check on results.)

**5. Television (T. V.)**

Television is one of the important mass media for dissemination of information in the rural areas.

Television has unique advantages over other mass media. While it provides words with pictures and sound effects like the movies, it scores over the latter by its high intimacy and reaches the largest number of people at the shortest possible time. The visual in it has the advantage over the radio. Television can deal with topical problems, and depict known persons who can provide the solutions. People learn through the eye, and will remember things better if they see them. Television-viewing does not demand the strain and discipline needed to read the printed medium. The messages on the TV screen are preselected, sorted out and then presented in the simplest manner possible.

Demonstrations, "the need" in farm extension, are brought to the farmer by television. This has great value in making converts to better farm practices. Apart from the evidence by their own eyes, farmers also respond readily to what is said, especially by other farmers, and if the same point as extension people make in their inter-personal communications are highlighted, the combination is doubly effective. It is within the power of television to provide the dynamic presentation to bring ideas in a compelling way into the receptive environment of the farmers' home or community.

However, the sights should not be set too high. Experience both in India and in other countries shows that it has limitations. Does television change behaviour or induce action? Many countries have come to the conclusion that the answer is a 'no'. As a mass medium, TV Programmes lead to awareness, contribute information and perhaps help form opinion. Before the farmer thinks of taking action, he will require the televised information and impression to be reinforced by local demonstration and individual personal confirmation.

Awareness creates curiosity about a new idea in the minds of farmers, leading them to seek more information on it. Before the idea is adopted in practice, the farmer undergoes two more important stages of evaluation and trial. Television everywhere is concerned very strongly with the first stage of awareness. Apart from that it speeds up the entire process of adoption. Television is strong in providing the stimulus, and exposing the audience to a whole range of ideas and experiences.

Programmes in agriculture have an immediate effect, if the ideas put forward come along at a time when the farmer needs them most, deal with subjects of which he had no fixed idea but was groping in the dark, and will speed up changes already taken on hand by the farmer.

#### **Entertainment First**

The main motive behind viewing television is to get entertainment in its widest sense, and not with a purpose of learning something. The farmer sits before a television set to spend his leisure time in an agreeable manner. Hence, we have to provide the farmer with a clean, good entertainment interlocking it with the messages we need to impart on the farm and the home. Entertainment includes every thing which is pleasant, contains good humour and which indirectly provides a lot of interest in the idea presented. This calls for a good showmanship.

Agricultural television will pose a number of questions that need to be answered before programmes are formulated. There are no ready made solutions available. We can draw but very little upon the experience of other countries, as the answers have to suit our conditions. Continuous experimentation is the only way of arriving at the answers.

It is usual to identify the factors involved in television programmes for farmers. Among these factors, timing, frequency and length, format or design, content and the treatment used for putting the content across are the most important ones.

**Timing :**

So far as timing is concerned, we know what time of day is the most suited for viewing by farmers. Surveys in radio listening have given us a good indication of the most suitable time for television viewing also. However, an important consideration is not to have television farm programmes on the days when farmers can profitably spend their time with radio forums or radio charcha mandals. If both these programmes are scheduled for the same date and the same hour, they will have to miss one or the other. This is not desirable as the radio is an established and popular medium with farmers and they should not be deprived of listening to their favourite broadcast. Again what has been seen on television has to be reinforced through the radio, if we desire a fuller impact, and the radio is certainly one of the media which will have to be constantly used in support of television programmes.

However, radio listening surveys have shown that the evening time is the most unsuitable time for farm women to listen to, and the most suitable time for them, when they are free of the household chores, is the afternoon. This has to be taken into consideration while planning special programmes for farm women.

**Frequency and length :**

Producing a TV Programme in agriculture would be time-consuming if worth while programmes are to be produced. Depending upon the programme and its content, it may take anywhere between eight hours and several months to produce a half-an-hour programme. Unlike for the radio, it would be impossible to produce a quality programme at short notice in television. The frequency of the programme will, therefore, depend entirely on the manpower, equipment and funds available. Keeping in view the limitations that Indian TV will have in these three respects, too frequent programmes will not be possible, without detriment to the quality of the programmes. A programme twice a week, at least in the initial years of TV should be more than ample.

**Format :**

There are two alternatives available to TV for the format of the programme, depending upon content and purpose. First, where the programme is on one single message or subject, considerable

research and planning will be needed, and hence such a programme cannot be at very frequent intervals. It can only be at the most once a week. The second type contains two or more short items, each item by itself complete, which then will take the form of a magazine. However, it has to be remembered that the rural viewer's mind has to be conditioned to the movement on the TV's screen and as such very short items which are flicked fast one after another do not usually register themselves. Hence, such items, should also be carefully produced, giving time sufficient enough for understanding and absorption in the rural mind.

**Content :**

The content of a programme meant for farmers has to serve and has to satisfy the dual purpose of information and entertainment. Information itself has to be presented in an entertaining manner. For this the broadcaster himself needs to use his talent in showmanship to combine all the ingredients of the programmes and present it in a pleasant manner to the audience.

The content of the programme can help the audience, if the subject presented is exactly what the audience is interested in and also is presented in an interesting manner. Again, agricultural programmes presented with an eye to reinforcing extension effort have to keep the requirements of the extension and advisory specialists in mind, so that they could take over from the time the TV programme ends. To be able to do so, the producer should work with topicality and importance of the subject matter content kept in the forefront.

**Treatment :**

Treatment is related to content. But whatever the content, what is expected is a good quality not only in the visuals but also in sound. In producing agricultural programmes, both studio and outdoor shooting have place.

In recommending a farmers' programme, the pattern Belgium followed has much to commend itself for our consideration. There, they split the agricultural programmes into two parts. The first consists of films recording events, interviews with prominent persons or experts in organisational or economic facts, and documentary reviews of agriculture in other countries. The second part consists of talks on technical subjects of appropriate seasons but with one theme and lasting only for five to six minutes, documentary shorts on demonstrations and essentially educational material, instructive playlets and incidental music.

It must be remembered that agricultural television is primarily for imparting information, and no attempt can succeed in making it a substitute for direct contact in imparting detailed instruction because of the time limitation and absence of actual farm situation. Farmers, however, can very well be persuaded to attend training courses. In this regard both radio and TV are excellent auxiliaries.

There is one important aspect of visuals which is yet to be fully explored in India, i. e., the use of still photographs. These are much easier to operate; faster to get results from and can be used very effectively where motion is not vital to the programmes. Scripting is easier, as it is easier to move the picture according to the commentary than *vice versa*. When a silent film is used, it is common to come across instances where the visual races far ahead of the commentary, thus confusing the viewers and destroying continuous interest. This defect is easily got over by the use of stills. In fact, still photographs offer us package of programmes which can be very good stand-bys. Extensive libraries of such packages could be built up in the TV studios, and produced and supplied by agricultural research and development organisations.

**Research before Production :**

Factual presentation in agriculture must be factual. In this connection, research in programming is an important factor which has unfortunately not been given enough attention. Lack of research results in the facts tending to disappear and errors being transmitted and much of the criticism of errors of fact perpetuated in television can be traced to lack of adequate research on the accuracy of the material.

**Need for Rehearsals :**

Like research preceding a programme, rehearsal is a very important aspect of telecasting. It will give a good idea of what to avoid, what to introduce in the programme. Rehearsals, therefore, should invariably precede actual telecasting. When talks are scheduled, it is necessary that they are accompanied by the use of films or stills, and if possible also by studio demonstrations.

**Personnel :**

What type of men should take part in the technical programme? The agricultural specialists the farmer, the extension specialist or the TV commentator? Each has his own place in the programme : but there has to be a balance depending upon who best can add to the credibility, authenticity of the programme. Probably, the TV comm-

entator would be the one that has to appear the most. It is his personality that has got to be liked by the viewer and this has in turn, great influence on him in establishing the relationship between himself and what is said and shown on TV.

What are the best techniques in agricultural programmes? How much of film and how much of stills? Several countries have evolved their own formula after experimentation for a number of years. What may suit one audience may not suit another. An answer to this can be found only through our own continuous experimentation and observation of the reactions of viewers.

Studio group discussions between specialists and farmers on specific but controversial subjects or on an innovation suggested by the specialist but with different experience of the farmer regarding the end result has paid dividends on the Radio. The same interest can be generated among viewers if studio discussions are arranged. A healthy discussion on the pros and cons of a subject of importance, such as an agricultural policy or development scheme, could be well discussed from different angles, but the viewers should be left to draw their own conclusions in their own minds. This way, the programme would gain popularity with its viewers.

## ✓ 6. Campaign

**What is it?** It is an intensive teaching activity undertaken at an opportune time for a brief period; focussing attention in a concerted manner on a particular problem, with a view to stimulate the widest possible interest in a community, block or other geographical area. Campaigns are launched only after a recommended practice has been found acceptable to the people as a result of other extension methods like method or result demonstrations etc.

### **Purpose :**

To encourage emotional participation of a large number of people, and to foster a favourable psychological climate for quick and largescale adoption of an improved practice.

### **Procedure :**

1. Determine the need for a campaign.
2. Be clear about the purpose. Make sure that it fulfills the need of local people.

3. *Plan the Campaign:* a) Consult local leaders and organisations. b) Consult specialists. c) Ensure timely supply of men and materials. d) Select a suitable time for launching the campaign. e) Give wide publicity in advance. f) Build up enthusiasm of the people. g) Allot specific areas and items to each service personnel and local leaders.

4. *Conduct the campaign:* a) Ensure that campaign is carried out as per plan. b) Work with and through local leaders. c) Watch the campaign closely throughout. d) Avoid failures.

5. *Follow-up:* a) Make individual and group contacts to find out reactions. b) Assess extent of adoption. c) Find out and analyse failures. d) Publicise successful items. e) Give due recognition to local leaders responsible for success.

**Advantages :**

1. Specially suited to stimulate mass scale adoption of an improved practice in the shortest time possible.
2. Facilitates exploitation of group psychology for introducing new practices.
3. Successful campaigns create conducive atmosphere for popularising other methods.
4. Builds up community confidence.
5. This method is of special advantage in the case of certain practices which are effective only when the entire community adopts them.

**Limitations :**

1. Applicable to only a few topics of common interest; but not suited to solve individual problems.
2. Successful only when all participants co-operate in the campaign.
3. Not useful when advocated practice involves complicated technicalities.
4. Requires adequate preparation and close association of officials and non-officials, concerted efforts and propaganda techniques.

**7. Media Forums:**

A combination of mass media and inter personal communication channels is the most effective way of reaching people with new ideas and persuading them to utilize these innovations. Media forums developed originally in Canada among farm families and later

spread to such less developed countries as India, Nigeria, Ghana; Malawi, Costa Rica, and Brazil.

*Media Forums* are small organised groups of individuals who meet regularly to receive a mass media programme and discuss its contents. The mass media linked to the forum may be a radio, as in the India forums called *Charcha Mandals* or the *radiophonics* schools of Latin America, printed fare as is usually the case in Communist Chinese study groups, or television as in the Italian *telescuola*. In all cases media forums represent a combination of mass media with interpersonal channels.

#### **Types of Media Forums :**

*Radio Forums*: Undoubtedly the largest, most thoroughly researched media forum programme today is India's, representing a degree of experience with the radio rural forum unequalled in the world. There are currently about 12,000 forums enrolling a quarter of a million Indian peasants in twice-weekly meetings. (Radio forums help make farmers aware of agricultural and health innovations and encourage them to try these new ideas.) Regularly scheduled radio programmes beamed at meetings of forum members gathered in homes or public places to hear the broadcast serve as impetus for the group discussion that follows. The forums usually provide regular feedback reports of decisions and questions of clarification to the broadcaster. Using the same format, but exchanging the radio for television, UNESCO has sponsored experimental television listening groups in France and Italy, and the Government of India has established teleclubs in some villages.

#### **Mass Media "Schools"**

Media schools attempt to provide basic education including literacy training, for people living in remote rural areas. The Italian *telescuola* and the *radiophonics* programme in Latin America are examples of such schools, as well as Cruzada ABC in Brazil, which uses printed materials. The radiophonic broadcasters intersperse their "lessons" with news, agricultural programmes, religious training, and music. Each school group is led by a trained monitor who helps the students learn and encourages them to listen regularly.

#### **Chinese Communist Study Groups :**

The Chinese Communist Party has employed magazine and newspaper discussion groups as a means of indoctrination and learning among their own party cadres and recruits for 35 years. Approximately 60 percent of the adult Chinese population regularly

participates in study groups where printed material is read and discussed. Strict control of discussion is maintained by the cadre leader who forces each member to take a position on each issue and voice his opinion to the group. Study groups are considered essential elements in the special communication campaigns launched to achieve such varied goals as fly killing, river swimming, anti-spitting, family planning, farm production, and "Maolearning".

In all these various types of media forums currently in operation, some form of mass media communication is combined with interpersonal communication in small groups. The forum seems to be an important element in moving the individuals towards acceptance of the messages being transmitted through the mass media. The mediaforums are used primarily in less developed countries, chiefly to introduce new ideas to vast audiences. With proper adaptation, they could be utilized in educational or political campaigns in more developed nations.

#### **Effects of Media Forums :**

Although there are important country-to-country and programme-to-programme differences in the types of media forum systems just reviewed they possess certain common elements. All utilize a mass medium (radio, television or print) to carry the major load of disseminating messages about technical innovations to the discussion forums. All feature small-sized groups (usually with fifteen to twenty members) who are exposed to the mass media channel and who then participate in discussion of the message. All of the media forum programmes seem to be generally effective in creating knowledge, forming and changing attitudes, and in catalyzing behaviour change.

Neurath<sup>1</sup> designed his field experiment so that comparisons could be made in knowledge increase among peasants who lived in three types of Indian villages: (1) those in which radio forums were established; (2) those in which radios were already present, but no forums were organised, and (3) those with neither a radio nor a forum. Forum villages had much greater gain in knowledge of innovations than did the control villages. In fact, the nonforum villages with a radio showed only very slight gains in knowledge level. These results suggest that *"The effects of mass media channels, especially among peasants in less developed countries, are greater when these media are coupled with interpersonal communication channels in media forums"*.

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1. Neurath, Paul, "Radio Farm Forum in India". Govt. of India Press, Delhi, 1960.

Why do the media have greater effects on individuals when they are members of media forums? Some of the reasons follow:

1. Interest in attendance and participation is encouraged by group pressure and social expectations.
2. Attitude change appears to be more readily achieved when individuals are in groups. Further, group decisions are more likely to be accepted by the individual if he participates in making the decision, as usually occurs in the media forums.
3. The novelty effect of new channels of information and the subsequent high credibility that may be attached to these media (both electronic and interpersonal) may account for some of the success of the media forums.

#### **Implications for Change Agents :**

In the foregoing section we have seen that media forums offer several advantages over purely interpersonal or mass media communication campaigns. By incorporating the advantages of each type of channel into a single propelling force, the change agents can reach a greater percentage of their clients and better persuade them to utilize new ideas.

We should not forget that even very traditional societies had masslike interpersonal communication systems. An example comes from the state of Orissa, one of the most traditional and least developed parts of India. For centuries Orissa has been the site of wandering story singers called *cakulia pandas*, who play an important role in introducing news and ideas to villagers. These storytellers walk from village to village with bells tied to their thighs to announce their coming. Then they promenade the main street of a village, singing recent news to guitar or accordion accompaniment. The story-singers are literate and generally well read. In addition their cosmopolite travel brings them into contact with ideas external to the village. Further, the story singers meet in occasional assemblies to exchange ideas and to agree on the regions that they will cover.

The story-singers are highly credible channels for villagers; the content of their messages represents a combination of religion, traditional stories, and modern technology. One storyteller was heard to sing about a new fertilizer, which he advocated to villagers, and also about the number of tons of wheat being imported to India. Nevertheless, the story-singer's messages are largely limited to relatively simple facts. As Schramm noted, "The mass media are necessary ... because the traveler and ballad singer come

too seldom and know too little". In fact, in Orissa today the number and importance of story-singers is decreasing, because their role is being usurped by the transistor radio and the tabloid.

Another example of the use of traditional mass media, capitalizing on its connections with interpersonal channels is in the family planning campaign in India. An elephant is being used to create awareness knowledge of family planning. He walks from village to village with family planning placards on his side, causing considerable attention. Further examples of traditional mass media are the amateur dramatic and song-and-dance troupes which travel within many less developed countries.

A point which is clear from the examples we have just described is that combining mass media and interpersonal channels reduces the effect of selective exposure. Interpersonal communication functions to multiply and increase the effect of the mass media messages, and the media forums serve to heighten the impact of change-oriented messages by reducing the possibility of selective exposure and selective perception.

The idea behind the use of elephants or storytellers in disseminating new ideas is similar to the radio forums, except that the latter are more formal, more frequent, and generally have more information to disseminate. The unique feature of study groups, forums, and radio or television schools is that they involve a greater amount of intervention in the normal diffusion process than change agents have undertaken in the past. The limited research evidence we have, suggests this is an efficient strategy for change agents.

#### **Strong and Weak Points of the Three Categories of Extension Methods**

The more important advantages and limitations of the 3 categories of extension methods may be summarised as follows.

##### **Individual Contacts :**

##### **STRONG POINTS**

1. Useful in contacting the "stay-at-home" type of people.
2. For teaching complex practices.
3. For selecting local leaders, cooperators, demonstrators.
4. To increase confidence of farmers in Extension.
5. To gain first-hand knowledge of farm and home conditions.
6. The farmer feels a sense of personal importance which is conducive to bring about the desired changes.

7. Enhance effectiveness of group methods and mass media. Effectiveness of group responsibility depends on willingness of individuals to share in it.
8. It is individuals, not groups, who learn, who make choices and accept responsibilities.

**WEAK POINTS**

1. Relatively expensive, because time-consuming.
2. Low coverage of farmers.
3. Possibility of extension worker being charged with favouritism.

**Group Methods :****STRONG POINTS**

1. Enable face-to-face contacts with large numbers at a time.
2. Facilitate sharing of knowledge and experience, and thereby strengthen learning.
3. Meetings are adaptable to almost all lines of subject matter.
4. Satisfy basic urge of people for social contacts.
5. Less expensive than individual contacts, due to saving of time.
6. More effective in stimulating action than mass contacts.
7. Group influence facilitates individuals to accept changes.

**WEAK POINTS**

1. Wide diversity in interests of audience creates a difficult learning situation.
2. Holding meetings may become "real objective".
3. Pitfall of working with caste groups or groups with vested interests should be avoided.

**Mass contact Methods :****STRONG POINTS**

1. They reinforce individual and group contacts by complementing or supplementing them
2. They reach much larger and different audiences.
3. They save time and expense in reaching large numbers.

**WEAK POINTS**

1. Less intensive and less effective than individual and group contacts in bringing about changes in practices.
2. Lack the advantages of "social contacts" or "personal touch".
3. Recommendations being general may not apply to special situations or individual needs.
4. Difficult to evaluate the results.

### Factors to be Considered in Selection and Combination of Extension Methods

No single "rule-of-thumb" can be given for the selection and use of the various extension methods to ensure success in all situations. However, some guiding principles will be helpful in general.

Basically the individual contact methods furnish the most direct opportunities for influencing people effectively. All the other methods of group and mass procedures are dilutions or compromises created by the pressure of necessity. We must reach more people, teach them more often, and keep down the cost per contact. In order to get most effective results, the extension worker should (i) select the "appropriate methods (ii) have a suitable combination of the selected methods and (iii) use them in proper sequence, so as to have repetition in a variety of ways.

For doing this, a number of factors should be considered.

#### A. Selection of Methods

1. THE AUDIENCE: (a) *Individual and Collective Differences*: People vary greatly in their knowledge attitudes, skills, their position in the "diffusion process", and in the "adoption categories", their educational training, age, income level, social status, religious beliefs etc. Some are progressively seeking change, others are slow to change. Some are "eye-minded" while others are "ear-minded". These individual and collective differences influence the teaching approach.

For instance, people with little or no education, and low incomes may respond to personal visits and result demonstrations. The better educated and the more progressive elements of the population usually respond well to methods like group meetings and discussions, exhibits and written materials.

A man in "awareness stage" cannot straight away jump to "adoption stage" but can be gradually brought to the adoption stage by using suitable methods. For "late adopters" (conservatives), direct approach may not yield so good results as approaching through the "early adopters" and "informal leaders".

(b) *Size of Audience*: is also a factor influencing the choice of extension methods. For instance, group discussion cannot be used effectively when the number of participants exceeds thirty; method demonstration can be used for a relatively small audience, while lecture meetings can be used for large audiences.

2. THE TEACHING OBJECTIVE: (or nature of change aimed at). Do you want to bring about a change (i) in thinking or knowledge? (ii) in attitude or feeling? (iii) in action or skill? If you want merely to inform or influence a large number of people slightly, you should use mass media. If you want to influence a relatively small number of people to make maximum improvements, resort to individual contact methods. If you want to change attitudes, or arrive at a consensus of opinion, arrange group discussion or work through village leaders. If you want to teach a skill, use the method demonstration.

3. THE SUBJECT MATTER: Where the new practice is simple or familiar (i.e., similar to those already being followed) the news article, radio or circular letter will be effective, whereas complex or unfamiliar practices will require face-to-face contacts, written materials and audio-visual aids.

4. THE STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT OF EXTENSION ORGANISATION: In the initial stages of extension, result demonstrations will be necessary to gain confidence of farmers. But if extension work is a ready well established and the farmers have confidence in extension services, result demonstrations may not be necessary and local illustrations of adoption by village leaders will suffice.

5. SIZE OF EXTENSION STAFF in relation to the size of extension clientele: The larger the number of extension workers, the greater is the scope for direct or personal contact method.

6. THE AVAILABILITY OF CERTAIN COMMUNICATION MEDIA such as newspapers, telephones, radio etc., will also have a direct bearing on the extent to which these methods can be used.

7. THE RELATIVE COST OF THE METHOD (i.e., the amount expended on extension teaching in relation to the extent of practices changed) is also an important consideration in their selection and use.

8. AN EXTENSION WORKER'S FAMILIARITY with, and skill in the use of the several extension methods will also influence his choice and use of the methods.

#### **B. Combination of Methods**

Extension field studies conducted in U. S. A. over a long period of years show that people are influenced by extension education to make changes in behaviour in proportion to the number of different teaching methods with which they come in contact. As

the number of methods of exposure to extension information increases from 1 to 9, the number of farm families changing behaviour increases from 35% to 98%. Therefore, if widespread response is desired, people must be exposed to teaching effort in several different ways. (i. e., repetition but in a variety of ways).

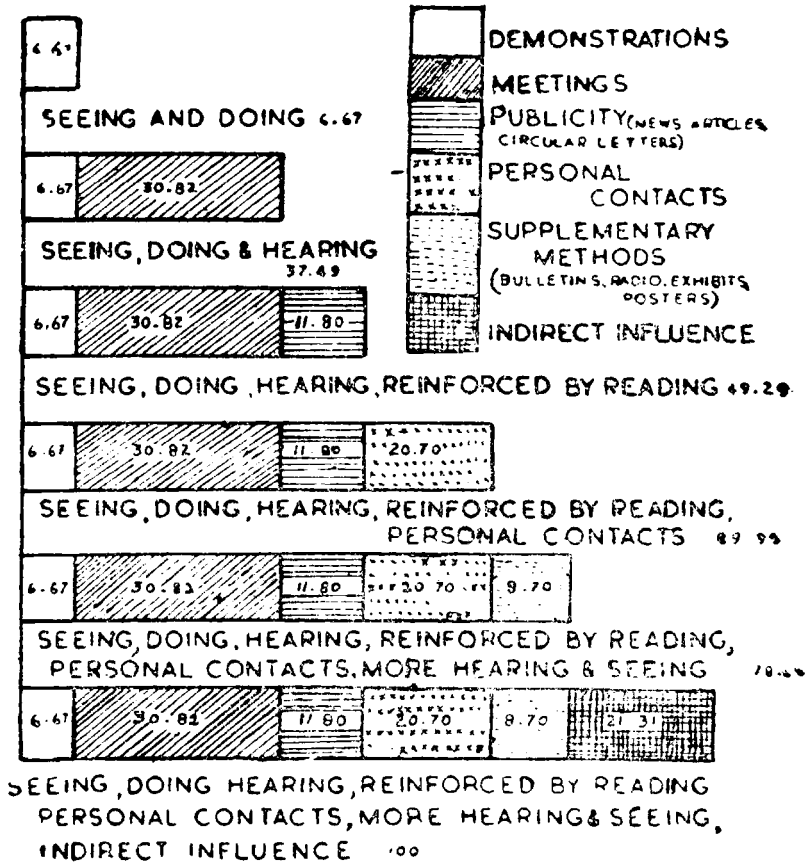


FIGURE 5. INFLUENCE OF EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS

Figure 5. (based on Mr. Wilson's studies) brings out the effectiveness of proper combination of methods. The numerical figures in the chart indicate the contribution of each combination to every 100 adopted practices.

Similar results have been reported by researchers in India. For instance, Nagoke<sup>1</sup> concluded that "combined use of several

1. Nagoke, quoted on P. 147 of "Research in Extension Education", Indian Society of Extension Education, New Delhi, 1970.

different methods is of the utmost importance in extension teaching. The adoption of practices was high when more than five methods were used as compared to single and two to five methods".

### C. Using the Methods in Proper Sequence

To answer our teaching needs, our extension plans of work must include methods that, (a) enable our farmers to see, hear and do the thing to be learned; (b) enable us to reach large numbers of people and (c) create confidence-building situations.

Our completed plans should provide not only for doing each these three things but must be so organised that the completed plan, as a unit, does all three of these things. For instance, a personal contact is made through an office call or farm visit. A leader is visited. A demonstration is established. A meeting is held to discuss the demonstration. The meeting is advertised by circular letters. A news story is written on the results of the demonstration as seen at the meeting. These happenings and results are broadcast over the radio. Pictures are taken and a "slide story" is shown at a meeting. One method helps another, and many of them are used in combination and sequence to repeat the story. Organised, followed-up teaching activity means more improvement in farm and home conditions.

## 2. AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS\*

### Definitions :

1. A visual aid is an instructional or communicating device in which the message can be seen but not heard. 2. An audio aid is an instructional device in which the message can be heard but not seen. 3. An audio-visual aid is an instructional device in which the message can be heard as well as seen.

In common usage, some forms of educational aids are loosely called audio-visual material. Some of these are specifically visual, some audio, and a few are true audio visual media as illustrated in the classification given below. Strictly speaking, no extension medium is complete without talk in some form at some stage,

### \*References :

1. Dale, Edgar "Audio-visual Methods in Teaching", Henry Holt and Company inc., 1959
2. "Extension Education in Community Development"; op. cit.
3. "A Guide to Community Development", op. cit.
4. Moharty, B. B., "A Hand book of Audio-visual Aids", - Kitab Mahal Private Ltd., Allahabad.

even if it be only to introduce the material to the villagers. It must be remembered that audio-visual aids can only *supplement* the teacher but can never *supplant* him.

**Purpose :**

Audio-visual aids are used to improve teaching, i.e., to increase the concreteness, clarity and effectiveness of the ideas and skills being transferred. They enable the audience to Look, Listen and Learn (by doing); to learn faster, to learn more, to learn thoroughly and to remember longer.

Figure 6 shows the "Cone of Experience" devised by Edgar Dale in explaining the inter relationships of the various types of audio-visual materials, as well as their individual "position" in the learning process.

In this cone each division represents a stage between the two extremes--direct experience at the base, and pure abstraction at the apex. (The bands on the cone are not rigid divisions).

1. *Direct, purposeful experience* : It is the unabridged version of life itself, with three elements--directness, purposefulness, and responsibility for the outcome, e.g., making a piece of furniture, ploughing, cultivating any crop.

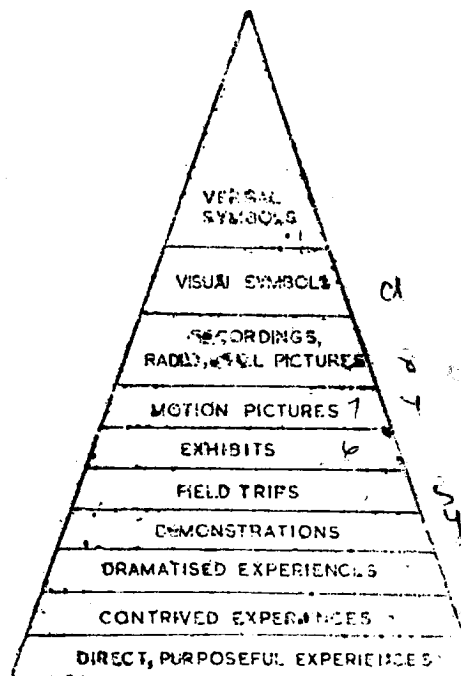


FIGURE 6. THE CONE OF EXPERIENCE (TYPES OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS)

2. *Contrived Experiences* : A contrived experience in an "editing" of reality, differing or not from the original in size, in complexity or in both e.g., models of animals, mock-ups of machinery, objects, specimens.

3. *Dramatised Experiences* : i. e., participating in a reconstructed experience, e.g., dramas, puppet shows.

4. *Demonstrations* } already dealt with in this Chapter.  
5. *Field Trips* }

6. *Exhibits (or Exhibition)* : a planned display of models, specimens, charts, posters etc., presented to public view for instruction, judging in a competition, advertising or entertainment.

7. a) *Television* : already dealt with in this Chapter.

b) *Motion Pictures or Films* - silent pictures or combination of sight and sound.

8. a) *Radio* - dealt with already in this chapter.

b) *Recordings* - on disc, tape, or wire.

9. *Still pictures* :

a) Non-projected (for individual use) - e.g., photographs, illustrations.

b) Projected (for group use) - e.g., photographs and illustrations (used in opaque projector), slides, filmstrips.

10. *Visual symbols* - e.g., flat maps, chalkboards, sketches, cartoons, posters, diagrams, charts, graphs, bulletin boards, flash cards, flannel graphs.

11. *Verbal symbols* - designations that bear no physical resemblance to the objects or ideas for which they stand. These are used together with every other material on the "cone of experience".

The audio-visual aids may also be classified as follows :-

#### I. AUDIO AIDS

- (1) Radio, (2) Recordings; (a) tape, (b) disc, (c) wire,  
(3) Sound commentaries including Public Address Equipment.

#### II. VISUAL AIDS

1. *Non-projected* :- (a) Models, Specimens. (b) Flannel graphs. (c) Flash cards. (d) Photographs. (e) Illustrations. (f) Charts. (g) Posters. (h) Chalk Board. (i) Bulletin Board.

2. *Projected* :— a) Slides. b) Filmstrips. c) Silent Films or Motion pictures. d) Illustrations etc. projected through epidiascope, opaque projector or overhead projector.

3. *Others* :— a) Exhibits. b) Demonstrations. c) Literature.

### III. AUDIO - VISUAL AIDS

1. Sound films. 2. Television. 3. Dramas and Puppet shows.  
Another way of classifying is as :

A. *Display Type* :— e. g., Posters, Bulletin Boards, Models, Exhibits etc.

B. *Presentation Type* :— e. g., Flash cards, Pull Charts, Striptease charts, Slides and Filmstrips etc., with running commentary.

#### Factors Influencing Selection of Audio - visual Aids

Audio-visual aids are used singly or in combination, taking the following factors into consideration.

1. The teaching objective - i. e., the type of behaviour change you want to bring about - gaining information, or changing attitudes, or learning some skill.

2. The nature of subject matter being taught.

3. The nature of audience - age level, educational level, interest, experience, knowledge of the subject, intelligence.

4. The size of audience : e. g., Flash cards can be used for a small audience only; motion picture, for a large audience.

5. Relative cost of the various aids - Effective aids need not necessarily be expensive.

6. The teacher - i) the extension worker's familiarity with and skill in using the several aids. ii) his originality and skill in selection; preparation and use of aids.

7. The availability - An effective extension worker makes use of indigenous materials, when the teaching aid he would like to use, is not available.

#### Questions for Evaluation of Audio - visual Materials

(Criteria for Selecting Audio - visual Aids)

1. Do the materials give a true picture of the idea they present?

2. Do they contribute meaningful content to the topic under study?

3. Is the material appropriate for the age, intelligence and experience of the learners?
4. Is the physical condition of the materials satisfactory?
5. Do they make learners better thinkers; critical minded?
6. Do they tend to improve human relations?
7. Is the material worth the time and effort involved?

#### **The Effective Use of Audio - visual Aids**

##### **a) Planning :**

1. Know clearly the objectives of the presentation.
2. Plan well in advance, this helps anticipate problems and avoid them.
3. Anticipate size of audience as closely as possible and make sure the aids are visible and/or audible to the entire audience.
4. Plan for the use of a variety of colourful visual aids. They help change the pace of presentation and help hold audience interest.
5. Determine the appropriate timing for the presentations.

##### **b) Preparation :**

1. Prepare by rehearsing or previewing in order to make a smooth presentation.
2. Select as convenient and as comfortable a meeting place as possible, with acoustics and seating arrangements suited to the specific purpose.
3. Anticipate need for special lighting or for total darkness and be prepared to provide either, at the right time.
4. Make sure that all equipment is in good working order before starting the meeting.
5. Arrange the audio-visual aids in sequence and have them within easy reach.
6. Keep aids out of sight until actually required for use.

##### **c) Presentation :**

1. Motivate the audience and stress the key points they should observe during the presentation.
2. Present aids at the right moment and in proper sequence.
3. Display only one aid at a time.
4. Remove all unrelated material.
5. Stand beside the aid, not in front of it.
6. Speak facing the audience and not the aids.

**d) Evaluation :**

1. In the end, evaluated by providing for discussion and application, to discover and dispel misunderstanding, if any.
2. Undertake follow-up studies and observe results.

**Research Findings about Uses or Merits of Audio-visual Aids.**

Research has shown that audio-visual aids help :

1. The learner to a) learn faster b) learn more c) learn more thoroughly and d) remember longer.
2. The teacher to organise his teaching material in a systematic order
3. Clarify ideas being presented.
4. Impress ideas more indelibly on the mind. ✓
5. Vitalise and make teaching more real. ✓
6. Picture experiences outside one's own environment.
7. Combat verbalism or unnecessary or meaningless form of words.
8. Overcome the language barrier. ✓
9. Attract and hold attention.
10. Arouse and sustain interest.
11. Stimulate thinking and motivate action. ✓
12. Change attitude or point of view.
13. Save time because they make learning easier and faster. ✓

**Disadvantages of Audio-visuals :**

1. Learners may sometimes form mistaken or distorted impressions, unless audio-visuals are supplemented with required explanation.
2. Temptation for the teacher to narrow down his teaching to only a few big ideas, not giving the complete picture of a subject.
3. Some teachers acquire the mistaken idea that they have little to do when audio-visuals are used.
4. Possible risk of "spectatorism", instead of the attitude of thoughtful enquiry.

*Note :* The above are general advantages and disadvantages. Special advantages and limitations are given under the individual aids detailed below. )

**(I) Models, Mock - ups, Specimens, Objects**

a) **A Model :** Is essentially a recognizable imitation or replica of the original, whether workable or not, and whether differing or not from the original in size, e.g., models of compost pits, improved cattlesheds, farm machinery or soil conservation project.

## PURPOSES OF USING MODELS :

i) to get over the disadvantages in the *size* of the original from instructional view point e.g., too big a size for the eye to take in, as in the case of a soil conservation project extending over many square miles, or too small for study as in the case of thrips, or aphids.

ii) to make the *past or the future* visibly real - e.g., an out-dated farm implement or a new implement likely to be introduced in future.

iii) to get over physical *inaccessibility* - e.g., seasonal fruits and vegetables etc.

*Note : The models used for the above three purposes represent the external form and shape of the original object and are called 'Scale Models' or 'Solid Models'.*

iv) To circumvent "unusable" reality-e.g., models to explain the physiology of a cow's udder or a hen's reproductive system, or hidden features of any machinery. Such models which reveal the internal structure of a real object and are constructed in such a way as to be dismantled easily are called '*Cross-sectional Models*'.

b) **A Mock-up (or Working Model) :** differs from the model in that it is a functional (workable) device which alters the essential elements that are being studied in the original, and concentrates on these elements only to the exclusion of others e.g., operating mock-up of cylinder and piston of a diesel engine.

c) **Specimens :** Real objects taken out of their natural settings. e.g., specimens of crop shown at a meeting or exhibition, preserved or mounted specimens of insects, plants etc.

d) **Objects :** Pieces of reality or sample-e.g., earheads, diseased parts of plants.

**(2) Dramatised Experiences**

Long before any one devised lectures as a means of education, knowledge and understanding were conveyed from one generation to another through songs and ballads, dramas and dances, puppet shows and festivals. These combine entertainment with education, and have much fascination especially for village people. Although these ancient and native arts are, of late, on the decline in India, they deserve to be revived and encouraged in view of their impact on the country side. In the past, their themes have mainly been historical and mythological with religious or ethical import. Recently, some political parties have been exploiting folk dances and dramas etc., for their propaganda purposes. The harnessing of this type of audio-visual aids for rural development has till now been negligible.

although their potentiality for this purpose is great. Panchayat Samithis and Panchayats will do well to discover and encourage histrionic talents and play-wrights among Extension workers, school teachers, members of Youth Clubs, *Mahila-mandals* as well as professional artists where available, and make use of dramas, puppet shows etc. as a means of attracting villagers and disseminating useful information on agriculture and other aspects of community development in an interesting way that appeals to the rural folk.

Whether one acts or observes, the dramatisation is a substitute for real experience. Contrived experience is also a substitute, but it differs from dramatised experience in one basic respect: contrived experience retains a good deal of the original reality. A model may differ (in size texture, workability) from the original but it possess the physical *appearance* of the direct reality. A dramatisation does not necessarily look like the original; it is a new and different thing, a *reconstruction*. Time, events, speeches are all shifted and foreshortened. The characters are viewed under a special condition of a world without time.

### (3) Exhibits

(Definition: already given under "Types of audio-visual aids"). Fairs and festivals are usually taken advantage of, for arranging exhibits. Some times a distinction is made between exhibits and displays - - exhibits tend to use more of 3-dimensional materials, while displays use mostly 2-dimensional (or flat) materials.

#### Purposes:

1. To influence people to adopt better practices by:
  - (a) arousing interest
  - (b) stimulating thought and
  - (c) getting action.
2. To acquaint the public with better standards by teaching facts or showing a process.
3. To promote participation in, or to raise money for some public cause or activity.
4. To give recognition to people or institutions by enabling them to display their products etc.
5. To promote understanding and create good will towards extension.
6. To create market for certain commodities.

#### Points to be Remembered:

1. Exhibits must be well prepared such that your message is understood by the visitors in the short time taken by people to walk

by the exhibits. 2. Decide upon the types of exhibits, considering the needs of audience and the specific purpose. 3. Consult local leaders and enlist their co-operation. 4. Make it simple. 5. Limit to one idea per booth or section. 6. Make it timely. 7. Make it durable, if possible. 8. Make it attractive. 9. Label legibly and briefly. 10. Try to see that your exhibits are so arranged as to tell the story without need for interpreters. Have a one-way plan which follows the development of the subject matter. 11. If interpreters are engaged, let them be thoroughly informed and precise in their explanation. 12. Keep the exhibits at a height not less than 2 feet and not more than 7 feet from the floor. 13. Action exhibits attract attention. 14. Distribute relevant literature. 15. Give adequate publicity, both in advance, and after the exhibition is over. 16. Evaluate effectiveness of exhibition by analysing attendance, enquiries and requests.

**Advantages :**

1. Eminently suited to teach illiterates.
2. Promotes public relations and good will towards Extension.
3. It can fit into festive occasions and serve recreational purpose.
4. Can be used to stimulate competitive spirit.
5. Can create market for certain products.

**Limitations :**

1. Requires much preparation and investment.
2. Cannot be used frequently or widely.
3. Cannot lend itself to all topics.
4. Most visitors seek amusement in competing events, rather than education.
5. Many extension exhibits are arranged as a matter of routine, without specific teaching aim.

**Score Card for Judging an Exhibit**

	points
1. Suitable subject (timely, personal)	.... 10
2. Effective title (short, personal, active verb)	.... 10
3. Attracts attention (stopping power)	.... 20
4. Holds interest (encourages study)	.... 10
5. Conveys message (accomplishes purpose)	.... 30
6. General appearance (simple, balanced, orderly)	.... 10
7. Workmanship (neat, well constructed)	.... 10

**(4) Motion Pictures (Films)**

Motion pictures are really a series of still pictures on a long strip of film. Each picture is flashed momentarily on the screen and the rapid succession of still pictures—(each of which shows the subjects in a slightly different position) — gives an illusion of movements. Usually 70 mm. and 35 mm. films are used for commercial entertainment, 16 mm. film for educational movies, and 8 mm. film for domestic pictures.

**Purposes :** 1. To present facts in an interesting way. 2. To attract audience 3. To arouse interest. 4. To change attitudes. 5. To bring new practices to a village in a short time. 6. To reach illiterate as well as literate people.

**Points to Remember :**

1. Be thoroughly familiar with the subject you plan to teach and how exactly the film supports the ideas you want to get across.
2. Preview the film.
3. Before showing the film, explain the subject, tell why it is important, and stimulate viewers to look for certain things in the film.
4. At the end of the show, have a forum.
5. Follow up (capitalise the enthusiasm generated).

**Technical Details :** A successful film showing requires attention to a number of details such as the following :

1. One should know how to operate the projector.
2. Ensure adequate power supply matching the requirements of the projector. Check on electrical connections and extension wires etc.
3. See that means are available to darken the room without cutting off ventilation.
4. Have spare projection lamps on hand.
5. Before audience arrives, set up the machine, have the film threaded, and test by focusing on the screen.
6. The projector should be high enough to project over the heads in the audience; and the screen high enough from the floor for all to easily see the bottom of the picture. (4 feet from the floor to bottom of screen).
7. A suggested seating arrangement is shown in Figure 7. according to the "2-and-6" formula. (i. e., front row to be 2 screen widths away from the screen and hind row to be 6 screen widths away from the screen). Adopt 20° angle for beaded screen, and 30° angle for matte screen.

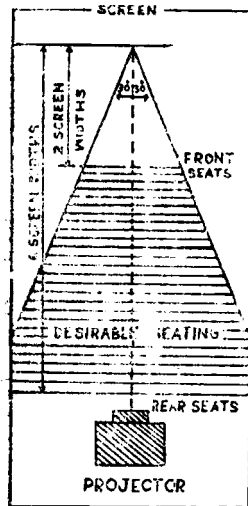


FIGURE 7. SEATING ARRANGEMENT FOR MOTION PICTURES

### Advantages of Motion Pictures

1. A complete process involving motion can be shown in a short time.
2. People identify themselves with those in the picture.
3. Compel attention.
4. Heighten reality.
5. Speed up or slow down time.
6. Bring the distant past and the distant present into learning situation.
7. Enlarge or reduce actual size of objects.

In spite of their many advantages, motion pictures are not commonly used as a teaching tool due to the following limitations.

### Limitations :

1. Special equipment is necessary.
2. The equipment is costly.
3. Some sort of power is required to operate the projectors.
4. Transportation, maintenance and storage of equipment and materials require special consideration and skill.
5. Suitable halls for showing motion pictures are not available in many places.

### (5) Recordings

Sound can be recorded in 3 ways. The disc recording is made by the mechanical process; tape recording and wire recording by the magnetic process, and movie film recording by the optical process. The record player, and the tape recorder are the commonly-used audio aids, besides the radio.

**Tape recorder :** is an audio equipment for recording sound on magnetic tape by electro-magnetic process. It is used to capture original sound and preserve it for later reproduction.

Tape recorders are usually operated by (a) electricity, and (b) transistors. The transistorised tape recorder is inexpensive, handy and portable and can be used even in the fields by extension workers.

The tape recorder is a versatile, popular educational aid because of the following advantages :

1. It can report spot news or accomplishments
2. It can extend the voice of a well-known person or a person of authority.
3. It stimulates interest as recordings can be made to suit a specific programme and specific group of people.
4. It influences change in attitudes.
5. It can be used to reproduce information in regional languages or dialects.
6. Operation cost is low as the same tape can be used over and over again.
7. Tape recording can be immediately played back without undergoing any processing.
8. Editing is easy with tape recordings.

#### **Radio and Recordings Compared**

Chief advantages of radio : 1) immediacy 2) realism 3) conquest of space and time 4) emotional impact 5) authenticity, and 6) inexpensiveness. Some of these are, of course, equally true of recordings but radio has unquestionably more immediacy, realism, and emotional impact. It is usually more effective to hear an event being broadcast as it actually takes place than to listen to a transcription.

But the disadvantages of radio do not confront you when you use recordings. Radio is handicapped 1) as a medium requiring highly concentrated attention, 2) as "one-way" communication, 3) as an inconveniently scheduled, "one time" event, 4) as a source of administrative problems, and 5) as a material that you cannot pre-hear in advance of the broadcast. Recordings solve some of these problems and add certain other advantages as follows :

1. Recording can facilitate two-way communication by stopping when required and discussing or playing it over and over again if necessary.
2. Recordings eliminate the scheduling problems of radio.
3. Recordings can be pre-heard and evaluated.
4. Recordings can be made according to your needs and convenience.

**(6) STILL PICTURES**

"One picture is worth a thousand words"

**(A) Non - projected**

**i) Photographs :** are exact visual recordings of things. They may be mounted or unmounted photographic prints or reproductions of photographs taken from a magazine, newspaper or book. They may be in black and white, or coloured. They may be used in personal teaching situations or as display type visuals in exhibitions or bulletin boards. They may be projected with an opaque projector.

To be an effective teaching aid a photograph must : 1. tell a story 2) illustrate only one point. 3) have plain and simple background. 4) show the main subject prominently.

**ii) Illustrations :** are non-photographic reconstructions of reality; e.g., drawings, paintings, etchings etc. These are used much in the same way as photographs.

**(B) Projected**

**i) Slides :** The lantern slide is one of the most popular and versatile visual in extension education. It is a transparent picture (on glass or film) which is projected by focusing light through it from electric bulb, petromax or lantern.

Reasons for the popularity of lantern slides are :

1. They can be made by the individual worker at low cost.
2. They can be made either in natural colour or in black and white.
3. Both the slides and the projection equipment are relatively light and can be easily transported.
4. Slide sequences can be readily changed to keep them timely and localized.
5. We can use the full set of slides or select only a few slides required for our subject.
6. Each slide can be retained for any length of time according to the teaching situation.

Slides have these limitations :

1. They do not show action.
2. They normally require 'live' narration, unless synchronized with tape recorder.

3. They require close co-operation with a projectionist throughout the presentation if the speaker desires to be in front of his audience. (The automatic slide projector overcomes this limitation).

The most popular type of lantern slide used to-day is made on 35 mm. film, and the slides (transparencies) are of 2" x 2" size or 2½" x 3½". The correct way of inserting a slide carrier is to place it upside down and reversed.

(ii) **Filmstrips** : A filmstrip is a series of still photographs, diagrams, drawings or letterings on a strip of 35 mm. film. It may be of 2 types : (a) Single Frame (24 x 18). (b) Double Frame (24 x 36). The number of frames in a strip may range from 30 to 60. Perforated edges of the film fit over projector sprockets. Once adjusted to project the first frame, each succeeding image will be in focus and in proper position on screen. When audience participation is desired projection can be paced at a speed suitable to the speaker. When accompanied by a carefully prepared script or talk, new ideas can be presented forcefully and dramatically.

**The use of film strips is one of the best ways to teach improved agricultural methods because :**

1. Filmstrips are light, unbreakable, easily stored, and condense much information in a small package. 2. Filmstrips and filmstrip projectors are much less expensive than motion picture films and projectors. 3. The machines are simple to operate besides being relatively inexpensive. 4. The pictures can be held on the screen for long time. 5. The village worker with camera can take good pictures of local practices and have them made into a filmstrip at very little expense. 6. The filmstrip and projector take little space and can be carried easily. 7. The villagers can participate through discussions on each picture, as presentation can be stopped without breaking sequence. 8. Filmstrips have the additional advantage that a complete process such as the Japanese method of growing paddy can be shown at one short session, step by step. 9. A filmstrip, when projected, can be accompanied with commentary or music played back by a tape recorder or gramophone.

**Disadvantages of a Filmstrip** , 1. Its sequence of projection is fixed and cannot be altered. 2. The surface of the filmstrip may become scartched after prolonged use, or it may be burnt if not properly handled while projecting. 3. The teacher is often dependent on filmstrips produced commercially which may not suit his requirements.

**OTHER VISUAL AIDS****(1) Chalk Board (or Black Board)**

✓ It is most universally used of all the teaching aids. It is not itself a visual material but a vehicle for a variety of visual materials. It is one of the cheapest, most effective, most versatile and easiest to use of all the visual aids.

The same black board can be used for the flannel graph. It can be used as a screen in showing slides or film strips, by covering it with a clean white cloth.

There are two basic kinds of chalk boards, viz., rigid and roll-up. The latter is lighter, more compact and hence more easily portable. The rigid type is more durable and easier to use, although not easily portable due to its size and weight.

Roll-up chalk boards are usually made of heavy cloth, canvas or oil cloth, coated with the chalk board paint slating. It should be placed against a smooth flat surface like a wall or up-turned table, so that chalk pressure can be applied at any point on the surface to give a good impression.

Rigid chalk boards can be made of wood, plywood, metal, fibre board or even heavy card board.

Yellow chalk on dark green paint gives better visibility than white chalk on black paint. ✓

**Suggestions for Using the Chalk Board :**

(i) Have it clean (ii) Use clean eraser (iii) Write in large letters (iv) Don't talk as you write (v) Face group after writing and continue the discussion (vi) Don't fill the board - - avoid clutter (vii) Don't use abbreviations (viii) Keep drawings simple (ix) Use coloured chalk - - yellow chalk is good at night (x) Don't stand in front of the blackboard; stand to one side.

**(2) Bulletin Board**

It is a simple inexpensive device that can be placed either outdoor, or indoors. A soft board that will hold pins or tacks is most suitable. It can perform basic communication functions. It can attract attention, stimulate interest, deliver a message and promote action. Items generally used on a bulletin board include photographs, cut-out illustrations from publications, drawings, specimens, notices, posters and wall news papers.

Since there are few village newspapers, a well planned bulletin board kept up-to-date can be of great help to the *Gram Sevak* if used for :

- i) Local announcement of importance to all the villagers.
- ii) Photographs to show local activities.
- iii) Follow-up instructions for the villagers on things demonstrated and emphasized.
- iv) Village reminders for things to be done - - when, how and by whom.

**Useful Hints :** 1. Avoid packing the bulletin board so full of information that nothing stands out. Better to communicate one or two ideas than to confuse the audience and communicate nothing at all.

2. Don't clutter the board with small illustrations and captions. Use fewer but larger materials.
3. Use colour for attraction and effectiveness.
4. Change material on the bulletin board regularly.

### (3) Flannelgraph

A flannelgraph or khaddergraph is a visual teaching aid. Pieces of flannel felt or sandpaper, having rough surfaces, or nap, will stick to another piece of flannel stretched on a firm flat surface, called a "flannelboard". When you attach pieces of flannel felt or sandpaper to the back of pictures, photographs, drawings, letters etc., these objects will also stick to the flannel board. This device is called a "flannel-graph".

The surface cloth may or may not be mounted on a permanent backing. Some extension workers prefer to carry with them only a piece of folded or rolled-up flannel along with the symbols or parts. When they arrive where the lesson is to be given, they pin the flannel to a flat surface such as an upturned table, wall or fence.

Some extension workers who travel on foot or bicycle prefer to take only the flannel graph parts with them. When they arrive where the lesson is to be given, they borrow a blanket a piece of rough-textured cotton cloth or perhaps a mosquito net. This is draped over an upturned table, bed or fence, or is attached to a wall to provide support.

The size of flannelgraph to use depends on the size of the audience. A flannelgraph 30 by 40 inches can be used to tell a story to about 150 people if the parts are sufficiently bold. Experience will soon tell you whether or not your flannelgraph is of satisfactory

size. It will be convenient to keep several different sizes to accommodate different sizes of audience.

The first step in planning your flannelgraph presentation is to decide exactly what you want to tell your audience. The story should be developed in a logical, step-by-step sequence. It should be kept as simple as possible, covering only those parts that are important and omitting unimportant details.

Then you are ready to visualize the important points in your story. This is where you decide what kinds of parts are needed and what they will illustrate. If you have an artist or photographer to help you make the parts, you are fortunate. Most extension workers do not have such help and must plan and make their own parts or symbols.

It is well to practice your presentation two or three times before you give it before an audience. This will help you decide just when to place a part on the flannelgraph to illustrate a point. You will also find that you need no notes for your presentation since each part, if arranged in sequence of use, will serve as an adequate reminder of what to say.

Some persons make the error of standing in front of the flannelgraph. This blocks the view and may irritate the audience since they are interested in looking at the parts and in seeing the story. With practice you can learn to pick up a part, apply it quickly with a firm downward pull and step to one side, continuing your story in words and pointing if necessary, to the part from the side. Wherever possible store the parts of the presentation in folders arranged and numbered for step-by-step presentation. This assures a smooth, logical presentation.

The appeal of the flannelgraph is in its action and suspense. In some ways it is like a drama. It has a story or plot. It has a background or set. It has parts that can be moved about-the actors.

Like a drama, the flannelgraph story unfolds before your eyes. You both see and hear the story. The action of the moving parts attracts your attention. The suspense of the unfolding story holds your interest. )

#### (4) Flash Cards

Flash cards are a series of illustrated cards which when flashed or presented (before a group) in proper sequence tell a complete story. They are used the same way as filmstrips. In flash cards, however, people see the picture directly, instead of seeing it on a screen. The story is told as each card is held before the group. The

story is simple and tells about one theme. e.g., Japanese method of paddy cultivation.

Flash cards should : (i) Be used for groups of not over 30 people (ii) Be large enough for every one to see - - at least 22 by 28 inches (iii) Be simple line drawings or photographs, or cartoons (iv) Be adapted to local conditions. (v) Have plenty of colour.

It is best to limit the number of flash cards to 10 or 12 for one talk. In order to plan the most effective cards, study your talk and pick the main ideas that you want your villagers to remember.

Prepare picture for each idea which will give visual impact to the idea.

**To teach well with flashcards :**

- i) The story on each card must be familiar to you.
- ii) You must use simple words and local expressions.
- iii) You must bring in local names of people and villages.
- iv) You must hold cards so that people can see clearly.
- v) You must hold cards against body and not up in air.  
(You turn your body toward the different parts of the group to show cards to all members of the group).
- vi) You glance down at card as you tell the story.
- vii) You point to important objects without covering the card with your hand.
- viii) You must be enthusiastic; you must enjoy telling the story.
- ix) You have the cards stacked in order. As one card is finished it is slid behind the other so that it will be in order the next time it is used.

As you become skilled in this type of teaching you may let the people participate in the discussion or telling the story. It is a better discussion or better story if they participate. If any one in your group is good at telling the story or leading a discussion, let him take the cards and use them with other groups.

**(5) Posters**

The poster is an important visual aid. But like other "aids" the poster is never used alone. It must always be part of a campaign or a teaching programme. It will serve first to inspire the people. It will prove to villagers that there is official interest in the problem treated. Lastly, as long as it remains in the village it will serve as a reminder to the villagers.

*A good poster arouses or urges people to immediate action and highly suggestive. It makes them feel a part of the work at hand.*

To be useful, a poster must be planned for a special job. It must be planned for the people who are supposed to do the job. The following points should be considered in making a poster.

(i) To do a special job : (a) Promote one point (example : kill flies: manure paddy (b) Support local demonstrations (c) Support local exhibits.

ii) To be planned for the people who are supposed to do the job; (a) Contain dramatic pictures that will stop people and make them look (b) Tell the story in a single glance : (1) Have few words (2) Have simple words (3) Have one idea (4) Have bold letters (c) Must picture everyday living (d) Should be in pleasing colours (e) Should be at least 20 by 30 inches in size (f) Must be timely.

Generally speaking, a poster should contain three main divisions. The first part usually announces the purpose of a project. The second sets out conditions. The third recommends actions. Each of these three main divisions may be illustrated with striking art supported by brief language.

Posters that are produced properly are often not effective because they are put in a poor place or not pasted. Posters should be placed where people pass or where people gather.

Some posters fail to do good because they are not followed with other devices such as meeting, demonstrations, films etc.

Remember - A poster must be part of a campaign - - a poster will not stand alone.

A B C of posters : Attractive, Brief, Clear.

### (6) Charts

Charts are visual symbols for *summarising, comparing, contrasting,* or performing other services, in *explaining subject matter*. In other words, they are diagrammatic presentations of facts or ideas.

#### **Pull Charts and Striptease Charts :**

These two presentation visuals are closely related in their use to chalkboards, magnet-boards and the flannelgraph. They enable the speaker to present information bit by bit or step by step. They have great suspense value which aids in holding attention and building interest.

Some speakers like to use pullcharts and strip-tease charts to summarize points at the conclusion of a talk. This helps the audience

remember key ideas and maintains interest to the very end of the presentation.

**1. Pull Charts :** Consist of written messages which are hidden by strips of thick cardboard or plywood. The messages can be shown to the viewer, one after, another by pulling out the concealing strips. These strips can again be restored to the concealing position after the presentation or whenever needed.

**2. Strip Tease Charts :** As is true in the case of pull charts, the appeal of the strip tease chart is in its suspense. It 'teases' the interest and imagination of the audience.

The information on the chart is covered with thin paper strips to which has been applied wax, tape or other sticky substance at each end of the strip. Pins or tacks also can be used.

As the speaker wishes to visually reinforce a point with words or symbols, he removes the appropriate strip of paper. It is possible to add considerable interest to the presentation by removing the paper with a dramatic flourish.

The strip tease chart adds sparkle to what might otherwise be a drab presentation. It centres attention on the most important fact at any one time. The technique increases learning and aids recall.

**3. Organisation or Flow Charts :** These are diagrams used to show organizational or administrative relationships. Boxes connected with lines show levels and lines of authority. You could use organizational charts to show administrative relationship in a ministry, an extension service or a university.

**4. Bar Charts :** (or Bar graphs) These are used to compare quantities at different times or under different circumstances. They are composed of measured blocks spaced along a clearly marked scale. For instance, the effect of fertilizer in increasing crop yields on test plots in three successive years might be shown in a bar chart.

**5. Time (or Table) Charts :** A railway time table is a familiar example.

**6. Job Charts :** e.g., Gramsevak's Job chart.

**7. Tree Chart or Stream Charts :** are used to show the development or growth of something in the shape of a tree or stream. e.g., Genealogical tree.

**8. Flip Charts :** consist of a series of individual charts which are tacked or bound together and hung on a supporting stand. These individual charts carry a series of related messages in sequence. The teacher flips them one after another, as the lesson

or story progresses. To be effective, a flip chart should deal with only one broad theme and give only the salient points without too much data or details.

**9. Over-lay Charts :** Consist of a number of illustrated sheets which can be placed one over the other conveniently and in succession. The drawing or illustration on each individual sheet forms a part of the whole picture. This enables the viewers to see not only the different parts but also see them against the total perspective when one is placed over the other. When the final over-lay is placed, the ultimate product is exposed to view. Such a presentation has a dramatic effect on the viewers.

**10. Pie Charts (or Pie Graphs) :** These are in the shape of circles and used to show how several parts make up the whole. A pie chart might be used to show the relative proportion of different crops produced by a country. Each section of the pie should have its own colour. A colour key or code in the margin will help the audience remember what the different sections represent.

**11. Line Charts (or line Graphs) :** These are particularly useful in showing trends and relationships. A single continuous line may represent growth or expansion. Multiple lines may show the relation between market price and quantity of a farm product. A cumulative line chart may show relation trends between production costs and market price.

**12. Pictorial Graphs (or Pictographs) :** To give the viewer a vivid picture and to create a rapid association with the graphic message, cartoons and other types of illustrations may be used. Each visual symbol or 'isotype' may indicate quantity, as shown when you compare the number of tractors on farms in different years.

*Note :* The term 'graph' is generally used when statistical data are presented in the form of visual symbols.

### 7) Dust and Mud Sketching

In sand, dust, soil and mud, nature has provided us with highly effective, inexpensive and readily available visual materials. Using a pointed stick, a sharp stone, or one's own finger, it is possible to illustrate many different ideas such as new layouts for villages; farmstead arrangements showing the relocation of livestock, poultry and equipment sheds away from the family living quarters.

It is to be remembered that there is far less chance for misunderstanding if people can see the things that are being explained. Sand, dust, soil and mud sketching can help the extension worker visualize his subject.

### 3. COMMUNICATION\*

A simple definition of communication and a brief note on the components of the communication process have been given earlier in this Chapter. However, in view of the importance of this subject, more details are given hereunder.

#### Definition and Importance :

Hovland defines Communication as the process by which an individual - - the communicator - - transmits stimuli to modify the behaviour of other individuals - - communicatees. In other words, the Communicator's *expression* should make the intended *impression* on the communicatee.

According to Leagans, communication is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the meaning, intent and use of messages. The word "Communication" has its root in the Latin word "Communis" which means establishing commonness. Communication, therefore, is a conscious effort to share information, ideas, attitudes, skills etc. with others.

The present-day "knowledge explosion" in the world has necessitated a "communication explosion" in its wake, because, never in the annals of human history was there a need for so many people to know so much and so quickly, as it is to-day. Certainly, in rural development, nothing is more important than the transfer of useful information from person to person. In this process of communication lies the potential and hope for millions of rural people to overcome ignorance; poverty and squalor and achieve socio-economic prosperity and progress. Hence the success of an extension worker depends largely on his ability in effective communication. He should, therefore, be familiar with the key elements of the communication process and the conditions to be fulfilled by each of the elements if the communication is to be successful.

#### Key Elements of Communication :

Different models have been developed by writers on Communication to illustrate the key elements of the communication process. A few important models are given in Figures 8 to 11.

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#### \*References :

1. Leagans, J. P. "The Communication Process in Rural Development", Cornell International Agril. Development Bulletin. I. Ithaca. 1963.
2. Berlo, David, K. "The Process of Communication" Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York 1960. ✓

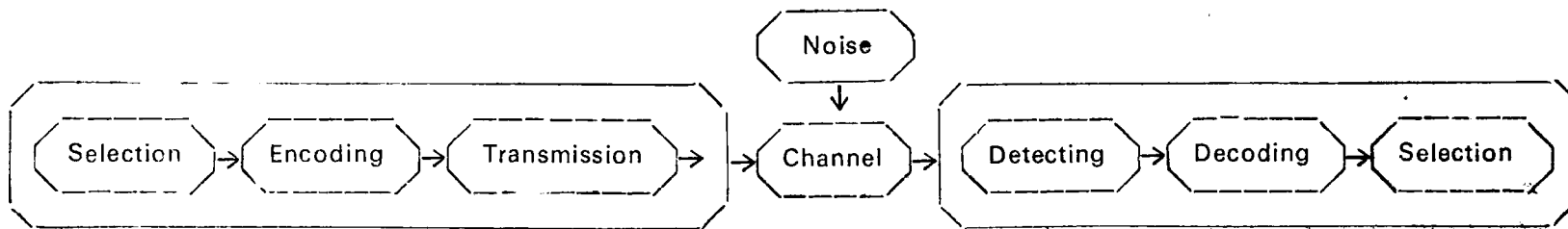


FIGURE 8 LITTERER'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

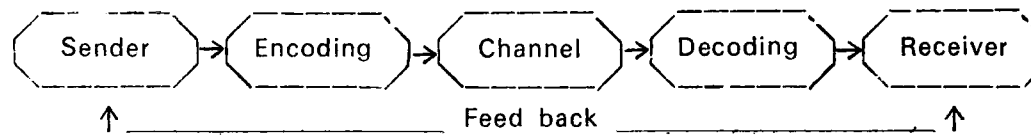


FIGURE 9. WESTLEY—MACLEAN'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

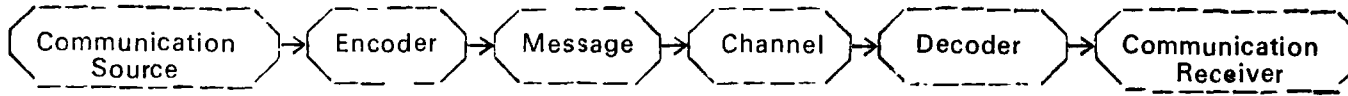


FIGURE 10 BERLO'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

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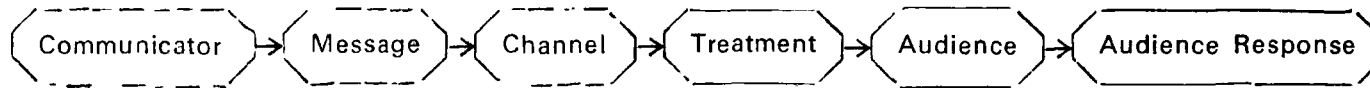


FIGURE 11. LEAGAN'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS

It may be seen from Fig. 11. (Leagan's Model) that successful communication involves six key elements : a skillful *communicator* sending a useful *message* through proper *channels* effectively *treated* to an appropriate *audience* to evoke the desired *response*. The definitions and characteristics of each of these elements, which may contribute to the success or failure of communication are given below\*

### I. The Communicator

This is the person who starts the process of communication in operation. He is the source or originator of messages. He is the sender of messages. He is the first to give expression to messages intended to reach an audience in a manner that results in correct interpretation and desirable response. The communicator may be a Village Development Officer, a Principal or an Instructor in a Training Centre, a Block Extension Officer, a villager, an administrator or any other person.

The following are the characteristics of a good communicator :

1. He knows :
  - a) his objectives - has them specifically defined;
  - b) his audience - its needs, interests, abilities, pre-dispositions;
  - c) his message - its content, validity, usefulness, importance;
  - d) channels that will reach the audience and their usefulness;
  - e) how to organise and treat his message;
  - f) his professional abilities and limitations.
2. He is interested in :
  - a) his audience and its welfare;
  - b) his message and how it can help people;
  - c) the results of communication and their evaluation;
  - d) the communication process;
  - e) the communication channels — their proper use and limitation;
  - f) how to improve his communication skill.
3. He prepares :
  - a) a plan for communication — a teaching plan;
  - b) communication materials and equipment;
  - c) a plan for evaluation of results.

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\*Relevant extracts from Leagans, J, P. op. cit.

**4. He has skill in :**

- a) selecting messages;
- b) treating messages;
- c) expressing messages - - verbal and written;
- d) the selection and use of channels;
- e) understanding his audience;
- f) collecting evidence of results.

The following are the characteristics of poor communicators.

1. Fail to have ideas to present that are really useful to the audience.
2. Fail to give the complete story and show its relationship people's problems.
3. Forget that time and energy are needed to absorb the material presented.
4. Feel they are always clearly understood.
5. Refuse to adjust to 'closed' minds.
6. Talk while others are not listening.
7. Get far too ahead of audience understanding.
8. Fail to recognise others' view point and develop presentation accordingly.
9. Fail to recognise that communication is a two-ways process.
10. Let their own biases over-influence the presentation.
11. Fail to see that everyone understands questions brought up for discussion.
12. Fail to provide a permissive atmosphere.
13. Disregard the values, customs, prejudices and habits of people with whom they attempt to communicate.
14. Fail to start where people are, with respect to knowledge, skill, interest and need.

**2. Message or Content**

A message is the information a communicator wishes his audience to receive, understand, accept and act upon. Messages, for example, may consist of statements of scientific facts about agriculture, sanitation or nutrition; description of action being taken by individuals, groups or committees; reasons why certain kinds of action should be taken; or steps necessary in taking given kinds of action. Potential messages range as wide as the content of the programmes is.

Messages related to programmes of change are, therefore, the relevant 'cargo' to be carried to people by the channels of communication. They are the important content, sometimes referred to as arguments, 'appeals' and 'stimuli'. Whether messages operate effectively as incentives to changed behaviour in any given situation depends on a wide range of influences. A successful communication is one in which the major factors influencing the message are controlled as far as possible. This is the responsibility of the communicator.

A good message must be :

1. In line with the objective to be attained;
2. Clear - - understandable by the audience;
3. in line with the mental, social, economic and physical capabilities of the audience.
4. significant - - economically, socially or aesthetically to the needs, interests and values of the audience.
5. specific - no irrelevant material;
6. simply stated covering only one point at a time;
7. accurate - - scientifically sound, factual and current;
8. timely - - especially when seasonal factors are important and issues current;
9. supported by factual material covering both sides of the argument;
10. appropriate to the channel selected;
11. appealing and attractive to the audience - - having utility, immediate use.
12. applicable - - audience can apply recommendation;
13. adequate - - combining principle and practice in effective proportion;
14. manageable - - can be handled by the communicator with high professional skill and within the limits imposed by time.

Applied properly, the foregoing criteria for selecting and sending messages will contribute much to the goodness of the message. Effective communicators use them skilfully. In contrast, poor communicators often do the following.

1. Fail to clearly separate the key message from the supporting content or subject matter.

2. Fail to prepare and organise their message properly.
3. Use inaccurate or 'fuzzy' symbols - words, visuals, or real objects - - to represent the message.
4. Fail to select messages that are sharply in line with the felt needs of the audience.
5. Fail to present the message objectively - - present the material, often biased, to support only one side of the proposition.
6. Fail to view the message from the standpoint of the audience.
7. Fail to time the message properly within a presentation or within a total programme.

### 3. Channels of Communication

The sender and the receiver of messages must be connected or 'tuned' with each other. For this purpose, channels of communication are necessary. They are the physical bridges between the sender and the receiver of messages - - the avenues between a communicator and an audience on which messages travel to and fro. They are the transmission lines used for carrying messages to their destination. Thus, the channels serve as essential tools of the communicator.

A channel may be anything used by a sender of message to connect him with intended receivers. The crucial point is that he must get in contact with his audience. The message must get through. Common channels of communication in the extension situation, are dealt with in the section on "Extension Methods".

But channels are no good without careful direction or use in the right way, at the right time, to do the right job for the right purpose with the right audience, all in relation to the message.

Many obstructions can enter channels. These are often referred to as 'noise' - - that is some obstruction that prevents the message from being heard by or carried over clearly to the audience. 'Noise' emerges from a wide range of sources and causes. The following are some of these.

1. *Failure of a channel to reach the intended audience.* Usually, no one channel will reach an entire audience.

Some examples : Meetings - all people cannot or may not attend.  
 Radio - - all people do not have access to a receiving set or may not be tuned in if they did.  
 Written material - - many people cannot read and others may not.

2. *Failure on the part of a communicator to handle channels skilfully.* If a meeting, tour, radio programme or any other channel is not used according to good procedure and technique, its potential for carrying a message is dissipated. For example, in a meeting when everyone cannot hear what is said and see what is shown, they cannot receive the message.

3. *Failure to select channels appropriate to the objective of a communicator.* All channels are not equally useful in attaining a specific objective. For example, if an objective was to show a certain group of people how to do something-dig a compost pit, build a sanitary latrine, treat seed, cook vegetables, etc. - - the radio; circular letter, or newspaper would not do the job. Obviously, the channel needed is a method demonstration meeting. On the other hand, if an objective was to give general information about subjects like the above or to inform people of events etc., radio, letters and newspapers would be the proper channels to use.

4. *Failure to use channels in accordance with the abilities of the audience.* Written materials, for example, cannot serve as useful channels for communicating information to people who are unable to read or to understand the level of complexity or abstraction of the message.

5. *Failure to avoid physical distraction :* When using the channel of meetings, for example, distractions including people moving in and out, loud noises in or out of the group, heat, lighting, crowded condition and many other forms of distraction often obstruct successful message - sending. Static on the radio, poor writing, unattractive exhibits are other examples of 'noise' that lessen the effectiveness of channels.

6. *Failure of an audience to listen or look carefully :* The only messages that get through to an audience are those which are heard, seen or experienced. An unfortunate tendency of people is not to give undivided attention to the communicator. This is a powerful

obstruction that prevents messages from reaching their desired destination.

7. *Failure to use enough channels in parallel:* The more channels a communicator uses in parallel or at about the same time, the more chances he has for the message getting through and being properly received. No single channel will ordinarily reach all people who need to receive a message. Research indicates that up to five or six channels used in combination are often necessary to get a message through to large numbers of people with enough impact to influence significant changes in behaviour.

8. *Use of too many channels in a series:* An important principle of communication is that the more channels used in a series the less chance a communicator has for getting his message through to the intended audience. Let it be assumed for example, that a Block Development Officer originates a message he wishes to communicate to a sizeable number of local cultivators. The series of channels could be about as follows :

Block Development Officer communicates the message to the Agricultural Extension Officer, who in turn communicates it to the Village Development Officer, who in turn communicates it to a village leader, who in turn is asked to communicate it to a number of local cultivators. The use of such a series of channels raises two grave questions : (a) Did the message ever really reach its intended destination? (b) Did it reach with the same content and intent as the original? The following two important principles emerge from this example :

(1) The more steps by which the communicator is removed from his intended receiver, the greater are his chances of losing the proper message (2) When lines of communication get too long for assured communication they can be improved in two primary ways (a) by using additional channels in parallel, and (b) by eliminating some of the channels in the series.

Successful communicators prevent the blockage or 'noise' affecting channels of communication that emerge from one or more of the foregoing conditions.

To help overcome some of the problems just enumerated and others not mentioned, one should take the following factors into account :

1. The specific objective of the message.
2. The nature of the message-degree of directness versus abstractness, level of difficulty, scope, timing, etc.
3. The audience--size. need, interest, knowledge of the subject, etc.
4. Channels available that will reach the audience, or parts of it.
5. How channels can be combined and used in parallel.
6. How channels that must be used in a series can be reduced to the minimum, and those used made effective without fail.
7. Relative cost of channels in relation to anticipated effectiveness.
8. Time available to communicator and audience.
9. Extent of seeing, hearing or doing that is necessary to get the message through.
10. Extent of cumulative effect or impact on the audience necessary to promote action.

The foregoing are some of the proven guides to handling communication channels in ways that they deliver the message.

#### **4. Treatment of Messages**

Treatment has to do with the way a message is handled to get the information across to an audience. It relates to the technique, or details of procedure, or manner of performance, essential to expertness in presenting messages. Hence, treatment deals with the design of methods for presenting messages. Designing the methods for treating messages does not relate to formulation of the message or to the selection of channels, but to the technique employed for presentation within the situation provided by a message and a channel.

The purpose of treatment is to make the message clear, understandable and realistic to the audience. Designing treatment usually requires original thinking, deep insight into the principle of

human behaviour and skill in creating and using refined techniques of message presentation. At this point, the effective teacher is separated from the less effective one, and the art of teaching comes into play. Great teachers are adequate in all ways, but are superb in their ability to "treat" messages.

Treatment of messages can be varied in an almost infinite number of ways. The following are the three categories of bases useful for varying treatment.

**A. Matters of general organisation :**

1. Repetition or frequency of mention of ideas and concepts
2. Contrast of ideas.
3. Chronological -- compared to logical, compared to psychological.
4. Presenting one side compared to two sides of an issue.
5. Emotional compared to logical appeals.
6. Starting with strong arguments compared to saving them until the end of presentation.
7. Inductive compared to deductive.
8. Proceeding from the general to the specific and *vice versa*.
9. Explicitly drawing conclusions compared to leaving conclusions implicit for the audience to draw.

**B. Matters of speaking and acting :**

1. Limit the scope of presentation to a few basic ideas and to the time allotted. Too many ideas at one time are confusing
2. Be yourself. You can't be anyone else. Strive to be clear, not clever.
3. know the facts. Fuzziness means sure death to a message.
4. Don't read your speech. People have more respect for a communicator who is sure of his subject.
5. Know the audience. Each audience has its own personality. Be responsive to it.

6. Avoid being condescending. Do not talk or act down to people, or over their heads. Remember,, good treatment of messages result in hitting the 'bull's eye', not the surrounding terrain. Never over-estimate the knowledge of an audience or underestimate its intelligence.
7. Decide on the dramatic effect desired. In addition to the content of messages, a communicator should be concerned with 'showmanship'. Effective treatment requires sincerity, smoothness, enthusiasm, warmth, flexibility and appropriateness of voice, gestures, movements and tempo.
8. Use alternative communicators when appropriate, as in group discussions, panels, interviews, etc.
9. Remember that audience appeal is a psychological bridge to getting a message delivered.
10. Quit on time. Communicators who stop when they are "finished" are rewarded by audience goodwill.

**C. Matters of symbol variation and devices for representing ideas :**

- |                             |                     |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Word symbols - - speech. | 2. Real objects.    |
| 3. Models.                  | 4. Specimens.       |
| 5. Photographs.             | 6. Graphs.          |
| 7. Charts.                  | 8. Motion pictures. |
| 9. Slides.                  | 10. Drama.          |
| 11. Puppets.                | 12. Songs.          |
| 13. Flash cards, etc.       |                     |

The foregoing list of suggested possibilities for message treatment can be extended and the techniques used in an almost infinite number of combinations. Communicators should be aware that treating messages to achieve maximum audience impact is a highly professional task. How to do it is not given in books. The task cannot be reduced to a formula or recipe. Treatment is a creative task that has to be 'tailor made' for each instance of communication.

It should be remembered that people respond best to messages that are reliable, realistic, relevant and understandable. Regardless of reliability, messages will not be accepted until they are understood. Treatment that makes messages understandable

must be clear rather than just clever. It must make the ideas specific and concrete. How well one sells his ideas depends on how clearly one presents them. How words or other forms of symbols selected to convey ideas are strung together affects, clarity and understanding. Variation of sentence length and pattern prevents monotony. The appearance of the communicator affects effectiveness. "Life is a mirror; if you frown at it, it frowns back; if you smile, it returns the greeting".

### 5. The Audience

Obviously, an audience is the intended receiver of messages. It is the consumer of messages. It is the intended respondent in message - sending and is assumed to be in a position to gain economically, socially or in other ways by responding to the message in particular ways. In good communication, the audience aimed at is already identified by the communicator. The 'pay off' in communication is dependent on what the audience does in response to messages.

An audience may consist of one person or many. It may comprise men, women, or both; youth groups, villagers or their leaders. An audience may be formed according to occupation groups as farmers or artisans; professional groups, as engineers, educators, administrators etc.

The importance of clearly identifying an audience cannot be overstressed. The more homogeneous an audience, the greater the chances of successful communication. Likewise, the more a communicator knows about his audience and can pinpoint its characteristics the more likely he is to make an impact. An audience is found by identifying categories such as those previously mentioned.

In addition to knowing the identity of an audience and some of its general characteristics, there are other somewhat more specified aspects that help to clarify the exact nature of an audience and how to reach it. The following are some of these :

1. Communication channels established by the social organisation.
2. The system of values held by the audience - - what they think is important.
3. Forces influencing group conformity - custom, tradition etc.

4. Individual personality factors susceptibility to change etc.
5. Native and acquired abilities.
6. Educational, economic and social levels.
7. Pressure of occupational responsibility - how busy or concerned they are.
8. People's needs as they see them, and as the professional communicator sees them.
9. Why the audience is in need of changed ways of thinking, feeling and doing.
10. How the audience views the situation.

It is useful to a communicator to understand these and other traits of an audience in making his plan for communication. Like the marksman, unless a communicator sees his target clearly, he can shoot a thousand rounds, and yet accomplish nothing.

#### 6. Audience Response

This is the terminating element in communication applied to rural development programmes. Response by an audience to messages received is in the form of some kind of action to some degree, mentally or physically. Action, therefore, should be viewed as a product, not as a process; it should be dealt with as an end, not as a means. Consequently, the five elements we have just analysed - communicator, message, channel, treatment, audience - are intended to be viewed as an organised scheme (means) for attaining the desired action (end) on the part of an intended audience. Action taken by an intended audience that can be attributed to a given communicative act by an extension worker may properly be assumed to be a result of the degree to which these elements have been effective.

Until the desired action results, programmes of change do not achieve their most essential objective. In evaluating effectiveness, therefore, the important criterion or standard for judging the programme is the nature and extent of action taken by people who needed to act. For, it is what the people do as a result of participation, not what the programme staff does that is of transcendent importance in programmes of change.

The number of possible kinds and degrees of response to messages received are almost infinite. The following gives an idea of possible variety in response that may result when a useful message is received by a typical village audience of Indian cultivators.

**1. *Understanding vs. knowledge* :** Knowledge of facts alone does not constitute understanding. It is only the first step. Understanding is attained only when one is able to attach meaning to facts, see the relationship of facts to each other and to the whole of a proposition and the relationship of the total body of facts to the problem under consideration. Communicative effort often fails because it stops simply with laying facts before people and does not continue in a systematic way to promote an understanding of the facts presented. People usually do not act on facts alone but only when an understanding of facts is gained. Communication must promote understanding.

**2. *Acceptance vs. rejection* :** A free, alert and thinking human mind requires that understanding precede acceptance of facts and propositions. In turn, it insists on mental acceptance before resorting to action. For, it is what human beings come to believe, not what they merely know or even understand, that determines what they do when they are free to act as they choose.

**3. *Remembering vs. forgetting* :** When opportunity for action is not immediately available or action is delayed, the factor of forgetting what was learned influences the kind and extent of action taken at any point of time in the future. This basic principle has extensive implications for timing in communication programmes. Transmitting the right message to the right people at the right time is often a crucial factor in successful communication.

**4. *Mental vs. physical action* :** Changes in the mind of man must always precede changes in the actions of his hands. In short, man's mind controls his overt behaviour. Consequently, a message suggesting physical action could receive all the mental action required, except the final decision to act. This is sometimes referred to as 'lip service'.

**5. *Right vs. wrong* :** The intent of a communication is to promote desirable action by an audience as determined by the

communicator and expressed in his objectives. Consequently, resulting action in line with the intended objectives is assumed to be 'right' action. But the problem is more complex. Unfortunately, 'noise' often plays mischief at this point. For a variety of reasons, people often fail to behave precisely according to instructions, even when they understand and accept them. Assume, for example, that a message giving five steps in seed treatment has been transmitted to a group of cultivators. Assume further that the cultivators understood, accepted and acted on the message. But the results were disastrous. This was because the cultivators, contrary to instruction, decided among themselves that if the use of one ounce of the chemical in treating a maund of grain (as instructed) was good, two ounces would be better. Individually and in groups, human beings have their own ideas about how to act.

The many kinds of possible behaviour are mentioned here only to illustrate the range of response that may result when a message is received by an audience.

So, communicators engaged in promoting rural development must be concerned not only with process but with product; not only with means but with ends attained. Progress requires refutation of the *status quo* and building a more desirable situation in its place. This requires action by people who need to make changes in what they think feel and do. The statement is axiomatic that continuation of the means in programmes of change is justified only by the product they produce. The ultimate question that may be asked about the elements of communication, therefore is: Who communicates what, to whom, for what purpose, by which media, with what results ?

## Extension Programme Planning

### I. MEANING AND PRINCIPLES ; NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROGRAMME PLANNING

**Definitions :** According to Kelsey and Hearne, *"an Extension programme* is a statement of situation, objectives, problems, and solutions. It is relatively permanent but requires constant revision. It forms the basis for extension plans.

Leagans<sup>2</sup> says 'An *extension programme* is a set of clearly defined, consciously conceived educational objectives derived from an adequate analysis of the situation, which are to be achieved through extension teaching. (Situation is a brief statement of the more general factual information together with the needs and desires of the people).

A *plan of work* is an outline of activities so arranged as to enable efficient execution of the entire programme. It answers the questions how, when, where and by whom the work is to be done.

A *project* is an outline of procedure and pertains only to some phase of extension work.

A *calendar of work* is a plan of work arranged chronologically.

..... The preferred practice is to define the *programme* as one thing (*what* to do) and the *plan of work* as another (*how* and *when* to do it). But neither part standing alone is complete .....")

The above terms are illustrated in the Model of Programme planning given in Section 4 of this chapter. A plan of work includes the teaching plan as well as the plan for timely supply of the required physical or material inputs.

(According to Sanders,<sup>3</sup> "the programme development process

1. Kelsey, L. D., and Hearne, C. C. "Co-operative Extension work", op. cit.
2. Leagans, J.P., in "Extension Education in Community Development", op.cit.
3. Sanders, H. C. (Ed) "The co-operative Extension Service" Prentice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1966.

has been defined as a continuous and cooperative activity, involving lay people and the Extension staff, in which problems are identified, objectives are set forth, and action is taken to reach the objectives".

According to the National Task Force, U. S. A. "*Extension programme projection* can be defined as an administratively realistic form of long-range programme development involving the scientific approach in assembling facts as the basis for intelligent decision-making by a broadly representative group of local people".

Programme planning is the process of bringing about planned change. It is a deliberate and collaborative process involving changeagent and client-systems, which are brought together to solve a problem, or more generally, to plan and attain an improved state of functioning in the client-system by utilising and applying valid knowledge.<sup>1</sup>

The function of extension programme is to provide a clear guide - a blue print or a plan useful to extension workers in conducting an ongoing educational programme. A well-developed programme is to the extension worker what a compass is to the seaman.

#### Why have a programme? <sup>2</sup>

1. To ensure careful consideration of what is to be done and why.
2. To furnish a guide or straight edge against which to judge all new proposals. A good programme tends to keep every one concerned -- (extension workers, village leaders and participants) -- moving in the right direction. It keeps them from going off on inviting, but less important tangents.
3. To establish objectives towards which progress can be measured and evaluated.
4. To give continuity particularly during changes in personnel.
5. To aid in the development of leadership.
6. To have a means of choosing : a) the important from the incidental Prob'ems, b) the permanent from the temporary changes.

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1. Bennis G, Warren et al (ed) The Planning of Change, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, N. York 1966.

2. Adapted from Kelsey, L.D and Hearne, CC, "Co-operative Extension Work", op. cit.

7. To prevent mistaking the means for the end, and to develop both felt and unfelt needs.
8. To avoid waste of time and money, and promote general efficiency.
9. To co-ordinate the efforts of the different people working for rural development.
10. To give the extension workers more support by local people, thus ensuring cooperation and financial support.
11. To have available in written form a statement for general public use.

### Principles of Programme Planning

According to Kelsey and Hearne, sound extension programme building; 1. Is based on analysis of the facts in the situation; 2. Selects problems based on needs; 3. Determines objectives and solutions which offer satisfaction; 4. Has permanence with flexibility; 5. Has balance with emphasis; 6. Has a definite plan of work; 7. Is a continuous process; 8. Is a teaching process; 9. Is a coordinating process; 10. Provides for evaluation of results.

### Criteria for Good Programme Planning<sup>1</sup>

A good programme meets the needs and interests of the majority of the people and motivates them to make necessary changes. To be effective, every programme must start with the people and situations as they are, and then build towards the ultimate goal of better family living. The first step in the preparation of planning a programme is for the extension workers to become oriented to the job. The following are some criteria for good programme planning, based on the principles listed above.

#### *A. Describe the particular situation, then base the programme on it.*

1. Consult Block staff and district extension staff, consult available Government reports.
2. Study recommendations of research stations.
3. Consult the people.
4. Consult local institutions like the panchayat, cooperative and school and other organisations like the rural youth club, *mahila mandal*, farmers' forum and young farmer's association.

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1. Vidyarthi, G. S., "Developing Family, Village and Block Programmes", Extension Education in Community Development, op. cit.

5. Keep in view the state and national situations affecting agriculture directly or indirectly.
- B. *Select problems and fix priorities based on felt needs.***
1. All problems cannot be tackled at one time.
  2. Problems should be related to the family, community and block situation.
  3. Problems should be arrived at democratically through participation of village people, the entire extension staff and others who can contribute to the programme.
  4. Problems should be those most felt and of widest concern.
- C. *Objectives and goals should offer satisfaction.***
1. They should be understood by the rural people for whom they are intended.
  2. They should be attainable to the degree that satisfaction may result.
  3. They should be stated in terms that can be understood and measured.
  4. They should be agreed upon by the people who are to attain them.
- D. *Good programmes have permanance with flexibility.***
1. They should meet short-term changes.
  2. They should meet long-term changes.
  3. They should meet special emergencies.
- E. *Good programmes combine balance with emphasis.***
1. They cover majority of important interests with timely problems chosen for emphasis to avoid scattered effort.
  2. They should be comprehensive enough to embrace all age groups, creeds and races at all levels on all problems- family, village, block, district.
  3. They should show good distribution of time and effort throughout the year.
- F. *Prepare a plan of work.***
- The plan of work should include details about the following :
1. The people to be reached and the reasons.
  2. The goals, dates and places.

3. Provisions for teaching methods and specific plans for teaching people.
4. Recognition, training and duties of local voluntary leaders.
5. What part is to be played by the extension personnel ?
6. What part is to be played by other agencies?
7. What plans will there be for measuring results?
8. What will the calendar of work and events be?

**G. Programming is a continuous process.**

1. Problems and emphasis change, phases may get completed and new problems may arise.
2. Solutions change as improved practices and materials are found.
3. Objectives change as people see more clearly what they need and as their previous needs are met.

**H. Programming is an educational process**

1. It teaches people to think, reason, question, make decisions and act through participation.
2. It is a time-consuming but good investment.

**I. Programming is a coordinating process**

1. It creates interest and obtains cooperation of many people.
2. It coordinates efforts of leaders, groups and agencies and promotes the best use of all resources.

**J. Programme planning provides for evaluation of results**

1. Both concurrent and final evaluation of a programme should be done.
2. Evaluation should be done with reference to the objectives set forth.
3. Evaluation should be a joint endeavour by official and non officials.
4. Evaluation is not an end in itself. It is only a means to improve programme planning.

**Nature and Scope of Programme Planning**

The controlling objective of India's National Extension Service is to develop in village people the ability to make a better living and.

to live a more satisfying life as individuals, as family members and as citizens of their community, state and nation. How to attain this objective is the key problem confronting the architects and current leaders of the scheme. The first step in any systematic attempt to promote rural development is to prepare a useful programme. The term programme indicates focus, priority and design. It assumes the ability among the planners to distinguish important needs from unimportant ones. Such a programme must be based on people's needs to make it significant and on their interests to make it effective. "if we could but know where we are now and where we ought to go, we could better judge what to do and how to do it". This statement by Abraham Lincoln lies at the heart of the nature and scope of planning for rural development. Effective programmes for rural improvement do not just happen: they have to be built.<sup>1</sup>

Programme planning is basically a process of making decisions that will carry into the future. Decisions have to be made about what the present situation is, how it could and ought to be changed and what means can be used to accomplish the new and more desirable situation.)

## 2. OBJECTIVES IN EXTENSION

*"To him who knows not the port for which he is bound,  
no wind can be favourable".*

**What are objectives?**- Objectives are expressions of the ends towards which our efforts are directed. In other words, (an objective is a statement of change in knowledge, feeling or action we want to bring about in people.) An objective is that which a person, group or agency sets before itself as an object or condition to be attained. Some extension workers like to make a distinction between the meaning of "objectives" and "goals". (Objectives are defined as "directions of movements") while a goal is defined as the distance in any given direction one expects to go during a given period of time.

### Levels of objectives :

I. **Fundamental** (all-inclusive) - e.g., The ultimate objective of extension work is the full development of individuals. Such objectives are generally found in legislation and charters of organisation.

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1. Adapted from Leagans, J. P. in "Extension Education in Community Development" op. cit.

**2. General Objectives** (Vide Chapter 1, for 4 general objectives or functions of Extension). These are more definite than fundamental objectives, and are directly associated with the Extension Service and are generally found in statements of policies and purposes.

**3. Working Objectives** (Specific subject-matter approach) e.g., The maize growers of village 'X' to increase the yield per acre of maize by using hybrid seed.

*Working Objectives have three parts-*(1) Audience-who are to be changed, (2) Type of change - Knowledge, attitude or skill, (3) Content or message-What you are trying to teach (What you want them to know, feel or do).

**Criteria for judging Objectives.<sup>1</sup>**

1. Can they be defined in terms of behaviour or changes in people?
2. Are they achievable by the level of maturity of the group and permitted by available resources ?
3. Are they specific, consistent, and worded clearly ?
4. Are they limited in number, to avoid undue diffusion of effort ?
5. Can they be measured or evaluated?
6. Are they co-operatively determined and likely to promote action?
7. Are they developmental? Will they lead to constantly higher levels of achievement and toward the general aims of extension ?

**Determining Needs, and Writing of Objectives**

An extension worker, working with rural people, often deals with "working objectives". The wording of clear-cut objectives is a skill in itself. It requires care in the use of words, avoiding incoherent and vague statements.

It is important to harmonize what rural people feel they need and what professional extension workers think the people ought to have. It is not safe to let either group dominate the setting of objectives. What people want may not be what they need most. What professional workers think people need, may not be what the latter want.

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1. Kelsey, L.D., and Hearne C. C., "Co-operative Extension Work", op-cit.

*(Needs and Interest)*

The gap between the situation and objective is the area of needs. This area becomes well defined after the situations and the objectives are determined by the leaders, extension workers and specialists.

1. *What do we understand by Need and Interest ?*

Need is what one desires. It is lack of something. Need is the difference between "what is" and "what ought to be".

Interest may be defined as a desire on the part of an individual to learn, study or gain more information and skill about some field or subject matter that he thinks of value to him.

2. *What are some of the characteristics of needs ?*

- (i) Expressed in terms of behaviour in a particular direction.
- (ii) Periodical or sporadic. At times they are very active and actually felt. At other times not so active. Often dormant
- (iii) Often inter-related. They seldom operate singly. Usually expressed in groups.
- (iv) Needs often conflict with one another, and this sets up priorities. e. g., drowning man forgets all other needs except the need for air.

3. *Kinds of Needs :* People's needs usually can be classified into two categories.

- i. Felt or recognized needs.
- ii. Unfelt or unrecognized needs.

4. *Why should Extension workers take into consideration the felt needs of the people among whom they are going to work ? Why should their programme of work be determined by the felt needs of the people ?*

Legislature and planning at the administrative level are not sufficient. The programme has to arise from the felt needs of the people if it is to be really meaningful for them. One of the important jobs of the Extension worker is to make unfelt needs felt by the villager. It should be recognised that in a free society all needs must become felt before they serve as motivating forces.

Research in adult education indicates that adults often are not aware of many of their most important needs. To the extent that this is true, adults have needs which are unfelt. Significant needs of which people are not conscious must be ferreted out and met in order to help them advance toward more desirable economic and

social conditions. One of the problems in rural programming, therefore, is to help people identify important needs they do not recognise. Thus it is not enough to base programmes entirely on what people feel their needs are, because these often may not represent some of their most important needs. Leaders of programmes must dig deep and identify needs people have, which they do not recognise, then plan educational effort to convert these into felt needs. Without this, rural development programmes will be less significant and may tend to focus on the everyday short-term interests of people rather than on their more basic long-time needs.

#### 5. Steps in determining Felt Needs :

##### FIRST METHOD :

- A. Talk with people about the things they want to talk about. Let the conversation flow.
- B. During course of conversation, be sensitive to opportunities to raise questions -- (Only raise questions-- no more-- do not push this too fast).
- C.
  1. Watch for statement of problem.
  2. Help them to define the problem through questions.
  3. Always let your questions be "open-ended". Never put words into their mouths or direct them into saying what you want them to say; do not manipulate their tongue.

Let the problem be defined out of general discussion. Then ask, "What shall we do about it?". Give examples of what has been successful elsewhere and then suggest-- "Shall we try it here also to solve our problem?".

5. Talk to as many different individuals and groups as possible in this way.

6. Make a separate list for each discussion of what has been expressed directly or indirectly as a felt need.

7. Set up a priority list of the above needs on the basis of the number of times the same need has been expressed by different groups or individuals.

8. Having determined the felt needs, start with one that is easiest to fulfil. Arrange them in order of priority on this basis.

**SECOND METHOD :**

You may also follow another though less effective method of determining felt needs. Ask directly groups, agencies, Panchayats - -

"What are your needs - - the things you need?"

Then select and set up a priority as in the first method to all parties questioned.

*Some defects in this method :* Chances of arriving at actual felt needs are less, because people are on their guard when asked questions. Answers are coloured by :

1. Suspicion. 2. What they think they can get out of the questioner (favours from Government official). 3. When they think the questioner is Inspector, Tax Collector; hence fear. 4. Hostility - - No answers at all. 5. Indifference - - Vague, meaningless answers.

**Note :** Felt needs : (a) As defined by people themselves,  
(b) As defined by Extension workers.

The closer together the two-the lesser the difference between them-the more accurate is the analysis of felt needs.

**6. The Role of Interest**

The educational process creates at first an awareness of unfelt needs. As unfelt needs become closer to felt needs, interest develops.

When interest is developed, people tend to act in the following ways that satisfy their interests :

- a. People seek more information about things in which they are interested.
- b. People tend to acquire more knowledge about things they already know something about and are interested in.
- c. People tend to expose themselves to things they are interested in.
- d. Interest is the most important phase of motivation.
- e. Interest tends to control who is reached by extension.

Much of the effort of extension workers, local leaders and specialists is devoted to developing interest among people.

As people work to satisfy their interests and their felt needs, they obtain conditions that are more satisfying to them.

This gives people satisfaction socially, economically, avocationally or aesthetically. This is the basis for a sound extension programme.

The history of extension work in India (as in U. S. A.) indicates the following *gradual evolution in the nature of programme building vis-a-vis* the determination of the people's needs.

**1. Pre-determined programmes :** Prior to the inception of the C. D. and N. E. S. blocks, the extension programmes (called the district work programmes) were naturally pre-determined. The subject matter was limited to whatever the department considered to be the need or whatever the department had to offer. The targets were fixed by the supervisory officers of the department and passed on for execution by the Extension Officers (then styled as Agricultural Demonstrators at the taluk level).

**2. Self-determined programmes :** After the introduction of the C. D. and National Extension Service in 1952, usually a few local leaders at the district or block level were called together or constituted into Development Committees, to help select from the available offerings, those activities they considered to be of interest to many persons.

**3. Fact-determined programmes :** After the inauguration of Panchayat Raj, we have entered a period that might be called the fact-finding period. We are trying to build our programmes from the "grass roots", after analysing the facts of the situation and considering the needs and interests of the people, all done with the consultation and co-operation of the people and the officials at the village, block, district and state levels. This procedure provides a way to set up sound working objectives, by making use of both "felt" and "unfelt" needs. The importance of felt needs as the basis for a sound extension programme is illustrated in Figure 12.

- A. Without education (creating an awareness) unfelt needs are not changed to felt needs.
- B. Without felt needs, voluntary action does not occur.
- C. Without voluntary action objectives are seldom attained.
- D. Education is an uphill effort.
- E. Voluntary action (satisfying felt needs) is self-propelled.
- F. Extension effort is reflected in extension results.

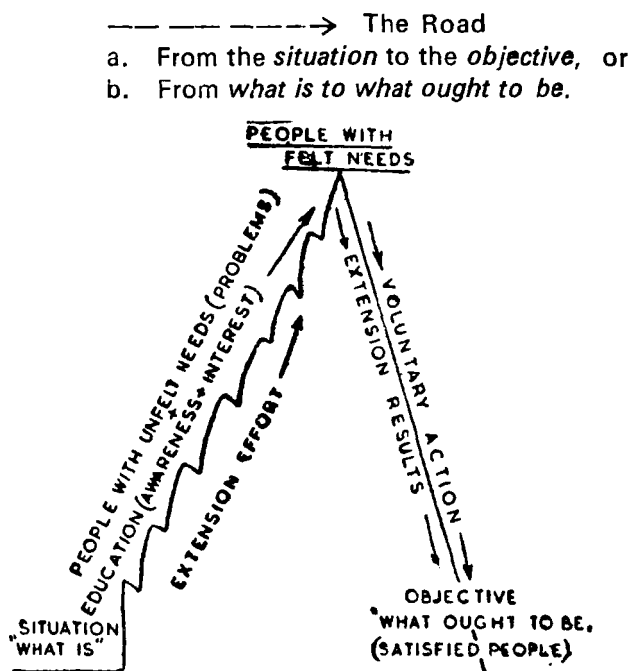


FIGURE 12. BASIS FOR A SOUND EXTENSION PROGRAMME

**How the Extension worker can assist in setting up objectives :**

1. Hold informal talks with local leaders individually and ascertain felt needs of the people.
2. Bring all local leaders together to discuss problems for better understanding.
3. Supply necessary background information and give suggestions concerning technical aspects relating to both felt and unfelt needs.
4. Educate leaders to change unfelt needs into felt needs.
5. Assist them in formulating objectives based on felt needs and priorities, and in arriving at solutions to problems.

**3. STEPS FOR MAKING A PROGRAMME**

The following five phases of the extension educational process (given in chapter 1) constitute the main steps in preparing, executing and evaluating extension programmes in a continuous cycle.

1. Analysis of the situation and determining problems.
2. Deciding on objectives.
3. Teaching. 4. Evaluation 5. Reconsideration.

These can be broken up into the following *specific steps in programme planning process*.<sup>1</sup>

1. Collection, analysis and evaluation of all available and pertinent facts bearing on the welfare of the rural community.
2. Determination of objectives based on the needs of the community.
3. Definition of problems or obstacles faced in achieving the objectives or in meeting the needs of the community.
4. Finding solutions to problems.
5. Selecting problems to be attacked with due consideration to priorities.
6. Preparing a plan of activities directed towards solution of selected problems and assigning group and individual responsibility for each activity in the plan.
7. Carrying out the plan step by step in a coordinated manner.
8. Continuous checking and evaluation of results.
9. Reviewing progress towards achievement of objectives and projecting of plans for an additional period.

The first 4 steps constitute the Extension Programme and the next 5 steps, the annual plan of work.

A diagrammatic representation of the programme-building process is given in Figure 13.

The nine steps in the process are briefly explained below :

**I. Collection, analysis and evaluation of data:** Good planning depends on the collection of *adequate and reliable* data and a scientific elaboration and *inter pretation* of the same. Extension workers must have adequate knowledge of what farmers produce, how and under what conditions they produce it, and how the production can be stepped up to the maximum for the purpose of formulating plans at the village and Block level.

An intimate knowledge of the cropping patterns, procedures of farm management and the factors of production is essential for purposeful programme planning in agricultural in any area. Therefore, it is of great importance that all extension workers -- the *Grama Sevaks*, Extension Specialists and Block Development Officers-- possess the factual and *basic farm and family* information required for preparing a sound family, village and Block plan.

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1. Vidyarthi, G.S., "Developing Family, Village and Block Programmes", Extension Education in Community Development op.cit.

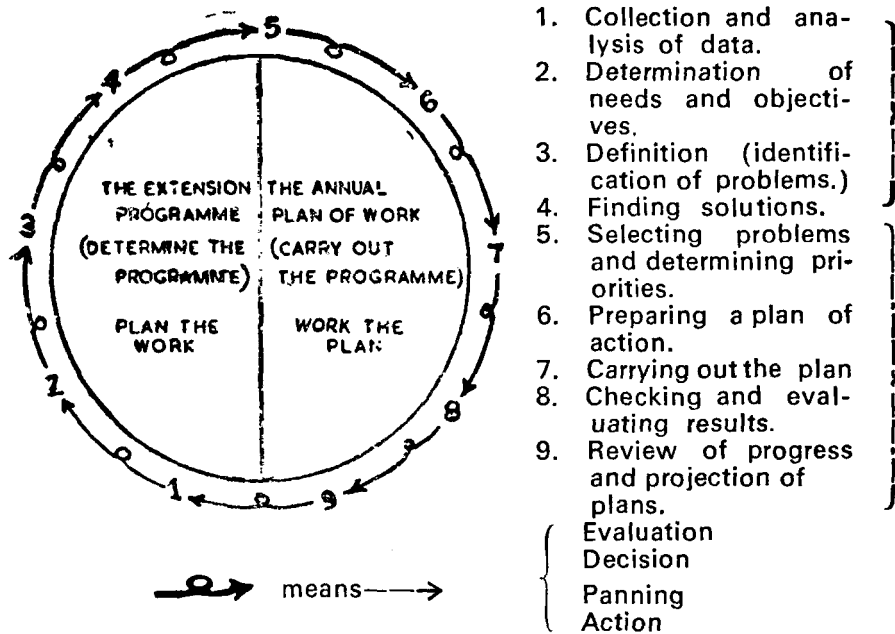


FIGURE 13 PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

It is not possible to draw up a comprehensive list of items suitable for all situations or all parts of the country, on which extension workers could collect information. But, in general, information on the following items should be collected.

**A. Basic information about the village.**

1. Population.
2. Total number of families.
3. Number of farm families.
4. Other main occupations of the villagers.
5. Transport facilities.
6. Schooling facilities.
7. Facilities of medical aid.
8. Drinking water facilities etc.
9. Attitudes and beliefs of the rural population (social classes, formal and informal groups, local leaders etc.)
10. Nutrition situation (food habits, level of nutrition, etc.)

**B. information about farm management and production programmes.**

1. Total area under cultivation in the village.

2. Size of an average agricultural holding.
3. Types and quality of crops grown (including cropping programme, crop rotation), and types and quality of live-stock.
4. Soil types (suitability for different crops) and problems connected with soil fertility, soil erosion, drainage, soil improvement, etc.
5. Cattle feeds (feed rations and crops grown as cattle feeds etc.)
6. Utilisation of grass land (arrangement for cattle grazing and grass land improvement).
7. Disease and pest control (important diseases and pests, and their control measures).
8. Agricultural machinery (types of traditional and improved agricultural implements used etc.)
9. Irrigation resources (types of irrigation sources and problems) and drainage.
10. Financial position of the farmers (long and short term debts, borrowed capital, etc.)
11. Credit facilities (sources and facilities of securing credit).
12. Position of labour (problems of farm labour, landless labour in the village.)
13. Marketing facilities.

The data can be collected by the *Gram Sevak*, and *Gram Sevika* and other workers from the villagers themselves, from the local institutions and from the Revenue records. Reliance and adequacy of the data about factual situations are very important considerations in building sound programmes at the family, village and block levels.

It is very important that persons engaged in developing the extension programme, like the Village level Workers, Extension Officers and Block Development Officers *strengthen the local institutions* like the *panchayat*, the co-operative society, the school and the rural youth club by collecting the factual data through them and using them for building the programme at the family, village and Block levels. The workers should develop *local leadership* in such a way that the villagers and the local institution are able to recognise

and select problems for action on a priority basis. Thus, it is desirable that the essential factual data collected by the workers is passed on to the village *panchayat* or Block *panchayat samithi* for review and action in deciding which problems of the village or Block should be tackled first.

Facts and outlook (trends) at the national and state levels should also be considered in this context, in addition to those pertaining to the local level.

**2. Determination of objectives:** It is essential in the programme planning process that before deciding on the projects to be undertaken, the basic objectives of the programme are determined by the villagers in consultation with the extension staff. This means that the villagers must have a very clear understanding of the projects so that they are able to set up appropriate objectives for village programmes. Objectives of the programme can be decided upon by the head or active member of the participating family for family plans, and by the village *panchayat* in the case of activities to be undertaken on a community or village basis. Service co-operatives operating in villages should also take upon themselves the responsibility for deciding the objectives of the programme which promote welfare of rural children, youth and women. In arriving at the objectives for village programmes, the villagers and leaders of local institutions should take the advice of the extension workers. In many cases, the objectives of the programme may not be clear to the villagers. In such situations the extension staff may give a lead to the villagers in determining the specific objectives. The objectives should specify the behavioural changes in people, besides the social and economic changes aimed at and also satisfy the other criteria (mentioned already in this chapter.)

**3. Definition of Problems:** In the process of programme planning at the family, village or Block level, it is desirable that village activities are properly *classified*. This will give an opportunity to the planner and the participants to assess their potentialities and capabilities for executing the programme. Generally in villages, such problems can be classified into the following categories:

i) Problems which can be solved by the villagers with their own resources, like improving yields by adopting improved methods of agricultural production, improving the manurial potential by

preparing compost manure, organising service co-operatives, rural youth clubs, *mahilamandals*, etc.

ii) Problems that need community co-operation without involving much outside assistance, like the construction of a village approach road by a voluntary effort, improving village drainage, deepening of tanks, afforestation of common land etc.

iii) Problems that require assistance from outside sources on account of high costs involved and the technical knowledge needed, such as the construction of a school building, purchase and use of plant protection equipment, supply of fertilisers, construction of metalled road, installation of pumping sets, construction of tube wells etc.

If the villagers and the village institutions are able to classify their problems under such broad heads, it will be easy to plan a clearcut programme for each individual, family and the village. Under these conditions, the internal and external resources can be utilised economically and quicker results obtained. In the programme planning process, it is also desirable to *break up the complex problems* step by step into simple problems. For example, in the case of improving village sanitation, the first step can be to organise cleanliness drives periodically in the villages, then have a programme of soakage pits followed by a village drainage programme, etc.

**4. Finding solutions to problems :** The *Gram Sevak* working at the village level and the Extension Officer working as a specialist at the Block level are two very important functionaries who advise the village families and village institutions on their problems. It is of real importance that these functionaries have a clear understanding of the village problems and keep themselves equipped for offering solutions to the problems the villagers present to them. They must consult their superior specialists on problems they are not able to handle themselves. The solutions offered should be practicable and economical and should result in satisfaction and learning.

The best method of convincing the villagers is for the specialists to function in the programme as partners. Specialists at district and state levels who assist the Block level specialists must also be fully oriented and trained with an understanding of village problems and programmes.

**5. Selecting problems to be tackled :** All the problems cannot be tackled simultaneously, even though the solutions for them are known. Therefore, it is necessary for the extension workers and the village institutions to select problems and concentrate their efforts on projects in a phased way. This will result in appreciable achievements and convince the village people about the utility of the programme. Sporadic efforts sometimes do not end in lasting and convincing impressions on the minds of rural people. Care, therefore, must be exercised by programme committees set up at village and Block levels to review the situation periodically for determining how much progress has been made on projects under way, which projects are complete and which new projects may be initiated. This would provide opportunities for selecting problems for programme planning in a more methodical and democratic manner.

**6. Annual plan of work :** Preparing a plan of activities directed towards solving selected problems is an important step. *A plan of work is the listing of activities by which the objectives already decided upon are to be achieved.* It includes the methods of executing the programme such as demonstrations, discussion meetings, family contacts by the extension workers, etc. It indicates the places, timings and persons responsible for carrying out the programme along with the methods of evaluating the progress.

Village *panchayats*, co-operatives, schools, rural youth clubs and individual families can prepare their own annual plans of work in a simple way. The extension agency may provide suitable proformas and guidance for preparing these. In the early stages, the initiative has to come from the extension agency itself in planning programmes because, in India, villagers and village institutions are not habituated to follow a systematic method of preparing annual plans of work. Based on family and village annual plans, it is easy for the Block *Panchayat Samithi* to prepare an annual plan of work for the entire Block on a realistic basis representing the needs of the villagers.

An adequate training is required for the extension staff to acquire the necessary skill in developing programmes at family, village and Block levels in co-operation with people's institutions like the *Panchayat Samithi*, the village *panchayat*, the co-operative society - etc., and the village families. The training of the members of village *panchayat*, service co-operative societies rural youth clubs,

and *Panchayat Samithi* will also form an essential element in the process of programme planning.

Each family can keep a simple register for maintaining the annual plan of work, while the *panchayats* and co-operatives at the village level can maintain the annual plan of work for village development activities. At the Block level the *Panchayat Samithi* can maintain the annual plan of work for the Block.) For successful implementation of any programme it is desirable that advance planning be done. As the first step towards its implementation, a calendar indicating the activities to be carried out during each month should be prepared.

**7. Carrying out the plan :** The success of a programme depends on how well it is carried out. Immediate steps should be taken by the Village Development Officer and local institutions at the village level the Extension Specialist, the Block Development Officer and the *Panchayat Samithi* at the Block level to phase every activity in a proper perspective, and arrange all things in time. Proper arrangements for the supply of fertilisers, equipment, credit, audio-visual aids and literature should be made much in advance. A training programme for specialised projects should be organised much ahead. Efforts should be made to select the best type of local leaders who can shoulder the responsibility and multiply the efforts of the extension agency. All steps in carrying out a programme should be discussed with the villagers and their consent obtained at appropriate periods so that a partnership in the programme is built up and maintained. Steps for assistance and direction should be clearly stated so that there may be no confusion anywhere in launching the extension programmes.

If co-operation and coordination of the village institutions and the Block institutions are maintained with extension workers and the villagers in the process of programme planning, the programme so developed will be more realistic and easier to implement. For imparting a proper type of training to local leaders, farm leaders and members of *panchayats* and the *Panchayat Samithi*, seminars should be arranged at the village and Block level.

**8. Continuous checking and evaluation of results :** An effective plan of work requires the keeping of adequate records of each activity as a basis for future evaluation. Evaluation of the activities should be undertaken jointly by the extension staff, the

village institutions and the *Panchayat Samithi*. Each future programme should be based on the evaluation results of the previous one. Successful evaluation gives a correct direction to a programme. It should be remembered that evaluation is not mere recording of activities or achievements but is a process of comparing these results with the original objectives.

**9. Review of process and projection of plans :** At the end of each cycle of the programme building process, the situation should be reconsidered in view of the changes in the social and economic levels of the people so that the whole process may begin again with new or modified objectives. Village institutions like the *Panchayat*, the co-operative and the school, and also the *Panchayat Samithi* should periodically review the progress of plans in co-operation with the staff members of the Block. Programmes which have created an impact on the people and are being accepted by them should be extended to the neighbouring areas where similar agro-climatic and socio-economic conditions occur. Research should be conducted on the programmes which are not being accepted by the people and the reasons for their failure ascertained.

Programmes should never be considered as ends in themselves. They are merely tools for doing more effective work. A proper adjustment of time and energy spent in preparing a programme has always to be maintained with the actual implementation of the programme in the field. It should be noted that evaluation, decision, planning and action take place continuously, in varying degrees throughout all steps of the programme building process.

#### **A Plan for Involving People in Programme Planning<sup>1</sup>**

Rural programme planning, in essence, is a process of making decisions about important objectives to be attained in an area. One of the most significant problems confronting rural development workers is that of deciding on programme objectives which reflect the primary needs and interests of people. How to do this skillfully is a question of major concern to every professional worker. Decisions about programme objectives are usually best when made neither by the officials alone, nor by the people alone, but when made jointly by the officials and the people.

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<sup>1</sup>, Leagans J. P. "Programme Planning to Meet People's Needs" Extension Education in Community Development, op. cit.

The contributions of the local people to rural programming are obtained most effectively through some form of organised approach. Research indicates that no one type of organisation is best for programming in all situations. There are certain criteria, however, which are usually met when the local people contribute to programme development most effectively. These are indicated below :

1. *Representative committees of non-officials* are organised by the development staff. These function systematically on a continuing basis in developing and maintaining a current programme for development.
2. The people who function as members of the planning committees at the local level represent *major interest groups*, various economic and social levels of people, major vocations of the locality and other important elements in the area.
3. Members of the planning groups functioning at the local level are selected by appropriate *democratic procedures*.
4. Each member of the planning groups clearly understands (a) the *purpose* of the group, (b) how the *group* can function in attaining its purpose and (c) his *individual role* as a member of the group.
5. *Policies or rules formed for maintaining continuity* of the planning groups include an appropriate plan for terminating the services of the temporary groups, and membership in the permanent groups and for selecting new members of the permanent groups and new temporary groups.

#### 4. A MODEL OF PROGRAMME PLANNING

A model of programme planning based on the case study of an extension project on green manuring paddy crop, is given in Tables 3 and 4, together with the intervening narrative portion constituting the main programme report. It may be noted that the total extension programme for a given village or area will comprise of a number of such projects.

Table 3. Summary outline of Programme Planning for green manuring Paddy crop in Ramavaram Village (Case Study)

(Columns 4 and 5 relate to first year only. Fuller details in main programme report)

Description of the situation (1)	Significant needs (2)	Objectives to be achieved (3)	(Plan of work for 1963-64 only)	
			Means of Achieving the objectives (4)	Calendar of work (5)
<p>1. In Ramavaram village, 180 farmers raise 2 crops of rice per year in 420 acres.</p> <p>2. One reason for dwindling yields (present level: 1500 lb/acre) is inadequate fertilization due to non-availability of enough fertilizers.</p> <p>3. Farmers rely exclusively on fertilizers; but very bleak prospect of getting enough fertilizers.</p> <p>4. Research and experience have demonstrated green manuring as a solution to this problem.</p> <p>5. It is possible to grow green manure in this village in between two successive rice crops (At present, the land is left fallow during this interval between rice crops).</p> <p>6. But farmers have not felt the need for green manuring and they continue to pin their faith on the dependable fertilizer supply. (Details in main report).</p>	<p>1. There is felt need to increase rice production from 1500 lb. to 1900 lb. per acre.</p> <p>2. To fill the above gap there is need to resort to green manuring.</p> <p>3. But this need is not yet felt by the farmers. Thus there is a gap between what they ought to know and practise in this regard and what they know and are practicing.</p> <p>4. So there is a need to educate them and bring about desired change in their knowledge, understanding skills and attitudes.</p>	<p>1. To improve rice yield per acre.</p> <p>2. To apply green manure to rice crop.</p> <p>3. To grow Sesbania after II crop paddy for application to I crop.</p> <p>4. To develop among rice farmers better understanding of the economic value of green manuring and to help them acquire the needed skills. (Hierarchy of objectives, project goals and teaching objectives in main report, vide p. 145 to p. 149.)</p>	<p>I. <i>Educational Means</i>                      Exhibit and meeting                      Radio broadcast                      Method Demonstration                      Drama                      Method Demonstration                      " " "                      Laying R. Demonstration                      Farm visits (3)                      Result Demonstration                      harvest (meeting)                      Field trip and M. D.                      News Story                      Article in Farm J.                      Folk songs and dances                      (More details in Teaching Plan. Table 4)                      II. <i>Physical Supplies</i>                      1. Teaching equipment needed for the above extension methods.                      2. Village Cooperative to supply 4000 lb. of Sesbania seed.</p>	<p><i>Year 1963</i>                      April 5 (4 to 6 p.m.)                      April 9 (6 to 6.15 p.m.)                      April 10 (8 to 11 a.m.)                      May 20 (8 to 10 p.m.)                      May 25 (9 to 11 a.m.)                      June 25 (8 to 11 a.m.)                      July 5 (8 to 12 a.m.)                      15th of August. Sept,                      Oct (4 - 6 p. m.)                      Nov 25 (8 a.m. to 1 p. m.)</p> <p><i>Year 1964</i>                      Jan 20 (3 to 5 p.m.)                      Feb 15                      Feb 25                      March 20 (8 to 10 p. m.)</p> <p>In time for each of the above dates.                      Before April 9, 1963</p>

### **Report on Programme Planning for Increasing Rice yield in Ramavaram village (A Case Study)**

#### **I. Introduction**

After the inception of Panchayat Raj or democratic decentralisation in India during 1960, the village Panchayat is the agency for planning and executing the local development programmes. In other words, village is the basic unit for planning, the Panchayat Samithi being the coordinating, guiding and supporting institution at the Block level.

This report is written on the lines of a case study of programme planning in Ramavaram village, India. Although much of the material in this case study is factual, some of it is reconstructed with a view to make it as ideal as possible.

#### **II. The Programme Planning Committee and its Task**

The Programme Planning Committee for agricultural development in Ramavaram village consisted of three members of Village Panchayat, the President of the Village Co-operative Society, the local school teacher and two representatives of farmers. The Gram Sevak (V.D.O.) acted as an ex-officio member, being the resource person who received technical guidance from the Block Agricultural Extension Officer.

Having been seized of the problem of food shortage, the Programme Planning Committee had drawn up a long-time programme for increasing food production in the village. One sector of this programme related to increasing the production of rice (being the most important of all food crops in the village). As there was no possibility of extending the area under rice, the programme aimed at improving the average rice yield per acre as the means to attain the objective of increasing the rice production. There were several ways of stepping up the per acre yield, one among them being intensive manuring. Among different kinds of intensive manuring, the development of local manurial resources (like compost, greenleaf manure, green manuring, etc.) was one. Again, there were different ways of green manuring. We shall now consider how the Committee selected one particular method of green manuring as suitable to the local conditions, after careful analysis of the situation as follows :

#### **III. Analysis of the Situation**

In this village there are 420 acres of wet land, irrigated by a canal. There are 180 farmers raising two crops of paddy per year in

these 420 acres. The first crop is transplanted in July and harvested by end of November. The second crop is transplanted in January and harvested in April. From the time of harvest of second crop to the time of planting the first crop, there is an interval of more than three months, when the land will be fallow. Due to intensive cropping over the years, together with inadequate manuring and fertilisation, there has been a gradual decline in paddy yields (from 1800 lb to 1500 lb per acre in the course of one decade).

The farmers of this village have fully realised the value of applying nitrogenous (artificial) fertilizers to increase paddy yields. But unfortunately the supply of these fertilizers is woefully inadequate. For instance, during last year they could hardly get a quota of 25 lb. of ammonium sulphate per acre as against the requirement of 120 lb. per acre, resulting in very low yields. The cultivators are aware that low yields are due to inadequate manuring; nevertheless they think the Government can solve the problem by allotting increased quota of fertilizers. But the fact is that India produces hardly 25% of her requirement of nitrogenous fertilizers, and experience has shown that imports from abroad are unreliable and often untimely. So suitable local manurial resources should be developed to supplement the meagre fertilizers, in order to increase the yields. Research in the nearest Agricultural Experiment Station, and also experience in a few other villages in this Development Block, as well as the results of two small-scale demonstration plots run last year in this village itself-all go to show that green manuring with *Sesbania* gives increased yields of paddy. Even granting that adequate fertilizers are made available, the green manuring practice has to be continued in the interest of building up organic matter in the soil, as research has shown that tropical agriculture especially cannot dispense with the practice of regular replenishing of humus in the soil.

Also, it is possible (without upsetting the existing cropping pattern) to raise *Sesbania* in the interval between the second and first crops of paddy in this village and to plough it in before planting first crop paddy in July. Thereby, the limited fertilizer available can be utilised for the second crop for which there are no facilities to use any green manuring.

Now in the same C.D. Block in a more progressive village (Veeraballi), the farmers have taken to this practice since two years. Even in this (Ramavaram) village, the V.D.O. introduced the practice-

in one acre demonstration plots last year in holdings of two local leaders (who happen to be members of the Planning Committee). After seeing the success of this trial, 10 neighbouring farmers (of progressive outlook) agreed to adopt the practice.

When the V.D.O. approached the other farmers in the Village, they put forth excuses and imaginary difficulties. Some said the practice might not be suitable for their soils; some thought it would involve much expenditure; most of them blamed the Government for not arranging adequate supply of nitrogenous fertilizer. Many of them were also not aware of the facilities given by the Government to encourage the green manuring practice, by way of subsidized sale of *Sesbania* seed at 50% of cost price, and remission of water tax. Also they did not know that they could produce their own seed of *Sesbania* by planting *Sesbania* seedlings along paddy field bunds for seed purposes.

So, based on the above analysis of the situation, and knowing that the rice growing farmers had a felt need to increase their rice yields, and required to be educated about the fact that this new practice would fulfil their above felt need, the Planning Committee included this as a new project in their programme for increasing rice production, and gave wide publicity to the proposed project duly incorporating the above situation analysis and the following objectives, as well as annual plan of work (on the lines indicated in the Summary Statement at the beginning of this report). This was to be followed by actual teaching by the V.D.O. with the co-operation of Programme Committee and other local leaders and farmers, and with the guidance of the (Block) Agricultural Extension Officer.

#### IV. The place of the Project in the Hierarchy of Objectives

a. To *increase* food production (in the village)

To *increase* rice production

To *improve* per-acre yield of rice

To apply *green manure* to rice crop

To grow *Sesbania* after second crop for application to first crop paddy

(The last sub-objective was used as a basis for the teaching objectives which follow).

**B. Project Goals:** The project was planned for a 3-year period as shown below :

1. In the first year (1963-64) in addition to the 2 demonstrators and 10 progressive farmers who expressed their

willingness to adopt the practice as a result of last year's demonstration in this village (as mentioned in situation analysis), it was proposed to influence another 38 farmers and thus get a total of 50 farmers to adopt the practice in an area of 200 acres.

2. During the second year, 80 more farmers were to adopt it in 160 acres (progressive total : 130 adopters, 360 acres).
3. During the third year, the remaining 50 farmers were to adopt in 60 acres, thus completing the total acreage and all the rice farmers.

(Although there would likely be a few non-adopters, the programme was aimed at influencing all farmers).

### C. Teaching Objectives for implementing the project

	People concerned	Kind of behaviour change desired	Problem area (content)
1.	Rice farmers (of Ramavaram).	To increase their understanding of	Nitrogenous fertilizer situation.
2.	Rice farmers	To improve their knowledge of	Economic value of using Sesbania as substitute for fertilizers in stepping up rice yields.
3.	Rice farmers	To become aware	The two concessions of subsidized seed and water tax exemption given by Govt. for encouraging green manure.
4.	Rice farmers	To improve their knowledge about	Producing their own Sesbania seeds.
5.	Rice farmers	To change their attitude from one of	Undue reliance on fertilizers to one of self-reliance by growing green manure.
6.	Rice farmers	To acquire skills of	Growing and applying Sesbania to rice, as well as producing the required Sesbania seeds in their own rice fields.

**V. Teaching Plan for the First Year (1963-64)**

In line with the above teaching objectives, the V.D.O. prepared in consultation with Agricultural Extension Officer, a teaching plan for the first year (1963-64) as shown in Table 4. He selected the teaching methods, messages and treatments based on his knowledge of the background of the audience their personal liking for certain types of entertainment and the availability of materials including local talent. He also provided for a combination of methods and repetition of messages in a variety of ways over a period of time. Thus he aimed at arranging effective learning situations which would hopefully result in the intended learning experiences and lead to the desired behavioural changes in the audience.

**VI. Organising People and Things**

After preparing the teaching plan, the V.D.O. showed it to the members of the Programme Planning Committee and in consultation with them, made the following advance arrangements needed for implementing the teaching plan :

1. He fixed up the prospective demonstrators and selected the fields for conducting method and result demonstrations.
2. He ensured the timely supply of the required Sesbania seeds by the Village Co-operative Society.
3. He arranged with the school teacher for necessary rehearsal and training to the members of the local Young Farmers Club for staging the drama on May 20 and for the folk songs and dance on March 20 (as provided in the teaching plan).
4. He fixed up an appointment for the presence and participation of the Agricultural Extension Officer at the exhibit and meeting held on April 5 (the day of inauguration of the project) and for radio broadcast on April 9.
5. He made advance arrangements for the needed teaching materials, etc., to implement the teaching plan.

**VII. Plan for Evaluation**

The Programme Planning Committee including the V.D.O. decided to evaluate the project continually and periodically at every stage; to report the results of such evaluation to the village Panchayat (the governing body during its monthly meetings ; and at the time of the final evaluation each year, to reconsider the situation with reference to the objectives and to make suitable adjustment for the succeeding year.

TABLE 4. Teaching Plan for Sesbania Project - Ramavaram Village 1963 - 64

Time	Audience	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
April 5 4-5 p.m.	Rice farmers	<i>Exhibit</i> (To be arranged in local school after prior publicity by Tom-Tom and wall posters; besides V.D.O., A.E.O. also to participate in exhibition to be followed by a meeting).	1. India produces hardly 25% of her requirement of nitrogenous fertilizers. Imports are erratic and undependable (Details in chart).	Chart	To improve knowledge of audience about fertilizer supply situation.
			2. Sesbania is a good substitute for fertilizer; it is a leguminous plant gives plenty of foliage in short time; improves soil. 3. Grow Sesbania in interval between second and first crop of paddy. 4. See posters illustrating success stories of adoption of this practice.	Showing specimens of Sesbania plants  A series of related Posters	To increase knowledge of farmers about value of green manure as alternative to nitrogenous fertilizers for increasing paddy yields; and to take promises of adoption by farmers and assess their requirements of Sesbania seed in the first instance (50 farmers aimed at during this year).
5-6 p.m.	„	<i>Meeting</i> in the same school soon after Exhibit, (Extension Officer, and the two adoption leaders to address).	1. 'A' and 'B' (of your village) obtained (400lb.) more paddy per acre last season [by growing and applying Sesbania to first crop paddy.	Symposium	as above

Time	Audiance	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
			<p>2. Sesbania is suited to your soils. Hear your leaders 'A' and 'B' giving their experiences with it last season.</p> <p>3. You should all follow their lead, if you want to increase paddy yields (After the above message by Extension Officer, leaders 'A' 'B' to explain to audience their last year's experience with the practice).</p>		
April 9 6-6-15 p.m.	Farmers (at the community radio centre of the village).	Radio Broadcast (by Extension Officer during the regular Farmers Programme)	Same messages as given above on April 5, giving case history of demonstration plots of previous season,	In the form of an "Interview".	Repetition of messages for reinforcement, to increase awareness and interest of farmers; also to see there is no time lag between encouragement to action and the right time for adoption.

Time	Audience	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
April 10 8-11 a.m.	Demonstrators and other participating farmers.	Field trip and method demonstrations (in 2 holdings).	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Drain of water from second crop paddy fields one week before harvest.</li> <li>2. Broadcast Sesbania seed in standing crop of paddy.</li> <li>3. Use a seed rate of 20lb. per acre.</li> </ol>	Showing these operations, explaining reasons.	To show and explain proper method of sowing. (water drained off to prevent rotting of seed and to facilitate germination; 20 lb/acre optimum seed rate; no preparatory ploughing necessary before sowing).
May 20 8-10 p.m.	Farm men, women and youth	Drama (by members of Young Farmers Club trained by school teacher and V. D. O. - to synchronize with school anniversary).	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. In Veeraballi (a progressive village 10 miles away) all farmers have adopted green manuring and got 400lb increased yield for acre.</li> <li>2. There, women and youth also participated in the project.</li> <li>3. You (Ramavaram) people should do likewise and get enhanced yields.</li> <li>4. You can produce your own seed (as they are doing in Veeraballi) by planting Sesbania seedlings along paddy field bunds. Easy and economical,</li> </ol>	Role playing	To induce farmers to raise their own Sesbania seed required for next year. To explain success story of neighbouring village, and foster a spirit of healthy competition. To encourage women and youth to participate in operation like preparing raised seedbeds, sowing Sesbania seeds therein, and planting Sesbania seedlings along paddy field bunds.

Time	Audience	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
May 25 9-11 a.m.	Farm men, women and youth	Field trip and method Demonstration meeting.	1. Sow Sesbania seed in raisad seedbeds 40 days before commencement of season for planting paddy. 2. 4 ounces of good seed will give enough seedlings to plant along field bunds in one acre.	Actual opera- tions explain- ing reasons.	To grow Sesbania seed- lings for planting them along field bunds in July. Raised beds facilitate drai- nage, and easy pulling of seedlings when ready in 40 days.
June 25 9-11 a.m.	All adopting farmers	Field trip and method Demonstration (in the 2 holdings mentioned against April 10)	Let water into Sesbania fields, plough it in, 7 to 10 days prior to planting of paddy.	Operation with reasons.	To plough in Sesbania at proper time. 7-10 days in- terval necessary to allow green manure to decom- pose (before planting paddy).
July 5 9-12 a.m.	Adopting farm men, women and youth	Field trip and method Demonstration (in the 2 holdings)	Pull out Sesbania seed- lings, only on day of plan- ting paddy; plant them same day 2 feet apart along paddy field bunds.	Operation with reasons.	To produce Sesbania seed for next year. Seedlings pulled out only on planting day to prevent wilting. 2 feet spacing optimum.
do	-do- and also non-adopt- ing farmers.	Laying out result de- monstration plots	You will see difference in yield (later at harvest time) between green man- ured paddy plots and con- trol plots.	Green manur- ing versus no green manur- ing.	To convince the 130 non- adopting farmers to adopt next year. Reinforcement effect on 50 adopting far- mers.

Time	Audience	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
August Sept. Oct. 15th 4-6 p.m.	All rice growers.	Farm visits (once a month at least)	Adopters and non-adopters, observe growth of green manured plots including result demonstration plots.	Showing crop and explaining. Taking Photos	To ascertain satisfaction of adopters, and to create confidence in non-adopters, by showing them the better growth and tillering in green manured fields of paddy.
Nov. 25 8 a.m. to 1 p.m.	„	Result Demonstration harvest (meeting)	All farmers, see increased yield (400 lb. per acre) in demonstration plots. Adopt this practice next season.	Taking Photoes Harvesting, threshing, weighing and explaining.	To convince non-adopters and reinforce the decision and action taken by adopters.
Jan. 20 (1964) 3-5 p.m.	Adopting farmers	Field trip and method demonstration	1. Strike brown coloured Sesbania pods with fingers and harvest if you hear rattling sound.  2. If you pick too early, you get immature seeds; if too late, shattering of seeds.  3. After completing seed collection, you can use the woody plants as fire wood,	Demonstrate picking at correct stage.	To ensure collection of well developed seeds without loss due to shattering.  To inform that after seed collection, woody plants, pulled out and dried, can be used as firewood which incidentally is dear in this village.

PROGRAMME PLANNING

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Time	Audience	Method	Message	Treatment	Purpose
Feb. 15	All rice farmers	News story	Leader A gives an account of the successful adoption of new practice in the village.	Letter to editor	To give publicity to achievement; satisfaction and recognition to adoption leaders and other co-operators, as well as to motivate non-adopters to take up the practice next season.
Feb. 25	"	Article in Extension Journal (Padipantalu a Telugu monthly)	Leader 'B' writes about the successful project, giving details of cost of cultivation, additional yield and income to farmer.	Illustrated article with photos of result demonstration plots and the demonstrators.	
March 20 8-10 p.m.	All farmers women and youth	Folk dance (Burra Katha) to synchronize with Telugu New Year day celebrations.	Adopters in Ramavaram village got increased yields of paddy. Non-adopters, please take up in the ensuing season.	Folk songs and dances.	To provide entertainment and incidentally to induce non-adopters to adopt in April next, to take promises from them; also to encourage adopters to continue the practice.

## 5. EVALUATION IN EXTENSION

### Meaning and Scope

1. "Evaluation" in its broadest sense means judging the value of something. It may be informal or formal (as detailed later in this section). 2. Formal evaluation may be defined as a process of systematic appraisal by which we determine the worth, value or meaning of something. 3. This something in extension may be a *programme* or part of programme, a *method* used in carrying on extension work, or a *situation* such as a community, a Block or even a larger area. 4. Its main purpose is to facilitate effective decision-making, without jumping to conclusions. 5 Extension evaluation is the process of determining how well the desired behavioural changes have taken place or are taking place as a result of extension educational effort.)

### Three Important Elements of Evaluation Process

1. Observations or collecting some information.
2. Applying some standards or criteria to our observations.
3. Finally, forming some judgement, drawing some conclusions or making some decisions.

### Degrees Evaluation<sup>1</sup>

Casual every-day evaluations	Self-checking evaluations	Do-it-yourself evaluations	Extension studies	Scientific Research
1	2	3	4	5

Informal

Formal

1. Casual every-day evaluation : We make value judgements everyday. (A good meal; best show I ever saw; one of the worst speeches I ever heard). Simple observations are important for somethings, but have their limitations. We must be careful to distinguish what is actually present from what we think we see.

The following are some of the limitations of this type of evaluation :

- i. Personal ideas used instead of standard measurements.
- ii. Intuition and personal bias cannot be eliminated.

1. Byrn, Darcie et. al. "Evaluation in Extension" U.S.D.A. Publication, 1959,

- iii. No systematic plan for arriving at conclusions.
- iv. May have only part of the information.

II. Self Checking evaluations ; make conscious attempt to apply principles of evaluation ; e.g., checking on ordinary observations, talking with others, getting other people's judgements.

III. Do-it-yourself evaluation : These involve more careful planning, apply principles of evaluation and are more systematically done. They usually require surveys, or score cards.

IV. Extension studies : More complex. Use more scientific approach.

V. Scientific research : Experimental studies, scientifically carried out to determine cause-and-effect relationships. Must be :

- i. *Factual* (or *Valid*) : Measure what you think you are measuring.
- ii. *Analytical* : Analyse the relationships of various factors.
- iii. *Reliable* : Sample representative of population; consistency of results.
- iv. *Objective* : Free of bias-others get similar results.
- v. *Impartial* : Approach with an open mind and spirit of enquiry.

#### Value or Uses of Evaluation

- a. **Results** : Evaluation helps us to determine the degree to which we are accomplishing that which we set out to do.
  - 1. How effective extension work has been?
  - 2. To what extent have the objectives of the teaching programme been effective ?
  - 3. How much of the plan of work has been accomplished?
  - 4. How to establish and use a "benchmark" in measuring progress in our work.
  - 5. What improvements are desirable in plans for the year ahead ?
- b. **Programme Planning** : Evaluation gives a basis for adjusting the programme
  - 1. How to judge the effectiveness of programme planning procedures ?
  - 2. What modifications in the planning procedures are desirable?

3. Who should take what responsibility in planning?
  4. How is the present programme contributing to the long-time programme ?
- c. Extension methods :** Evaluation serves as a check on our extension teaching methods.
1. How to obtain impartial and objective evidence of the effectiveness of various extension methods, including meetings, written materials, radio, result demonstrations, and others?
  2. Which methods are most effective in what situations and with what people?
- d. Extension organisation :** Evaluation serves to appraise the effectiveness of organisational, administrative, and supervisory procedures.
1. What is an effective extension organisation?
  2. What are the results of certain administrative procedures?
  3. How can the help of the specialists be distributed more systematically and efficiently to the workers.
  4. How can supervisors give more effective guidance to extension work?
  5. How do extension workers use their time?
- e. Clintele :** Evaluation provides information about the people with whom we work.
1. What are their needs, either those they express and want or those of which they are not aware? What are their interests?
  2. What individual differences are there within groups and between groups? What are their customs, taboos, values?
  3. What kind of community or voluntary organisation is most effective for extension work under given conditions.
  4. In what field of work is local leadership succeeding and where is more leadership needed?
  5. Which segments of the population are being reached by Extension and which are not?
  6. Are different extension approaches needed for different segments of the population?
  7. What do people do as result of extension? Where has extension succeeded or failed, and why?

- f. **Reporting :** Evaluation provides a report to the public. It provides evidence to the community, of the value of the programme.
- g. **Satisfaction :** Evaluation gives satisfaction to the local leaders and extension workers in creating a sense of accomplishment.

#### **Main Steps Involved in an Evaluation Plan**

Figure 13 showing the programme building process emphasizes the importance of evaluation at every step throughout each cycle of extension teaching or programme development.

The following 5 simple questions in evaluation indicate the 5 main steps in the process.

1. What information do you want to get and why?
2. Where, when, and how will you get the information ?
3. Who will collect the information?
4. How will it be analysed?
5. What does it mean?

The above 5 questions can be expanded into an evaluation outline as follows giving the steps as constituting a plan of action.

#### **An Evaluation Outline<sup>1</sup>**

1. ***Need for the Evaluation :***
  - a. What Extension project, problem, activity, job, method or situation do you want to evaluate?
  - b. Why evaluate it?
  - c. How can the results of the evaluation be used in your extension work?
2. ***Purpose of the Evaluation :***
  - a. Is the evaluation, i. an analysis of a situation, or  
ii. an evaluation of teaching objectives?
  - b. What questions should be answered by the evaluation?
3. ***Questions to be Answered by the Evaluation :***
  - a. If analysis of a situation, clarify the kinds of information needed to answer the questions.

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1. Byrn, Darcie, et.al., "Evaluation in Extension", op.cit.

- b. If an evaluation of teaching, clarify the teaching objectives. Analyse the teaching plan.
  - i) Review what has been taught.
  - ii) How it was taught, and to whom.
  - iii) Changes in behaviour expected as a result of the teaching.

4. *Sources of the Information :*

- a. People - - farmers, homemakers, local leaders, club members, non-members, extension workers, etc.
  - i) Do you need a sample of these people.
  - ii) How will you draw a sample?
- b. Recorded information - - reports, census, etc.

5. *Collecting the Information :*

- a. How? Interviews, mailed questionnaires, observations, etc.
- b. By whom? Person making the evaluation, extension personnel, local leaders, etc.

6. *Selecting or Constructing a Record form :*

- a. Kind of form : questionnaires, interview forms, tests, observation sheets, rating scales, check lists, score cards, anecdotal records etc., to be used.
- b. Data about :
  - (i) The situation to be studied.
  - (ii) Evidence or progress toward the teaching objectives,  
or
  - (i i) "Face data" to be collected.
- c. Formulation of questions or statements.
- d. Physical set-up of the record form.
- e. Pretesting and revisions.

7. *Analysis and Tabulation of the Data for use :*

- a. Classification and sorting of data to answer questions in Step 2 b.
- b. Work tables needed.
- c. Coding of free-answer questions.
- d. Method of tabulation.
- e. Sorts and subsorts to bring out relationships.

**8. Interpreting, Reporting and Applying the Findings :**

- a. Preparation of tables, charts, and graphs.
- b. Summary of findings.
- c. Applications to extension work.

**Six Keys To Evaluating Extension Work.<sup>1</sup>**

**1. Statement of objectives :** State the objectives of an activity to be evaluated in terms of behaviour changes in the people who are to do the learning.

- ✓ e.g. THIS--Farmers to learn which crop variety is best adapted to their soils.
- × NOT THIS--To inform farmers about the crop variety best adapted to their soils.
- × NOR THIS--To hold meetings on crop variety suitable for farmers in the Block.

**2. Source of evidence :** Only those people whom you try to reach can provide proof of your success or failure.

- ✓ e.g.--THESE--Those grape growers who attended the pruning demonstration meeting.
- × NOT THESE--All members of grape growers association.
- × NOR THESE-- All grape growers in the Block.

**3. Representative Sample :** Those persons who actually provide the evidence of success must be representative of all whom you tried to approach.

e.g., for reliable sample :

- ✓ THIS--Every 'n th' name from list of grape growers attending the demonstration. See that each selected farmer answers the questionnaire.
- × NOT THIS--Questionnaire sent to all, use those which are returned.
- × NOR THIS--Collect evidence from grape growers who call at your office or whom you visit during routine work.

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1. Adapted from Sabrosky, L.K. "Six Keys to Evaluating Extension Work", U. S. D. A. Publication, 1958

**4. Appropriate methods :** The methods of obtaining evidence must be appropriate to the kinds of information being collected.

e.g., Behaviour change to evaluate :

Youth to learn to be more interested in his community.

- ✓ THIS-- Recorded observation of what he does in his community before and after the teaching.
- × NOT THIS-- Ask him if he is more interested in his community.
- × NOR THIS-- Ask him what he has just done in his community.

**5. Reliable questions :** Word questions carefully so as to obtain reliable, unbiased data e.g., When asking questions about a tour .

✓ THIS--Did you see any new methods of rice cultivation during the tour?

Yes.... No....

If yes, what were they? .....

- × NOT THIS-- What new methods of rice cultivation did you see during the tour? .....
- × NOR THIS-- Didn't you think the tour was helpful?  
Yes.... No....

**6. Plan to use results :** Decide how you will analyse and use your evaluation results before evaluation is done.

- a) Is the percentage of adoption (as found by evaluation) high, low expected or unexepected ?
- b) What have I done or not done to make it high, or keep it so low ?
- c) What other factors are related to it?
- d) How should I change my methods or programme to bring about a different kind or different amount of change?

## Extension Administration and Supervision

### "SUPERVISION REQUIRES SUPERVISION"

#### The Concept of Administration

[*The management of public affairs of a Government or institution is called administration*] The organisation and structure, the direction and co-ordination of a formal organisation (or corporate group) depends upon some kind of administrative form. Most modern, large-scale organizations have an administrative form that is called a "bureaucracy" by the sociologists.

"A bureaucracy is a form of social organisation for administering the affairs of a formal organization. In a sense, we can look upon a bureaucracy as a social invention for administering a heterogeneous group of people in a corporate activity",<sup>1</sup>

A formal organization has, in general, three levels of direct participants. First there is the top level of leadership, which may be centered in one person or a group of persons such as a governing board. These are the policy makers, usually known as the top administrators. The second important group is the rank and file of members (the subordinate staff) who carry on the actual work of the organization. The third major group is a body of functionaries who carry out the policies and directions of the leadership and who supervise and control the activities of the rank and file. These are generally called supervisors, executives, managers etc. The members of this third group are called the bureaucrats of the organization and the group as a whole is the organization's bureaucracy (according to sociologists), composed of the administrative officialdom.

Burton and Brueckner point out that early literature devoted considerable space to the question: "Can or should supervision be separated from administration?" Modern knowledge, they say, has made this an academic question. The two can be separated

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1. Dubin, Robert, "Human Relations in Administration". Asia Publishing House, 1960.

arbitrarily only for the sake of analysis. A separation in function is impossible. Many of the functions of the supervisor are administrative in nature, and conversely, the administrator must carry out supervisory functions. Milton Brown defines a supervisor as any one in an organization who is responsible for the work of others. This means that every one is a supervisor excepting the worker at the lowest rung of the organization ladder, and that every one with the possible exception of the very top administrator is being supervised.<sup>1</sup>

### **Necessity for Bureaucratic Administration**

Three basic factors appear most important in the development of the bureaucratic form of administration.

1. **Size of Organization:** When more people are subject to the direction of the leader than can fall within his personal span of control, a delegation to a sub leader or intermediary is necessary. Thus, as an organization grows in size, it becomes an organizational imperative that some of the tasks of direction be delegated below the level of the top leader. This is the first condition for the rise of a bureaucracy, the body of functionaries who play the administrative role.

2. **The Limited Purpose of the Organization:** The limited (special) purposes or tasks of the innumerable individual organizations of modern society necessitate the development of functionally specialized staff to train and control the members of the organization. This is a second kind of imperative that leads to the development of the bureaucratic form of administration.

3. **Heterogeneous Membership :** The heterogeneous (or widely different) backgrounds of the people who enter into the service of the formal organizations of society create administrative problems in the recruitment and motivation of organization members. This is another kind of imperative that leads to the bureaucratic form of administration.

### **Features of an Administrative Office<sup>2</sup>**

A large part of scientific management in the area of organization, administration, involves the elaboration of techniques for

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1. Rogers, F. E., and Olmsted, A. G. (eds) 'Supervision in the Co-operative Extension Service', "National Agricultural Extension Centre for Advanced Study", Madison Wisconsin, 1957.

2. Dubin, Robert - "Human Relations in Administration" op.cit.

clarifying and making objective the following six conditions of bureaucratic office.

1. The office is considered to be the primary or the only occupation of the office-holder (Product of and contribution to the division of labour in society).

2. The official is subject to organizational authority only with respect to his impersonal official obligations.

3. Each office has a clearly defined area of competence within the organization. Typically in an organization, the defined area of competence will be set forth in job descriptions, procedures, manuals, and work-flow diagrams.

4. The office holder is subject to clear-cut and systematic control and discipline in the conduct of his office.

5. The official is a hired hand who operates without owning the means of administration or gaining personal possession of his office.

6. Membership in the administrative bureaucracy ordinarily constitutes a career. There is usually an organized system of promotion or salary increment based upon achievement (merit), seniority or both; depending on the judgement of organizational superiors.

#### **Hierarchy and Administration**

The offices of a bureaucracy are arranged in a pyramid of authority and responsibility. This is fundamental to the whole concept of administration. It may be recalled that the bureaucracy is the administrative segment of the organization between the leader and the rank and file. The top level administrators have larger amounts of authority and responsibility than those at the bottom levels. The top levels are closest to the leader, the ultimate level of organizational authority. Furthermore, the hierarchy is not unitary. There are sub-pyramids of offices within the larger structure corresponding to the functional subdivisions of the organization.

#### **PRINCIPLES OF GOOD ADMINISTRATION (or effective organization)**

1. Definite and clear-cut responsibilities should be assigned to each executive, (i.e., functional assignment of duties) to facilitate attainment of organizational objectives which should have already been well defined.

2. Responsibility should always be coupled with corresponding authority, (i. e., proper delegation of authority.) This encourages initiative.
3. Each administrative unit (whether it is the organization as a whole, a division, a section or a sub-section) should have a single responsible head (i.e., centralised executive responsibility).
4. No executive or employee, occupying a single position in the organization, should be subject to definite orders from more than one source.
5. No orders should be given direct to subordinates by passing their immediate superiors.
6. For efficiency in co-ordination, activities closely related to each other should be grouped together under common direction. Also provision should be made to avoid friction and to ensure the co-operative action of all interested parties and the proper co-ordination of related activities aimed at the attainment of organizational objectives.
7. The people under a supervisor should be limited to a number he can effectively-supervise. (i.e., optimum span of control).
8. All administrators should understand and follow the art and science of human relations in the management of people.
9. Besides clearly defining the duties of those in key positions and delegating necessary authority, it should be ensured that the several employees act in accordance with the plan of the organization. Facilities should be given for self-evaluation as well as inspection and evaluation by the supervisors.
10. Criticism of subordinates should, whenever possible, be made privately, and in no case should a subordinate be criticised in the presence of employees of equal or lower rank. Rewards must be based on objective assessment.
11. No executive or employee should be required or expected to be an assistant to, or a critic of, another of equal or higher rank.
12. No dispute or difference between executives or employees as to authority or responsibility should be considered too trivial for prompt and careful adjudication.

## HUMAN RELATIONS IN EXTENSION ADMINISTRATION OR SUPERVISION<sup>1</sup>

### Evolution in the Conception of Supervision

Supervision may be defined as the art of directing the efforts or harnessing the energy of human beings to the attainment of organizational needs and objectives.

Although the task of supervision as defined above has been essentially the same from time to time and from organization to organization, there is evidence of a gradual evolution in the method of approach to this task.

**The Conventional Approach :** Until fairly recently the "autocratic supervisor was the order of the day". The popular notion of supervision was expressed in terms of "the power to command, the exercise of authority or ability to dominate". This approach may be termed as "task-oriented", or "content-oriented" or the conventional conception of management's task".

*The view points of this approach may be broadly stated as follows :*

1. Supervision is a process of directing people, motivating them, controlling their actions, modifying their behaviour to fit the needs of the organization.
2. Without this active intervention by supervisors, people would be passive or even resistant to organizational needs. They must therefore be persuaded, rewarded punished, controlled, and their activities must be directed.
3. The average man is by nature indolent; he works as little as possible. He should be goaded.
4. He lacks ambition, dislikes responsibility, prefers to be led.
5. He is inherently self-centred, indifferent to organizational needs.
6. He is by nature resistant to change.

With these assumptions as guides, supervisors have conceived of methods for directing behaviour by coercion and threat, close supervision and tight controls over behaviour.

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1. Reddy A. Adivi, "Human Relations in Extension Supervision". The Andhra Agricultural Journal. XI 3), PP7 -3100

*Results of autocratic supervision based on the conventional approach*

1. Most employees develop a sense of frustration, and finally they feel insecure in their job.
2. Work slows down or stops completely when the supervisor is away.
3. The employee's needs for a feeling of importance and satisfaction are not met.
4. Employees are kept dependent on the supervisor; thus, they have no opportunity to show initiative.
5. Employees frequently either become aggressive or alternatively; identify closely with supervisor (submissive "Yes-men").

**The New (Democratic) Approach (Human Relations concept)**: With the change of times, with the increase in general educational level, and with the findings emerging from social sciences, the typical conventional pattern of dictation is yielding place to one of consultation based on the art and science of human relations, just as despotism in ruling mankind has been replaced by democracy, with the gradual enlightenment of humanity. Thus a new concept of supervision has developed which is "group-oriented" or "employee-centred" rather than "production-centred".

The emergence of this new concept may be seen reflected in the following definitions of the tasks of supervision.

According to Collings<sup>1</sup>, supervision is a process by which workers are *helped* to do their jobs with *increasing satisfaction to themselves*, to the people with whom they work, and to the agency. Extension supervision is concerned with the *improvement or growth of extension personnel as individuals* and as educational leaders. In contributing to individual growth, the goal of supervision is the maximum development of the potential capacities of the agent as a person, with the ultimate goal of providing the best possible extension programme for the people.

Cooper<sup>2</sup> points out that supervision, like democratic Government is *only successful when those supervised are reasonably satisfied*

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1. Collings, Mary L., "Extension Supervision", Extension Service Circular 523, U.S.D.A. 1959.

2. Cooper A.M., "How to Supervise People" Mc. Graw, Hill Book Co. 1941.

*with it.* Lateiner<sup>1</sup> says that a supervisor can accomplish his task only through the people under him; with their help he can achieve results; without it he will fail. As a "middle-man" he can travel smoothly and comfortably by being a *boss without bossing*, by *leading* instead of pushing the people he supervises, by getting them to pitch in willingly and by giving them the feeling that they too have an important role to play in the organization.

Rogers and Olmstead<sup>2</sup> state that "basically, one is supervising only when one exercises *leadership* of one's fellows within a formally structured organization, the objective of which is to work toward a *mutually-agreed-upon goal* ... Although the practice of supervision is itself an art, the methods and procedures of good supervision are *derived from the science of human relations* : a science about which one cannot help be impressed, not by the vast areas of the unknown but rather, by the degree to which the known is not used ... *The acid test of supervision is the extent to which co-operation* in pursuing the objectives of Extension is achieved".

According to Halsey<sup>3</sup> "Supervision is selecting the right person for each job; arousing in each person an *interest in his work* and *teaching him* how to do it; measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective; administering correction where this is found necessary and transferring to more suitable work or dismissing those for whom this proves ineffective; commending whenever praise is merited and rewarding for good work; and, finally *fitting each person harmoniously* into the working group-*all done fairly, patiently and tactfully* so that each person is caused to do his work, skilfully, accurately, intelligently, *enthusiastically* and completely.

*The view points of this new approach or new concept of supervision may be summarised as follows :*

People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They become so, as a result of experience in organisations i. e., as a consequence of the nature of organization, of administrative philosophy, policies and practices.

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1. Lateiner, A.R., "The Techniques of Supervision" N F., Institute, New London, Connecticut, 1954.
  2. Rogers, F. E., and Olmsted, G., "Supervision in the Co operative Extension Service", op. cit.
  3. Halsey, G. D. "Supervising People", Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946.

2. The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management or supervision does not put them there. It is the responsibility of supervision to make it possible for people to recognise and develop these human characteristics for themselves.

The essential task of supervision is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives.

4. Some people claim that the amount of salary is the major demand which the employee makes of his job; that, all that the worker wants is to be told what to do and to get paid for doing it. But if we look at him and his job in terms of sentiments, this is far from being as generally true as we would like to believe. Most of us want the satisfaction that comes from being accepted and recognised as people of worth by our friends and work associates. Money is only a small part of this social recognition. The way we are greeted by our boss, being asked to help a new employee, being given a job requiring special skill--all of these are acts of social recognition. We all want tangible evidence of our social importance; we want the feeling of security that comes not so much from the amount of money we have in the bank as from being an accepted member of a group. A man whose job is without social function is like a man without a country; the activity to which he has to give the major portion of his life is robbed of all human meaning and significance. "Man does not live by bread alone" as the old saying goes.

5. In brief, while the conventional theory places exclusive reliance upon external control of human behaviour, the new theory relies heavily on self control and self-direction.

*Results of democratic supervision based on the human relations concept.*

1. Employees produce a larger quantity and higher quality of work.
2. Individual and group morale are high.
3. Employees have a highly developed sense of group feeling.
4. Employee's basic needs to participate and to feel important or meaningful are satisfied.
5. Employees feel secure.

6. Employees seldom become aggressive.
7. The supervisor finds that less supervision is necessary.

**Practical Application of Human Relations Skills to  
Extension Supervision**

The following "Tools of the True Leader", (in the words of Rogers and Olmsted) are suggestions for the practical application of the principles of human relation to Extension supervision.

*The Extension Supervision should strive to :*

1. Follow a fact-finding approach to problems and to achieve an objective attitude toward the people under his supervision. By objectivity is meant the viewing of problems or events as external to the personalities involved. (Fact-finding approach does not mean ignoring the feeling or sentiments of the people)

2. Be constantly on guard against permitting his personal prejudice to influence his treatment of individuals under his supervision. The supervisor who knows when to be lenient and when to be firm has mastered an important characteristic of the "true" leader.

3. Have emotional control so that those feelings which are undesirable to the welfare of the group may be channeled to constructive ends.

4. Know that people are basically more alike than they are different. This knowledge helps him to understand the behaviour of those whom he supervises.

5. Recognize that each worker is different and has different ways of doing things. He should encourage all workers to be themselves. He should not try to impose work habits, style or tempo on his subordinates. He must have a "feel" for the behaviour of people.

6. Minimize authority. A true leader maximizes responsibility and minimizes authority. Supervision consists much less of giving orders than of seeking to secure agreement.

7. Give clear but general instructions. The closeness of supervision has an adverse effect on productivity and morale. The supervisor should tell subordinates clearly and concisely what is expected of them and then let them work out the details. Too much supervision develops mediocrity among workers.

8. Be sensitive to the opinions of others. He should think "with" rather than "for" the subordinates. Decision should originate

at the work level and pass up through the line of communication. Approval by the supervisor should be ratification rather than an original decision. The supervisor should not create or originate all of the plans, but should function like a "true" leader who gets most of his ideas from his followers. He should be alert to suggestions from subordinates, seeking always to pick up ideas from them. In turn, when he gives suggestions to workers, they should be so given that the worker may accept them as his own. This might be called "democracy" in supervision or "group participation" in management.

9. Learn what subordinates expect of him. He can then determine if it is possible for him to meet those expectations. A supervisor should never promise what he cannot deliver.

10. Provide leadership of a continuously helpful kind. He should deal with the human parts of the organization so that they all work at their individual and collective best.

11. Develop the abilities and skills of those under his supervision. He should help the worker to set his own goals for his own development and performance and to help him, periodically, to evaluate his progress toward those goals. Sound leadership builds people.

12. Consider communication as one of the most important aspects of his job. He should recognize that it is a two-way process. He should inform workers about changes in work affecting them. He should discuss the "whys" of organizational policies with them and should make certain that each worker knows how well he is doing. He must also keep management informed of significant developments which may have bearing upon organizational policy and of progress being made by the workers under him. The supervisor also has the obligation to communicate his ideas to workers, to the clientele group and to management in a clear and concise manner, to "create an atmosphere of acceptance". He must recognize that no one can gain acceptance by a group unless he frequently communicates with that group on a personal basis. He must also be aware that an important aid to more effective communication is listening.

13. Have the capacity to grow himself and to develop leadership among those whom he supervises. He must learn and practice good human relations.

**Special Importance of the 'Human Relations Concept'  
in the C. D. Programme Administration in India**

The methods adopted by India and the institutions she seeks to establish for achieving economic and social development are part of her ideal of a free and democratic society. To quote late Prime Minister Nehru, "the Community Projects are of vital importance not only for the material achievements--but much more so because they seek to build up the community and the individual. *The primary matter is the human being involved*, the man who is going to work, the man who is going to feel it and translate the feeling into action".

As Mukerji<sup>1</sup> says, although it has to be a people's programme, the community development programme also has to be organised and directed by the *administration* (which under our constitution is a *non-political permanent instrument of Government* ; and yet it cannot be completely directed from top by a set of rules and procedures. We have to convert what has been very largely a Police State into a Welfare State. A big transformation is required in the role of Government, and of its Instrument (the administration) from one of maintaining law and order and directing the people, to one of helping the people and working with the people, educating them, organizing them and developing in them initiative, sense of responsibility and capacity to undertake tasks for themselves. It may necessitate changes in the structure of Government and in the organisation of the administration, such as have been brought about, for instance, by the introduction of Panchayat Raj. It also needs changes in the attitude of public servants and in the methods of their working with the people. The personnel in the administration have to cultivate a proper understanding of the culture and psychology of the rural people, acquire adequate knowledge of the rural situation, have respect for the rural people's way of life and capacity to identify themselves with their needs and aspirations.

To quote Mukerji again, "An Extension worker has to work with people, and people have to be the focus of his attention. Therefore he has to have human feelings, be sensitive to human reactions of others, be understanding, sympathetic; humble and patient. These qualities, admittedly, are not possessed to a sufficient degree and widely enough by the personnel in our administration and this accounts for the administration's lack of responsiveness to the people's needs and aspirations. This weakness must be removed

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1. Mukerji. B. "Community Development in India", Orient Longmans Ltd; 1961.

Recently India has launched on a programme of "democratic decentralization" popularly known as Panchayat Raj, with a view to involve the people in planning, executing and evaluating developmental programmes from the "grass roots". The emphasis now in the matter of planning and executing extension programmes is on mutual consultation, consent and co-operation at different levels between the people and the *Gram-Sevak*, between *Gram-Sevaks* and Extension Officers, between Extension Officers and the Block Development Officers as well as the District Agricultural Officers, and so on, both up and down the line. In such a context, if the professional leaders (personnel in the administration) at the various levels are to play their roles effectively; they should know and practice the principles and procedures of democracy, otherwise known as "human relations" in working with the people as well as in supervising the work of the subordinates.

#### PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION APPLICABLE TO EXTENSION<sup>1</sup>

The ultimate purpose of supervision is to promote the objectives of the extension programme. The acid test of supervision is the extent to which co-operation in pursuing the objectives of Extension is achieved. Extension has as a primary objective the education of people, not merely an increased agricultural production. It is concerned with human values as well as material values. Supervision may contribute to the attainment of this objective, first, in improving the effectiveness of personnel and, second, in providing a climate which makes co-ordination possible.

*Principles of supervision applicable to Extension include the following :*

1. Supervision is an essential part of administration, integral to it but not identical with it.
2. Supervision is a co-operative activity. It takes place through the shared ideas, efforts and experiences of all staff members. Co-operation provides opportunity for the growth of the supervisor as well as for the growth of the employee.
3. Supervision is ordinarily concerned with the co-operative improvement of the setting in which learning takes place. It seeks improved methods of teaching and creates a physical, social, psychological climate favourable to learning.

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1. Rogers, F. E., and Olmsted Adl. G., "Supervision in the Cooperative Extension Service" op. cit.

4. Planning is fundamental to supervision. It is co-operative in nature and orderly in procedure from the inception of an idea to the extension of a series of activities.
5. Supervision is creative, not prescriptive. It determines procedures in the light of the needs of each situation. It provides opportunity for originality and self-expression. It is scientific in its approach to problem solving.
6. Supervision substitutes leadership for authority. It is based on the democratic philosophy that respects individual differences and that assumes people are capable of growth. It stimulates initiative, self-reliance, and individual responsibility. Opportunities are provided for the co-operative formulation of policies, plans, and goals.
7. There is an art to be learned for the successful practice of supervision. It is primarily the art of building creative human relationships.
8. Successful supervision is measured in terms of the qualitative growth of those being supervised.
9. Supervision provides for the establishment of Extension objectives and goals and a means for comprehensive and systematic evaluation of the Extension programme.

#### **Characteristics or Traits Desirable in Extension Administrators or Supervisors<sup>1</sup>**

While it is probable that no one characteristic can be called the most important, the one quality found more often by researchers to be necessary than any other was THOROUGHNESS; especially thoroughness in those things which, to the less successful, seemed small and unimportant.

FAIRNESS is a characteristic, the achievement of which takes much more than the wish and the intention to be fair. It is only by keeping continually alert to the need for fair play in little things, supposedly unimportant, that any one can hope to achieve that high degree of fairness so necessary for success in supervision. It is the only basis upon which lasting success in supervising people can be achieved.

INITIATIVE means simply the capacity for assuming responsibility and for carrying a job to completion. It also means the ability

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1. Rogers, F. E., and Olmsted Ann. G., "Supervision in the Co-operative Extension Service" op. cit.

to carry through an undertaking without detailed guidance. The supervisor with initiative must be able to think and plan for himself. He must be able to sense change in situations and must be able to grasp opportunities as they develop. Four correlated qualities of initiative are courage, self-confidence, decisiveness, and a certain degree of creativity.

TACT is probably not so much what one says or what one does but rather the manner in which one says or does it. The influence of a tactful suggestion is often far greater than the impact of a bluntly worded order.

Little can be accomplished in leading people without ENTHUSIASM. However, by enthusiasm we do not mean "pep and steam" put on just for the occasion, but, rather, an intense and eager interest and devotion to a course of action. Such enthusiasm must be built on a firm foundation. It must combine interest, knowledge and a desire for achievement. Such enthusiasm generates enthusiasm.

EMOTIONAL CONTROL is not synonymous with the elimination or complete sublimation of feelings. Control is, instead, the exercise of restraint or the channeling of emotion to the end that the individual controls the emotion rather than the emotion controlling the individual. Through control the supervisor minimizes the likelihood of saying the untactful thing and committing the unfair act.

INTELLIGENCE is the inherent ability of the individual to think clearly and rapidly. However, many extremely intelligent men and women make poor supervisors. Good supervision seems to result when the supervisor possesses a blend of other qualities which rest on a bedrock of intelligence.

INTEGRITY is the moral facet of leadership. It is knowing what is the right thing to do and doing it. It is the quality which makes impossible double crossing, undercutting, backbiting, and misrepresentation.

LOYALTY is fidelity, or constancy. It is belief in the job and in each task undertaken. It is faith in and respect for the programme or organization represented. It is trust in the capabilities of the people being supervised.

An intimate KNOWLEDGE OF THE WORK to be done by the subordinate is extremely important to the immediate supervisor.

As promotion takes the supervisor farther from the "firing line" it becomes of decreasing importance.

To be FLEXIBLE AND ADAPTABLE the supervisor must be able to put himself in the situation of others. The Extension supervisor must be able to identify, often at the same time, with three different points of view. He must be able to identify with the position of the university or college and its administration, with the position of the subordinate, and with the feelings of the clientele served by Extension.

VISION means simply the ability to look into the future and to anticipate events before they occur. It means foresight and the ability to predict developing situations with reasonable accuracy; and to lay plans to meet these situations when they arise.

To exercise GOOD JUDGEMENT means to make wise decisions, to draw conclusions that are generally sound, and to withhold opinions until all of the facts are available. It also means practising consistency in the decision making process. Good judgement may well be the result of the proper mixture of intelligence, emotional control, flexibility, and vision.

In general, research seems to indicate that if the AGE range among a group of workers is narrow, the age of the supervisor is unimportant, so long as it approximates the range. If, on the other hand, the age range is wide, it is probably well if the age of the supervisor tends towards the upper age group rather than towards the lower end of the range. However, avoidance of extremes in either direction is of great importance.

The PHYSICAL VITALITY demanded by the job of the Extension supervisor is so great that it seems doubtful if a sickly or lethargic person could keep pace with the demands.

To possess BROAD KNOWLEDGE AND INTERESTS means to be well informed, to have good general training, and perhaps most important of all, intellectual curiosity. The supervisor, to be successful in his job as well as to be a successful human being, must have interests beyond those of his speciality.

The supervisor who is always prepared for an emergency has the quality of RESOURCEFULNESS. In its most common form the resourceful person is one who can devise several alternative ways of solving a problem.

The CO-OPERATIVE supervisor seeks from and extends to others assistance in carrying out plans. He invites advice, discussion, and joint decision-making. He would never entertain a "go it alone" attitude.

A supervisor who possesses COMMON SENSE recognizes the practical aspects of all situations. He is willing to compromise, within the limits of Extension regulations and his own sense of loyalty, integrity and fair play.

On the whole, it seems desirable if the Extension supervisor has the same BACKGROUND as those he supervises. Common backgrounds of occupational experience and shared attitudes provide the supervisor and subordinate with an initial sense of understanding, upon which a more permanent relationship can be built. Exceptions arise, from time to time, where a person of different background, but possessed of unusual skill and knowledge, is, thereby, acceptable to those whom he supervises.

Appreciation of other people's feelings and points of view is what is meant by HUMANENESS. The good supervisor understands the point of view of his subordinates recognizes why they feel as they do, listens to them no matter how trivial the matter may seem and, in turn, pays them the compliment of asking their advice.

ABILITY TO TEACH is important to the Extension supervisor as a large part of every supervisor's work is teaching. Qualities related to ability to teach may well be such things as thoroughness, enthusiasm, intelligence, expert knowledge of the subject, flexibility, broad interests, a sense of humaneness, and language facility.

Virtually all studies of leadership have shown LANGUAGE FACILITY to be one of the principal skills needed by the leader. By language facility is meant the ability to express one's self clearly, forcefully, and without hesitation.

### **CO-ORDINATION**

Co-ordination means harmonious adjustment or functioning; it is "shared knowledge and teamwork". It implies a co-operative situation where two or more participants share a common goal, and where each has sufficient information as to what the others are going to do, to enable him to make correct decisions (just as in the case of a football team, for example). In short it requires team work which may be defined as "working together willingly and intelligently to achieve a common purpose". A major purpose of the planning and

organizing that precedes any administrative activity is not merely to put each participant in the job he can best fill, but to permit each to form accurate expectations as to what the others are going to do. In the words of Simon<sup>1</sup> it would clarify discussion of administrative theory to use the term "co-operation" for activity in which the participants share a common goal and "co-ordination" for the process of informing each as to the planned behaviour of the others. Hence, co-operation will usually be ineffective-- (will not reach its goal)-- in the absence of co-ordination.

Administrative organizations are systems of co-operative behaviour. The members of an organization are expected to orient their behaviour with respect to certain goals that are taken as "organization objectives". In such co-operative systems, even though all participants are agreed on the objectives to be attained, they ordinarily cannot be left to themselves in selecting the strategies that will lead to these objectives; for, the selection of a correct strategy involves a knowledge as to the strategies selected by the others.

**Requirements of Team Work<sup>2</sup> (or Factors Conducive to Co-ordination).**

Co-ordination is between equals or near-equals working together. In it each agency retains its identity, objectives and functions as well as responsibilities. It, however, willingly surrenders a small part of its individuality in return for the advantage of working together with other agencies, thereby ultimately securing better service for all concerned. The co-ordinator therefore, is a general-purpose man charged with the responsibility of ensuring a total balanced effort but is not expected to control or guide the technical details of the programme and the policies of the technical agencies or departments.

Where co-ordination exists, team work automatically follows. For, the members of the group or team headed by a leader or a captain will then work in harmony with one another and with a commonly conceived and accepted purpose in mind. Good team work presupposes good understanding among the 'players' as to the place and function of each in the 'game' to be played. Also, they readily accept the authority and leadership of the captain whose

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1. Simon H. A. "Administrative Behaviour", Macmillan Company, New York, 1962.
  2. Frakash, A., "Administrative Co-ordination and Team work in Community Development". Extension Education in Community Development, op. cit.

counsel is sought and whose orders are willingly obeyed. The leader of the team in turn believes in joint consultation, fair play and justice. He is the type of person who would not claim credit of any good game or victory for himself, but rather would praise the team. In short, the captain should be looked upon by the members of the team not as a boss but as a big brother. Team work is further facilitated by display of good humour on the part of the leader as well as the members of the team. While personal factors play an important part in determining the actual situation, there are certain desiderata for good team work or fruitful co-ordination. Some of these are :

1. Equality or near-equality in status, rank, etc., not too much disparity in pay and prospects.
2. Conviction, or at least strong belief, that joint thinking and mutual consultation are productive of far better results than pure individual or departmental thinking, particularly where the objective is development of the community.
3. Common outlook and attitude born of common orientation training. Belief that co-operative effort and team work produce more productive and lasting results than individual, unco-operative or unco-ordinated endeavour.
4. Acceptance of the idea and institution of a co-ordinator or a sort of captain of the train.

The above four characteristics must be applied not only at the Block but also at the District and State levels. Otherwise, co-ordination at the Block level will be infructuous. The pattern must be set from the top.

#### **The Importance of Co-ordination in Community Development**

The planned development of any country necessarily requires co-ordination, both in the preparation and the execution of the plans of development. The C. D. programme in India, being a multipurpose programme aiming at the full and balanced development of the community, makes it imperative that the several activities in the different fields of development are co-ordinated into local programmes, which in turn should be co-ordinated with the regional and national plans to get the best results. Similarly the activities of non-official voluntary agencies (which have an important role in C. D.) have to be co-ordinated with the activities of Government agencies.

Co-ordination, says Mukerji<sup>1</sup>, may be described as "the means whereby different entities may achieve concerted action without losing their organisational identity." It is different from achieving concerted action by subordinating the different entities or agencies to one authority. Co-ordination is needed at two vital points at the top level of policy-making and at the field level of execution. Unless there is co-ordination in policy-making and planning, co-ordination in execution becomes difficult and often impossible. Right from the Development Commissioner to the Village Level Worker, the National Extension Service is conceived as an organisation which has to play the role of a co-ordinator between the different development programmes in various subject-matter fields, so that requisite priorities in development are observed and yet a balanced progress is ensured. The Development Commissioner is essentially a co-ordinator. So are District Collectors and Block Development Officers at their levels.

#### **Practical difficulties of team work in the Blocks and their solutions**

It has not been easy to achieve the required co-ordination or team work in the Blocks. In the early stages when the block organisation was treated almost as a self-contained organisation, greater reliance was placed on the position of administrative control of the B. D. O., (supported by the line organisation above him) to secure team-work. This was resented by the technical officers of the team and stood in the way of getting the support of the technical departments for the block programme. It was found difficult in this situation to get technical officers on loan from the departments, and recruitment from the open market proved neither successful nor satisfactory. To remove these difficulties it was decided that the technical officers should be borne on the cadres of the respective technical departments and should work, in a way, as their officers in the block. Simultaneously, the idea that the programme was the common concern of all Development departments, was emphasised. It was recognised that if the technical officers of the block team were to be officers of the respective technical departments, they should receive technical guidance and be amenable to the technical control of their own superior officers functioning at the district and higher levels. At the same time to ensure team-work, the B.D.O. as the captain of the team should have a measure of administrative and

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1. Mukerji, B., "Community Development in India" op. cit.

'operational' control over the block technical officers. It has not always been easy to draw the distinction between 'technical' control, on the one hand, and administrative and 'operational' controls on the other. With emphasis on the responsibility of every technical department for the success of the block programme, the technical officers at the district and higher levels have been asking for more and more control on the block technical officers, contending that the technical control could not be effective without administrative control also. The B. D. Os on the contrary ask for more control over the block technical officers and complain that by giving technical control to technical officers functioning at the District level a situation of divided control and responsibility is often created. Admittedly, the situation is not altogether a happy one, but we have not been able to devise anything better so far. Attempts have been made in some States to draw up detailed instructions to demarcate the field of the technical control of the technical officers and of the B. D. O. and create a mechanism for working the system. These again have not been wholly successful in ensuring smooth working. One consequential development taking place is to give to the District technical officers some measure of control over the B.D.O.-that they should be able to give him instructions in regard to the execution of the Block programme, that they should be consulted by the District Collector in judging the work of the B.D.O. etc. In conclusion, it has to be conceded that the system has not yet ensured the purpose behind it, viz., of securing team-work at the block level with full support for and involvement of the technical departments in the block programme. This would be a worth-while subject for study and research in the field of public administration.

There are several reasons for this lack of adequate co-ordination. One of these is typified in the word 'departmentalism' which inevitably leads to group loyalties. The ego of individuals and their variety in terms of character, outlook, etc., are other. Then again, hierarchial levels in the administration create bottlenecks, impede communication and easy flow of ideas and instructions. Most of these difficulties can be solved through proper instructions and a strategy of work, the main purpose of which should be to emphasise team work rather than individual achievements.

There are, however, no rigid or set principles or techniques which can be followed blindly. To ensure proper coordination and good team work, situations have to be tackled as they arise, bearing

in mind the main criteria already mentioned above under the item "Requirements of Team work". There are, of course, a number of known techniques and methods which are in fact being practised at various levels to ensure good team work. *Staff meetings* furnish a good opportunity to iron out angularities, to remove suspicions and to create a better understanding of one another's point of view. This is a case of informal and yet effective indoctrination. *Secondly* technical *experts must be given proper status* and recognition and should invariably be consulted on their subjects. The more they are consulted and their advice respected the better the cooperation they will extend. *Thirdly*, at every level there must be inner *democratisation*, uninhibited free and friendly consultations, common or pooled thinking, emphasis on cooperative effort and, above all, deliberate avoidance of stress on status and authority between co-workers.

Similarly, the levels above and the levels below a given person's position must be properly and fruitfully integrated so far as development work is concerned and should not work at cross purposes. Easy communication and readiness to help is the essence of this *vertical integration*. *Fourthly*, the leader, whether at the Block or any other level, must know and practise the technique of conducting *group discussions*. He, more than anybody else, must understand and appreciate the position of different workers in the team and give everyone, more particularly the workers at the lower level, due recognition and status. It is also necessary to encourage a free flow of ideas from the bottom to the top so that guidance from the top is more fruitful and of practical utility.

*Importance of Training :* The understanding of and dedication to a common objective is one of the important ways of ensuring team work and co-ordination between workers at the same level. It is with this main purpose in view that India has embarked upon a comprehensive orientation training programme. All workers at the Block level are brought together in orientation courses at the Orientation Training Centres. Technical Officers at the District level, senior Block Development Officers and non-officials are also being similarly oriented through study courses.

The Central Institute of Study and Research in Community Development conducts common study courses for officers, both technical and administrative, of the level of Collector and above as well as Members of parliament and State Legislatures. It has also

become necessary to associate non-officials with the training programme, since Community Development as a programme cannot really succeed without the fullest support and co-ordination of the representatives of the people at various levels. Community Development is a people's programme. This training has become all the more necessary as a result of the new process of democratic decentralisation introduced in the various States.

### DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY<sup>1</sup>

To delegate is to entrust authority, power etc. to a person acting as one's agent or representative.

"Power is the ability to employ force, not its actual employment". A person may be said to have "power" to the extent that he influences the behaviour of others in accordance with his own intentions.

"**Authority**" is the institutionalized right to employ power, not power itself". It may be defined as the power to make decisions which guide the actions of another. It is a relationship between two individuals, one "superior", the other "subordinate".

A level of authority is a level of the organization at which relevant decisions are made. If subordinates are included in the decision making, or if they make the decision, and it is a legitimate one, the authority attached to making that decision automatically moves down to their organizational level. This is what we mean by deligation of authority. But delegation of authority and sharing in decision-making at a higher level of authority are two entirely different things.

There are some persons who seem to believe that unless they keep their fingers on every activity of the organization, those activities will end in failure. Such persons have never learnt how to delegate authority and responsibility to others. There are limits to what one person can do effectively but we are seldom willing to admit this. In relationships with subordinate leaders, one must learn how to delegate authority. The subordinate leader cannot actually lead if he has to confer with his superior on all questions. In such situations, the group recognises that the subordinate leader is actually a

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1. Prakash, A., "Administrative Co-ordination and Team work In Community Development" *Extension Education In Community Development*. op. cit.

puppet manipulated by his superior. This does not mean that the subordinate leader is to be given complete authority, but it is essential that he knows the range of activities in which he can make decisions.

There are many cases where the lack of adequate delegation has been the fundamental weakness of the administrator. These are cases where men are so conscientious or at least feel such responsibilities to the organization that they cannot give up responsibility for a task to their subordinates. The accumulation is such that they keep more than they can handle. Individually, they become the bottleneck through which action is clogged, not because they want to be, but because they cannot let others act.

The ability to delegate is one of the great strengths of administration and the administrator who cannot do that is sure to find a level of administration beyond which he cannot go. He cannot meet the pressure of passing along responsibility to others. This may be a distrust of the judgement of others, although this is a kind of negative analysis. It may be that the just cannot surrender authority and responsibility. Many persons break their own backs by the accumulated weight of decisions which they will not delegate. While able to do a satisfactory job in a limited area, they cannot take on the broader responsibility.

#### **Delegation of Authority in C. D. Administration**

Dealing with the delegation of authority to lower-level functionaries of Government Mukerji<sup>1</sup> says, this is an important administrative requirement for the success of a Community Development Programme. These programmes require that the technical services of Government should be taken nearer to the people and that they should work together and be responsive to the people's needs. Many decisions have, therefore, to be taken and revised at lower levels of operation of the programme so that these can be quickly taken in conformity with the people's wishes and changing situations. The agencies of Government working at these levels, particularly those in close touch with the people should have adequate powers and authority to take these decisions. And since the agencies of the different departments working at the same level have to work together, and jointly take many decisions they should

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1. Mukerji, B, "Community Development in India", op. cit.

have similar authority delegated to them. This also requires that these agencies of the different departments should have the same administrative area in their charge. One of the common faults to be generally found in the administration of under-developed countries is overcentralisation and this has to be corrected. This requirement was emphasised in our programme right from the start, but in keeping with the heavy reliance then placed on the block staff and the line organisation above it, the principle of delegation of authority was applied in the early stages only to them. It was only after a couple of years of experience that we learnt the need for extending the principle to the agencies of other Development departments. Progress in this field was not easy to make. Resistance came from several quarters which showed how entrenched was the tradition of centralisation. Schemes for decentralising authority to lower-level functionaries of Government were also not easy to work out and some of the early efforts proved partially ineffective or even unworkable. There were cases in which power of administrative sanction was given but without the supporting power of technical or financial sanction, or power was delegated without changing related administrative procedures, which made such delegation of powers ineffective. The lesson to be learnt is that though delegation of powers is an important requirement for programmes of community development and should be boldly done, the new system of delegated authority has to be carefully and completely worked out to become effective. The old system, elaborate and complex, has evolved over a long period of time and is contained in numerous rules and regulations, codes and departmental instructions and reflected in many procedures and methods of work; and the changes made must be carefully grafted into that system at all places. Another lesson we have learnt is that merely giving larger powers to lower-level functionaries does not ensure their using them or using them wisely; they have to be helped and encouraged to use them to build up their confidence.

The following extract from a letter (dated 1-8-1898) of Swami Vivekananda to Swami Brahmananda about organising the secular business part of religion, sounds like a beautiful summary of the principles of human relations as well as delegation of authority and responsibility, applicable to the administration of any organization.

“Any amount of theoretical knowledge one may have; but unless one does the thing actually, nothing is learnt. I refer repeatedly

to election, accounts, and discussion so that everybody may be prepared to shoulder the work. If one man dies, another -- why another only, ten if necessary—should be ready to take it up. Secondly, if a man's interest in a thing is not roused, he will not work whole-heartedly; all should be made to understand that everyone has a share in the work and property, and a voice in the management. Give a responsible position to everyone alternately, but keep a watchful eye so that you can control when necessary; thus only can men be trained for work. Get up such a machine as will go on automatically no matter who dies or lives. We Indians suffer from a great defect, viz.,—"we cannot make a permanent organization and the reason is that we never like to share power with others and never think of what will come after we are gone".

#### **The Supervisor's Dilemma and Its Solution**

*(Factors to be considered by a Supervisor in deciding how to lead or how much of freedom should be allowed to subordinates).*

The net result of the research findings and of the human relations concept based upon them has been to call into question the stereotype of an effective leader. Consequently, the modern supervisor often finds himself in an uncomfortable state of mind. Often he is not quite sure how to behave, there are times when he is torn between exerting "strong" leadership and "permissive" leadership. Sometimes new knowledge pushes him in another direction ("I really understand the problem better than the group and, therefore; I should make the decision".)

Tannenbaum *et al*<sup>1</sup> suggest a framework which supervisors may find useful in grappling with this dilemma.

Figure 14. presents the continuum or range of possible leadership behaviours available to a supervisor. Each type of action is related to the degree of authority used by the boss and to the amount of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions. The actions seen on the extreme left characterize the supervisor who maintains a high degree of control, while those seen on the extreme right characterize the supervisor who releases a high degree of control. Neither extreme is absolute; authority and freedom are never without their limitations.

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1. Tannenbaum Robert et al, "Leadership and Organization: A Behavioural Science Approach", Mc. Graw-Hill Book Co., 1961

### Deciding How to Lead

Now the question of what types of leadership indicated in the continuum are practical and desirable is important. What factors or forces should a supervisor consider in deciding this? Three factors according to Tannenbaum *et al* are of particular importance :

- I. Forces in the supervisor
- II. Forces in the subordinates
- III. Forces in the situation

These elements are briefly described below, besides indicating how they might influence a supervisor's action in a decision-making situation.

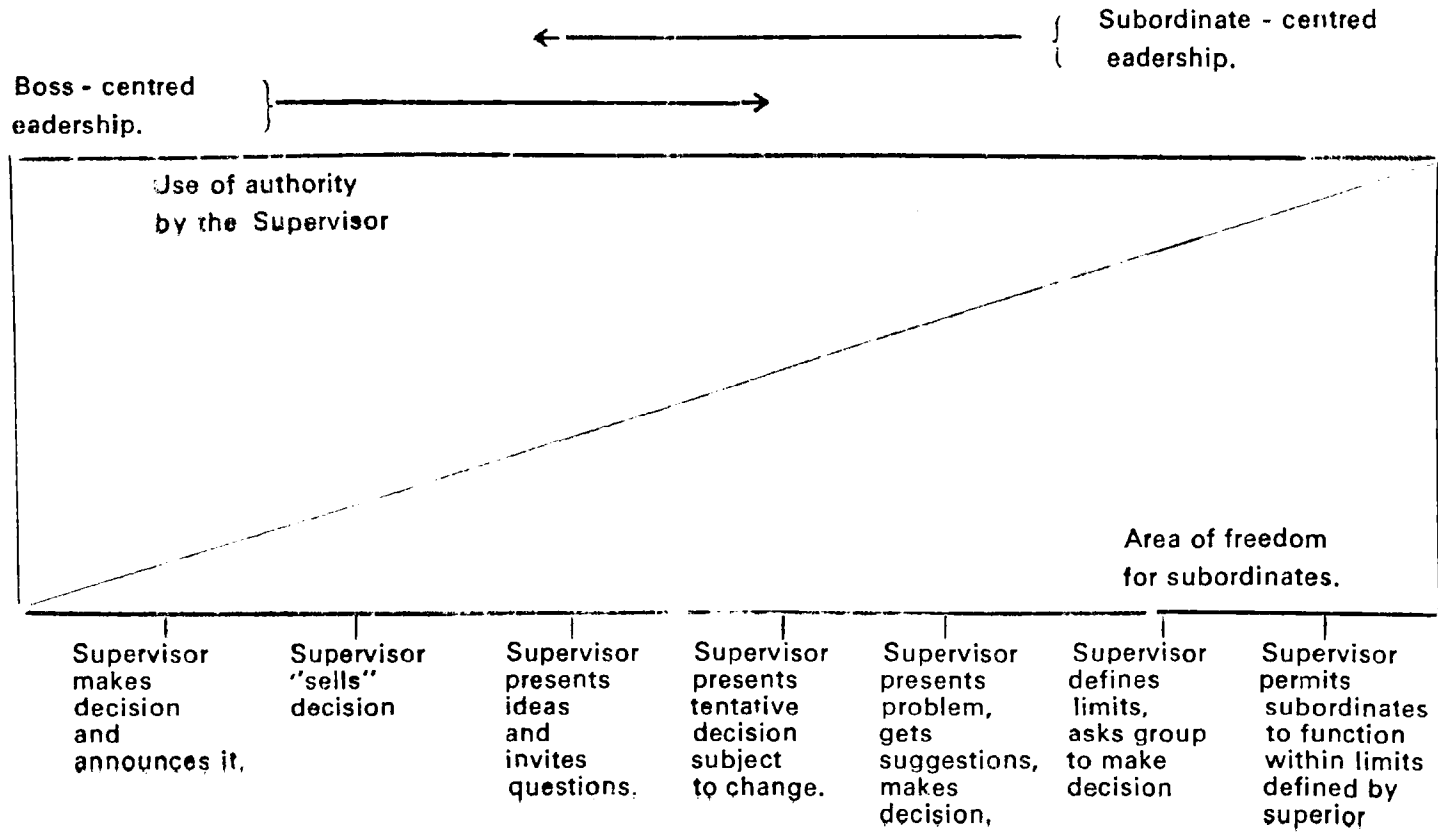
**I. Forces in the Supervisor :** The supervisor's behaviour in any given instance will be influenced greatly by the many forces operating within his own personality. He will, of course, perceive his leadership problem in a unique way on the basis of his background, knowledge and experience. Among the important internal forces affecting him will be the following.

a) *His value system :* How strongly does he feel that individuals should have a share in the decisions which affect them? Or, how convinced is he that the official who is paid to assume responsibility should personally carry the burden of decision making? The strength convictions on questions like these will tend to move the manager to one end or the other of the continuum in the figure mentioned above. His behaviour will also be influenced by the relative importance that he attaches to organizational efficiency, personal growth of sub-ordinates and achievement of tasks or goals.

b) *His confidence in his subordinates :* Supervisors differ greatly in the amount of trust they have in other people generally and this carries over to the particular employees they supervise at a given time. A central question he might ask himself is: "who is best qualified to deal with this problem?" Often he may justifiably or not have more confidence in his own capabilities than in those of his subordinates.

c) *His own leadership inclinations:* There are some supervisors who seem to function more comfortably and naturally as highly directive leaders. Resolving problems and issuing orders come easily to them. Other supervisors seem to operate more comfortably

FIGURE 14-CONTINUUM OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR



in a teamrole, where they are continually sharing many of their functions with their subordinates.

d) *His feelings of security in an uncertain situation:* The supervisor who releases control over the decision-making process, thereby reduces the predictability of the outcome. Some supervisors have a greater need than others for predictability and stability in their environment. This "tolerance for ambiguity" is being viewed increasingly by psychologists as a key variable in a person's manner of dealing with problems.

The supervisor brings those and other highly personal variables to each situation he faces. If he can see them as forces which consciously or unconsciously influence behaviour, he can better understand what makes him prefer to act in a given way. Understanding this, he can often make himself more effective.

**II. Forces in the Subordinates :** Before deciding how to lead a certain group, the supervisor will also want to consider a number of forces affecting his subordinates' behaviour. He will want to remember that each employee, like himself, is influenced by many personality variables. In addition, each subordinate has a set of expectations as to how the boss should act in relation to him ("expected behaviour"). The better the supervisor understands these factors, the more accurately he can determine what kind of behaviour on his part will enable his subordinates to act most effectively.

Generally speaking, the supervisor can permit his subordinates greater freedom if the following essential conditions exist :

- a) If the subordinates have relatively high need for independence. (people differ greatly in the amount of direction they desire).
- b) If the subordinates have a readiness to assume responsibility for decision-making. (Some see additional responsibility as a tribute to their ability ; others see it as "passing the buck").
- c) If they have a relatively high tolerance for ambiguity. (Some employees prefer to have clear-cut directions given to them ; others prefer a wider area of freedom).
- d) If they are interested in the problem and feel that it is important.
- e) If they understand identify with the goals of the organization.

f) If they have the necessary knowledge and experience to deal with the problem.

g) If they have learned to expect to share in decision-making (persons who come to expect strong leadership and are then suddenly confronted with the request to share more fully in decision making are often upset by this new experience. On the other hand, persons who have enjoyed a considerable amount of freedom resent the boss who begins to make all the decisions himself).

The supervisor will probably tend to make fuller use of his own authority if the above conditions do *not* exist; at times there may be no realistic alternative to running a "one man show".

The restrictive effect of many of the forces will, of course, be greatly modified by the general feeling of confidence which subordinates have in the boss. Where they have learned to trust and respect him, he is free to vary his behaviour. He will feel certain that he will not be perceived as an authoritarian boss on those occasions when he makes decisions by himself. In a climate of mutual confidence and respect people tend to feel less threatened by deviations from normal practice, which in turn makes possible a higher degree of flexibility in the whole relationship.

**III. Forces in the Situation :** Among the more critical environmental pressures that surround a supervisor are those which stem from the organization, the work group, the nature of the problem, and the pressure of time.

a) *Type of organisation.* Like individuals, organizations have values and traditions which inevitably influence the behaviour of people who work in them. The supervisor who is a new-comer to an office quickly discovers that certain kinds of behaviour are approved while others are not. He also discovers that to deviate radically from what is generally accepted is likely to create problems for him.

These values and traditions are communicated in many ways through job descriptions, policy pronouncements, and public statements by top executives. Some organizations, for example, hold to the notion that the desirable executive is one who is dynamic, imaginative, decisive and persuasive. Other organizations put more emphasis upon the importance of the executive's ability to work effectively with people - - his human relations skills. The fact that his superiors have a defined concept of what the executive should

be, will vary likely push the supervisor towards one end or the other of the behavioural range.

In addition to the above, the amount of employee participation is influenced by such variables as the size of the working units, their geographical distribution, and the degree of inter-and intra-organizational security required to attain the goals of the organization. For example, the wide geographical dispersion of an organization may preclude a practical system of frequent participative decision-making, even though this would otherwise be desirable. Similarly, the size of the working units or the need for keeping plans confidential may make it necessary for the boss to exercise more control than would otherwise be the case. Factors like these may limit considerably the supervisor's ability to function flexibly on the continuum.

b) *Group effectiveness* : Before turning decision making responsibility over to a subordinate group, the boss should consider how effectively its members work together as a unit. One of the relevant factor here is the experience the group has had in working together. It can generally be expected that a group which has functioned for some time will have developed habits of co-operation and thus be able to tackle a problem more effectively than a new group. It can also be expected that a group of people with similar backgrounds and interests will work more quickly and easily than people with dissimilar back grounds, because the communication problems are likely to be less complex. The degree of confidence that the members have in their ability to solve problems as a group is also a key consideration. Finally, such group variables as cohesiveness, permissiveness, mutual acceptance, and communality of purpose will exert subtle but powerful influence on the group's functioning.

c) *The problem itself* : The nature of the problem may determine what degree of authority should be delegated by the supervisor to his subordinates. Obviously he will ask himself whether they have the kind of knowledge which is needed. It is possible to do them a real disservice by assigning a problem that their experience does not equip them to handle. The key question to ask, of course, is, "Have I heard the ideas of every one who has the necessary knowledge to make a significant contribution to the solution of this problem?"

d) *The pressure of time* : This is perhaps the most clearly-felt pressure on the supervisor (in spite of the fact that it may sometimes be imagined). The more that he feels the need for an immediate decision, the more difficult it is to involve other people. In organizations which are in a constant state of "crisis" and crash "programming", one is likely to find supervisors personally using a high degree of authority with relatively little delegation to subordinates. When the time pressure is less intense, however, it becomes much more possible to bring in subordinates on the decision making process.

These are the principal forces that impinge on the supervisor in any given instance and that tend to determine his tactical behaviour in relation to his subordinates. In each case his behaviour ideally will be that which makes possible the most effective attainment of his immediate goal within the limits facing him.

In summary, two implications in the basic thesis emerge. The first is that the successful leader is one who is keenly aware of those forces which are most relevant to his behaviour at any given time. He accurately understands himself, the individuals and group he is dealing with, and the organization and broader social environment in which he operates. And certainly he is able to assess the present readiness for growth of his subordinates.

But this sensitivity or understanding is not enough, which brings us to the second implication, The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in the light of these perceptions. If direction is in order, he is able to direct; if considerable participative freedom is called for, he is able to provide such freedom.

Thus, the successful supervisor of men can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behaviour at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly. Being both insightful and flexible, he is less likely to see the problems of leadership as a dilemma.

## **ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN OF EXTENSION IN U. S. A.**

### **Brief History**

The Land Grant College system came into being with the passage of Morrill Act by the U. S. Congress in 1862, which provided grants of public land to states for establishing and maintaining at least

one College (in a state) where the leading object was the teaching of branches of learning related to agriculture and the mechanic arts.

1850. Agricultural Extension work was done before 1850 when agricultural societies in many of the eastern states held public meetings for farmers on agricultural subjects. Farmer's Institutes were held in some states as early as 1863; and by 1899, most of the states were holding such institutes using men from the Agricultural Colleges and successful farmers as speakers. Boys' and girls' club work began as early as 1900 with the organisation of boy's corn clubs in some of the mid-western states.

1900. Farm demonstration work began in 1903 when Dr. Seaman A. Knapp of the Bureau of Plant Industry of U. S. D. A. appointed 22 men in southern states to demonstrate the best methods of growing cotton under boll-weevil conditions.

1914. In 1914, the Congress passed the Smith-Lever Act, creating a nation-wide "Co-operative Extension Service", so called because it is a co-operative arrangement between the Government, the Land-grant Colleges, and the people. "It is a partnership agency in which the officials of Government-Federal, State and Country-sit in council with rural people and together analyse local conditions, take stock of their resources, and make and help to carry out programmes for the financial, educational and social benefit of the community and its individual members".

#### **Outline of Organization of Co-operative Extension Service**

The following chart shows the levels at which government may give authority and funds to the various parts of the service. Contractual relationships are covered by written agreements, for example, between the land-grant colleges and the U. S. Department of Agriculture, between land-grant colleges and the countries, and in some states between the country government and the sponsoring organization. Co-operative relationships run throughout the service. Note that co-operative Extension Service is a branch of the land-grant institution.

Federal Congress	United States Department of Agriculture- Secretary, Director of Extension (one of many divisions in the Department).
State Legislatures	Land-Grant Institution President of Governing Board. College of Agriculture Research, Teaching Co-operative Extension Service Director of Extension Supervisors and Specialists Other Colleges †
Country Government	Country Sponsoring Organization* Country Extension Service Country Extension Agents
Citizens	Leaders, Members, and Co-operators.

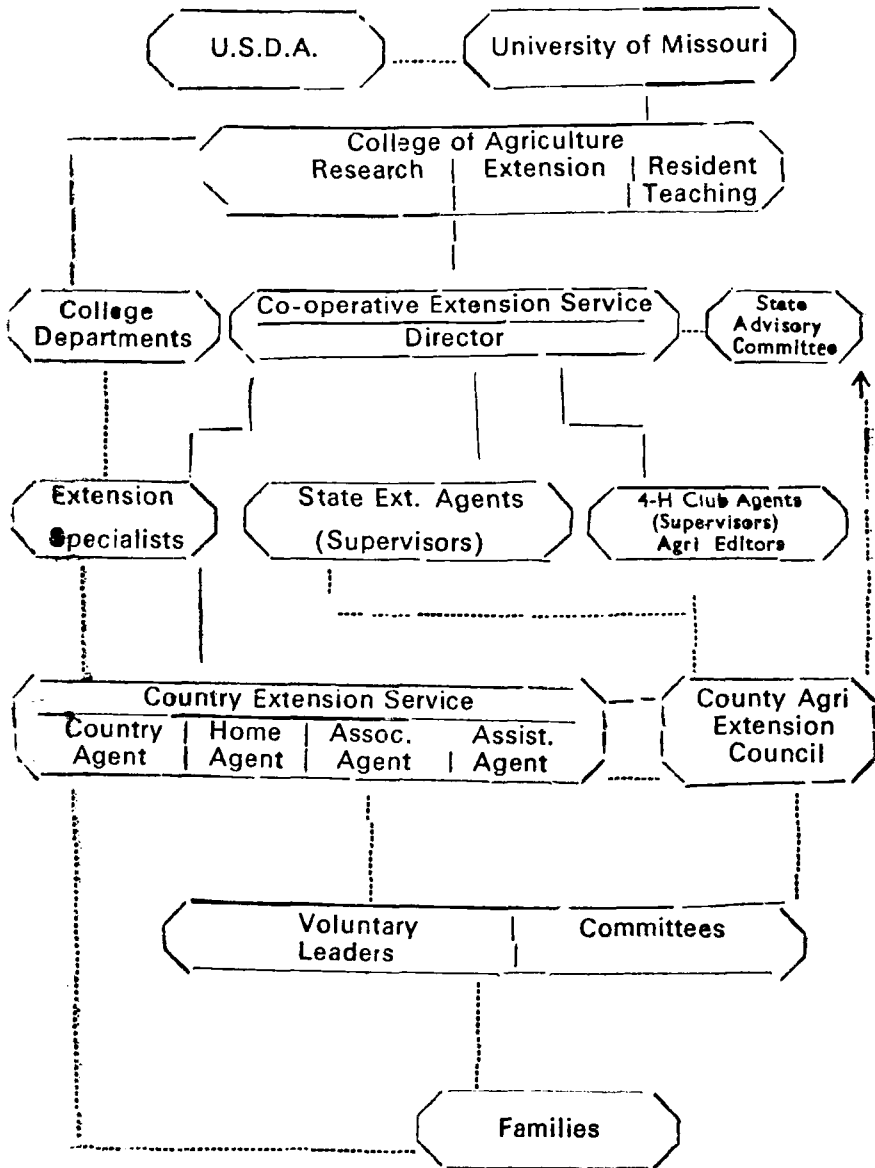
†Other Colleges such as those of home economics, veterinary, mechanics, and arts co-operate as part of the land-grant institution. \* This may be formally created by state law or may be an informal organization.

Thus the cooperative Extension Service has three major units, the country, the state and the nation. Each has an organizational pattern adapted to the work of the unit. These patterns vary in detail according to the legislative enactments and institutional concepts. However, an idea of the state organizations of extension service can be had from figure 15.

**Financing :** The co-operative feature of extension work is well illustrated in the way it is financed, Federal, State, Country, and individual funds are all part of the total extension budget. The two unique principles in the financing of extension are: (i) Co-operative financing for a co-operatively planned and carried out programme, and (ii) the distribution of funds according to the size of the teaching job to be done (i.e., the number of people to be taught).

Generally States, counties and farmers' organizations furnish approximately half the funds and the federal government half.

FIGURE 15- THE CO-OPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE IN MISSOURI STATE



### Summary of Functions

1. **The Federal Director of Extension** : represents the secretary of Agriculture in the States, the Counties and the Colleges. Associated with the Director are a group of administrative officials, Liaison Officers, and Subject Matter Specialists. The Federal Directorate develops policies affecting agriculture. It encourages rural people to utilise fully all available resources in solving current problems and in meeting new situations. It stimulates rural people to improve health, nutritional and economic standards, family and community life, and the general standard of living. It reviews plans of work and budgets of the States.

2. **The State Extension Director** : is the leader responsible for the operation of the Directorate in the State. He is responsible for the (administration and execution) of all duties and obligations agreed upon by the Land Grant Colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture. He administers all funds, looks after all projects and plans, examines and approves all publications, and is the link between the State and the United States Department of Agriculture in matters of rural development.

3. **The Supervisors under the State Directorate** : are the representatives of the State Director and his eyes and ears. The Supervisor interprets Extension objectives, methods and procedures to the County personnel and often also to the people. He brings back to the State Director information on problems, needs and activities of the agents and the people. The Supervisors are functional and are designated differently. One may supervise the work of the country Agents, another of Home demonstration Agents, and yet another of the activities of the 4-H Clubs. The Supervisors assist the State Director in selecting personnel, in imparting training to inexperienced agents, reviewing activities in counties and advising modifications for a well balanced and co-ordinated programme. They are the links between the County and the State Director.

4. **The State Subject Matter Specialists** : Each such specialist usually deals with one subject, but in some counties he has to deal with several. The subject Matter Specialist represents a subject matter department of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Research Stations and the Land Grant Colleges. On behalf of the Director, he assists the County agents in their subject-matter programme. These specialists are absolutely necessary for sound

technical advise on specific lines to the County Agents in their varied activities. They are the analysts and interpreters of scientific knowledge and factual information and are the connecting links between research and practice. They enable the County Agents and the people to understand and to apply scientific knowledge on specific subjects in the farms, homes, community organizations or marketing societies. With the help of the Extension Editor they prepare simple bulletins, leaflets, slides, exhibits, motion pictures etc., on various subjects from the complicated and detailed Research Bulletins issued by the Research Sections. The Specialist is an interpreter of scientific findings for practical application.

**5. The County Agents :** The county is the crucial unit in extension work. The county activities are centred around the County Agent, who is generally assisted by a Home Agent, an Associate Agent and an Assistant Agent. There is no paid staff below at the ground level as it is considered that only an adequately trained person can impress the sceptical farmer and the rural people. These county agents therefore, cannot reach every individual farmer frequently and have, therefore, to approach and enthuse all, through organised groups such as commodity organisations (dairy, fruit, cotton etc) or multipurpose clubs (Women's Clubs, 4-H Clubs, the Farm Bureau, the National Grange, the National Farmer's Union etc).

**6. County Extension Council :** an elected body composed of one man and one woman from each township in the county. It is responsible for arranging local financing and for assisting in planning, executing and supervising county extension work.

**Note :** Sequence of events at different levels of Programme Planning in U.S.A., is given in figure 16.

#### **Strong Points in American Extension**

1. The professional extension staff is in close contact with up-to-date research.
2. The professional extension staff is in close contact with and is directly responsible to local people.
3. The success of the individual and the family is a basic measure of the value of the work.
4. The programme to be carried out is determined by local people in co-operation with the professional extension staff.

5. Voluntary leaders from communities help their neighbours to get the benefits of science applied in every day life.

6. Research is geared to the problems of the farm, the home, the family and the community.

7. The service is available to all people without payment of fees, dues, or belonging to organizations. Organizations are devices through which people help themselves do things together which are not practical or economical for the individual to do alone. (Some States have voluntary membership organizations to aid in extension work.)

8. The financing is a co-operative matter calling for expenditures by county, state, and national authorities from public funds in amounts determined annually by the desires of people.

9. The service is non political.

10. The service is educational. It carries the findings of science to the individual man, woman, boy or girl and teaches these individuals to apply science to the improvement of the management and operation of the farm, the home and the community.

**Weak Points:** 1. There is no paid staff at the community level and the county agent cannot personally contact individual farmers frequently and has, therefore, to rely heavily on organised groups and mass media.

2. The supervisors who have administrative control over the county agents have only financial, personnel and supervisory responsibilities and are likely to be out of touch with technical subject matter.

3. Unity out of diversity needs to be developed.

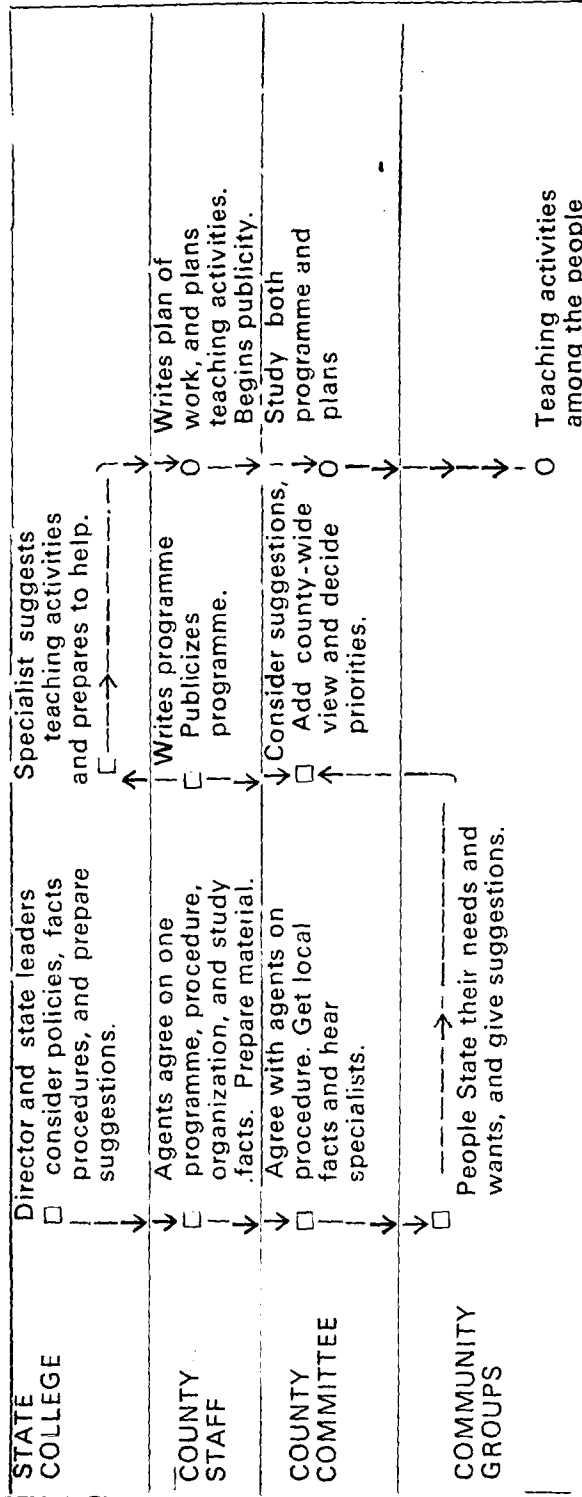
4. Supplies and services required by farmers are not the direct concern of Extension.

**Note:** These can be considered as weak points perhaps from the Indian view point only; they hardly hamper extension work in U.S.A., as they are more than off-set by the facilities available in a country of such extra-ordinary socio-economic development.

### EXTENSION IN JAPAN

**Introduction:** Although Japan is highly industrialised, 50% of its population depends on agriculture, and there is acute pressure of population on land. The average size of holding per family is 2.2

FIGURE 16-SEQUENCE OF EVENTS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING IN U.S.A.<sup>1</sup>



Key : □ = Programme

O = Programme and Plan of Work.

1, Kelsey, L. D.; and Hearne, C. C., "Co operative Extension Work", Comstock Publishing Assn, Ithaca, N. Y, 1963.

acres of cultivated land (one of the smallest in the world). There is intensive cultivation and liberal use of electricity and mechanical power for agricultural purposes.

### **Rural Organisations**

**1. The Village Assembly :** Each village is an independent municipality. The Village Assembly is an elected, body which is responsible for local administration as well as the collection of village land revenue and taxes. It is also responsible for village roads, parks, welfare, education health, etc. The Assembly makes by-laws and regulations for local administration and development.

**2. The Village Co-operatives :** Side by side with Village Assembly is the Village Co-operative.

*Functions of village Co-operatives :* The back bone of agricultural organisation is the service co-operative. Almost all farmers are members of the co-operatives which deal with all sorts of articles from toilet goods to tractors, and collect the local produce of the villages and arrange for its disposal. The co-operative gives short term loans, and sells or hires tractors, pumps, threshers and other implements; collects home by-products and credits the receipts to the account of the members after the sale; collects paddy on behalf of the government and holds the stock in its village store for emergency. The Co-operative maintains mechanic for farm implements and closely works with the Government Extension Advisers. While the Village Assembly is the nerve centre of the village, the co-operative is its life line.

### **Extension Organisation in Japan**

Extension work in Japan was first started by Farmer's Organizations and later it was taken up by Government and expanded. Before the second world war, the co-operatives used to be the main agency for agricultural extension. They employed the agricultural experts who worked directly under the co-operatives. Due to financial limitations, this expert had to be a common purpose (or multipurpose) agriculturist' looking after most of the needs of the farmers. There was complete integration between agricultural extension (educational work) and agricultural supplies. But after the war, these have been swept away and an extension organization on the American pattern has been introduced as a State Organization. It conforms to the three basic principles arguments of

Agricultural Extension Organization; (1) A complete separation of the regulatory and service duties from the educational aspects of extension; (2) Giving prominence to the Home Improvement and youth work, (3) Joint financing by the National Government and the Provincial Governments.

The Agricultural Extension Service was established in 1948. Before 1948, much useful work had been done by private organizations with considerable subsidies for the purpose of carrying out Government policies to increase agricultural production.

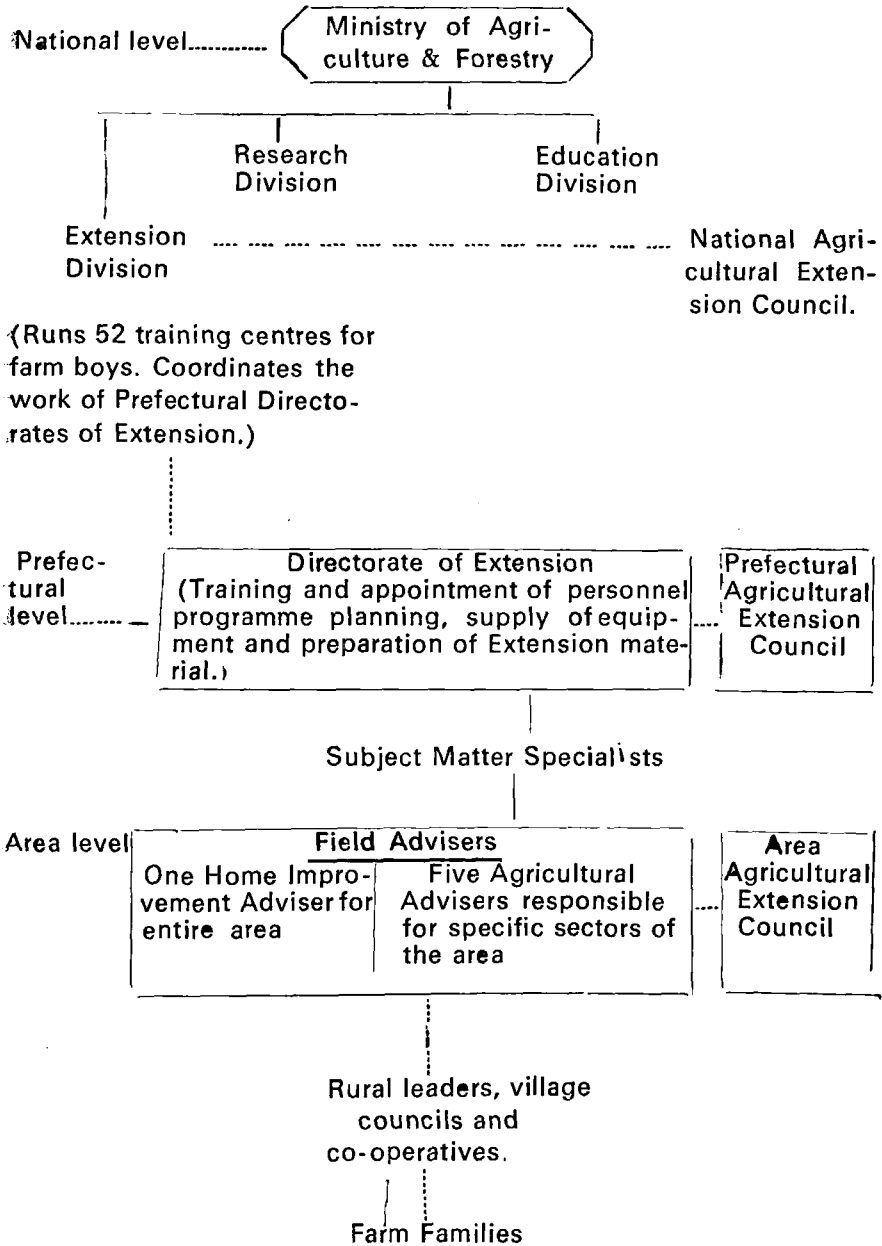
Figure 17 Gives an idea of the Extension Organization in Japan, which is briefly described below.

*Ministry of Agriculture & Forestry* : At the national level, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is responsible for conducting research, extension, land reclamation; land improvement, collecting statistical information, policy on the export of agricultural products, raw silk, import of animals and plans, mixtures of fertilizers and regulatory work. Food purchase programme is another activity of this Ministry. The Extension Division of the Ministry of Agriculture coordinates on the national level, the activities of the prefectures. It also runs 52 training centres for farm boys.

*The Prefectural Extension Directorate* : Is responsible for planning, training and appointment of the advisers, supply of equipment and plans for extension work. It prepares all printed matter, designs and motion pictures, holds shows, and exhibitions and deals with all administrative matters.

*The Specialist Staff of Extension* : who advise and guide the Area level extension workers in their respective specialised fields, form a link between the research workers in the stations and the Extension staff. These Subject Matter Specialists are stationed at the Prefectural Government office with the Director of Extension and maintain a liaison with the agricultural experiment and research stations. The Extension Advisers consult the Subject Matter Specialists on specific subjects. In many prefectures, (State) Subject Matter Specialists are maintained for as many as 17 different items, such as rice, barley, wheat, vegetables, fruits, industrial crops, diseases and pests, soils and fertilizers, animal husbandry, live stock, agricultural engineering, fodder crops etc. Their functions are to plan suitable methods for application of the results of research to farm conditions, acquaint extension advisers with these methods of application, give guidance to the field staff to solve local problems, supervise, the

Figure 17 - Extension Organisation in Japan



work of these field advisers and maintain close link with the prefectural head of the Extension Services.

*At the ground level :* Agricultural Extension work in Japan is organised for what is called an "area". An "Area" consists of about 3,000 families with about 7,000 acres of land. There are usually six people on the staff of the Area Extension Offices. The Home Improvement Officer who is one of the teams of Extension agents, covers the entire "area", while each of the other five agricultural agents is responsible for advice in all phases of agricultural and live stock production in a specific sector of the "area". In addition each of these agriculturists has special training in a particular field such as rice production, horticulture or poultry, and serves as a consultant to his colleagues in need of special help in this field of specialisation. All these officers work in one office (Area Extension Office) and thus have daily contact for exchange of experience on solution of problems. So extension is organized for "Area" on the basis of team of Specialists. Previously, when co-operatives were managing extension, the whole responsibility was vested with one multipurpose agricultural worker who dealt with all aspects of agriculture. But now the next stage of further specialisation has been reached. It is recognized that there must be co-ordination with other types of extension activity such as education, health etc., but all such co-ordination is looked after at the prefecture level.

The staff at the area level assists the farmers in improving farm techniques and management and also guides the farm youths in home improvement, diet planning, cooking for better nutrition, dress making and repairing, kitchen planning, child rearing and other aspects of home economy. The Extension workers (farm advisers) are kept free from the food procurement plan so that farmers may mix with them more freely.

Although, as previously stated, the Extension organisation in Japan is on the American pattern, the most important element of the latter viz., integration of research and extension through a college has not been introduced. So also agricultural education and research are more or less separate entities having very little to do with each other.

The only co-ordination brought about is by the following methods :-

1. Half-yearly meetings between research workers and prefectural agricultural experimental stations.

2. Contacts between the subject matter specialists with all research stations and the Extension workers who have specialized in that branch.
3. Short courses of training of extension advisors in the experimental stations.

*To sum up, the principal features of Extension Service in Japan are :*

1. It functions through the agency of a Department of Agriculture and has no direct connection with the research organization. The link with research is only at the prefectural level through subject matter specialists who are under Extension Directorate.
2. Extension is done by a team of experts and not by a general purpose man.
3. An attempt is made to carry extension to women, children and youth.
4. The service functions are the responsibility of a strong co-operative movement.
5. The representatives of local bodies have very little control over extension, but adequate contact is provided informally through co-operatives which are powerful and comprehensive in character.
6. Extension is essentially a prefectural subject, with financial aid from the National Government under specific conditions.
7. Extension is entirely educational and democratic with no coercive approach.

### EXTENSION IN INDIA

Extension as a nation-wide organisation, aiming at the integrated development of rural India is of relatively recent origin (1952-53). However, agricultural development work in India had its beginning in the 1860's and the following is a brief history of the agricultural administration in the country.

The administrative set-up for agricultural development in India is the outcome of several reforms and efforts made over years. For the purpose of our discussion, the overall development of agricultural administration may be described in four stages:<sup>1</sup>

Stage I - Pre independence era (1866-1947)

Stage II - Post Independence era (1947-1953).

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1. Singh, K. N., "Research in Extension Education" (p. 208) op. cit.

Stage III - Community Development and Extension Service era (1953-1960).

Stage IV - Intensive Agricultural Development era (1960-till date).

### **Stage I. Pre-Independence Era (1866-1947)**

#### **The Birth of the Department**

The history of agricultural administration in India dates back to the year 1866 as a result of the report of Famine commission appointed after the great famine in Bengal and Orissa in 1866. In 1869 the representation made by the Manchester Cotton Supply Association, for the improvement of cotton and for a separate Department of Agriculture, provided a stimulus for a serious consideration of the question of agricultural improvement. As a result of these efforts, the Department of Revenue, Agriculture and Commerce, as one department, commenced to function as a branch of the Secretariat of the Government of India in June 1871, and continued to do so until 1879 when the financial stringency necessitated a reshuffling of the portfolios. This Department of Agriculture could not exercise any real influence on the problems of Agricultural developments except the collection of simple agricultural statistics.

#### **The Famine Commission of 1880**

As the recurrence of famine in India appeared unavoidable the Famine Commission of 1880 strongly recommended for the revival of the Department of Agriculture at the Centre under the control of a Secretary and for simultaneous formation in all provinces of a Department of agriculture with a large subordinate establishment working under an executive officer. The proposals of this commission powerfully influenced the Government's decision for agrarian reform in India for the next twenty years. Consequently, a new Secretariat for Agriculture came up in 1881, and by 1882 Agricultural Departments in most of the States started functioning. At the centre, the Department was known as the Imperial Department of Agriculture, headed by the Inspector General of Agriculture.

#### **The Famine Commission of 1901**

The next great advance was made as a result of the report of the Commission of 1901. The following were the main outcome of this report:

1. Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa was established which marked the beginning of an organized agricultural research ;

2. An Agricultural College was also started at Pusa in Darbhanga (Bihar) with an experimental farm :
3. The link between colleges (as other colleges were started later on) and the districts was to be provided by experimental farms ;
4. Scientific and expert staff was entertained in the Departments of Agriculture by creation of posts of Horticulturist and Agronomist, and
5. The Indian Agriculture Service was constituted at the Centre.

The Government of India Act of 1919 empowered the transfer of all the departments closely connected with rural development to the major provinces and agricultural development became a State subject. Subsequently based on the recommendations of Royal Commission of 1924, recruitment to the Indian Agricultural Service ceased to function.

#### **The Royal Commission's Report 1928**

The Royal Commission's Report (1928) established a firm foundation for the coordinated research activity. It also attempted to imbue the Agricultural Administration with a new life by indicating ways and means to make the organisation dynamic in its activities. The main observations and recommendations of this Commission were :

1. Full measure of success cannot be achieved unless the organisation is based on research. Interchange should be freely permitted between the administrative, research and teaching branches in the earlier years of service.
2. There should be a body for agricultural research at the national level for promotion, guidance, and coordination of agricultural research work in India. It will also take up training of research workers, impart information on agricultural and veterinary matters and arrange for the publication of scientific papers;
3. The Director of Agriculture should have in him the combination of administrative capacity and high scientific qualification; and
4. The field recruitment to the superior provincial agricultural services in any province should not be restricted to the province itself or to India.

**Stage II. Post-Independence Era (1947-1953)**

Another organized effort to increase agricultural production was launched in the year 1947 popularly known as the 'Grow More Food Campaign'. Under this programme additional staff were provided at District and Sub-divisional (Taluka) levels. But even after four years of working of this programme, it was observed that the system was not functioning properly and cultivators response towards the programme was very poor. Moreover, all the departments for rural development were working in isolation and reaching the people directly without any close coordination. The importance of coordinating the activities of the development departments was felt and strongly emphasised in 1949. A committee was again appointed to enquire about the working of this programme and suggest ways and means to improve it.

**The G. M. F. Enquiry Committee Report (1952)**

The main recommendations of this Committee were :

1. The administrative machinery of the Government should be reorganised and equipped for the efficient discharge of the duties imposed on it under the new concept of India as a welfare state;
2. The best non-official leadership available should be mobilised for guiding the 60 million farm families in the villages in their effort to improve their own condition;
3. An Extension organisation should be set up for rural work which would reach every farmer and assist in the coordinated development of all aspects of rural life;
4. The pattern of staffing should consist of a B. D. O., four technical officers and twelve V.L.Ws. for a Tahsil or Taluk, with an average of 120 villages;
5. The development activities at the District level will be under the Collector assisted by Specialists. The non-official side will consist of a District Board to which M.Ps. and M. L. As. should be added as members;
6. At the State level there should be a cabinet and a non-official board for facilitating joint action. The Development Commissioner should be in charge of the entire rural development programme; and

7. The economic aspect of village life cannot be detached from broader social aspect; agricultural improvement is, in every respect linked up with a whole set of social problems. All aspects of life are inter-related and no lasting results can be achieved if individual aspects of it are dealt with in isolation.

#### **The Etawah Project (1948-52)**

In the meantime, several experiments in rural reconstruction under-taken by official and non-official agencies in the past also contributed towards new thinking about reorganising the set up for rural development. The Pilot Project in Rural Planning and Development, Etawah, played a key-role and can be regarded as a fore-runner of the Community Development Projects in India. After an initial period of trial and error lasting over a year and a half, an administrative pattern was evolved, which for the first time facilitated extension activities to percolate to the village level. The activities of different development departments were channelised through one common agency and the concept of a multipurpose Village Level Worker was started.

#### **The Community Development Project (1952)**

As a result of G. M. F. Enquiry Committee Report as well as of Etawah Pilot Project and financial assistance received from the Ford Foundation, fifteen pilot projects were started. Subsequently, the Indo-American Technical Cooperation Agreement was signed in January 1952 and first 55 Community Development Projects were organised on October 2, of the same year, for a period of 3 years. The programme aimed at socio-economic transformation of rural people and administrative organisation was designed to achieve the same.

#### **Stage III. Community Development & N. E. S. Service Era (1953-60)**

Taking into consideration the above mentioned points, the National Extension Service was inaugurated on October 2, 1953.

However, by the year 1956-58, it was felt that people's participation was not coming forth as desired, and as a result of the recommendations of Balwant Rai Mehta Committee, democratic decentralisation (Panchayati Raj) was introduced. The system consisted of three tiers of Zilla Parishad at District level, Panchayat Samiti at

Block level and Gram Panchayat at the village level. Thus, there were at this stage three constituents in the administrative system:

- i. Panchayati Raj;
- ii. Direct line staff, such as Collector, Block Development Officer, and V. L. Ws;
- iii. Specialist staff, such as Extension Officers of different departments.

There was a lot of confusion and conflict about the roles and responsibilities of these three units.

#### **The Nalagarh Committee Report (1958)**

The Agricultural Administrative Committee (Nalagarh committee) 1958 reported that technical departments like Agriculture have not been developed to the extent they were required and therefore, have not been able to deliver the goods as they were existing under unsatisfactory conditions of work.

The committee concluded that a streamlined agricultural administration is an urgent necessity and the food situation of the country can be appreciably eased if positive steps are taken to achieve this objective. It made exhaustive recommendations for improving the conditions of service and other cognate matters. The recommendations can be divided into two categories :

- i. Recommendations with no financial implications, and
- ii. Recommendations with financial implications.

The recommendations falling in the first category related mainly to procedural matters, delegation of powers to various officers, implementation of budgetary procedures, revision of service rules, etc. The recommendations involving financial implications aimed at effective material improvement in the morale, status, and service conditions of the agricultural departments in the States. The Committee also recommended for constituting the All India Agricultural Service with the scales of pay and prospectus at par with other All India Services. It is a matter for regret, however, that these recommendations are yet to be implemented fully.

#### **Stage IV : Intensive Agricultural Development Era (1960 onwards)**

The Agricultural Production Team of the Ford Foundation (1959) in its report (India's Food Crisis and Steps to Meet It) gave crucial decisions and urged the selection of certain crops in certain

areas for more intensive efforts, and the team believed that intensive efforts should be made immediately in the most responsive areas and top priority must be given to food production.

The team recommended that agricultural extension programmes should be based on local conditions, village production problems, and village potentials. The team agreed with the recommendations of the Agricultural Administration Committee (1958) regarding the additional staff at the Block, District and State levels, and setting up of an Information Service. Besides, there were many far reaching recommendations which were all considered by an Inter-Ministries Committee in June, 1959 and they were accepted in principle.

#### **The I. A. D. P :**

Though the Community Development Programme created conditions for socio economic transformation of rural people and adoption of modern practices for improving their farms, home and communities in an integrated manner, its impact on agricultural production was not felt. Under the Community Development Programme the production efforts and available resources were widely diffused over the entire country.

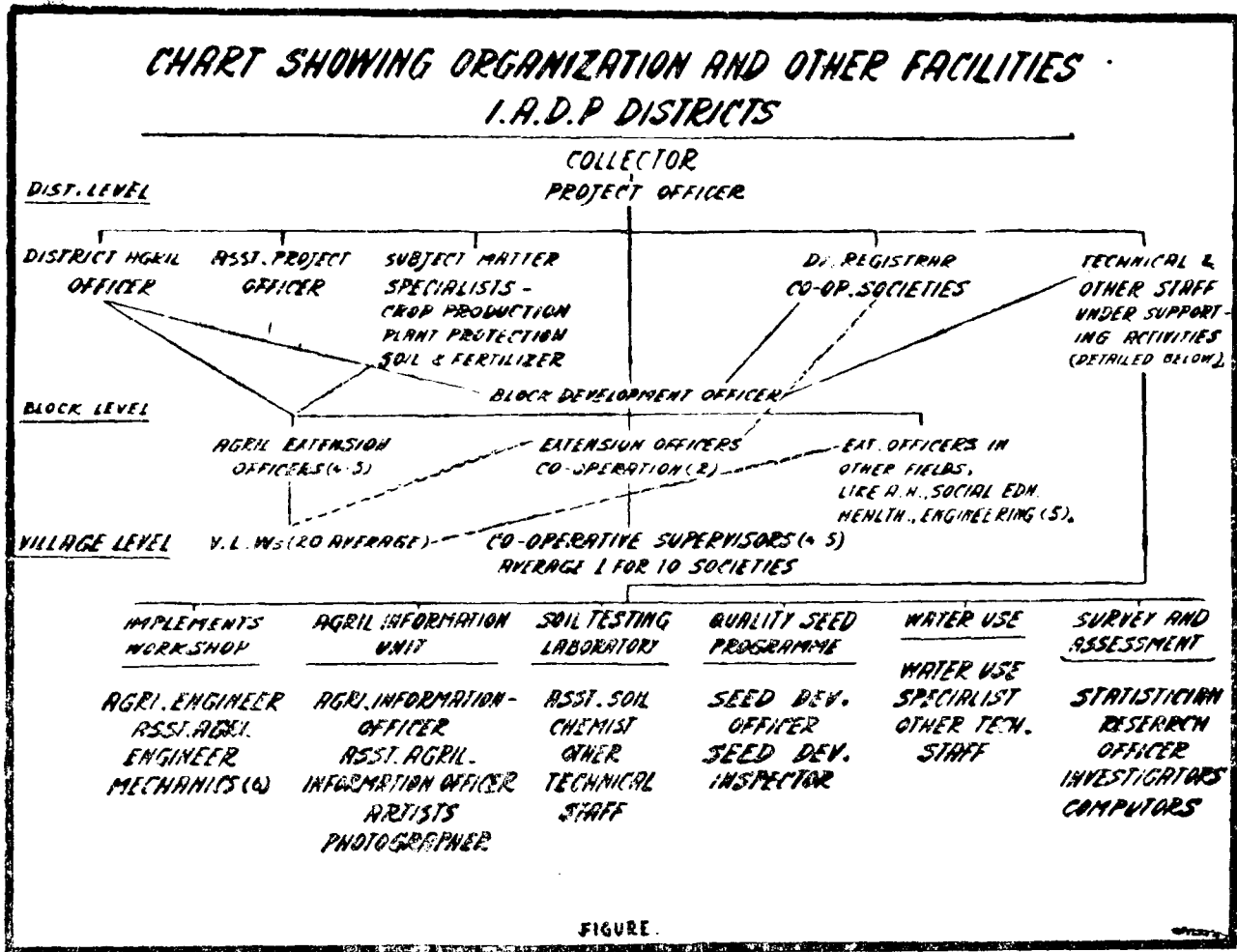
It was, therefore, agreed that in the interest of increasing agricultural production quickly, pilot projects should be initiated in selected areas having favourable conditions for maximising food production.

In 1960-61 the original seven districts included in the I.A.D.P. were selected and the programme popularly known as 'Package Programme' started functioning. The organisational set-up in the Package Programme areas is given in Figure 18.

#### **The Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (1964)**

The Agricultural Production Board (1964) agreed with the observations of the mid-term appraisal of the Third Five Year Plan that much greater emphasis should be given to the development of scientific and progressive agriculture in an intensive manner and 20-25 percent of the cultivated area of the country should be selected for intensive agricultural development.

The I. A. A. P. which came into operation in March, 1964 also follows the package approach-the use of interrelated factors physical, social and institutional-in strategic combinations which are likely to produce an impact on agricultural production. The staffing



FIGURE

FIGURE-18

# STAFFING PATTERN IN AN I.A.A. DISTRICT

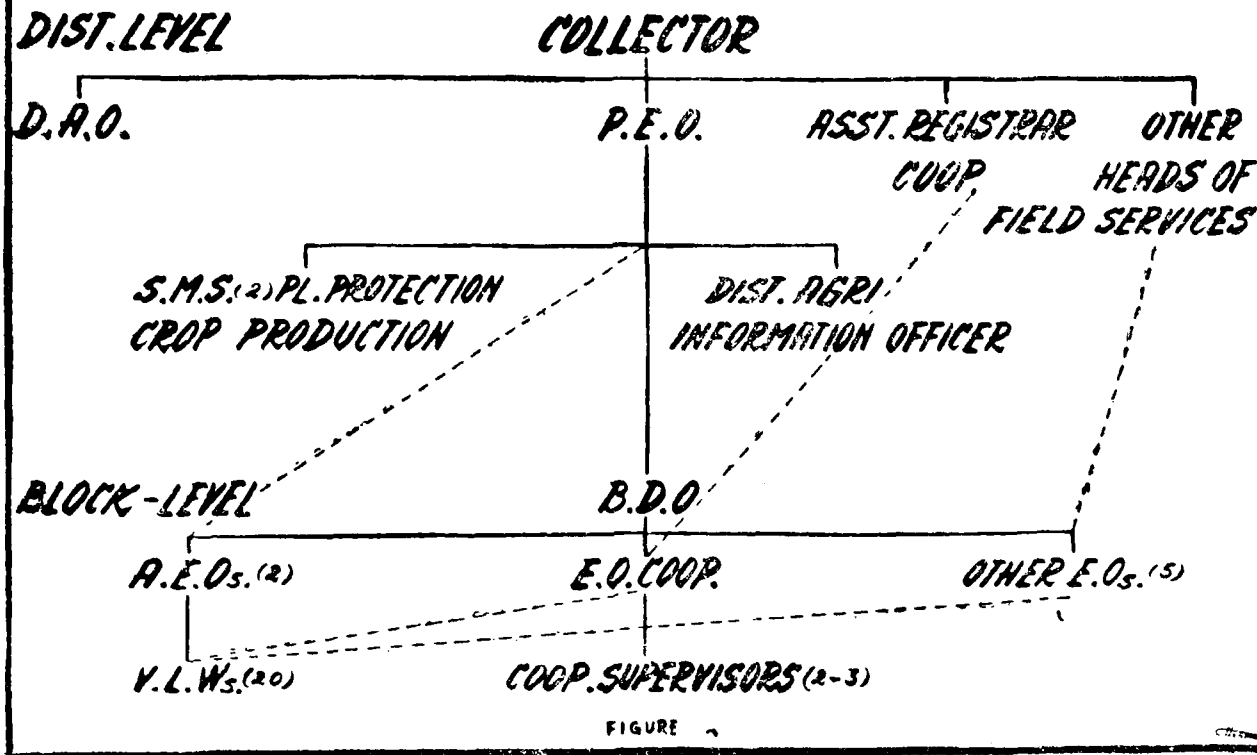


FIGURE ~

FIGURE-19

pattern in the Intensive Agricultural Area Programme is given in Figure 19.

**The High Yielding Varieties Programme and the Multiple Cropping Programme (1966-67)**

These two programmes constitute the two major planks of the new agricultural strategy under the Fourth Five Year Plan which aimed at attaining self-sufficiency in food by the end of 1970-71. The programmes were initiated in areas having necessary organisation and facilities which are considered essential pre-requisites to rapid agricultural growth. The programmes have no additional or special staff for their operation.

**The Agricultural Administration Team Report (1967)**

The Administrative Reforms Commission constituted various study teams for investigation into the functioning of various Government organisations and Ministries in 1966. The study team on Agricultural Administration submitted its report in the year 1967-68 for the approval of the Commission.

The main emphasis of the recommendations was on raising the status of agricultural administration and manning it with technically qualified staff with direct line of authority and responsibility. However their recommendations are yet to be implemented.

**Agricultural Universities (1961 onwards)**

Another notable change for improving the quality of agricultural education, research and field extension work has been the establishment of agricultural universities in various States commencing from 1961-62. These universities have strong departments of extension education but there seems to be some misunderstanding and confusion regarding the role of agricultural universities in general, and that of Directorates of Extension Education in particular, vis-a-vis the role of departments of agriculture in various States. Any proposed set-up for agricultural administration has to take into consideration and define clearly the roles of the agricultural universities in agricultural development work.

At the All-India Symposium on Extension Role of Agricultural Universities held in June, 1973, the major roles pertaining to Extension Education in Agricultural Universities were spelt out as follows :

- a) Teaching (the subject of Extension Education for preparation of suitable personnel).

- b) Information Communication.
- c) Training
- d) Advisory
- e) Research (in Extension Education).

In more specific terms, these can be stated as follows :

1. To collect latest research findings for possible use for the benefit of clientele.
2. To undertake adaptive research projects with a view to testing applicability of findings under different soil, agro-climatic and socio-economic conditions in different parts of the State.
3. To sieve out applicable research findings for immediate dissemination.
4. To process applicable technical know-how for :
  - a) Production of information materials.
  - b) enrichment of content of training programmes.
  - c) providing authentic and systematic technical guidance to field staff and farmers.
5. To identify field problems to which scientific solutions are not yet available and transmit them to research organization.
6. To disseminate the processed technical know-how to the clientele in different forms by different appropriate methods.
7. To plan, organize, and execute extension programmes and activities for effective dissemination of processed findings for solving the problems of clientele.
8. To prepare personnel to perform various extension roles and provide dynamic and analytical leadership to extension programmes.
9. To undertake research on various facets of Extension Education with a view to enriching programme formulation and operation and gaining insight into the process of dynamics of planned change.

The National Commission on Agriculture, in its interim report, made the following recommendations about the responsibilities of State Department and Agricultural Universities<sup>1</sup>.

**Concept of a Division including Teaching, Research and Extension**

Immediate steps should be taken by the agricultural universities to reorganise their existing set up in such a manner that an integrated approach pertaining to teaching, research and extension permeates in every discipline. For this purpose, each teaching department should be converted into a Division which should represent within it all the elements of teaching, research and extension pertaining to that particular discipline.

**Responsibilities of State Departments Vs Agricultural Universities**

1. Adaptive research should be the responsibility of State Departments. For this purpose, experimental farms which are usually meant for demonstration work and for raising seed etc., should be placed exclusively under the control of such Government Departments. These Departments must have in their cadre qualified scientists competent to do adaptive research and such scientists should have the benefit of administrative and extension experience also.

2. In order to have effective programmes of adaptive research, the Government Departments should form Adaptive Research Councils analogous to the Research Councils which exist in agricultural universities.

3. In the area of extension relating to field trials, the responsibility for the extension programme should be with the research workers' group which seeks to establish the applied or the adaptive research in the field. The field workers should give them all support in establishing a link with farmers to enable the trials to be carried out satisfactorily.

4. The involvement of the scientists in the university with extension on the farmers' field in the nature of demonstrations and intensive programmes should be limited. Every scientist in the university having a good research base should have direct contact with the field so as to get first hand knowledge of farmers' problems which he would have otherwise overlooked. This should be assured

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1. Adapted from Interim Report of the National Commission on Agriculture on "Some aspects of Agricultural Research, Extension and Training", Govt. of India, Ministry of Agriculture, New Delhi, 1971.

by placing highly trained extension subject-matter specialists in the respective Divisions at the headquarters and at each of the regional research stations.

5. The state departments shall be made fully responsible for the entire field of extension functions in the states, except for a limited involvement of research scientists to the extent outlined in the earlier recommendation. The subject matter extension specialists located in the various Divisions in the University and in the research farms, must be available to the extension workers to solve their special field problems. A suitable liaison machinery should be worked out in each state so that expert opinion can be obtained quickly by the field workers when necessary.

#### **Reinforcement of State Departments**

1. The Programme, Subject-Matter and Extension Specialists at the State level must be specialists of the highest level possible in their fields of specialisation and they shall maintain contacts with the specialists in the University Divisions. At district, and tehsil or taluk level, there should be a team of specialists in appropriate fields and in appropriate grades. The team leader and the specialist at the tehsil level should preferably be holders of M. Sc. degree and those at the district level preferably holders of Ph. D. degree. To provide support to Village Development officers, five to six graduate Agricultural Extension Officers (AEO) should be provided in each block. In animal husbandry, there should be graduate Field Extension Officer at least at taluk level. In the districts where special programme is being undertaken in animal husbandry or fishery, additional suitably qualified Extension Officers should be posted.

2. In order to maintain technical competence in State Departments, provision should be made for exchange of staff at appropriate levels between the universities and departments on deputation basis.

3. The structure of state departments should be so reorganised and streamlined as to provide for uniform pattern of staff in all the districts, but for this sake, the quality of staff should not be sacrificed. If duly qualified personnel are not available in sufficient number, priority may be given to areas of special programmes.

#### **Training**

1. As far as training of departmental personnel and farmers is concerned, a Joint Training Board may be constituted at the state level with members drawn from State Departments and the agri-

cultural university to formulate a comprehensive training programme. An Officer of the rank of at least a Joint Director should be appointed in every state to look after the training programmes and he should be the convener of the Joint Training Board.

2. The responsibility of periodical training of top and middle level administrators and experts of Government Departments should be that of agricultural university. The duration of such training may be long enough for an effective transfer of knowledge. State departments themselves should arrange for the training of their lower level experts and administrators either through their own institutions or with the help of agricultural university according to needs. State departments should also be responsible for routine training of field workers and farmers for new introductions and programmes, while the agricultural universities should be responsible either for imparting training to farmers in general scientific agriculture or familiarising them in the latest developments in various disciplines. The frequency and duration of such training programmes should be determined according to need.

3. Farmers' Training Centres should be set up at the rate of one at least in each district where long duration as well as short duration courses should be organised to provide training facilities in various subjects to farmers' sons and daughters and also to adult farmers, both men and women. A Joint Training Board should be appointed for each of these centres with the head of the institution as convener for drawing up detailed programmes of training annually.

4. The State Departments should organise adequate training programmes in the district training centres for their junior staff members at the field level. The agricultural universities should organise refresher courses of long duration for departmental personnel.

5. The departmental personnel at high level should be trained in agricultural administration and management in the existing management institutions as an interim measure.

#### **Formation of Apex Body**

An Apex body should be constituted for each State under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Agriculture and having the Vice-Chancellor of the University and the Directors of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry and Fisheries and Agricultural Production Commissioners/ Development Commissioners as members. This Body should have

the overall responsibility of ensuring that the two organisations work in harmony and in the best interest of an all round development of agriculture in the State.

*Schemes for Social Justice (1970 onwards)*

The sixties witnessed revolutionary changes in India's food production. From a situation of huge deficit in the early sixties, the country achieved near self-sufficiency in foodgrains, thanks to the new agricultural strategy which emphasised the introduction of high yielding varieties of food crops and the improved cultivation practices associated with them. However, it was observed that the so-called green revolution was confined only to certain pockets of the country, and the improved farm technology was taken advantage of mostly by the rich farmers. To correct this disparity and ensure social (or distributive) justice along with growth in the agricultural economy of the country, the national government initiated new programmes like the Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) and the Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Scheme (MFAL) during the Fourth Plan, and also the Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) during Fifth Plan.

Under the SFDA scheme introduced in 46 selected districts throughout the Country, 50,000 potentially viable small farmers (with holdings between 2.5 and 7.5 acres) are assisted in each project area with subsidised irrigation support, land-shaping, soil conservation, improved agricultural implements, customs service facilities, storage and marketing to make them economically self-sufficient and viable. The scheme is primarily one of supervised credit and supply of inputs. Resources are made available to farmer-participants in the shape of 25% subsidy from the Agency and the balance as loans.

Under the MFAL scheme taken up in 40 selected districts, 20,000 marginal farmers (with holdings upto 2.5 acres), and agricultural labourers are assisted in each project area with subsidised dairy, poultry, fishery, piggery, sheep rearing and horticultural operations. Provision has also been made in this scheme for giving direct wage employment in the off-season to agricultural labourers in rural works of a productive nature. The scheme is primarily market oriented and will also provide employment to landless agricultural labourers and rural artisans. Resources are made available to the farmer-participants in the shape of 33.3% subsidy from the Agency and the balance as loans.

In the sphere of administrative action, the Agency for the above two schemes is conceived of as a separate corporate body so that the tasks are carried out with the requisite degree of direction, drive and expedition. However, since the State Government is to be fully involved in the experiment it has to operate in close cooperation with the development activity in the area. For this purpose the Agency consists of the local officials of the area together with a few non-officials and representatives of institutions. To ensure continuity of finance and flexibility in its operation, funds are flowing directly from the Centre to the Agency by passing the State government budget. As the Agency by itself will not execute any of the programmes but will work through the existing organisations and rely on their support, it is headed by the collector or other appropriate authority in charge of development in the district. This arrangement is also in recognition of the basic fact that this programme of development is a part of the total developmental effort in the area. Since the Agency is not to execute any programme directly, it has no separate hierarchy of its own. It has a minimum complement of staff consisting of a project officer together with two officers, one conversant with farm management and the other with agricultural finance. It is the responsibility of these officers to continuously contact the appropriate development department of the government at the district level and ensure that the programmes meant for small and marginal farmers are carried out according to schedule.

The need for a Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP) arises from several considerations. The drought prone areas account for nearly 19 percent of the total area of the country and 12 percent of the population. Their overall productivity is low. There is frequent migration of the inhabitants along with their livestock. These areas are a continuing source of strain on the financial resources of the nation, by way of drought relief etc.

The main thrust of the DPAP in the fifth Plan is to restore a proper ecological balance in the drought prone areas. The important elements constituting the strategy for such ecologically integrated development are listed below :

- i) Development and management of irrigation resources;
- ii) Soil and moisture conservation and afforestation;
- iii) Re-structuring of cropping pattern and pasture development;

- iv) Changes in agronomic practices;
- v) Livestock development;
- vi) Development of small and marginal farmers and agricultural labour.

The main elements of the strategy of integrated agricultural development in drought prone areas are not the concern of one single existing department of Government but concern at least five main Departments namely, Agriculture, Irrigation, Animal Husbandry, Forestry and Cooperation. There is a real danger that any integrated plan of development of a drought-prone area may flounder on the rock of departmentalism. To get over these problems it seems necessary to opt for an organisational innovation. This may take the shape of a coordinating corporate body which is charged with the responsibility of designing, coordinating and catalysing a programme of integrated development in each drought-prone district. Such a coordinating corporate body should have the requisite financial and operational flexibility. At the same time, it should be able to effectively utilise the facilities and the man-power of various development departments operating in the district. For this purpose, it would be essential that the District Collector and other district officers concerned are involved as ex-officio chairman and members of the management organisation of the coordinating or corporate body. In addition suitable non-officials may be included on the pattern of SFDA. The Coordinating or corporate body will have to be so patterned that it is also able to directly undertake some activities particularly land development, where necessary.

It is contemplated that, whilst for various activities, a drought prone district should continue to receive funds under normal departmental plan schemes, it is necessary that certain nucleus funds are earmarked for each drought-prone district. It is envisaged that the central government will generally provide Rs. 3 crores from the central plan to each drought-prone district when 75 per cent or more of the area is characterised as drought-prone, Rs. 2.5 crores to each district where the area ranges between 50 to 75 percent and 2 crores to each district where the area is less than 50 percent. Matching amounts would generally be found by the States concerned from within their State Plan. On the basis of this allocation, it is estimated that a nucleus amount exceeding Rs. 300 crores would be made available. In addition to the above nucleus funds, it is

visualised that each corporate body should be able to raise, wherever necessary, institutional finance for direct investment.

### ✓ **Reorganisation of Extension Set-up in the States (1978-79 onwards)**

One of the major factors impeding efforts for increasing agricultural production through the spread of new technology is the inadequacy of extension machinery in the States. Steps required for strengthening agricultural administration in the States have been examined by various high-powered Committees in the past, and more recently by the National Commission on Agriculture. They have stressed the need for gearing up agricultural administration all along the line.

In this context, a Centrally sponsored scheme for "Strengthening and Re-organisation of Agricultural Extension Administration in the States" has been approved by the Government of India for implementation in all the States during the Sixth Plan period (i.e. from 1978-79). This scheme is based on the new agricultural extension methodology known as the "Training and Visit" (T & V) system (also known as the Benor system, as Mr. Benor was instrumental in introducing this innovation in extension work). This system which was evolved on the basis of experience in the command areas of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh etc., under the World Bank assistance has yielded very encouraging results. The salient features of the new system are outlined below.

#### **The T & V Extension System**

The basic spirit behind the T & V Extension System is that any land, even though it may not ever have produced a satisfactory crop in the past, can yet be made to yield an optimum crop according to its capacity within the crop season period of 4 to 5 months only, provided the farmer can be advised what to do on his own field step by step, as per stage of crop growth, every week or fortnight. The methodology provides for a management system which can ensure delivery of expert know-how to almost every field on a State-wide basis every week or fortnight. Transfer of know-how from Subject Matter Specialists to the farmer is ensured in two stages, through

- (i) "Training" - for transfer of know-how from Subject - Matter Specialists to extension workers, and
- (ii) "Visits" - for transfer of know-how obtained at the training from extension workers to the farmers.

**Organisational Structure of the new system**

The entire organisation is based on the total number of farm families which one village extension worker (V.E.W., V.E.O. or V.L.W.) can reasonably cover.

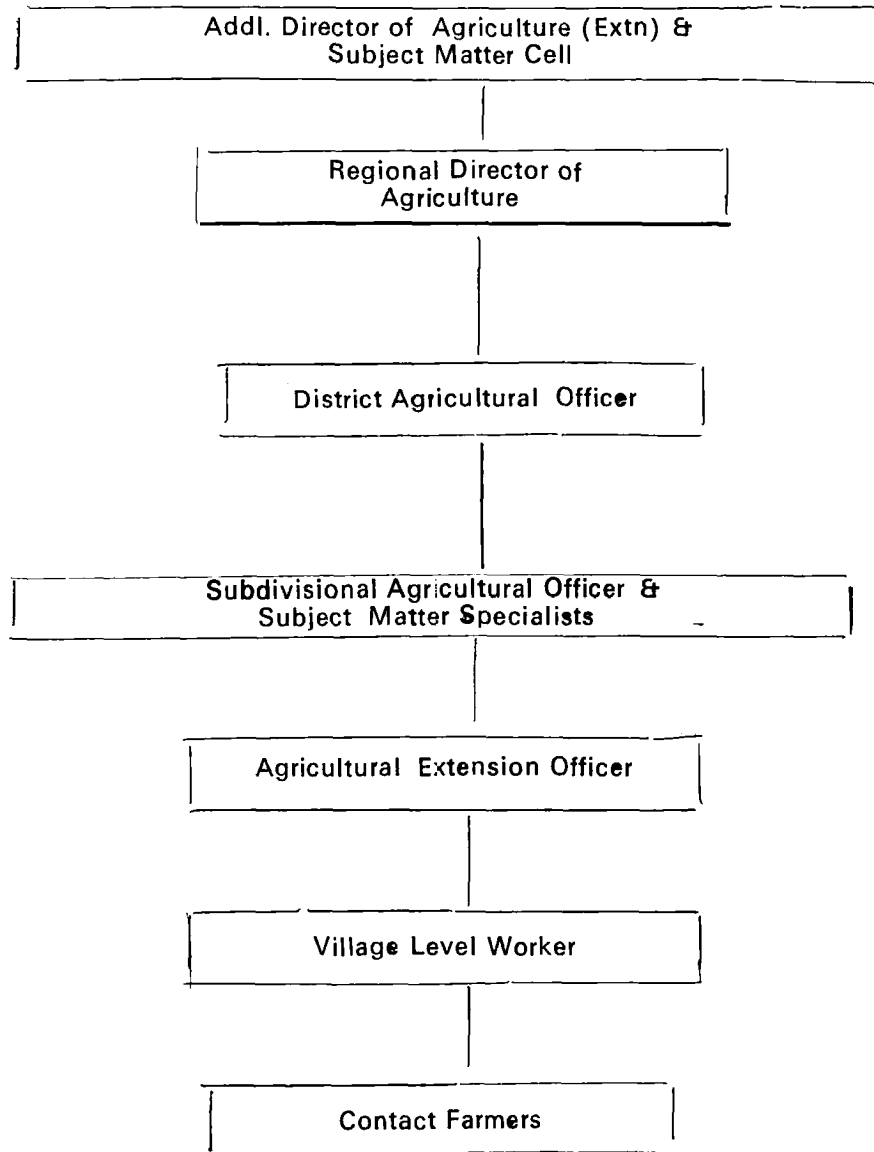
It is organised in such a manner that an Agricultural Extension Officer (AEO) guides, trains and supervises about six to eight village extension workers. Six to eight AEOs are in turn, guided and supervised by a Sub-Divisional Extension Officer (SDEO). The SDEOs are supported by a team of Subject Matter Specialists (SMSs). Four to eight SDEOs are supervised by a District Extension Officer (DEO) who is also supported by SMSs. Depending on the number of districts, the DEO is supervised either directly by Extension staff Headquarters or by an intermediate superior. (See Fig 20 for Organisational Chart).

**Coverage of various extension personnel**

Level	Extension personnel	Coverage
Field level	Village Extension Worker (VEW)	800-1200 farm families
Block level	Agricultural Extension Officer (AEO)	8 VEWs
Sub-Divisional level	Sub-Divisional Extension Officer (SDEO)	5-8 AEOs.
District level	District Extension Officer (DEO) (or Dt. Agrl. Officer)	4-8 SDEOs in a district.

All farm families under a VEW's jurisdiction are divided into eight groups of about equal size. From each group the VEW in consultation with village leaders will select about 10 per cent of the farmers as contact farmers on whom he will concentrate his efforts. The key point here is a fixed schedule of VEW visits, known to all under a fortnightly programme of visits. The VEW visits each of the eight groups on his cycle for a full day once each fortnight. An alternative is to visit two groups a day. In this case he will visit each group for one-half day only but once every week.

Each week the VEW will devote four days to visits so that he covers his entire circle of eight groups in a week or a fortnight (depending on which of the above alternatives is chosen)- One of the two remaining working days in each week will be devoted to service training which is crucial to this programme and the other

**Fig: 20. ORGANIZATIONAL CHART (T & V SYSTEM)**

day for unscheduled visits. One of the training sessions each fortnight will be conducted by the team of Subject Matter Specialists (SMSs) responsible to the area. This will be the most important training session. The session is scheduled so that the VEWs are trained for a full day in groups of 30-40. The other weekly training session during the fortnight will be conducted by the AEO who is the immediate supervisor of the VEWs, for the groups of VEWs under his charge.

The schedule of visits and training takes up 10 to 12 working days in the fortnight. Each VEW will maintain a table showing his fixed days for visiting each group as well as the time and place of the meeting.

✓ The AEO will spend two days in training sessions for VEWs and eight days in the field supervising the VEWs and assisting them. The Sub-Divisional Extension Officer (SDEO) supervises VEWs under his jurisdiction and is in overall charge of the extension programme. The SDEO would have with him a team of SMSs. The SMSs would devote one third of their time to VEW training sessions, one-third to field visits and one-third of their time visiting research facilities and conducting some research. In a fortnight a team of SMSs has four days available for VEW and AEO training sessions. The DEO who supervises the SDEOs will also be supported by a team of SMSs who would be involved in regular training sessions of the VEWs and AEOs as and when needed. At zonal level the Zonal Extension Officer will be responsible for all extension activities in his districts and will be assisted by a few administrative staff only. The headquarters level may be different from state to state. It would be best if the headquarters unit dealt with agricultural extension exclusively and were called Extension Service, rather than Department of Agriculture.

The Director of Extension or Addl. Director of Agriculture (Extn) would be assisted by three deputies in-charge of administration, technical aspects and execution and implementation of work.

The following training programmes have been suggested to the extension personnel at various levels to make the re-organised system effective.

**I. Orientation Training**

All the extension functionaries i.e. SMSs at Sub-divisional level and above, AEOs and VLWs should be given 3-4 days orientation training every year regarding the new concept and technological and methodological aspects of the programme.

**II. Training of VEWs :**

(i) **Preservice training :** Since large number of VLWs will be required under the new method preservice training to VLWs should be reduced to one year concentrating only on practical aspects of agricultural technology at Extension/Gramsevak Training Centres.

(ii) **Refresher training :** Refresher courses of two months for VLWs may be arranged at Agricultural Universities or Gramsevak Training Centres to keep their knowledge upto-date.

(iii) **Fortnightly training :** This training to VLW is most crucial part of the new extension system, given by SMSs at Sub-divisional level and by AEOs. The VLWs will be given one day intensive training on specific improved agricultural practices once every fortnight.

(iv) **Specialised training :** The VLWs will also require specialised training in particular crops/disciplines which are of special importance in their areas. For this purpose one to two weeks intensive subject matter training may be organised at existing Gramsevak Training Centres, Field Trial Stations and Research Farms.

(a) **Preseasonal training :** In order to acquaint VLWs with total package of practices to be followed in the ensuing season, preseason training for 4-5 days will be arranged at sub-divisional level by SMSs and AEOs.

**III. Training of Agricultural Extension Officers :**

✓ Refresher courses and specialised training in subjects of importance in the area of their operation should be arranged for a period of two weeks at Agricultural Universities from time to time.

**IV. Training of Subject Matter Specialists :**

In the new system provision for SMSs in selected disciplines has been made at sub-divisional and district levels. Their training requirements are :

1. *Preservice training* : The newly recruited SMSs particularly those belonging to the promotion category will require effective training at Agricultural University/Research Institute for about 2-3 months in their areas of specialisation.

2. *Refresher training* : The specialists working at various levels will also require one to two week's specialised refresher training at least once every year so as to bring them upto-date with latest technological development. This training may be arranged at regional stations. Agricultural Universities or premier research institutes.

#### **V. Training for other senior officers including Sub-Divisional officers/District officers and above.**

While training programmes for VLWs and Extension Officers have always been emphasised, the training of senior Officers of agricultural departments has been mostly of ad-hoc type and inadequate. Therefore, there is a need for well-planned and organised training programmes for these officials in agricultural techniques, communication and management which could be undertaken only by Agricultural Universities/Institutes.

In order to implement the new system of Agricultural extension action has already been taken. The extension workers at various levels are being called upon to render more specific and specialised advice to the farmers on their day-to-day problems concerning agricultural production. In order to equip the extension personnel at all levels, particularly the field staff with the latest technological developments and create confidence in them, there is a pressing need for their training and re-training. Frequent, regular and high quality training of extension personnel at all levels is essential for successful working of the new extension system, for which the Agricultural Universities and selected ICAR research institutes have to play an important role.

#### **Farmer's Training session :**

The VLW should concentrate his efforts primarily on the contact farmers and should ensure that at least the contact farmers will be effectively influenced in respect of the know-how obtained by him from the Subject-Matter. Specialists at the training sessions. He should encourage the other neighbouring farmers also to meet him at the time of his visit to the contact farmers. The farmers he is

able to meet including the contact farmers should be given the responsibility for spreading the know-how to the other farmers in the group. About an hour or two at the end of the visit should be utilised for discussion with the farmers. A set place should be fixed for the purpose and all farmers should be encouraged to meet the VLW for discussion at this place.

One hour at the end of the Training Session should be earmarked for review of input availability in the various VLW circles. Representatives of input agencies like Agro-Industries Corporations, Seed Corporations and Marketing Cooperatives, etc. should be invited to be present at the training session as and when considered necessary. Firm instructions should be issued by the State Government that input agencies should send their concerned local representatives to the training session as and when required.

The aim for an effective input service should be to ensure that all inputs including credit, fertilizers, seeds and plant protection materials, etc., will be made available through the concerned agencies at the village itself somehow or other. The extension agency should keep pressing this requirement with the concerned agencies till a suitable arrangement for the purpose is gradually built up. Input service can be effective only when inputs are delivered at the village and this must be ensured at all costs.

#### **Extension Functionaries Under Community Development Programme**

The organizational set-up including the several agents and agencies working under the Community Development administration from the national to the village-level will be dealt with in chapter VI. At this point, we shall focus attention on the organisation in the Block (which is the unit for planning and development), and consider briefly the role of the important functionaries working in the Blocks.

*Block Organization:* The official agents consist of a Block Development Officer and a number of Extension Officers at the Block level. Below the Extension Officers are Village Development Officers called *Gram Sevaks*.

#### **The Role or Job of a Gram Sevak<sup>1</sup>**

*Gram Sevak* is the key person or the pivot of the Community Development Programme. He is an altogether new, and perhaps,

1. From "The Gram Sevak's Guide for increasing Agricultural Production" Govt. of India, Ministry of Community Development 1958.

the most important functionary created under this programme, because he is the only multipurpose worker and first-aid man in all fields of development, and also he is the only worker at the community or village level. He is expected to devote at least 75 per cent of his time to agricultural development. The success or failure of the Community Development programmes largely depends on the *Gram Sevak*.

The *Gram Sevak's* job is to help village people in improving all phases of village life including primarily (1) Agriculture (2) Health (3) Education (4) Housing (5) Wells (6) Roads (7) Family living.

Using the advice of the block extension specialists, his job is to help people in his jurisdiction to learn about and.

- to establish *panchayats* and help them work effectively in giving over-all leadership to village development.
- to improve *schools* and help them work effectively in providing educational opportunities for youth and adults.
- to establish *co-operatives* and help them work effectively in performing the services needed in agricultural production.
- to form *organizations of farmers* and help them work effectively in deciding on problems, planning ways to solve them at the individual, family and village level.
- to form *organizations of women* and help them work effectively toward solving home, family and health problems.
- to form *organizations of youth* and help them work effectively to learn new ways by which they can assist individual citizens.
- to adopt *new practices* in agricultural production, home improvement, health, etc.

He is an *extension worker* and his approach is *extension education* because he educates or teaches people to understand problems and their causes.

- Through the use of educational methods he encourages and helps village people to take intelligent decisions to solve their problems.
- He helps the village people gain experience in working together through Village Organizations to solve village problems.

- He helps them learn to adopt new practices that will solve their problems.
- He educates people in villages to want to improve their conditions.
- He teaches by demonstrating how new practices can be applied to village conditions.
- He teaches by helping to assure that people in villages will have successful experiences in adopting improved practices in all phases of village life.
- He gains the confidence of the people, so that what he does and advises has great influence on what they do and the way they think.
- He helps the village people understand that in free democratic India all the people are free citizens and all have an equal responsibility to contribute toward the building of New India.

#### **Extension Officers and their Role**

Extension Officers are otherwise known as the Block Specialists or the Subject-matter Specialists. The staffing pattern provides for eight such officers at the Block level, one each of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Co-operation, Panchayats, Rural Industries, Rural Engineering, Social Education, and Welfare of Women and Children. In addition there is a medical officer for the Primary Health Centre with supporting medical personnel.

It may be seen from the above that each Extension Officer represents a subject-matter department of the State Government. He assists the *Gram Sevaks* in their subject-matter programmes. These Extension Officers are absolutely necessary for sound technical advice on specific lines to the *Gram Sevaks* in their varied activities. They analyse and interpret scientific knowledge and factual information and are the connecting links (professional liaison) between research and practice. They enable *Gram Sevaks* and the people to understand and to apply scientific knowledge on specific subjects in the farms, homes and Community Organisations.

*Duties of Specialists<sup>1</sup>*

1. Keeping the extension workers (*Gram Sevaks* or *Sevikas*) upto date with regard to the findings of science and their application to the solution of farm and home problems.
2. Serving as a bridge between subject-matter research departments and field extension workers; interpreting the results of research in terms of desirable farm and home practices.
3. Assembling and analysing facts, and clarifying problems in the subject-matter field.
4. Helping extension workers to develop sound plans for family and village development in which subject matter is correlated to best serve the interests of the family (farm and home), and of the community.
5. Assisting extension workers in the effective use of teaching methods peculiarly adapted to the subject matter involved.
6. Backing up the block programme with suitable publicity material like bulletins, exhibits, slides, film-strips and other teaching aids.
7. Helping the extension workers in evaluating their programmes.
8. Handling direct teaching of rural people in the block so as to strengthen the position of the extension workers and enable the latter to meet subject-matter problems arising after the specialists' departure from the villages.

**Role of Block Development Officer**

The Block Development Officer too is a new functionary created by the Community Development Programme. As the Block organization is the common agency of all the development departments the Block Development Officer is the captain of the team of Extension Officers at the Block level.

*Duties of a Block Development Officer*

1. He has to attend to administrative duties, with a special eye on co-ordination of the efforts of the block staff.
2. He will be the principal link between the block agency and the higher levels of administration, to preserve the unity and team character of the block organisation.

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1. Adapted from Kelsey, L. D., and Hearne, C. C., "Co-operative Extension Work", op. cit.

3. He should enlighten his staff and the rural masses about the objectives and methods of community development and ensure that all the members of his team understand and follow these.

4. He should assess the needs and resources of the block, and formulate plans at the family, village and block levels, in consultation with technical experts and popular institutions like Panchayats and Co-operatives.

5. He should help to overcome departmental rivalries among his staff and ensure co-operation among them.

6. He should prepare the Block budget and organize supplies and services required by the rural people to put into effect the recommendations of the extension officers.

7. He should develop and practice skills in human relations so as to humanize the administrative machinery.

## Rural Sociology

*"No man is an island unto himself."*

### RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND ITS IMPORTANCE FOR THE EXTENSION WORKERS

*Rural Sociology is the science of rural society. It is the description and analysis of groups of various kinds as they exist in the rural areas.* We have already seen that the fundamental objective of Extension is the allround development of the rural people, both as individuals and as members of society. To achieve this objective, extension workers have to bring about desirable changes in the rural folks and their society. *Society* : may be defined as a group of people in more or less permanent association who are organized for their collective activities and who feel that they belong together. To bring about required changes in rural society consciously, the rural workers need to know the *laws of the structure and development of rural society in general* which is otherwise known as rural sociology. Rural sociology will help the extension worker to make a correct diagnosis of the ills of rural society and will thus enable him to evolve a correct prescription or programme to overcome those ills. It is as indispensable for the purpose of rural reconstruction or development as the science of medicine is to a medical practitioner.<sup>1</sup> Table 5 summarises the inter-relationship between Rural sociology and Extension.

#### Some Important Characteristics of Indian Rural Society

1. The village is the unit of the rural society. Its people carry on the business of living together within a distinctive framework of caste and social custom. Caste is a dominant social institution permeating social and economic relations. Traditional

<sup>1</sup> Desai, A. R., "Rural Sociology in India." The Indian Society of Agricultural Economics, Bombay, 1959.

caste occupations prevail mostly: and co-operative labour of several different castes is required not only for agro-economic-activities but also for socio-religious life. The large village having within its population all the occupational castes, has a comparatively more integrated and self-sufficient economic as well as socio-religious life than the smaller villages.

2. The village as a social and cultural unit possesses a basically uniform organisation and structure of values all over India. Many problems are common to the entire Indian countryside.

TABLE-5  
Inter-relationship between Rural Sociology and Extension

Rural Sociology	Extension
1. It is a scientific study of "the laws of the structure and development of rural society."	1. It is informal education for the rural people with a view to develop rural society on desirable lines.
2. It studies the attitudes and behaviour of rural people.	2. It seeks to modify or change for the better, the attitudes and behaviour of village people.
3. It studies the needs and interests of rural society.	3. It helps rural people to discover their needs and problems, and builds educational programmes based on these needs and wants.
4. It analyses rural social relationships, or group organizations and leadership in rural areas, the social processes like co-operation, association, competition etc. among village people.	4. It fosters and utilises village organisations and leadership and favourable social processes, to achieve its objective of rural development.
5. It studies social situations and assembles social facts of rural society.	5. It makes use of such social data as a basis for building up its extension programmes for rural areas.
6. It investigates the social, cultural, political and religious problems of rural society.	6. It also studies these problems with reference to their impact on extension work in villages.

3. The ethnic, linguistic, religious, and caste composition of a village largely determines its character and structure. Some villages or hamlets are inhabited almost exclusively by certain castes, as in the case of *Agraharams* (for Brahmins) *Harijanawadas* etc. Even in a village with mixed population, the different castes usually live in different sections of the same village. Inter-caste rivalries are sometimes present. Also people of different religious denominations like Muslims, Hindus, Parsis etc. speak different languages.

4. Women do not have full equality with men in several aspects of life. The observance of '*pardah*' is prevalent in some parts, and in certain castes or religious sects.

5. Indian rural society is based predominantly on agriculture. Possession of land carries with it social and prestige value, besides being considered as an economic asset. In many villages, the land is mostly distributed between two or more castes, or among a few families, or between one big land owner and the rest of the community. Landless labour and tenants constitute a considerable part of the population depending on agriculture.

6. Every village has its own organisational set-up, authority and sanctions. It has its governing body, the *panchayat* based on local tradition since long, but now constituted on a regular basis according to the provisions of *Panchayat Raj*.

7. Social distance or isolation, has a bearing on the nature of the organisation of a village and of its view of the world. Availability of or nearness to modern means of transport or communications also modifies the setting and fabric of a village.

8. Village settlements are generally governed by certain regional and local traditions. The lay-out of the village, construction of the house, the dress, speech and manners follow the set pattern of the culture area. Each village possesses an individuality of its own. Some have a reputation for generosity, hospitality and fair-play, while others are notorious for their meanness and corruption. Some villages are known for their cooperativeness, while some are noted for their litigations and factions.

The important characteristics of the Indian villagers may be summarised as hospitality, familism, traditionalism, fatalism, religiousness often combined with superstitious beliefs, leisurely attitude to life, and low standard of living. Nevertheless, most villagers are

capable of change and will respond to the teachers whom they trust, even though their past sad experiences make them conservative and hopeless about the future. They are eager to learn how to help themselves and they resent paternalism.

Some important points of contrast between rural and urban communities are given in Table 6.

TABLE-6. Contrast between Rural and Urban Communities<sup>1</sup>

Rural Community	Urban Community
1. Rural community <u>is in close and direct relationship</u> to Nature.	1. Urban life is remote from Nature and is set in a highly complex man-made environment.
2. Less density of population	2. Mere density of population.
3. More homogeneous in racial and psychological traits.	3. More heterogeneous than rural communities.
4. Sacred culture. <i>ਧਰਮ ਸੰਸਕ੍ਰਿਤੀ</i>	4. Secular culture. <i>ਲੋਕਤੰਤਰ ਸੰਸਕ੍ਰਿਤੀ</i>
5. <u>Less numerous social contacts</u> per man. Narrower area of the <i>interaction system</i> of its members and the whole aggregate. <i>Primary contacts</i> more prominent. Predominance of <i>personal</i> and relatively <i>durable</i> relations. Comparative <i>simplicity</i> and sincerity of relation. "Man is interacted as a human person."	5. <i>More numerous</i> contacts. <i>Wider</i> area of interaction system per man and per aggregate. <i>Secondary contacts</i> more prominent. Predominance of <i>impersonal</i> , casual and <i>short-lived</i> relations. Greater <i>complexity</i> , manifoldedness, <i>superficiality</i> and standardized formality of relations. Man is interacted as a "number" and "address."
6. Most of the institutions are a natural outgrowth of rural social life. Less of enacted institutions. <i>ਧਰਮ ਸੰਸਕ੍ਰਿਤੀ</i>	6. <u>Numerous</u> enacted institutions.
7. Strong sense of belonging and unity. <i>ਧਰਮ ਸੰਸਕ੍ਰਿਤੀ</i>	7. Comparatively less sense of belonging and unity.

1. Adapted from, Desai, A. R., "Rural Sociology in India" op cit,

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| <p>8. A simple, uni-group society.</p> <p>9. Rural social life is relatively static and stable.</p> <p>10. It is primarily dependent upon land; agriculture is the main source of its livelihood. In the community are usually a few representatives of several non-agricultural pursuits.</p> <p>11. "Agriculturalism" and <i>size of community</i> are negatively correlated.</p> <p>12. Rural community is self-subsistent and has a rudimentary division of labour including trade. Rural man can at least raise his own food supply, meet his needs for shelter and partially provide his clothing needs.</p> <p>13. Less social <i>stratification</i> but a more rigid acceptance of the caste differences.</p> <p>14. Territorial, occupational and other forms of <i>social mobility</i> of the population are comparatively less intensive. Normally the migration current carries more individuals from the country to the city.</p> | <p>8. A complex, multi-group society.</p> <p>9. It is under constant and rapid social change.</p> <p>10. Industrialism and technology are its dominant features; private and public agencies of administration are the main sources of livelihood. The majority of the individuals are wage-earners, hired labourers. There are hundreds of urban occupation techniques, and pursuits of a widely divergent nature.</p> <p>11. In the same country and at the same period, the size of urban community is much larger than the rural community.</p> <p>12. Urban community is far from being self-sufficient. It has a complex division of labour, specialization and system of import and export. It is carried out by highly complex, specialized, technically manned and state-controlled agencies.</p> <p>13. <i>Social stratification</i> characterises the city. Less rigid observance of caste distinctions.</p> <p>14. More intensive mobility. Urbanity and mobility are positively correlated. Only in the periods of social crisis is the migration from the city to the country greater than from the country to the city.</p> |
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## GROUP ORGANIZATION AND LEADERSHIP IN RURAL AREAS

### Group - Its Importance

Man is not only a rational being but also a social being. He is a group animal. It is impossible to think of human life without group life, as our relations with other people occur within a group. The group ranging in size from two persons to an indefinite number is the central unit of society.

### Definition of a Social group

In its widest sense, the word 'group' is used to designate a collection of items (inanimate or animate objects) e.g., a group of buildings, of trees or of animals (including human beings). But a consideration of the following three terms will give us a clear concept of what we generally mean by a "social group".

1. *Category* : means a *collection of items that have at least one common characteristic* that distinguishes them from other items which have other characteristics in common. This term is generally used in any plan of classification; e. g., urban population; rural population. All individuals between 10 and 15 years of age, for instance, are referred to as an 'age group' in common parlance, but to avoid confusion, they can be strictly termed as an "age category".

2. *Aggregation* : is a *collection of individuals in physical proximity of one another*; e. g., assemblages such as a cinema audience, spectators at a football game, crowd at the scene of an accident. There may be some inter-action between the individuals in an aggregation, but it is generally of a temporary nature and lacks definite pattern of organization.

3. *A social group* : is a *collection of two or more individuals, in which there are psychological interactions and reciprocal roles based upon durable contacts, shared norms and interests, distinctive patterns of collective behaviour, and structural organization of leadership and follower ship.*<sup>1</sup>

The three terms, category, aggregation, and social group, have been defined. Perhaps the best way to visualize these three terms and to see how they can be used is to review how they differ from

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1. Hepple, L.M, "Group Organization and Leadership in Rural Life" Lucas Bros., Columbia, Missouri, 1959.

one another. All collectivities of people, including aggregations and social groups, may be thought of as categories. The *minimum requirement for a category* is that the items have at *least one characteristic in common*. An aggregation is a *category plus the added characteristic of the individuals being in physical proximity* of one another. All aggregations are categories, but not all categories are aggregations. A social group is a category plus the psychological interactions, roles, norms, interests, patterns of behaviour, leadership and followership of the members of the social group. All social groups are as a minimum statement, categories, but not all categories are social groups.

### Classification of Social Groups

There are several classifications of social groups, depending mostly upon the chief interest or focus of attention in terms of which social groups are classified. The following are some of the important classifications. It may be noted that in these classifications the word "group" is used in a broad sense and a few of the items included in them may not have all of the elements necessary to be considered as social groups as that term has been defined above.

1. *Primary and Secondary Social Groups: Primary Social Groups* are those in which there is intimate face-to-face interaction, involvement of large portion of one's personality, and a definite 'we-feeling' on the part of the members. These are the first and the most important social groups in which we participate. The family, the play group, and neighbouring groups are the best known examples of this type. Primary groups socialize the individual i. e., they give him his ideals of social ideas and obligations, train him in the rudiments of social intercourse, and furnish the basis for all later expansion of social contracts and responsibilities. Primary groups are necessarily small in size because of the intimate contacts and extent to which the individual's personality is involved in them.

*Secondary Social Groups* are those in which there is little intimacy and limited involvement of the individual's personality. They are relatively temporary, and involve less continuous face-to-face contact. There is a minimum social distance among the members of a primary group, whereas a secondary group is likely to have large amounts of social distance among the members. Sympathetic contacts in which there is a mutual responsiveness and interaction.

in terms of individuals as persons, characterise the primary group. While sympathetic contacts may be present in the secondary group, one may also find categorical contacts, in which interaction is in terms of individuals as representatives of certain categories (i. e., contractual relationship). Political groups, Labour Unions, Trade Associations, Employees Associations, Co-operative Societies etc., are examples of secondary groups.

2. *Formal and Informal Groups* : Those groups which have a membership roll, possibly a constitution, by-laws or some procedure for electing office bearers, and perhaps membership fees, are formal groups; while the remaining groups which do not have such a degree of institutionalisation, or set programmes or rituals are called informal groups. Students' Union, for example, is a formal group, while a group of students who regularly go together to hotels or cinemas, is an informal group.

3. *Ingroup and Out group* : This classification points out the importance of the attitudes of members toward their own social groups and toward other social groups (as illustrated by ethnocentrism of a group in relation to all other groups). For example, under the Nazi regime, the Germans identified themselves with their culture as an in-group (as superior culture) and considered people of other nations as out groups (inferior culture).

4. *Locality groups* : This classification considers locality as one bond for holding groups together. e. g., Neighbourhoods, communities or villages, towns, taluks, districts, regions, (e. g., Rayalaseema, Telengana, Circars), and nations.

5. *Classification based on structural organization* : Dwight Sanderson developed a classification of groups based on structure, within the framework of involuntary, voluntary and delegate groups.

- a) *Involuntary groups* - members by birth, residence, or location; e. g., family, neighbourhood, community etc.,
- b) *Voluntary groups* - members by choice; e. g., play group (unorganized). Youth club (organized).
- c) *Delegate groups* - members representative of and chosen by groups; e. g., United Nations; Federations.

#### **Procedure for formation or Organization of Groups<sup>1</sup>**

The units or elements of groups are generally individuals, but

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1. Hepple. L. M., 'Group Organization and Leadership in Rural life', op. cit.

organize a group one has to interest individuals in the programme of that group. When several persons are brought together, it is quite likely that a great variety of interests, habits and attitudes will be present. Some of our needs and interests may be met or satisfied individually, which means that there is no particular reason to form a group for such interests. On the other hand, many interests and needs require a group for their satisfaction. For example, an interest in playing football cannot be satisfied very well without other members of the team as well as an opposing team. The same thing is true of all of our interests and needs that cannot be met individually.

While there are several classifications of interests, two types have been discussed most frequently in relation to group formation. The self-centered interests are those the individual wants to realize, but for which he must have some co-operation from other persons. His interest in forming a group is primarily to realize his self-centred interests. In contrast, group-centred interests are those where the individual is primarily concerned with the group and its purpose being realized, while his individual interests are kept on a secondary level. Ideally, of course, the combination of these two types into one is desired. If self-centred interests predominate, it will be difficult to organize a group and, if the group is organized, it will be difficult to maintain it. On the other hand, group-centered interests provide a basis whereby a group can be easily organised and maintained.

The organisation of any group must take into account the specific situation in the community that supplies the basis for forming a new group, as well as the characteristics of the potential members. However, some things may be said in general about favourable and unfavourable attitudes and habits that are related to group formation. If the potential members show a great deal of tolerance for persons who may differ some what from themselves, manifest a willingness to compromise differences and cooperate as good neighbours, and are not unduly suspicious of one another, then these persons have attitudes and habits that are favourable for the formation of a group. On the other hand, if the potential members are critical and suspicious of one another, if each person wants his own way and slow to compromise, if there is a lack of cooperation, and they seek for differences that separate them rather than the things they in some organizations the unit is the family. In either case, to

have in common, then these persons have attitudes and habits that are unfavourable for the formation of a group. In many instances one is confronted with the problem of balancing favourable and unfavourable factors. When the unfavourable factors are stronger than the favourable, there will be difficulty in getting a group organized. In such a case it is important to have a purpose or interest around which the group is to be organized that is strong enough to overcome the unfavourable items.

The question has been raised from time to time as to whether or not it is possible to state a general principle that may be followed in determining when to organize a group. Such a principle may be formulated, but it may not have all of the specific details to make it merely a "rule of thumb" procedure. The basic principle is as follows : *A group may be organized at any time there are individuals who have a need or think they have a need, that cannot be satisfied individually, and there is no group already in existence to meet that need.* The last factor mentioned in this principle is to guard against useless duplication of organizations with similar purposes that are dependent upon the same persons as members. It is wise for a potential group to look about to be sure there is not one already organized that they may join which would satisfy their needs and to which they would lend strength by their joining. However, there is the question of the optimum size if certain group is as large as it can be to operate effectively. In such cases it is probably wise to form a new group.

The stimulation for the formation of a group may begin in a mass meeting of persons who become conscious of the need for some kind of organization. The purpose may not be clear in the beginning, which may necessitate some meetings before they can see clearly what the objective should be. The initial stimulus may come from persons who later will be the members, or it may come from some outside person who is promoting local organizations around some programme. The direct stimulation depends upon the stated purpose or purposes of the potential group. As sentiment is aroused, a drive or campaign may be launched to enlist new members. This campaign may be a rapid or a slow process, depending largely upon the nature of the organization and whether or not it is being promoted by some outside person. At this stage certain preliminary problems need to be solved, such as the purpose of the proposed organization, what explanation of the purpose and ways of accom-

plishing it can be made to potential members, the number and types of members, the methods of becoming a member, the approximate financial programme and its relationship to other groups. If the new organization is to be affiliated with an already established national, state, or district organization, help, suggestions, and plan of organization, may be obtained from the headquarters of the parent group.

### LEADERSHIP AND LEADERS

**Leadership** is defined (by Hepple) as the role and status of one or more individuals in the structure and functioning of group organizations which enable these groups to meet a need or purpose, that can be achieved only through the co-operation of the members of the group.

According to Hoffer and Gibson "leadership is that unique relationship which exists in a group when the process of mutual stimulation makes it possible for one person to influence others in the pursuit of a common cause."

Rogers and Olmsted<sup>1</sup> define leadership as "an activity in which effort is made to influence people to co-operate in achieving a goal viewed by the group as desirable. Leadership may also be defined as a set of functions. This definition is in contrast to the traditional definitions of leadership as the exertion of power and authority given by virtue of occupancy of a given position or the possession of a particular set of personality traits. In brief, the leader, in the sense in which we shall use the word, is a person who effectively influences a group to co-operate in setting and achieving goals."

In other words, leadership is a social process which initiates action for and with followers. It is a necessary function or mechanism of social groups.

#### Classification of leadership (Types of Leaders)

There are several classifications of leaders, depending on the chief interest in the study of leadership. For example, the leaders may be classified in terms of the types of groups they work with, such as *political, military, business, religious* and *recreational* etc.

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1. Rogers, F, E, and Olmsted, Ann G., "Supervision in the Co-operative Extension Service", op. cit.

Whyte has classified them into 4 categories :

(1) *Operational leaders* : those persons who actually initiate action within the group, regardless of whether or not they hold an elected office.

(2) *Popularity leadership* : means the popular person was elected to a position of leadership because he was well liked by the members. Such an individual may or may not be the actual leader of the group. If such persons who hold elective positions do very little about initiating action for the group, and are mere figureheads or *ornamental leaders* they are called *nominal leaders*.

(3) *Assumed representative type* : refers to a person selected to work with a committee or other leaders because the latter have assumed that he represents another group they desire to work with; he may or may not be a leader of the group.

(4) *Prominent talent* : e. g., artists and musicians who have exhibited an outstanding ability and accomplishment in their respective fields. It may include the experts and intellectual leaders.

Another classification divides them into :

*Professional and Lay leaders* : The Professional leader is one who has received specific *specialised training* in the field in which he works *full-time* as an occupation, and is *paid* for his work. (e.g., Extension Officer, *Gram Sevak*). The lay leader may or may not have received special training, is not paid for his work, and generally works part-time with local group organizations, e. g., *Gram Sahayak* Youth Club President. Lay leaders are also called *volunteer leaders*, or *local leaders* or *natural leaders*. These local leaders may be either *formal leaders* or *in-formal leaders*, depending on whether they are regular office-bearers of organised groups or not.

Perhaps the most significant classification from the viewpoint of modern research as well as practical application of the results of research, is the one designating them into the following three types: (i) Authoritarian or autocratic leader (ii) Democratic leader (iii) Laissezfaire leader.

(i) *Autocratic Leader* : operates as if he cannot trust people. He thinks his subordinates are never doing what they should do: that the employee is paid to work and, therefore, must work. If he is a

benevolent autocrat he may tend to view employees as children and encourage them to come to him with all their problems, no matter what the nature or the magnitude of the problem.

The results of this kind of leadership have been given in chapter IV under "Human Relations in Extension Supervision."

(ii) *Democratic Leaders* : shares with the group members decision-making and the planning of activities. The participation of all is encouraged. He works to develop a feeling of responsibility on the part of every member of the group. He attempts to understand the position and feelings of the employee. If he criticizes, he does so in terms of results expected, rather than on the basis of personalities.

The results of this kind of leadership have been given in chapter IV under "Human Relations in Extension Supervision".

(iii) *Laissez-faire Leader* : believes that if you leave workers alone the work will be done. He seems to have no confidence in himself. If at all possible he puts off decision making. He tends to withdraw from the work group. He is often a rationalizer. The results of his leadership are :

1. Low morale and low productivity within the work group.
2. Employees are restless and lack the incentive for team work.
3. Employees come to regard security as the greatest incentive.
4. Another leader, often an informal leader arises.
5. Problems of administration, supervision, and co-ordination are multiplied. (symptoms of anarchy)

**Note** : The above particulars about the autocratic, democratic and *Laissez-faire* leaders hold good for both professional and lay leaders.

#### Roles of leadership <sup>1</sup>

1. **Group Spokesman** : The leader has responsibility of speaking for the group and representing the group's interests and position faithfully and accurately. This means that he is fully aware of the group's consensus of opinion and how it may or may not

1. Hepple L.M., Group Organization and Leadership in Rural "Life", op. cit.

coincide with his individual thinking. Whenever a leader is uncertain regarding the freedom he has as the group spokesman, he can ask the group to define more precisely what responsibility and privilege they are delegating to him.

**2. Group Harmonizer :** All social groups usually have both uniformities and differences of opinion (diversity of interests, misunderstandings etc). To maintain harmony within a group, emphasis must be placed upon the uniformities among the members rather than upon individual differences. The leader is responsible for pointing out to the group, when potential conflict situations arise, that the common purpose is sufficiently worthy of co-operation that the differences be resolved peacefully. But it should be remembered that the role of the group harmonizer is to promote harmony in line with the basic purpose of the group, not to promote harmony simply for harmony's sake. The leader should have courage of conviction so that if he cannot conscientiously work with the group in view of the conflict between his convictions and the group's objectives, then he should resign and let the members select another leader.

**3. Group Planner :** Generally persons are chosen for leadership positions because it is assumed that they know a little more about the problems confronting the group and their possible solutions than do the other members of the group. The authority of the leader rests upon his mastery of the field in which he is working. The group expects its leader to have new ideas for initiating activities. To meet this expectation, the leader must be able to plan, to visualize in his imagination the ways by which the group can satisfy its needs. Effective planning is closely related to the social insight one has into the structure and functioning of the group.

This leadership role does not require that the leader should do all the planning, nor that he should plan *for* the group. When the leader makes all the plans and announces to the group what they are, the group's reaction is that this is the leader's plan, so let him be responsible for its success. On the other hand if the members have helped in making the plans, then they will consider them "our" plans and the group will see that they are carried out. While the leader may spend much time studying possible projects and procedures which may be presented to the group, he actually plans

It is likely that the interview will remain a part of the method of selection even though other things may be added. The chief difficulty with the interview is that one can observe and evaluate the applicant only as he answers questions during a brief period.

In industry and management there has been an attempt to supplement the interview by subjecting applicants to a *battery of tests*. These tests may measure ability, aptitudes, attitudes and interests. Some of the tests are designed to measure one's ability to solve problems within the field of work in which he wants to be employed. Tests of this type will measure both academic training and practical experience. The use of a battery of tests along with interview provides a better basis for selection than using the interview alone.

*Performance Tests* have been used in certain situations as part of the basis for selection of professional leaders. One type of these is the "Leaderless Group Tests" in which seven or eight persons are given a common task to perform and it is left up to the persons involved to select their own leader. Observations are made during the tests to determine which persons have become the leaders. Another type of test is to appoint an individual as a leader and then observe how well he directs the activities of the members of his group. The big advantage of these performance tests is that one can observe the potential leader in a real life situation in which he is functioning as the leader of a group.

#### (B) Selection of Lay Leaders :

1. *Sociometry*: This is concerned primarily with obtaining choices in interpersonal relations, such as with whom one would like to work, play, etc., or to whom one would go for advice on farming or other problems. It attempts to describe social phenomena in quantitative terms. It may be used in selecting both professional and lay leaders, but a greater use of it is made in the latter case.

It is necessary that the persons involved in a sociometric test know one another. It is also to be emphasised that the grouping of individuals upon the basis of sociometric tests is in terms of choices relative to specific situations. The tests are not designed to measure a vague factor called popularity. In a sense, the persons chosen by several others are popular, but it is popularity or acceptance in terms of specific activities. Sociograms for the same individuals will manifest differences when the choices are in relation to different activities.

This method is very useful to the Extension Worker in finding out the "natural" or "local" or "informal" leaders in the villages, who are the influential persons that help in the introduction and popularisation of new improved practices in their communities or neighbourhoods. An extension worker goes into a given area and asks the farmers to indicate whom they ordinarily consult for advice on farming (or any particular aspect of farming in which the extension worker wants to introduce some improvement). Usually after a few interviews, it becomes apparent which farmer is the influential person or 'natural' leader. Figure 20 (sociogram) illustrates this type of test.

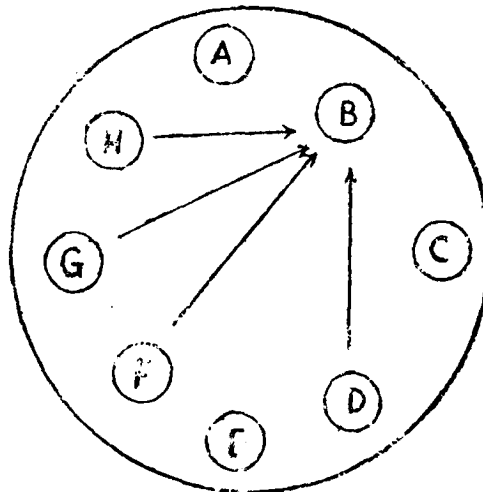


FIGURE 21- SOCIOGRAM.

When 'H' is interviewed, he may indicate that generally goes to 'B' for advice on farming. 'G', 'F' and 'D' may also say that 'B' is the one whose advice they take on farming. Then 'B' is operational or potential, "natural" leader for these people and therefore if the extension worker succeeds in inducing 'B' to take up certain new practice, it is quite likely that others will be influenced by his behaviour. It should be remembered that 'B' is the 'natural' leader or the one who initiates action for the others. 'B' may or may not hold an office or leadership position in organizations in this area. He may not even think of himself as a leader and may insist that he is not a leader. However, so far as these farmers are concerned, 'B' is the operational leader in relation to farming practices.

2. *Election*: Another method widely used in selecting leaders, consists simply of the members of the group electing a leader.

The extension worker can guide or assist the local people in electing the right people for the right job by explaining to the group the functions of leaders in relation to particular problems, and outlining the qualifications of a good leader for the given purpose. It has been found that this election method can also be used for selecting persons to receive leadership training. For example, a group be asked to indicate what members of the group they think would be good leaders and what persons they would be willing to follow after the individuals had received specialised training. It is better for the extension worker to accept the chosen leaders of a group than to try to impose others by any pressure.

Kelsey and Hearne<sup>1</sup> have suggested the following steps in guiding the local groups to find suitable leaders.

*Steps in Discovering Leaders :*

- i. What is the job to be done ?
- ii. What characteristics and skills does this job require ?
- iii. Where is the person with these qualifications ?
- iv. What group will support or follow this person ?
- v. Of the qualities he has-
  - a) which of them may be improved by training ?
  - b) which may not be changed materially ?
- vi. Of the qualities he lacks-
  - a) which may be developed by experience and training?
  - b) which may he never hope to have ?
- vii. On what basis shall a qualified person be induced to serve ?

Unless we proceed in an orderly manner from one step to another we shall not know where to look for trouble if our procedure falls. If we are not clear about what needs to be done, how can we explain or show a group what knowledge and skills are needed ? When we know what qualifications are needed it is easier for the group to find a leader.

Singh<sup>2</sup> says the following methods also have been tried and proved to be workable in locating local leaders.

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1. Kelsey, L.D. and Hearne C. C., 'Co-operative Extension Work', op. cit
  2. Singh, S. N. 'Leaders and Group Methods in Education ', Extension Education in Community Development. op. cit.

3. *The Discussion Method* : Through discussions (on any subject) the person with sound knowledge and ability is soon recognised and a mere talker easily spotted. Discussion gives encouragement and assurance to the potential leader to express himself, and over a period of time may make him more confident in accepting some position of leadership, and emerge as a valuable leader.

4. *The Workshop Method* : Through this method, where the large group breaks up into smaller groups and the responsibility of the programme and decision-making rests upon the smaller unit, leadership emerges, in each group. Over a period of time, the extension worker can spot certain leaders who come to the fore in taking responsibilities. The extension worker or professional leader in the workshop has the position of consultant observer, discussion group leader etc.

5. *The "Group Observer"*: The extension worker should watch a community or group in action and then he will be able to spot potential leaders. He may observe the community in any type of situation. For obtaining the best results, the group should not be aware of this.

Rogers<sup>1</sup> who designates these local leaders as "opinion leaders" mentions the following two methods that have been used to locate these leaders in mass public.

6. *Key Informants* : In a community may be asked to indicate opinion leaders in that area. This is cost-saving and time saving when compared to the sociometric method.

7. *The Self-designating Technique* : consists of asking a respondent a series of questions to determine the degree to which he perceives himself to be an opinion leader.)

## II. Training of leaders

The very idea of training leaders implies that we assume leadership as something that can be taught and learned. This incidentally brings us to the *two general theories of the origin of leaders*, which we shall touch upon briefly.

1. *The Biological Theory* : assumes that certain persons are born to be leaders and that these persons will be leaders, regardless

1. Rogers, E.M., "Opinion Leaders in the Communication of Agricultural Technology." Paper presented at American Sociological Society meetings (1958) Seattle, Washington.

of the circumstances in which they find themselves. According to this theory great leaders have children who also become great leader. While it is true that some families have contributed several leaders over a period of generations, it does not always follow that all their children are leaders.

2. *Social-Psychological Theory*: This theory emphasises that it is the situation and not the person alone which makes him a leader. Circumstances along with training do affect one's chances of being recognised, as a leader. The leader is a product of his own times. His background, experiences and education, plus the situation in which he finds himself, make him a leader.

Each of these two theories embodies part of the truth but not the whole truth. There cannot be an "either-or" choice between these two theories. One cannot altogether ignore biological heredity because it seems absurd to presume that any type of training can make a leader out of an individual if he has quite limited inherent capacities. At the same time it is unreasonable to reject entirely the social-psychological theory. It can safely be assumed that persons with average ability and normal characteristics as a result of biological heredity can be trained to play successfully certain roles of leadership. It must also be recognised, however, that heredity and training of potential leader are both subject to the circumstances in which this individual finds himself. Careful selection of persons to receive specialised training for leadership is a pre-requisite for a successful training programme. It is not enough to select potential leaders for training, merely on the basis of ability they need to exhibit a genuine interest in leadership and be motivated to work with people.

#### **(A) Training of Professional Leaders**

1. *Background Courses in College or other Institutions*: Besides a general college education a student preparing for professional leadership should take additional courses in psychology and sociology, because he needs a broad background of the social science approach to his work.

2. *Induction Training*: Apprenticeship experience under the direction of a trained and experienced leader in the field will enable the new professional leader to develop his abilities for successful leadership.

3. *In-service Training* : After leaders have received their back ground and apprenticeship training and have worked for a period of time as leaders, a small number of them at a time may be brought together periodically for constantly improving their efficiency by focusing attention upon the problems they have faced in the field and the ways they have solved them. Such training programmes (or brief refresher courses) will, among other things, facilitate exchange of information which is highly beneficial to leaders working within the same field of work. In-service training has become increasingly important in view of the fast changing technology in agriculture in recent times.

**(B) Training of Local (Lay) Leaders**

*Need for Training* : The fact that certain individuals have been selected (according to one or more of the methods detailed above) as potential local leaders or natural (informal) leaders may merely mean that these are the persons who are silently trusted and followed by other people in the locality. They may lack some of the essential attributes of leadership and may not be up-to-date in their knowledge and experience. Therefore, to make the best use of them as leaders in extension work, they need to be given adequate training to improve their calibre, and develop their latent capacities for leadership.

*General Objective of Leadership Training*<sup>1</sup>

1. Mastering fundamental concepts that would serve as a framework for understanding and interpreting group behaviour, social learning, and cultural differences.
2. Learn methods of identifying and analysing problems; the ability to see problems in perspective.
3. Develop competence in group processes; co-operative thinking, exchange and analysis of ideas, facts and teaching; process of converting discussion into consensus, ability and disposition conceive group goals; respect for and understanding of others
4. Acquire technical skills necessary to carry out a job. Diagnose situations, learn how to approach problems, plan appropriate educational procedures, learn skills in handling appropriate diagnostic techniques, conduct open discussion, learn team work with other leaders, etc.

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1. Hilda Taba, "Leadership Training in Inter groups Education" American Council of Education, 1953.

*when to train and how long?* Experience with village leaders (Gram Sahayaks) training camps has shown that it is difficult to secure many of the village leaders for training over long periods of time. Hence training programmes should be timed so as to synchronise with slack seasons or periods when the local leaders will have leisure or relatively less pressing items of work. It has also been found more desirable to have training camps of short duration (3 to 5 days) followed up by frequent and systematic contacts between extension workers and local leaders.

*Where to train?* Using well-established training institutions for this purpose has been found to have some disadvantages, such as (1) the need for leaders to travel long distances and stay there, resulting in more expenditure in terms of both money and time, and (ii) the nature of training imparted by such institutions being not of local interest to the trainees. In view of these handicaps the training camps for leaders are now being held in the local environment itself, i. e., in the villages. Peripatetic teams moving out from place to place, providing training to leaders in their own home environment are becoming popular in several places.

*What is the content of Training ?*

(a) Theoretical information should always be related at every step to practical situations.

(b) The subject matter should be in the nature of problems encountered by the local leaders in their respective areas. Hence content of the training programme should be problem-centred.

The following general outline of content has been indicated in one of the United Nations Reports on training of rural leaders.:-

1. Basic principles and aims of rural development and the practical set-up needed for effective rural development work.
2. Leadership in rural society.
3. Community organization principles, methods and techniques, including methods of stimulating group thinking, group planning and group action.
4. Co-operatives; principles of co-operation and methods of organising various types of co-operative enterprises and services.
5. Local government principles and methods with particular reference to co-ordination of local bodies.

6. Central government and other external machinery services: What facilities are available and how local effort can be co-ordinated with national programme.

7. Practical activities of community life, e.g., rural education, recreation, anti-crime work elements of agriculture, public health etc.

#### How to Train ? (Methods of Leadership Training)<sup>1</sup>

It is difficult to separate out methods which apply only to formal or informal training. The methods overlap in many situations. Formal methods of leadership training are those which are structured to achieve specific goals and are usually set by someone seeking to train and develop leadership in others. Informal methods are not structured, but are those which the individual utilises in personal leadership.

(i) **Informal** : One of the first requirements in training is that the leader learns to understand and deal with people. This is accomplished through personal observation and study of materials that relate to human behaviour. Some methods used are :

1. *Observation* : Noticing how others have performed.
2. *Reading* : Studying printed material often found in the form of leader hand-books, news letters, circulars, bulletins, etc.
3. *Talking* : Speaking with other leaders in the same or related field of interest and also with members to determine consensus.

(ii) **Formal** : The individual or local leader may take advantage of formal training problems in the quest of becoming a better leader. Formal methods are either used individually or in combinations :

1. *Lecture* : This is probably the most common method. Through this method local leaders under training are given enough material for thought, but little opportunity for self-expression. The lecture method is effective in certain situations, but should usually be supplemented by other methods, depending on the objectives to be attained.
2. *Discussion and workshop* } Explained in Chapter II.
3. *Forum, Panel, Symposium* }

1. Adapted from S. N. Singh's "Leaders and Group Methods", Extension Education in Community Development; op cit.

4. *Audio-Visuals* : Role-playing, socio-drama and demonstration etc.
5. *Field Trips* : Explained in Chapter II
6. *Apprenticeship* : Here, the local leaders or the potential leaders see some one operating with a view to learning some of the activities and ways of handling problems in the field of leadership. This serves as an instrument for the local leaders to acquire a better understanding of the job.
7. *Training group (Conference)*: This brings several local leaders to the training sessions at the same time. These people reinforce each other since each of them has experiences of his own.
8. *Direct Assistance from Experts* : This may come in the form of advice.
9. *Buzz Groups* : Explained in Chapter II.
10. *Giving Responsibility to Local Leaders* : Giving everyone a job through which self-confidence may be attained by achievement in activities useful to the group is essential for development of leadership.

#### **How to use (trained) local leaders ?**

Having *Selected* potential local leaders and having *trained* them for effective leadership, the professional leader (Extension Worker) should ensure that the trained leaders are actually *used* for augmenting extension work. For this purpose there should be regular follow up by the extension worker by way of frequent contacts in person as well as by correspondence with the trained leaders. These leaders are not only to adopt improved practices in their own farms and homes, there by setting example to others, but also they should consciously try to influence others to take up such improvements. Their co-operation should be had in all phases of extension work, in planning, executing and evaluating rural development programmes.

Due recognition and publicity should be given to the activities and achievements of local leaders; but this should not be overdone to the extent of embarrassing the leaders or of inviting the envy and jealousy of others, thereby jeopardising their influence.

The contribution of these leaders to extension should be evaluated as follows with a view to make it more effective and extensive.

- a) Ascertain percentage of leaders who function and the extent of their activities.
- b) Watch for evidence of additional people being influenced by local leaders.
- c) Observe how leaders conduct meetings and other activities.
- d) Make comparisons of extension accomplishment in situations where all factors are similar except the teaching done by local leaders.<sup>1</sup>

#### **Advantages of using local leaders in extension**

1. Local leaders virtually play the role of extension teachers and hence the volume of coverage with improved practices is increased.
2. Cost of extension is reduced, as local leaders are not paid for their work.
3. Local leaders themselves become better taught, because of the experience they gain in teaching and influencing others.
4. People accept a new idea more readily from a local person who has practically tried it, while they may resist if the idea were to come from a paid extension worker.
5. The frequent association of extension personnel with the local leader enhances his prestige and personal following which in turn increases the possibility of extensive adoption of new practices. There is a more or less reciprocal cause-and-effect relationship in the prestige value of local leaders and that of Extension.

#### **Limitations of using local leaders in extension**

1. Person selected as leader may not have the expected following among neighbours, may not be willing to devote required time to work, or may be a poor teacher.
2. Considerable time is required to locate and train local leaders.
3. Local leader may try to use prestige connected with position for personal advantage.

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1. Wilson, M. C., and Gallup. G., "Extension Teaching Methods", op.cit

4. The more difficult task of arousing interest on the part of those not interested in extension is too often left to the inexperienced local leader.
5. Public recognition and publicity given to informal local leaders may sometimes jeopardise their position and adversely affect their influence among the people.

### CULTURAL FACTORS IN SOCIETY

We have already seen that the important aim of Extension is to bring about desirable changes in the behaviour of rural people. In as much as the behaviour of people is largely influenced by the cultural factors of the society in which they live, an extension worker should have a good knowledge of what culture is, and which culture traits (factors or elements of culture) are important in relation to extension work.

**What is culture?** According to Sargent *et al*,<sup>1</sup> culture may be defined as the pattern of learned behaviour shared by the members of a society. It includes not only the way of making things, and doing things but the pattern of relationships among people, the attitudes they foster, the beliefs and ideas they have, and even the feelings with which they respond. Culture is not merely customs, though customs are a part of culture. For, culture is the patterned whole of responses, the more or less consistent unity that links the many diverse elements of living into a way of life.

In other words, culture includes everything that man learns or acquires as a member of a particular society. In addition to such items as music, art and knowledge, it includes others like behaviour, customs, beliefs, attitudes, as well as material and social inventions. As Hepple,<sup>2</sup> says, culture includes all of the material and non-material traits in our environment which are man-made, or modified by man, and transmitted from one generation to another by the process of learning. Culture is not passed on intact from one generation to another without changing. It changes constantly, but the changes are slow enough that the basic features remain

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1. Sargent, S. S. and Williamson, R. C. "Social Psychology", The Ronald Press Co. New York, 1958.

2. Hepple, L. M. "Group Organization and Leadership in Rural Life" op. cit.,

constant for at least a generation and usually considerably longer. It is always related to a particular society, as each society has some distinguishing cultural characteristics which differentiate it from other societies.

According to Ralph Linton, culture may be thought of in terms of 3 different orders as follows.

- |                         |   |   |
|-------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Overt Culture</i> :  | { | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Material—products of industry such as implements, vessels, gadgets. etc-</li> <li>2. Overt behaviour—outward behaviour patterns of persons (like customs, folkways, mores)</li> </ol> |
| <i>Covert Culture</i> : |   | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Psychological—i. e., attitudes, values, beliefs etc.</li> </ol>   |

As Hopley says, 'culture' is such an inclusive term that no one knows everything about culture. Even within a culture, no one is familiar with all parts of his culture. We know only those parts of our culture in which we participate. Linton has presented an analysis of participation in culture in terms of three categories of culture traits i.e., universals, specialities, and alternatives, with a fourth category of individual peculiarities. (1) *The universals* are items such as language, dress, and housing, which are common to all adult members in a culture.. (2) *The specialities* are those parts of culture which are shared only by members of certain categories which arise as a result of division of labour in a society. For example, a carpenter is familiar with many parts of our culture that the rest of us know nothing about. The same is true with all skills and technical knowledge that are associated with specific occupations. (3) *Alternatives* are traits that are shared by some persons but not shared by all members of society. There are different techniques for achieving the same ends, as may be seen in the alternatives of using horses, bicycles, automobiles, railways and airplanes to transport individuals and goods. Hoe culture, plough culture, and mechanization are alternative ways of farming. Participation in culture may also be affected by: (4) *Individual Peculiarities* such as fears, prejudices, or capacities. The greatest amount of uniformity occurs in the participation in universals, followed by that in participation in the specialities. These two form a core of culture which is surrounded by the alternatives.

*Culture Trait* : The simplest functional unit into which culture may be divided, is called a culture trait.

**Ethos :** The term 'ethos' is used to signify those traits that are characteristic of, or peculiar to a particular culture which may be used to differentiate one culture from another. For instance, some important items in the ethos of the United States are : 1. Mechanisation and mass production (technological civilization). 2. High emphasis on financial success. 3. High standard of living. 4. Fast tempo of life. 5. Pleasure philosophy. 6. Faith in democracy. 7. Faith in free and universal education.

As against the above, some important components of the ethos of the Indian culture are: 1. Handi-crafts and cottage industries. 2. Emphasis on religion and tradition, including casteism. 3. Low standard of living. 4. Slow tempo of life, 5. Philosophy of fatalism, spirituality and ethics, with less emphasis on secularism. 6. Hospitality. 7. Love of fine arts including sculpture, painting and engraving.

**Ethnocentrism :** This term means the preferential feeling we have for the way we do things in our culture. We assume that ours is the best of all cultures, and that the way we do things is the "right" way to do them. This is common characteristic found among peoples of all cultures. We need to be aware of ethnocentrism on our part when we attempt to compare and evaluate things in other cultures.

### **Social Customs, Values, their Origin, Role and Purpose**

#### **CUSTOMS**

Customs are socially prescribed forms of behaviour, transmitted by tradition and enforced by social disapproval of its violation. In other words, the customs of a society, reflected in the social behaviour of its members, serve as models for learning and are reinforced with varying degrees of reward (for compliance) and punishment (for violation). To put it more simply, the socially accredited ways of acting are the customs of society. Unconsciously, we conform to the customs of our own society. Customs are the accepted ways in which people do things together in personal contacts.

Customs are interwoven with our social life, and are part and parcel of our society. Each groups has its own customs. About the forces of customs, Sumner says that "customs regulate the whole of man's actions-his bathing, washing, cutting his hair, eating, drinking and fasting. From his cradle to his grave he is the slave of ancient usage".

Customs are usually thought of as being well established and difficult to change. Various types of human behaviour, if they are organised or repetitive, have generally been called customs. Customs are to the group what habits are to the person and develop in the community as habits are acquired by the individual. Their ultimate origin is in the activities of individuals. The persons' habits are in large part learned from others; in part, habits are a direct copying of the behaviour patterns of those about. Persons ordinarily conform to the prevailing customs of their group without protest and without effort. There is always a tendency towards conformity in order to avoid being conspicuous and so becoming an object of ridicule and other forms of social control.

The classification of customs, and their origin are as follows:

**Folkways and Usages :** are approved forms of behaviour for specific situations. They are those habits and customs of people in particular culture which represent the usual and expected ways in which persons are to behave. Literally, they are the ways folk do things in a culture.

Folkways usually arise without prior intention, in the process of living. They are the result frequent repetitions of petty acts, often by large numbers acting in the same way when faced with the same needs. They arise from experience.

The origin of some of the customs is lost in mystery. No one wrote down the circumstances that gave rise to many of the practices; or if so, they were lost in their transmission from one generation to another. Most of the folkways represent a successful routine that was discovered or invented for doing something and then was copied by others who desired to achieve similar results. For example, if in a culture where fish are an important item of food most of the tribe are not successful in making a catch, but one man has unusually good luck, the others are eager to find out what he did and how he did it. If his techniques work for the others, they will continue that pattern. In time this becomes the usual pattern of fishing and is a part of the folkways of that tribe.

Some times folkways are based upon false inferences; that is, persons may assume a causal relationship between two things where none really exists. For example, a person may be walking down the street when a black cat crosses his path, and later he has an accident. The person explaining the accident may make the false inference that black cat crossing the path was the cause of the

accident and that therefore, one must avoid black cats crossing one's path in the future unless he wants to take the chance of misfortune. Folkways of this type and the beliefs and attitudes associated with them are generally termed superstitions. Greeting others with folded hands, or shaking hands, or saying "hello" when answering the phone, are examples of folkways, going under the name of good manners or etiquette.

Some folkways are universal in a society (e.g., greeting with a "Namaste" in Indian Society), while others may be limited to certain regions or occupational or religious group (e.g. embracing when meeting friends). Since non-observance of folkways is not a vital matter, social sanctions are relatively mild. Violations of folkways are not punished severely; they are met rather with a lifted eyebrow, expressions of moderate surprise, or a disapproving nod or smile.

**2. Conventions :** are customs regulating more significant social behaviour; e. g., being polite to others, wearing clothes in public, attending to one's bodily functions in private (these are common to all civilised cultures). Some conventions of the Western countries are: dating or courtship and engagement practices, or using knife, fork and spoon rather than one's fingers in eating. Parents generally do not care to leave such learning to chance; they instruct their children in her conventions (though often they cannot explain why the child must conform). Conventions are violated less often than folkways or usages, and the sanctions are more severe; ridicule, "shock", strong disapproval, and gossip for example.

**3. Mores and Tabocs :** The difference between folkways and mores is largely a matter of the degree to which they are enforced. Folkways may be broken without the individual's being seriously reprimanded, but to break one of the mores is likely to result in a considerable degree of social pressure and punishment. The category of folkways is more inclusive than that of the mores. The mores may be defined as those folkways or customs which are held to be essential to ethical or moral values of people. The mores are those things which persons ought or ought not to do. Generally, the term 'mores' is used for the positive action—things that ought to be done—and the term 'taboo' is used for the negative action, things that one ought not to do. The word 'taboo' in a strict sense refers to prohibitions of types of behaviour because of some magical, supernatural, or religious sanction. Saluting the flag, standing during the playing of the national anthem, monogamy, and the policy of

"women and children first" in the event of some crisis are examples of the mores. Monogamy, the practice of having one wife or husband at a time, not only is a part of the mores in Hindu Society but is also a part of the laws. Examples of this type have led some persons to assume that mores and laws are synonymous. It is true that some types of behaviour are regulated in the same fashion by both the mores and the laws. However, not all of the laws are the crystalization of the mores. In fact, some laws have been passed which the mores do not back, and in such cases it has been virtually impossible to enforce the law. On the other hand, laws may be passed at one time because the mores favoured them, but at a later time may not be enforced, although they are still a part of the statutes, because people no longer consider such regulations essential to their welfare.

The mores because of their relationship to the ethical and moral values of people, are slower to change than the folkways. Some mores have remained unchanged for centuries in our culture, while others have shown a slow rate of change. The changing character of some of the mores explains why a type of behaviour, such as slavery in U.S.A. or untouchability in India may be considered right at one time in the history of a people and wrong at another time. So many different factors and situations enter the picture either to strengthen or weaken the mores that it is quite difficult, if not impossible, to predict what changes may take place in the mores of a culture over a given period of time. Since the mores are the customs held to be essential to the welfare of the people, they will remain stable, or change in relation to the stability or change of values.

**4. Ritual :** Along with the folkways, mores and taboos to be found in a culture, one will also find certain practices and ceremonies that may be thought of as ritual. Many of the ritualistic rites in primitive cultures are a part of the religion or magic of that group. In India there are rituals that are identified with religious groups, colleges and universities, the Government, etc. A ritual may be defined as a pattern of behaviour or ceremony which has become the customary way of dealing with certain situations, or is the pattern that has been established by law, as in the case of Governmental affairs or is a part of the rules of a particular organization.

#### **Social Classes (or Stratification)**

Closely intertwined with social customs is the social class membership which has far-reaching effects on the individual's attitude-

and behaviour. The claim made by some for a "Classless Society" is utopian. It is questionable whether any society past, present, or future can ever be organised without having stratification. The very nature of organization itself involves a division of labour, and where there are different roles there will be different statuses. Even the most simply organized group has leaders and followers; and leadership and followership mean different roles and different statuses. The choice is not between a society that is stratified and one that is not, because every society is stratified. The choice is in relation to what type of stratification is desirable.

*Classvs. Caste* : A social class may be defined as an unorganized group of people who become members by birth or by later entry into the group, who treat each other as approximate equals, who associate with each other more intimately than with other persons, and who have approximately the same relationship of superordination or subordination to persons from other groups within the society.

*Castes* are social classes whose membership is determined solely by birth and between which there is no vertical social mobility. In other words caste is a closed class system, with clearly demarcated status and role for its members. One is born into a caste, lives and dies in it; he marries in his caste and has the benefits and handicaps of status determined by the fact of his birth. False ideas of biological superiority and inferiority are associated with caste, because it is assumed that one's superior or inferior position is entirely the result of being born in a particular caste. A mere social "class" on the other hand is "open" in the sense that one can escape from a class or fall into it or climb into it by acquiring attributes comparable to those of the members already in it. In this "open" class system there is social mobility both up and down the ladder, depending on the socio-economic status. For example, in a class system of upper, middle and low classes, a member in the low class can move up to the middle or upper classes and vice versa. Thus, an open class system is democratic, while a closed class (or caste) system is not.

### **SOCIAL VALUES OR VALUE SYSTEMS**

As already repeated several times, the function of extension is to bring about desirable changes in the behaviour of people. The overt behaviour or action of people is generally based on their attitude. Unlike actions, attitudes cannot be seen; they are only inferred by way of tendency to act or react positively or negatively to

some stimuli. These tendencies or attitudes in turn are based upon individual's values. Values have been defined (by S. C. Dodd) as "desiderata, i.e., any thing desired or chosen by someone some time". In a broad sense, we may think of values as attitude-related attributes that are projected upon people, objects, and situations. In other words, values can be thought of as the relative worth, importance or preference we give to any object, idea or content of experience relating to material, symbolic or supernatural aspects of life, because we attribute to them the capacity to satisfy a human desire. Thus they may be viewed as kinds of motives, since they represent orientation or striving toward a given goal.

#### **Role of value Systems in Extension<sup>1</sup>**

Peoples pay attention to matters that are of interest to them. These matters of interest vary in the importance or worth ascribed to them by the people. Thus, in a society, there is built up a system of hierarchy or a priority rating of various items considered of less or more importance. In other words, society places different values on various items which form part of village life and these differing values go together to form the value system. This value system forms the basis for decision and choice-making in society. When a villager decides to spend money on his daughter's marriage rather than on a new roof for his house, he clearly identifies where these two matters lie in relation to each other in his value system. There are, therefore, individual or personal values, and social values. Many social problems arise out of a clash of values where one group attaches high values to certain things which are not recognised as being important by another group.

It is necessary that the extension worker understands this as the basis of many conflicts among the people with whom he works, attainment and achievement in terms of accepted values gives prestige to individuals and groups in a society. People will, therefore, be more amenable, if not sometimes eager to accept changes that will result in achievement in terms of values and, consequently, in greater prestige. An analysis of factors that make for prestige in a village embody the major values accepted by the village society. Some examples of these factors are: 1. Caste of the individual. 2. Term of residence. 3. Age. 4. Possession of land and type of tenure. 5. Wealth and economic position. 6. Hard work and

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1. Chitambar, J. B., "Social, economic and Cultural Factors in Extension Education", *Extension Education in Community Development* op. cit

physical stamina. 7. Personal characteristics-truthfulness, honesty, reliability.

These factors have obvious implications in the introduction of improved practices. Thus, the extension worker should seek to establish rapport with the village elders, get their general approval and show them due respect rather than give them the impression of being bypassed in his programme of village development. He should appeal to the farmer's love for his land in promoting soil conservation practices or practices aimed at enhancing its fertility. He should realise that consistent demonstration of hard work, honesty and reliability on his part would go far in winning confidence and rapport since such qualities have high values in the village. Unless he carefully studies the value system, he will not be able to effectively plan his programme of introduction of desired changes. Knowledge of the values held by village people will enable him to choose the types of changes most likely to be accepted and to avoid those which, perhaps if introduced at the outset, would jeopardize the entire programme. He will obtain the maximum participation of the village people since he will be working in their interest recognising what they consider desirable and important, and planning his approach accordingly.

#### **Purpose and Role of Cultural Factors**

##### **Purpose :**

We have considered till now social customs and values as important parts of culture. The term "social norm" was introduced by Sheriff to cover the accepted rules, customs, attitudes, values and other standards of social behaviour found in every established social group. What purpose do they serve in society? These norms provide anchorage points or "frames of reference" which guide the feelings, judgements, and actions of the members of any society. In other words, they serve the purpose of social control. In the broad sense, social control is all of the processes that society or a group may use to influence individuals or groups so that their behaviour will conform to the norms or expectations of that society or group. Stability of society and social order cannot exist without effective social control. When we learn the customs, folkways and mores of a group of people, we can predict what they will do in those situations which are regulated by customs. Without such *predictability* or expectation of what the others would do in a given situation, the result would be only chaos in society.

**Role in Extension :**

We have stated earlier that the culture of people in society is not static but dynamic. It is continually changing because of internal as well as external forces or stimuli. Community Development (and extension work) is one of the major forces (perhaps the strongest to-day) in bringing about change in the culture of rural people in India. It is important that the extension worker clearly recognises this fact, as it is one of the areas in which clear understanding appears to be greatly lacking. Community Development is a planned programme for the promotion of cultural change among the rural people towards desired goals. Change will occur whether or not the Community Development Programme operates. It is the direction and tempo of change within society that the Community Development Programme seeks to influence significantly.

The scientific understanding of the culture of the people among whom the extension worker operates is basic to the effective performance of this function. This is particularly significant in a country such as India where the Community Development Programme covers a wide diversity of cultures.

For instance in his work among village people, the extension worker faces the caste structure and the creed composition of the village. These have direct bearing on the type and nature of changes that can successfully be introduced, the priority of their being introduced and the strategy to be adopted in their introduction. It (is at this point topics and targets fixed without reference to the area) within which they are to be applied, become meaningless. Here again, the extension worker asks himself the recurring question : What is there in this aspect of the social structure that will further my programme and what will stand in my way? An analysis of the situation in terms of the creed and caste structure should immediately present guide-posts for action. Some of these guide-posts will be obvious, but others only evident on careful analysis. Thus, to promote improved pig-raising for increased income in a predominantly Muslim village would be obviously the wrong initial approach as would also be attempts to introduce improved poultry-keeping among Brahmins in the village. A study of the caste structure will reveal that certain types of improvements can best be made at the outset among certain castes and creeds from whence they may spread to other parts of the village population.

Religious festivals and *melas* form an important part of village life. In addition to being important as religious functions, such

occasions have a definite function of providing opportunity for people to get together on an informal basis. The extension worker can look upon these festivals and *melas* as potentially useful in furthering the programme of Community Development. Promotion of carefully selected improved practices may be organized through demonstrations, exhibits and by using other teaching aids at the *melas*. It is essential to understand the meaning and purpose of the *melas* since this will help the extension worker select the type of improved practices to be promoted at the *melas*.

It has been rightly stated that greater success may be anticipated when a new improved practice is introduced in the familiar terms of something that is already present in the culture than when this is not done. Thus, the introduction of an improved plough with a ploughshare that can be sharpened by the village blacksmith will be more readily accepted than an improved plough that calls for a new ploughshare when the old one becomes blunt. There is more than economics and convenience involved in the farmer's preference for the former implement. The human relationship between the farmer and the blacksmith is also involved. For a farmer to get his implements sharpened by the blacksmith is an accepted pattern of behaviour in the village. It is also an occasion for the farmer to participate in social intercourse with the blacksmith and others that form an important informal group at the blacksmith's forge. The introduction of an improved plough that maintains this social intercourse-cum-service will be more readily accepted than the one that tends to break it. While this is true, entirely new improved practices for which there are no preexisting equivalents in the culture, are more apt to be accepted than improved practices which conflict with those already present in the culture. For example, other things being equal, the introduction of a water pump will be more readily accepted in an area where raising of water from lower to higher levels is unknown than in the area in which water lifting practices already exist and come into conflict with the introduction of the improved pump.

The extension worker must realise that improved practices, if they are to be accepted, must result in rewards for the people and must be perceived by them as rewards. This means that the extension worker must clearly understand what constitutes a reward among the people with whom he works and what acts or deeds are performed by them when they wish to give recognition and praise to others. The definition of what constitutes a reward by the people

among whom the programme is carried out is of great importance, for if the acceptance of changes desired by the programme make their acceptor liable to threat or punishment by society, these changes will be resisted. If the improved practice promoted does not in some way give an acceptable reward or prestige, there will be little or no incentive on the part of the people to adopt it.

Change is more likely to occur in those aspects of culture where there is lack of adjustment or stress, conscious or un-conscious, than in those aspects which are established and fixed. Lack of adjustment, and stress in a society may result from its disorganisation due to war, pestilence, floods or such other calamities which result in the uprooting of the society, and its possible migration and re-establishment in other areas. At such times the field is ripe for the promotion of change. For example, when villages are wiped out by floods or fire and have to be relocated in other areas, the extension worker can take advantage of this opportunity to introduce improved practices with greater success than is otherwise possible. Several model villages and model settlements have been established with little resistance on the part of people under such conditions. The point is not that such calamities are desirable, but when they happen, full advantage can be taken of them for community Development.

Changes in technology are usually more readily accepted than changes in other aspects of culture. It is thus usually easier to persuade a farmer to adopt the practice of sowing improved seed than to have him change his beliefs and convictions with regard to acceptance of an occupation of another caste. While it is true that programmes of development are influenced by the existing social structure and the cultural pattern, it must be recognised that this influence works in both directions. For, social structure and cultural patterns are in turn continuously subject to considerable influence by successful programmes of development.

For his successful functioning in the village, an extension worker must be sensitive to the influences that make people behave and act in varying ways. With a sensitive finger on the pulse of the village and a clear understanding of his role and the job at hand, he will be able to effectively plan the strategy of his action with greater confidence and ultimate success.

As recent instances of the influence of cultural factors in the spread of certain improved agricultural practices, we have some of the high yielding varieties of wheat and rice which could not make

headway either because the colour of the wheat was not liked by the buyers, or the cooking quality of rice (as in the case of Taichung varieties) was not relished by the consumers. When the extension workers brought this to the notice of the researchers, the latter have taken steps to evolve new varieties which do not have these drawbacks. This is a good example of how cultural factors influence both extension and research.

### ADOPTION AND DIFFUSION OF FARM INFORMATION<sup>1</sup> (HOW FARM PEOPLE GET AND ACCEPT NEW IDEAS)

One of the most important function of Extension is to bridge gulf between research centres and the farmers in the matter of introduction of improved methods of agriculture. In other words successful communication is the main job of an extension worker. We have already considered the term *communication* and its elements in Chapter II. An extension worker's job does not end with merely informing the farmers about improved practices. He should ensure practical application (by the farmers) of the result of research and field trials. His efficiency can be measured (a) by the speed or quickness with which the gulf between what is known and what is done by the farmers is bridged (b) by the number of new practices adopted; and (c) also by the number of farmers and communities that adopt the new practices. ✓

In the discharge of this important function, the extension workers are often faced with some of the following questions :

1. There is a lag between what is known and what is done by most farmers. Why?
2. Where do most farmers get their new ideas?
3. In some villages, people seem to accept new ideas quickly and in others, nearly all the people are slow to take to new things. Why?
4. Some farmers accept new ideas and put them into practice faster than others. Why?
5. Some new ideas and practices are accepted quickly and with little apparent efforts, while others are accepted only after years of effort put forth by extension agencies. Why?

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1. References : a. Lionberger, Herbert, F. "Adoption of New Ideas and Practices", The Iowa state University Press, Ames, Iowa, 1960.  
b. Rogers, E. M., "Diffusions of Innovations", The Free Press, New York, 1962  
c. Singh, K. N., Rao, C. S. S., and Sahay, B. N., (eds) "Research in Extension Education" (part IV), Indian Society of Extension Education, New Delhi, 1970.

The above questions have been focus of considerable research in recent years by behavioural scientists in several countries including India. Answers to these questions may be found if the extension workers understand the process by which farmers accept new ideas, as described below.

### The Adoption & Diffusion Processes

(Answer to question No.1 above)

(The acceptance of a new idea is not a unit act but a complex process involving a sequence of thoughts and actions.) Usually decisions are made after multiple contacts with various communication channels. These contacts are made over a period of time.

According to Rogers, "adoption process is the mental process through which an individual passes from hearing about an innovation to final adoption", whereas "diffusion process is the spread of a new idea from its source of invention or creation to its ultimate users or adopters." These definitions indicate that diffusion is a process related to adoption of an innovation in an entire social system such as a village or block etc., while adoption is a sequence of thoughts and actions which an individual goes through, before he finally adopts a new idea.)

(The adoption behaviour of an individual farmer has been conceptualized by researchers as a process composed of a number of successive stages. The five-stage model of adoption process which is more commonly accepted than other models, is described below.

**1. Awareness :** At this stage an individual becomes aware of some new idea such as hybrid maize seed or new pesticide. He knows about the existence of the idea, but he lacks details about it. For instance, he may know only the name and may not know what the idea or product is, what it will do or how it will work.

**2. Interest :** At the interest stage a person wants more information about the idea or product. He wants to know what it is how it works and what its potentialities are. He may say to himself that this might help him increase his income, or help him control insects or diseases or improve farming or home life in some other way.

**3. Evaluations :** At this stage, the individual makes a mental trial of new idea or practice. He applies the information obtained in the previous stages to his own situation. He asks himself : "Can I do it? and if I do it, will it be better than what I am doing now will it increase my income; or otherwise bring me satisfaction?".

4. **Trial** : If he decides that the idea has possibilities for him he will try it. The trial stage is characterised by small-scale experimental use, and by the need for specific information which deals with: "How do I do it; how much do I use; when do I do it; how can I make it work best for me?". Apparently individuals need to test a new idea even though they have thought about it for a long time and gathered information concerning it.

5. **Adoption** : This final stage in the process is characterised by large-scale, continued use of the idea, and most of all, by satisfaction with the idea.)

**Note** : (i) These five stages are not necessarily a rigid pattern which people follow, nor a set of exclusive and discrete categories with no overlap. Rather, they represent five sequences that can be clearly identified very frequently by both researchers and farmers. These stages are influenced by cultural differences and social factors as well as by the kind of practice, place and person. At any stage the recommendation can be thrown off. There can be jumping from one stage to another. If the farmers have confidence in the extension worker, and his recommendations, they may jump from "evaluation" to "adoption" stage.

(ii) Further it should be remembered that there is no complete agreement as to the number of stages in the adoption process, although there is general consensus on the existence of stages and that adoption is seldom an impulse decision. For instance, Singh and Pareek<sup>1</sup> have developed a seven stage model of the adoption process - - need, awareness, interest, deliberation trial, evaluation, and adoption. (See Table 8 for details)

(iii) Rogers and Shoemaker<sup>2</sup> have used the term "Innovation-decision process" in preference to "adoption process" and have conceptualised the following four stages (or functions) :

1. **Knowledge**: The individual is exposed to the innovation's existence and gains some understanding of how it functions.

2. **Persuasion**: The individual forms a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the innovation.

3. **Decision**: The individual engages in activities which lead to a choice to adopt or reject the innovation.

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1. Singh, Y.P., and Pareek, U., "A Paradigm of Sequential adoption" *Ind. Educational Review*, Vol, 3 No, 1 (1960),
  2. Rogers, E.M., with Shoemaker, F. F., "Communication of Innovations", The Free Press, New York, 1971.

4. *Confirmation:* The individual seeks reinforcement for the innovation-decision he has made, but he may reverse his previous decision if exposed to conflicting messages about the innovation.)

#### Sources of Information (Communication Media)

(Answer to Question No. 2 above)

(An integral part of the adoption process is the communication of information at these various stages.) The research indicates that people use different sources of information at the various stages in this process. (The communication channels are classified as follows :

1. Mass media—News papers, Radio, Magazines etc.
2. Government agencies—Extension workers etc.
3. Neighbours and friends.
4. Salesmen and commercial dealers.

In considering information sources used at each stage in the adoption process, it is necessary to recognise that they represent only one type of many influences operating in changes considered and made by individuals. The reasons for change are many and complex. Some relate to the individual himself, some are social and cultural, and some are situational factors. Information sources most used at any given stage do vary with persons, local conditions, and practices.

All the same research findings are sufficient to warrant the tentative placement of the information sources in a rank order of frequency of use by stages. Such a tentative classification is presented in Table 7. This ranking is based on aggregate data of several studies conducted in U. S. A. For any single practice, place or person the rank of the sources of the information may differ from this.

It may be inferred from Table 7 that when people are making a decision to adopt an idea, they apparently rely on sources which they consider to be objective. Neighbours and friends, and government agencies evidently rank high as valid sources of information. Farmers seem to suspect mass media, and salesmen and dealers, of pushing an idea mainly for the purpose of selling a product.

Table 8 gives the details of the seven-stage-adoption model and the relative importance of different information sources or media, based on a number of studies in India.

TABLE 7. Rank order of Information Sources (in U. S. A.)

(By stages in the adoption process)

Awareness	Interest	Evaluation	Trial	Adoption
Knows about it; lacks details.	Develops interest, gathers general information and facts.	Mental trial, application to personal situation. Can I do it?	Small-scale experimental use: How to do it?	Large-scale, continued use; satisfaction.
1. *Mass media. (Radio, news-papers magazines)	1. *Mass media	1. Neighbours, friends.	1. Neighbours, friends.	1. *Neighbours friends.
2. Neighbours, friends.	2. Neighbours, friends.	2. Govt. agencies.	2. Govt agencies.	2. Govt. agencies.
3. Govt. agencies.	3. Govt. agencies	3. Salesmen, dealers.	3. Salesmen dealers.	3. Mass, media.
4. Salesmen, dealers	4. Salesmen, dealers	4. Mass media	4. Mass media	4. Salesmen, dealers.

\* Personal experience is the most important factor in continued use of an idea.

TABLE 8. Adoption Stages and Information Sources (in India)

Adoption stages	Important media or sources
1. <i>Need</i> : This is a stage when an individual wishes to change his existing practices.	Village level change agent and to some extent mass media.
2. <i>Awareness</i> : The individual just comes to know about an innovation without knowing the details of it.	Village level change agent, mass media and other farmers.
3. <i>Interest</i> : He makes an attempt to know more about the innovation.	Formal sources as extension agency, and other farmers.
4. <i>Deliberation</i> : This is a stage of deliberation and mental evaluation.	Informal personal sources including family members.
5. <i>Trial</i> : An individual uses an innovation in part or sometimes in full.	No communication for simple substitutive practices. For complex or new practices, change agent and fellow farmers.
6. <i>Evaluation</i> : The individual evaluates the performance of the innovation.	Fellow farmers and neighbours.
7. <i>Adoption</i> : It is a decision to use the practices on continued basis.	Self-experience gained at the trial stage.

*Note* : In all stages of the adoption process, the complexity of the idea is related to the choice of information sources. The more complex the idea, the greater is the tendency to rely on Government agencies (Change agents).

#### Some Important Factors related to Adoption of Practices

1. **Social factors** : Community standards and social relationships provide the general framework wherein the process of change occurs, and they account for the differences between one community (or group) and another. (*Answer to Question No. 3 above*).

(1) *Social values* :- In some groups and communities, people place a higher value upon material gains and money than they do in others. In some other groups; changes in farming are encouraged and expected; prestige is attached to the adoption of new ideas and techniques. In others, more value is placed upon tradition and little freedom is allowed for the individual to deviate from the group's pattern in adopting innovations.

If the adoption of new practices goes contrary to the established customs and traditions of the people, the innovator may be ridiculed or lose prestige.

The extent to which changes are adopted depends on the values and expectations of the group and upon the extent to which the individual is expected to conform. Where there is great emphasis on maintaining traditions and values rooted in the past, change occurs more slowly. On the other hand, where emphasis is upon individualism and personal success, change occurs more rapidly.

(ii) *Local Leadership* :- The acceptance of change is also influenced by the nature of leadership and control in the group or community. In some communities, none would accept a new idea, unless and until one man (the leader) in the community is sold on the idea. Once sold, he would influence all farmers in the community to accept it. In such situations it is important to identify and use such influential leaders. The influence of informal leaders is likely to be greater where neighbour, kinship and community ties are the strongest.

(iii) *Social contacts* :- The nature and extent of social contact within, and outside the community is important in the diffusion of new ideas and techniques, as indicated below :

a) *Nature of Social contacts* : The presence of organisations whose objectives include the promotion of changes will aid directly and indirectly in the diffusion process. On the other hand, where social contacts are primarily through kinship, visiting and informal activities, there may be greater resistance to change.

b) *Extent of Social contacts* : The extent to which social contacts are confined to the immediate locality is a factor. The broader the social orientation of the people, the more likely they are, to accept new ideas. Only a few individuals may have such outside contacts, but they may be in a position to influence their neighbours. Local orientation on the part of the majority is not

necessarily a limiting factor on the diffusion of new ideas, so long as a few leaders have outside contacts.

c) *Social distances* : The social distances associated with wide status differences are also a factor in the diffusion of farm information through inter-personal channels. For example, tenant farmers in some areas may not get ideas from the large farm owners because of their lack of contact. Also small-scale farmers may fail to communicate with large-scale farmers. Rigid class structure impairs inter-class communication of ideas.

**II. Personal factors** : Why some people adopt new ideas and practices more quickly than others relates in part to the individual himself. (*Answer to question No. 4 above*).

- (1) *Age* : Elderly farmers seem to be somewhat less inclined to adopt new practices than younger ones. (However, the findings of several Indian studies do not support the existence of a negative relationship between age and adoption).
- (2) *Education* : More than eight years schooling is almost always associated with higher adoption rates than lesser amounts.
- (3) *Psychological characteristics* :
  - a) Exposure to reliable sources of farm information may create a state of *rationality* which in turn predisposes an individual to the adoption of new practices.
  - b) A *mentally flexible* person has higher adoption rates than one with mental rigidity.
  - c) Some people are found to be more *prone to change* than others.
- (4) *Values and attitudes* (cultural characteristics) :
  - a) Values found to be positively related to farm practice adoption rates are: a desire by farmers and their wives for a high school or college education for their children, a high emphasis on science and material comfort, and also wide contacts within and beyond the community.
  - b) A high emphasis on traditionalism, isolationism, and security (e.g., owning farm free of debt) has been found to be negatively associated with adoption of improved practices.

*Note* : These differences in the personal and social characteristics of individuals are dealt with more elaborately under "classification of Adopters" which follows).

**III. Situational factors :** Reasons why farmers adopt farm practices more quickly at one time than another relate to the situation in which they find themselves when alternative courses of action become known. (*Answer to Question No. 5 above*)

1) **THE NATURE OF THE PRACTICE :** The speed with which adoption will take place is partly dependent on the nature of practice itself.

A) **Complexity :** Generally speaking, the more complex a practice and the more change it requires in the existing operations, the more slowly it will be adopted.

The following classification of practices in terms of their complexity roughly represents the decreasing order of speed with which acceptance may be expected to occur :

a) **A simple change :** A change in materials and equipment only, without a change in techniques or operations (e. g., new variety of seed).

b) **Improved practice :** Change in existing operation with or without a change in materials or equipment (e. g., change in rotation of crops).

c) **Innovation :** Change involving new techniques or operations (e. g., contour cropping).

d) **Change in total enterprise :** e. g., from crop to livestock farming.

B) **Cost :** Those practices which cost little, seem to be adopted more rapidly than those which are more expensive.

C) **Net returns :** Those practices which yield, the greatest marginal returns per rupee invested, and in the shortest time seem to be adopted most readily.

The above two characteristics viz., cost and net returns are also referred to as "relative advantage" or "profitability".

D) **Compatibility :** is the degree to which an innovation is consistent with existing values and past experiences of the adopters. An idea that is not compatible with the cultural norms of a social system will not be adopted so rapidly as an idea that is compatible e. g., the lack of compatibility of beef production with cultural values in India.

- E) **Divisibility (Triability)** : is the degree to which an innovation may be tried on a limited basis. New ideas that can be tried on a small scale or on the instalment plan will generally be adopted more rapidly than innovations that are not divisible. e. g., new seeds or fertilizers can be tried on a small scale, but new machinery or a thing like cow-dung gas plant cannot be so tried.
- F) **Communicability (Observability)** : is the degree to which the results of an innovation may be diffused to others. The results of some practices are easily observed (e. g., application of nitrogenous fertilizer to plants), while the results of some innovations are not easily observed (e. g., pre-treatment of seeds, or soil conservation measures).
- 2) **FARM INCOME** : High farm income nearly always is associated with high adoption levels.
- 3) **SIZE OF FARM** : Size of farm is nearly always positively related to the adoption of new farm practices.
- 4) **TENURE STATUS** : Adoption scores are usually higher for owner cultivators than for tenant cultivators.
- 5) **SOURCES OF FARM INFORMATION USED** :
- a) The number of sources used or the number of contacts with information sources is positively related to adoption rates.
  - b) A high positive correlation is particularly evident with the use of such sources as Government agencies.
  - c) High dependence on relatives and friends as sources of information is usually negatively associated with the adoption of new farm practices.
- 6) **LEVEL OF LIVING** : Since successful farm practice adoption is instrumental in providing the means for supporting a higher level of living, a positive correlation between the two would be expected and is generally found.

### (Classification of Adopters)

It is obvious that people do not adopt new ideas at the same time. Some people adopt ideas when they are first introduced;

others wait a long time; while some never adopt an idea. (Answer to Question No. 4 above).

The research shows significant differences in selected personal and social characteristics when people are classified into 5 categories according to time of adoption, as follows :

**I. Innovators :-** These are the first people to adopt a new idea, much ahead of other people. They are very few in number, probably not more than one or two in a community.

**Characteristics :**

1. Have larger farms.
2. High net worth and risk capital.
3. Willing to take risks.
4. Usually not past middle age.
5. Generally well educated
6. Have respect and prestige in progressive communities but not in conservative type of communities.
7. Mentally alert and actively seeking new ideas.
8. Their sphere of influence and activity often goes beyond the community boundaries.
9. They have many formal and informal contacts outside the immediate locality.
10. They often by-pass the local extension worker in getting information from the originating sources, and may learn about new things even before he does. They sometimes manage to get samples of seeds or chemicals even before they are released for public use.
11. They subscribe to many farm magazines and specialised publications.
12. Other farmers may watch the innovators and know what they are doing but the innovators are not generally named by other farmers as "neighbours and friends" to whom they go for information.

**II. Early Adopters :** (1) Younger than those who have a slower adoption rate, but not necessarily younger than the innovators (2) They are not the persons who test the untried ideas but they are quickest to use tried ideas in their own situations. (3) Have large farms. (4) Higher education than those who adopt more slowly. (5) High income. (6) They participate more in the formal activities of the community. (7) They also participate more in government programmes. (8) This group usually furnishes a disproportionate amount of the formal leadership (elected positions) in the community. (9) They read papers and farm journals and receive more bulletins than people who adopt later. (10) They may be regarded as community adoption leaders".

**III. Early Majority :** (Local adoption leaders)

1. Slightly above average in age, education and farming experience.
2. They take a few more farm journals and bulletins

than the average. 3. They have medium high social and economic status. 4. Less active in formal groups than early adopters, but more active than those adopting later. 5. In many cases, they are not formal leaders in the associations in the community, but they are active in those associations. 6. They also attend extension meetings and farm demonstrations. 7. They are most likely to be informal leaders, but not holders of elected positions. 8. Have more limited resources than early adopters and innovators, and so cannot afford to make hasty or poor decisions. 9. They associate mainly with people of their own community. 10. They value highly the opinions their neighbours and friends hold about them; for, this is their main source of status and prestige. 11. They are mostly mentioned as "neighbours and friends" from whom the majority of farmers seek information.

#### IV. (Late) Majority (Later adopters) :-

1. Those in this group have less education and are older than the early majority. 2. They form the major part of formal organisational membership, although they participate less in such formal groups. 3. They take fewer leadership roles than the earlier adopters. 4. They take and read fewer papers, magazines and bulletins, than the early majority. 5. They do not participate in as many activities outside the community as do people who adopt earlier.

#### V. Laggards :-

"Laggards" are the last people to adopt new practices. They have the following characteristics :

1. Least education. 2. Oldest. 3. Participate least in formal organisations, cooperatives and government programmes. 4. They hardly read farm magazines and bulletins. )

A composite picture of the adopter categories given by Rogers is reproduced in Table 9.

#### Practical Application of the knowledge of the Adoption and Diffusion Processes

One of the important functions of extension workers is to diffuse new ideas and practices among the farmers. It is their task to expedite the process of getting ideas from their sources of origin to those who can use them.

**TABLE 9. - A Composite Picture of Adopter Categories\***

Adopter Category	Salient Values	Personal Characteristics	Communication Behaviour	Social Relationships
Innovators	"Venturesome"; willing to accept risks.	Youngest age; highest social status; largest, and most specialised operations; wealthy.	Closest contact with scientific information sources; interaction with other innovators; relatively greatest use of impersonal sources.	Some opinion leadership; very cosmopolitan.
Early adopters	"Respect"; regarded by many others in the social system as a role model.	High social status; large and specialised operations.	Greatest contact with local change agents.	Greatest opinion leadership of any category in most social systems; very localite
Early majority	"Deliberate", willing to consider innovations only after peers have adopted.	Above average social status; average-sized operation.	Considerable contact with change agents and early adopters.	Some opinion leadership.
Late majority	"Skeptical", overwhelming pressure from peers needed before adoption occurs.	Below average social status; small operation; little specialisation, small income.	Secure ideas from peers who are mainly late majority or early majority; less use of mass media.	Little opinion leadership.
Laggards	"Triadition"; oriented to the past.	Little specialisation; lowest social status; smallest operation; lowest income; oldest;	Neighbours, friends and relatives with similar values are main information source.	Very little opinion leadership; semi-isolates.

\*Rogers, E. M, "Diffusion of Innovations" (1962). The Free Press of Glencoe, New York.

To be effective in this process, one must know what techniques to use at the different stages and how to mobilize them effectively. It is easier and more fruitful to work within existing patterns of decision making habits than to try to short circuit or change them.

He must also know in which stage in the adoption process the individuals are. Information sources can be used most effectively when there is an understanding of the inter-relationship between source and function, the needs of individuals at given stages of the adoption process, and the requirements for keeping them continually moving toward final adoption. For example, it would be a waste of energy to devote educational efforts to instruct people how to do something- information pertinent to the "trial" stage- -when the majority of them are at the stage of needing data about what the idea is- -i. e., at the "interest" stage.

In order to be most effective, an agricultural leader must know how to use all of the communication channels available to him. For example, the informal leaders have contacts and influence with people which no other channels can provide. The most effective use of the informal leader requires that one should work with him on an informal basis. Giving the informal leader too much of public recognition may jeopardize his position of leadership and thereby the influence, which makes him an important resource in extension and other programmes.

From the standpoint of energy expended and effective use of resources, it may be better for the educator to depend on the late adopters being influenced by personal communication from respected fellow-farmers rather than try to reach them directly, even though the former approach may take fairly long time.

In order to be effective as an educational worker one must understand :

- a. The nature of the acceptance process.
- b. The values and aspirations of the people with whom he must work.
- c. The formal and informal group relationships within his area.
- d. The availability and most appropriate use of mass communications.
- e. The sequence and inter-relationships of influences in the acceptance of new ideas. )

In addition to knowing how to use the various channels of communication in bringing about adoption of practices, educators must be sensitive to the customs, values and aspirations of the people with whom they work. Changes are accepted when they support these values and aspirations. Hence it is important to show how and to what extent they do so. For those most concerned with the security obtained by owning their farms free of debt, one can show how the adoption of improved practices will contribute toward this end. For those placing a high value upon material conveniences, one can show how the adoption of improved methods of farming will help to obtain these conveniences.

Finally, the person attempting to speed up the process of acceptance of new ideas and practices must be aware of the total process and the sequence of influences at different points in this process. It is necessary to intermesh the in personal with the personal and the technical with the non-technical. In this sense, the influencing of change is an art which requires sensitivity to the many phases of the acceptance process; it also requires the ability to make most effective use of the various means of influencing acceptance.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON INDIAN STUDIES**

Based on the findings of Indian researches on the adoption-diffusion process, the All India Seminar of Research in Extension (held at Bangalore in 1969) made the following recommendations :

1. As size of holding has direct bearing on the adoption of improved practices and as majority of the farmers having small size of holding are non-adopters, it is suggested that among small farmers, only such innovations should be advocated by extension workers which can be successfully adopted with small initial cost and which suit the resources of small farmers.

2. Lack of timely and adequate supply of required inputs has been reported as most important barrier to adoption. Therefore, agencies responsible for promoting adoption should make all the efforts to procure inputs in time. It is further suggested that the Extension worker should mobilize allied agencies like cooperatives and panchayats to play effective role in this regard.

3. Majority of the potential adopters do not adopt agricultural innovations as they lack complete knowledge about the

improved practices. Therefore, instead of laying more emphasis on physical targets the Extension worker should make more efforts on educating the farmers about agricultural innovations.

4. It has been observed that farmers seek all the help from Village Level Workers and other extension agencies with reference to technical know-how but when it comes to decision-making they depend on their peers and other opinion leaders in the community. Efforts must be made to identify opinion leaders and we should not depend entirely on elected panchayat leaders. Opinion leaders should be trained in technical subject-matter and communication ability to enable them to diffuse innovations effectively in their community.

5. Village Level Worker has been considered as an important source of information for farmers. It has also been indicated that his knowledge was not found up-to-date and adequate. Frequent training should be arranged to keep the knowledge of village level workers up-to-date.

6. Studies in relation to adoption of high yielding varieties have indicated that if the farmers are strongly convinced about agricultural innovations, they are quick to adopt and skip over many stages of adoption. Therefore, it is desirable to put forth intensive effort to clearly demonstrate the superiority of the new practice over the prevailing practice, so that the time lag between awareness and adoption can be reduced.

7. The studies on adoption have indicated that need-orientation and help from the extension agencies are more important than socio-psychological factors, and even small farmers can be good adopters provided they are extended proper help and guidance and the agricultural innovations are designed to their needs.

## **Community Development and National Extension Service in India**

### **I. PRINCIPLES, PHILOSOPHY, OBJECTIVES AND HISTORY**

#### **Concepts of Community Development**

*Definition of community :* A community consists of persons in social interaction within a geographical area and having one or more additional communities.

*Definition of Community Development :* Here are a few of the many definitions of the term.

1. Community Development is a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with the active participation and on the initiative of the community.

2. Community Development is a balanced programme for stimulating the local potential for growth in every direction. Its promise is of reciprocal advance in both wealth and welfare, not on the basis of outside charity but by building on the latent vitality of the beneficiaries themselves with the minimum of outside aid.

3. Community Development is technically-aided and locally organized self-help.

4. The term "Community Development" has come into international usage to denote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress.

5. Community Development is the term used to describe the technique many governments have adopted to reach their village people and to make more effective use of local initiative and energy for increased production and better living standards. Community development is a process of social action in which the people of a

community organise themselves for planning and action, define their individual needs and problems; make group and individual plans to meet their needs and solve their problems; execute these plans with a maximum of reliance upon community resources; and supplement these resources when necessary, with services and material from governmental and non-governmental agencies outside the community.

*Both a method and a process* : Community Development is considered to be a method as well as a process. It is a method of helping local communities to become more aware of their needs to assess their resources more realistically, to organise themselves and their resources in such a way as to satisfy some of their needs through action projects and in so doing acquire the techniques and experience necessary for repeating this process again and again on their own initiative. It is a process in that it is a dynamic sequence which being set in motion, supplies its own motive power so that villagers are enabled through their own efforts to move steadily towards the goal of self-improvement.

This process has been reduced (by Dr. Carl Taylor) to its simplest components by way of the following four steps.

- Step—1. Systematic discussion of common felt needs by members of the community.
- Step—2. Systematic planning to carry out the first self-help undertaking that has been selected by the community.
- Step—3. Mobilization and harnessing of the physical, economic and social potentialities of local community for carrying out a concrete project.
- Step—4. Creation of aspiration and determination to undertake additional community improvement projects.

The role of the government is, first of all, to help initiate the process in the community and guide the community through the four steps. Secondly, it must be prepared to give material and where these materials are beyond the resources of the community.

The following quotation from Mukerji<sup>1</sup> gives a brief but comprehensive summary of several concepts of Community Development.

“Community Development has been described as a *process* of change from the traditional way of living of rural communities to progressive ways of living; as a *method* by which people can be

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1. Mukerji, B. “Community Development in India”, op. cit.

assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources; as a *programme* for accomplishing certain activities in fields concerning the welfare of the rural people; and as a *movement* for progress with a certain ideological content.

In these definitions are to be found the different elements that constitute the concept of community development. The objective is promotion of the all-round development of the communities, - - economic, social and cultural. When looked upon as a *process*, the emphasis is on the change that takes place in the people socially and psychologically; when viewed as a *method*, the emphasis is on the ends to be achieved; when viewed as a *programme*, the emphasis is on the activities in specific matters, such as health, education, agriculture; when viewed as a *movement*, the emphasis is on the emotional content or ideology behind the programme. But for a full understanding of community development it must be viewed as a whole; as a *process* of change and yet with clearly conceived objectives, as having its own special *method* or way of working but applying these to promote activities that may need to be taken up in any *programme* of rural development; and finally as a programme capable of being developed into a *movement* with an emotional and ideological appeal.

The two essential elements in community development are participation by the people themselves in efforts to improve their level of living with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative; and the provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage initiative, self-help and mutual help and make these more effective."

#### **Some Assumptions underlying the Philosophy of Community Development<sup>1</sup>**

1. Communities of people can develop capacity to deal with their own problems.
2. People want change and can change.
3. People should participate in making, adjusting or controlling the major changes taking place in their communities.
4. Changes in community living that are self-imposed or self-developed have a meaning and permanence that imposed changes do not have.
5. A "wholistic approach" can deal successfully with problems, with which a "fragmented approach" cannot cope.

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1. Ross, M. G., "Community Organization", Harper & Bros., New York. 1955.

6. Democracy requires the people's co-operative participation and action in the affairs of the community, and the people must learn the skills which make this possible.
7. Frequently communities of people need help in organizing to deal with their needs, just as many individuals require help in coping with their individual problems.

### ✓ Guiding Principles of Community Development

The United Nations Economic and Social Council has been trying to define such principles and concepts of Community Development as will be acceptable to all its-member-States and which they should agree to implement as far as possible. The objective is that plans for international aid to programmes of Community Development should be formulated in terms of these principles and concepts. In one of the Council's reports the basic elements of guiding principles of Community policies and programmes were summarised as follows:

1. ✓ Activities undertaken must correspond to the basic needs of the community; the first projects should be initiated in response to the expressed needs of the people.
2. Local improvements may be achieved through unrelated efforts in each substantive field; however, full and balanced community development requires concerted action and the establishment of multi purpose programmes.
3. Changed attitudes in people are as important as the material achievements of community projects during the initial stages of development.
4. ✓ Community development aims at increased and better participation of the people in community affairs, revitalisation of existing forms of local government and transition towards effective local administration where it is not yet functioning.
5. The identification, encouragement and training of local leadership should be a basic objective in any programme.
6. Greater reliance on the participation of women and youth in community projects invigorates development programmes, establishes them on a wide basis and secures long range expansion.
7. To be fully effective, self-help projects for communities require both intensive and extensive assistance by the Government.
8. Implementation of a community development programme on a national scale requires adoption of consistant policies, specific

*administrative arrangements*, recruitment and training of personnel, mobilisation of local and national resources and organisation of research, experimentation and evaluation.

9. The resources of *voluntary non-governmental organisations* should be fully utilised in community development programmes at the local, national and international level.
10. *Economic and social progress* at the local level necessitates parallel development on a wider national scale.

#### **Objectives of Community Development in India**

The *fundamental or basic objective* of Community Development in India is the development of people or "Destination Man".

Its *broad objectives* are (i) economic development (ii) social justice and (iii) democratic growth. The attempt is to secure as good a balance as possible among these three objectives and to inter-relate them in a manner that they support one another.

More *specifically*, objectives of the Community Development programme are:

- (i) To assist each village in having effective panchayats, cooperatives and schools;
- (ii) Through these village institutions, plan and carry out integrated multi-phased family, village, Block and District plans for :
  - a) increasing agricultural production.
  - b) improving existing village crafts and industries and organising new ones.
  - c) Providing minimum essential health services and improving health practices.
  - d) providing required educational facilities for children and an adult education programme.
  - e) providing recreational facilities and programmes.
  - f) improving housing and family living conditions, and
  - g) providing programmes for village women and youth.

#### **Community Development (The End) and Extension Education (The Means)<sup>1</sup>**

Community Development in India and elsewhere has been alternately referred to as a 'programme', a 'process', a 'procedure', a 'method', a 'movement', and an 'objective'. Although people differ

1. Adapted from Chapter I of "Extension Education in Community Development", op cit.

In the words they choose to express their concept of Community Development' they seem to agree that Extension Education is the activating force. Often it is said that Community Development is the objective and Extension Education the means of attaining it. In India, experience of the programme has confirmed that the methods of Community Development must be those of Extension. "The Community Development approach requires a complete change in the mode of functioning of the administrative machinery, in the role it discharges and in the attitude of Government functionaries. The change is from the 'Executive' to the 'Extension' role. It is essentially an educational process...."<sup>1</sup> "The Community Development Organisation will from now on function as a Directorate of Extension and Education instead of as a Directorate of supply and Works."<sup>2</sup> If Community Development is in essence conceived of as an objective and Extension Education as the means for achieving it, then achievement of the ends is dependent on the effective use of the means. In this context the role of Extension Education in Community Development becomes both clear and significant.

An analysis of rural development programmes in various democratic countries reveals that faith is placed in the extension educational process as the most promising and possibly the only vehicle for involving the rural masses in programmes of development and for teaching them 'how to help themselves' with a minimum of Government aid.

Without a central emphasis on change through Extension Education, rural development programmes could easily drift into a condition of having their major focus on physical and quantitative achievement, thus overlooking qualitative gains. They could over-emphasise physical activity and they could be motivated largely by the wish for government aid promoted through governmental directives. Without emphasis on Extension Education as the central force, the approach could readily become something of an autocratic reliance on mechanical prescriptions of targets and a bureaucratic insistence on achieving them by autocratic force rather than democratic leadership. What may be called a 'recipe approach' could emerge. If this were permitted, the crusading spirit so necessary among field workers in rural development programmes would be destroyed or would never appear. Such a situation could convert workers into instruments of government and tools of administrators,

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1. Mukerji, B. *Kuruks hetra*, November, 1958, Page 323.  
 2. Dey, S. C. *Statesmen*, New Delhi, July 31, 1959.

rather than allow them to be instruments and channels of genuine Extension Education.

people can be led by educational process to make substantial permanent improvements on their farms, in their homes and in their communities. But in free-choice societies, they cannot be driven to do so by governmental directives. Programmes to achieve goals of any kind - - economic development, social justice, or democratic growth - - without emphasis first on achieving the educational change in people that motivates and trains them to help themselves, cannot in the long run be successful in a democratic social order. Hence, the essential Extension Education role of community development workers must be asserted, for this is the only action that will attain the objectives of Community Development through sound and enduring means.

#### **History and Evolution of C. D. and N. E. S. in India**

Community Development is by no means a new idea. It is often said and truly enough, that Community Development is "an old wine in a new bottle" or "an old idea in a new dress". Local groups for long throughout the length and breadth of the world have been organising action for their own improvement. Community Development has emerged out of such local activities and has come to acquire a special importance in recent times.

In India, extension work had its beginnings with a few outstanding individuals of a philosophic and philanthropic bent of mind. For the most part they worked in isolation from and another and without government assistance. In some cases, these men were government servants whose interest had been aroused through their official contacts with villagers. There were others whose imagination and sympathy enabled them to desire and visualise a better way of life for the peasant. The work of most of them was necessarily confined to relatively small areas.

One of the pioneers of rural welfare work in India was the famous poet and thinker, Rabindranath Tagore. An ardent organiser Tagore aimed at inducing each villager to work to the limit of his capacity, and also to help fellow-men. Tagore believed in both self-help and mutual help and was one of the first to recognise the need for a change in the outlook of villagers as a precondition for any improvement. He, therefore, urged that every villager and his family should be educated. Community action and collective endeavour, based on the intelligent and informed

participation of all members of the community, he realised, were essential for improving the condition of the villagers. His Shri-niketan Institute founded in 1914 teaches such subjects as agriculture, village welfare, co-operation, scouting, village industries and education, thus attesting his insight into the needs of the villagers. Teaching is carried on by means of demonstration and experiment as well as by more formal methods.

Of wider general interest is the work of the Father of the Nation, Bapuji who considered the village to be the very essence of Indian life. He initiated a rural rejuvenation programme to emancipate rural masses from poverty and misery, and to bring about an all round development of villages, physically, economically, socially, culturally and spiritually. He sought and strove to bring about decentralisation both in production and distribution of wealth and in administration. In 1921, he started his micro-laboratory at Sevagram in the district of Wardha, Madhya Pradesh for conducting his experiment on social, economic and spiritual renaissance of the villages. He established intensive agriculture and animal husbandry including cattle breeding in the Ashram. The fullest use was made of the local manurial resources including human and animal waste as a demonstration. The basic system of schools was introduced for the education of children and adults alike. "Nai Talim" he called it. Children were to learn through work, acquire skill and dignity of manual labour. The school was to be the community centre for the village, radiating knowledge in higher techniques, inspiration and pattern for social behaviour, wider knowledge of the world at large and providing recreation of the mind through cultural programmes. While agriculture and animal husbandry could provide food for the belly, village industries and crafts for the hand, the school could do likewise for the mind and spirit. He wanted to train and steer the hand, the head and the heart of the children. He desired radical changes in the administration also. To him the centralised administration was like colonial rule. It was immaterial, he felt, whether the village was ruled by foreigners or by people's representative seated in Delhi. There should be no rule from above, whether by foreigners or by the natives of our soil. The village must be made responsible for administering its affairs. He wanted real democracy and freedom for the villagers. Thus, Gandhiji's programmes, it will be seen, were multi-sided touching on every vital aspect of rural life.

Achary Vinoba Bhave, the reader of the *Bhoodan* movement occupies a high place among the well-wishers of humanity who

chose to devote themselves to rural problems. He is interested in solving the social and economic problems of the villagers, but just like Gandhiji, he lays emphasis on providing a vital moral and spiritual background for such secular activities as might be undertaken.

Christian missions have for years included education for upliftment of rural folks in their work, and so great has been their dedication that the term 'missionary zeal' has become proverbial. Several agricultural demonstration centres have been established under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A, the most famous of which is the one started at Marthandam in 1921 by Dr. Spencer Hatch, an American Agricultural expert and missionary, who pioneered this type of work. He initiated an all-round programme which included agriculture, public health, education, local works based on self-help and faith in God and fellowmen. The work in Marthandam still goes on. It is now a part of the wider programme of Community Development in the new State of Kerala.

Among Government officials who interested themselves in rural development, the name of Mr. F. L. Brayne stands out. He started a fairly extensive experiment in rural reconstruction in the Gurgaon district of the Punjab and succeeded in arousing considerable enthusiasm among the people. Coupling a practical turn of mind with a compassionate interest in the welfare of the peasants, he adopted a direct approach to development problems. He introduced such improvements into the villages as the construction of manure pits and ventilators; and the use of improved agricultural implements. He also encouraged the education of women. For the purpose of disseminating new knowledge among the villagers, Mr. Brayne introduced the idea of having a village guide in each village. These guides were not however, technical men, but merely served as channels for information from outside. Thus they could not themselves tackle the villagers' problems. Mr. Brayne did not succeed in making his experiment self-sustaining. Although the people appreciated and profited from his efforts while he was among them. Popular participation was not sufficient to carry on without the leader. The experiment remained dependent upon the initiative of a single person, and when he was removed through transfer to another district, the people reverted to their traditional way of life. The experiment was not however, entirely without lasting results, for it served to bring village problems into prominence. Thus, although it may at first sight seem to have been abortive, it helped

to pave the way for more comprehensive efforts. In 1933, Mr. Brayne was appointed Commissioner of Rural Reconstruction in the Punjab and his work was further expanded. The Punjab Government aided the work financially in 1935-36 and later the reconstruction work was transferred to the Cooperative Department, and 'Better living Societies' were organised for work in the villages.

As early as 1903, Sir Daniel Hamilton had experimented with model villages along cooperative lines in Bengal. This work continued with the organisation of a Central Cooperative Bank and Cooperative Marketing Society in 1924 and a Rural Reconstruction Institute in 1934. The latter offered training in cottage industries.

Among the more recent efforts, mention must be made of the rural reconstruction programme conducted by Sri V. T. Krishnamachari as Dewan of Baroda State, and the Firka Development Scheme ushered in under the dynamic lead of Sri. T. Prakasan as Chief Minister of Madras State.

**GOVERNMENT ASSISTANCE :** After the Government of India Act of 1935, when the States were given more powers of administration the concept of "multipurpose work" grew. In Uttar Pradesh, an ambitious programme of rural development was launched and many new experiments were initiated. For the first time, the government adopted a coordinated approach to the problems of the villagers, replacing the former excessive departmentalisation. It was felt that it would be practical to have one person who will be the friend, philosopher and guide at the village level to give simple and practical solution to rural problems on the spot. And thus, the concept of the Village Level Worker came into being. The coordination of administrative machinery at various levels followed. Village uplift became a government concern.

At just about the time of independence, the State of Uttar Pradesh was forging ahead with a new project in the Etawah District, the aim of which was "to make maximum progress both in improving physical productivity and in developing the people's own capacities and initiative, to give the people better land and better implements and at the same time to alert them for the future". Conceived in 1947, the pilot project was inaugurated in September 1948, under the guidance of Lt. Col. Albert Mayer, an American who had come to India with the American armed forces in 1944. It received financial assistance from the United States point-4 Programme. This project was started with 64 villages, and the number was later increased. As the name 'pilot project', implied, this was in the nature of an

experiment. The aim was not only to improve the selected villages, but also to find out just what improvements could be accomplished in a typical rural area. It was to be a laboratory in village work for the guidance of workers else where and not just an isolated instance of benevolence. Moreover, it was multi purpose in the deepest sense of the word. It was aimed at widening the horizon of the villager, arousing his interest and initiative as well as improving his crops and livestock. It encouraged the development of *panchayats*, an increase in educational facilities, the spread of improved farming methods and the construction of roads and soak pits. Above all, it concerned itself with the methods by which these things should be accomplished. It was clearly established that the villager should be educated rather than commanded and that education should proceed through demonstration and persuasion rather than by rote and compulsion. Here, then, were the ingredients for extension work embodied in a small pilot project. They had still to be taken up on scale which would be felt through out the length and breadth of the country.

To the zeal for village improvement was added a growing awareness that the fate of India was very much bound up with the fate of the villages, and that India depended for its existence on the productive capacity of the villages.

In March 1950, the Government of India set up a planning Commission to formulate the First Five Year Plan. The philosophical basis for the plan was the Fundamental Rights guaranteed by the constitution and the plan was, in turn to provide the material Where-withal for furthering the principles of the Constitution. The plan was to map out a means of building up a new pattern of society through a concentrated effort in which every citizen should have the opportunity to participate. The central objective was to "initiate a process of development which will raise living standards and open out to people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life". To this end both agriculture and industry were to be developed for the maximum benefit of the people. There were long-range plans for big irrigation and power projects, conservation of natural resources, and re-organisation of the administration, but due to the serious food shortage facing India at the time, the primary emphasis was put on food production and multipurpose schemes. However, the Plan did not directly envisage extension work as it is known in India today.

There was a visit mean while by Paul Hoffman, President of the American Ford Foundation. He came to India early in 1951. His

was a mission to explore how Ford Foundation could help India in her basic development. After a country-wide study tour, the mission came to the conclusion that the Ford Foundation must initiate a village development programme. 15 Pilot Projects, more or less on the lines of Etawah, were started in the various States about the middle of 1951. There was also a scheme of training centres for the training of the extension personnel. The idea was to produce a multipurpose worker who would know how to offer first-aid in the various facets of the programme of agriculture and allied subjects. Five training centres attached to five agricultural colleges in India were started with financial assistance from the Ford Foundation. The Pilot Projects provided extension staff in agriculture and animal husbandry. There were, besides, the specially trained multipurpose village level workers.

The results of all these early experiments have been summed up in the first Five year Plan as follows:-

(1) The various departments of the Government which have to deal with the rural work in different aspects, viz., Forest, Co-operation, Agriculture, Revenue, etc. approached the villager from their own aspect of work. This confused the villager and could not leave a permanent impression on him of the social importance of the multifarious schemes. It has now been considered necessary to have a co-ordinated action through a common agency to these various departments.

(2) The various programmes were almost forced on the villagers and as such they failed to create any enthusiasm or spirit of co-operation in them.

(3) There was a lack of initiative from the people which is very essential for the success of the schemes. The Government's job is only to introduce the schemes and to guide the volunteers of the villages.

(4) The schemes depended to much on Government finances which were quite meagre. What is needed is not only the monetary aid from the Government but the spirit of mutual and self-help and co-operation also. This would utilise the dormant man-power and economise the expenditure for the better utilisation.

(5) Theoretical advice needed to be supplemented by practical aids and demonstrations.

(6) The programmes lacked intensive action. The scheme should embrace all the families so as to make them render their own contributions.

(7) The experiences of the villagers should be respected and should not be prejudicially discarded.

- (8) Lastly, there should be a definite, inspiring and attractive goal for villagers which would draw their spirits to work for the improvement in their standard of living.

The experiments were, no doubt, very important because the success of these schemes encouraged the Planning Commission to draw up the Community Development Programme as an integral part of the plan with the financial, technical and material assistance from the U. S. A., the new Programme was launched by the President of the Indian Republic on October 2, 1952, starting 55 Community Projects comprising 27,388 villages and a population of 16.4 million. The 15 pilot projects started earlier in 1951 under the sponsorship of the Ford Foundation were also merged in this programme.

The new Programme, coming as it did, as successor of several prior experiments, was designed to be a synthesis of all the available experiences accruing from the early attempts. It covered all aspects of village life - - agriculture, animal husbandry, minor irrigation, communications (transport), public health and medicine, education, social education, village industries, women and children's programmes, special programmes for the tribal people and depressed classes, Village institutions such as Panchayats and co-operatives were also due to receive attention.

## II. EVOLUTION IN THE PATTERN OF ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF DEVELOPMENT BLOCKS

### (I) Community Projects.

The programme started on October 2, 1952 was meant to be a pilot scheme in order to see how people reached to it and what pitfalls were likely to be encountered in the propagation of the movement. Each of the 55 community projects covered about 300 villages with an area of about 450 to 500 square miles, a population of about 2 lakhs and a cultivated area of about 450 to 500 square miles, a population of about 2 lakhs and a cultivated area of about 1,50,000 acres. Three such projects as detailed below were located in the areas now forming part of Andhra Pradesh.

- i) E. Godavari district - - Kakinada-Peddapuram
- ii) Kurnool & Cuddapah districts - - K. C. Canal area
- iii) Nalgonda District - - Miryalaguda - Huzurnagar

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Each project area was divided into three development blocks. A development block consisted of about 100 villages and a population of 60,000 to 70,000. Each block in turn was divided into groups of 5 to 10 villages each, each group being the field of operation for a Village Level Worker (V.L.W.) now known as "GRAM SEVAK". To begin with, only areas with assured rainfall and facilities for irrigation and soil capable of giving quick returns were selected. In addition to the basic type of community projects, there were projects of composite type, i.e., rural-cum-urban.

Generally speaking, a project was to be completed within a period of three years. For facilitating the implementation of the work, this period was divided into five stages of work. The first stage was 'Conception Stage'. This was to cover a period of three months. During this period selection of the area for projects, its economic survey and planning were completed. The second stage was 'Initiation Stage'. This was spread over six months. During this period arrangement for temporary houses for personnel, establishment of communications within the operational area, and collection of required material were to be made. The third stage was 'Operation Stage'. The entire approved activities for the project were taken up during this period of eighteen months. The fourth stage was 'Consolidation Stage'. During this period of six months the operation was wound up. The last stage was 'Finalisation Stage'. As this scheme was simply in the form of introduction and experiment, the work was expected to be carried on by the villagers themselves after they became well-versed with the nature of activities. Therefore, final touches were given in the last three months period of the entire three years' scheme.

But the initial Projects and Blocks suffered from several handicaps in the beginning which retarded the pace of progress. On the recommendation of the Third Development Commissioner's Conference the period of operation was extended by one year and these continued to operate upto September 30, 1956.

## (2) N. E. S. and C. D. Blocks.

Within a few months of the launching of these pilot projects, it was prominently experienced that the people were ready, even keen, for the programme. The people in all the project areas responded enthusiastically, and indeed much beyond the expectations of the Government and the sponsors of the Programme. This fact emphasised the need for a rapid extension of the Programme to

other parts of the country. But the country's resources were not sufficient to sustain a comprehensive plan of the same magnitude as contemplated in the first 355 projects. The Government, therefore, decided to launch alongside the Community Development Programme another programme which was somewhat less intensive in character, called the National Extension Service Programme. The National Extension Service Programme was formulated in April 1953, and it was inaugurated one year after the 55 Community Projects, that is, on October 2, 1953.

It was a major development in the sphere of rural reconstruction in India. Since the basic idea underlying both the Community Development and the National Extension Service Programmes was the same, the two were integrated under one agency at the Centre as well as in the States. Both the Programmes were complementary and interwoven and ran concurrently. The idea behind the National Extension Service Programme was to cover the entire country within a period of about 10 years, that is to say, by 1960-61.

Sri V.T. Krishnamachari, Deputy Chairman of Planning Commission described the inter-relation between the Community Development Programme and the National Extension Service Programme as follows :

It is necessary to explain the inter-relation between the Community Development Programme and the National Extension Service. The movements have identical aims. The National Extension Service is a permanent organisation and will cover the whole country. It provides the basic organisation, official, non-official and a minimum financial provision for development. Further funds will be found from the Central Government and the State's own allotments under different heads. National Extension Service blocks in which successful results have been achieved with the maximum popular co-operation are selected for Intensive development for a period of three years. These are called 'Community Projects'. In these, the works' programme is more comprehensive. How many N.E.S. blocks can be taken up every year for such temporary intensive development will depend on the available financial resources and local support and enthusiasm.

The National Extension Service and the Community Development Programmes have uniform unit of operation which is called a development block. It represents on an average 100

villages, with a population of 60,000 to 70,000 persons spread over an area of 150 to 170 square miles. But the N.E.S. blocks are not developed with the same intensity as areas under the C. D. blocks. Out of the areas developed as National Extension Service Blocks, selection is made periodically for intensive development work under the Community Development Programme and the blocks which are selected are C. D. blocks. Only those blocks are selected which in their working showed good results and where people's participation had been in abundance.

Community Development blocks after completing the scheduled period of operation are called post-intensive Blocks. The intensive phase of the programme financed by specific provisions in the block budget ceases at this stage. The Fifth Development Commissioners Conference held at Naini Tal considered the subject of the programme for post intensive period and it was agreed by all, that there was no question of the Community Development Programme being wound up during the post intensive period. The developmental programmes included in the various departmental budgets for implementation as part of the Second Five Year Plan in regard to the various subjects, e.g., education: health, agriculture, communications, cottage industries, housing, etc., will have to be applied to those areas and implemented through the staff provided in the blocks. The staff of the N.E.S. block will be retained in the blocks and the Central Government will continue to share the expenditure thereon on the agreed basis. The additional staff will be borne on the cadres of the respective Development Departments. It is at the post-intensive stage that the programme has, in the real sense, to convert itself into a people's programme through the foundations of the same have to be laid down in the earlier phases of N. E. S. and C. D. It is at the post-intensive stage that all the loose ends of the many threads of the texture that this programme is, have to be collected and skillfully interwoven to produce the finished tapestry. The deviations and defaults at the youthful phase of the Programme have to be corrected and made up.

### **(3) Stage I and Stage II C. D. Blocks.**

The Study Team with Sri B. Mehta as Chairman in their report expressed that the division of the Community Development Programme into three phases, viz., the extensive development stage the intensive development stage and the post-intensive development stage is not necessary, useful or convenient. The best arrangement will be to abolish distinction between these

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post intensive

stages and to implement the Programme in two stages of 6 years each. The period of the coverage of the entire country by this programme should be extended by at least three years. The community development is not achieved by a mere increase in the number of blocks; the increased number should be accompanied by effective work. The decision to cover the entire country with these development blocks within Second Five Year Plan period is unwise. Community development is not a thing which is achieved once and the work is finished. It is a continuing programme and needs continuous efforts.

There recommendations were accepted by the central Committee and the National Development Council with some modifications in April and May 1958 respectively. According to the new plan which came into force with effect from April 1, 1958; there was no distinction between N. E. S. blocks and C. D. blocks and there was no phase like post intensive phase. This plan implied that all the existing N. E. S. blocks had become C. D. blocks. The implementation of the Programme was to be brought about in two stages of five years each with a budget provision of Rs. 12 lakhs and 5 lakhs respectively. The complete coverage was to be achieved by October, 1963. This scheme helped to relieve the acute shortage of trained basic and supervisory personnel.

**(4) Reorganised Panchayat Samithi Blocks in Andhra Pradesh<sup>1</sup>.**

Till 1958 Community Development Programme was implemented in Andhra Pradesh through panchayats and advisory bodies—the Block Planning and Development Committees with the assistance of voluntary organisations and workers. Then came the Balwantrai Mehta Team's report, as a result of which community development became the main activity on the programme of the people's democratic institutions at the village, block and district levels. The whole process is known as Panchayati Raj and the three tier institution are the Panchayat, the Panchayat Samithi and Zilla Parishad. In the light of the experience gained till 1963 in the administration of the Panchayat Samithi blocks, the Government decided to examine whether there was any scope for more effective utilisation of funds allotted to Panchayati Raj institutions, by suitably changing the staffing pattern of the blocks and by carving out larger blocks.

1) From the "Report of the High Power Committee on the Reorganisation of Panchayat Samithi Blocks and Allied Matters" —published by Panchayat Raj Department, Govt. of Andhra Pradesh. 1964.

Accordingly the Government appointed a "High Power Committee" to consider the reorganisation of blocks and allied matters.

The following are among the recommendations of this Committee.

1. The size of the blocks could be enlarged both in area and population taking into consideration the widely differing geographical features, varying densities of population, communication facilities, land and water utilisation and levels of development. Generally the net area of a block, after excluding forest areas should ordinarily not exceed 300 square miles in thickly populated areas and 500 square miles in sparsely populated up-land areas, while its population may vary between 1 to 1.5 lakhs.

2. The Block as a unit for planning and development should not cut across the other important administrative unit, namely, the taluk or independent sub-taluk.

3. In marginal cases of taluks with two existing blocks and a total population around 1.25 to 1.5 lakhs and exceeding 500 square miles in area, only a single block is recommended. In such cases, an Assistant or Additional Block Development Officer may be added to the Block Staff to be in charge of a specified part of the block independently but under the general supervision of the Block Development Officer, who should then be a Deputy Collector or Special Grade Block Development Officer.

4. All the 28 Tribal Blocks may be left as they are without any change.

5. Where the density of population is very high and the level of development low as in parts of Srikakulam district, the area of a block may be less than 100 square miles with a population nearing one lakh, for want of a better alternative.

6. With the reorganisation of blocks, the distinction between stage I, Stage II, and Post-Stage II will mostly disappear, because the larger blocks would comprise population drawn from blocks of all stages. It would be difficult to classify any block into stages. Therefore some other method, not based on stages of blocks, has to be thought of in order to make a fair and equitable distribution of funds.

7. Blocks may be divided into "Advanced", "Ordinary", "Back-ward", and "Tribal". Funds may be allotted on a varying per capita basis, so that blocks which are less developed would get a

little more than the others and the existing imbalance would be gradually wiped out, at least to some extent.

The Government accepted the above recommendations and reduced the number of blocks in the State from 448 to 321 with effect from July, 1964. But there is no reduction in the number of Village Level Workers and Agricultural Extension Officers. The jurisdiction of the Village Level Worker is also retained more or less undisturbed.

#### **Financing of Blocks**

The Community Development Programme imposes financial obligations on the Centre as well as on the State Governments. The resources for the projects are drawn both from the people and the Government. For each block area the Programme indicates a qualifying scale of voluntary contribution from the people in the form of money as well as labour and in kind. The contribution of the people differs from State to State and from work to work.

Where the State offers financial assistance or grants-in-aid for the execution of these projects / blocks. The expenses are shared by the Central and the State Governments in the ratio of 3:1 in the case of non-recurring items while the recurring expenses are shared equally between them. The loan amount is totally found by the Centre. The loan is given for productive works like irrigation, reclamation etc. But this loan is repayable in full with interest.

#### **Administration of the C. D. Programme**

*(Prior to Panchayati Raj)*

**I. National Level :** For the implementation of the Community Development Programme at the top there is a Central Committee consisting of the members of the Planning Commission, Ministers of Food and Agriculture, and Community Development with Prime Minister in the chair. The function of the Central Committee is to lay down the broad policies and to provide general supervision. The Central Committee is also responsible for developing, in consultation with the appropriate authorities in the various States in India, the programme of economic development. It is assisted by an Advisory Board consisting of the Secretaries of Central Ministries of Food and Agriculture, Finance, Health, Education, the Additional Secretary of the Ministry of the Natural Resources and Scientific Research, etc. The Central Committee is informed of the

progress of work from time to time through periodical reports prepared by the Community Projects Administration (C P A).

Under the Central Committee originally there was Community Projects Administration. At the beginning the C P A consisted of a very small staff but later on, it grew up into a big organisation with Secretariat staff and technical experts. Therefore, with effect from September 20, 1956, a separate Central Ministry has been created for Community Development known as the Ministry of Community Development. But the term C P A has been retained and is used as its abolition was considered likely to create confusion.

The Ministry of Community Development has the overall charge of the Programme. This Ministry is responsible to draw up, on a national basis, a generalised programme for planning, budgeting directing and co-ordinating the C D / N E S blocks throughout the country. The Ministry has to work under the general supervision of the Central Committee and in consultation with appropriate authorities in the various States, who are responsible for the actual implementation of the Programme. In the recent reorganisation at the Center, Food and Agriculture, Co-operation and Community Development have been brought under one Ministry.

**2. State Level :** At the State level, there is a State Development Committee or a similar body. This body is entrusted with the execution of both the Community Development and the National Extension Service programmes. The State Development Committee is presided over by the Chief Minister and consists of the Ministers of all the Development Departments. There is a Development Commissioner or a similar official who acts as the Secretary to this Committee. The Development Commissioner is responsible for directing C D blocks in the State. Where the work justifies it, there is in addition a Deputy Development Commissioner specifically in charge of Community Development Programme. The Development Commissioner has a three-fold function :

- 1) He maintains a two-way relationship with the Centre; he receives National Programme guidance from the Centre, and reports progress and makes suggestions about programme modifications to the Centre.
- 2) He performs at the State level the same role that the Ministry of Community Development performs at the Centre, i. e., providing the co-ordination point for harnessing, relating and

guiding all technical services of the State Government required for the block programmes and to assure proper and adequate supervision and staff.

- 3) He maintains an administrative relationship with the District Collector, who in turn is responsible for planning, co-ordinating, executing and evaluating the work of each block in his district.

The officer at the State level works in close relationship with each technical Ministry and Department in the State and in this way plans for the required staff to be assigned to each block.

**3. District Level :** At the district level the Collector is the Chairman of the District Planning or Development Committee. In some States there are District Planning Officers. As a matter of fact, the Collector or the District Planning Officer is today the **Key Administrative Officer**. He is responsible for this programme. **To him goes the credit for the success of this programme.** The District Collector is assisted in carrying out his developmental responsibilities by Block Development Officers (B. D. Os). The District Development Committee consists of all the **Heads of the Development Departments in the District and the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman of the District Board, M.L.As and other non-officials.**

**4. Block Level :** At the Block level the Block Development Officer is assisted by a **team of experts** in Agriculture, Co-operation, Animal Husbandry, Cottage Industries, etc. These technical personnel are assigned to the blocks by the various Technical Ministries and Departments of the State. The Block Development (or Advisory) Committee consists of **representatives of Panchyats, Co-operatives, progressive farmers, social workers, M.Ps and M.L.As** of the area.

**5. Village Level :** Finally, there is the Village Level Worker (V. L. W.) or the *Gram sevak* who acts as a multi-purpose man. **Each Gram sevak is in charge of about 7 or 10 villages.** He seeks to arouse in village people interest in all-round family and village development. He is guided and assisted by the various technical specialists on the block staff. He is the last official administrative person in the administrative chain, for carrying out this nation-wide programme for village development.

While this remained the general pattern of organisation prior to introduction of Panchayat Raj, as shown in figure 22, there was no fixity in it. As a matter of fact, adjustments were made to suit local conditions to ensure efficient and smooth working.

### People's Participation

Along with the official set-up, non-official participation has also been emphasised at every stage. This Programme is often called a "people's programme". There is great stress on the people's participation not merely in the execution of the programme but also in its planning. In securing the participation of the villagers, it is intended to avail of all non-official local organisations. Truly speaking, the objective of having the programme function as a people's programme with the co-operation of the Government can be achieved only when the villagers organise themselves into their own institutions and assume a sustained interest in the programme.

At the top the Central Parliament provides the necessary guidance and direction. At the State level, State Legislature discharges the same functions. From the project level downward, non-official advisory committees are associated with the Block Development Officers etc. The key person of the organisation, the Village level Worker, functions in collaboration with the Village Panchayat. He has close and friendly links with the Village Panchayats or Village Development Councils.

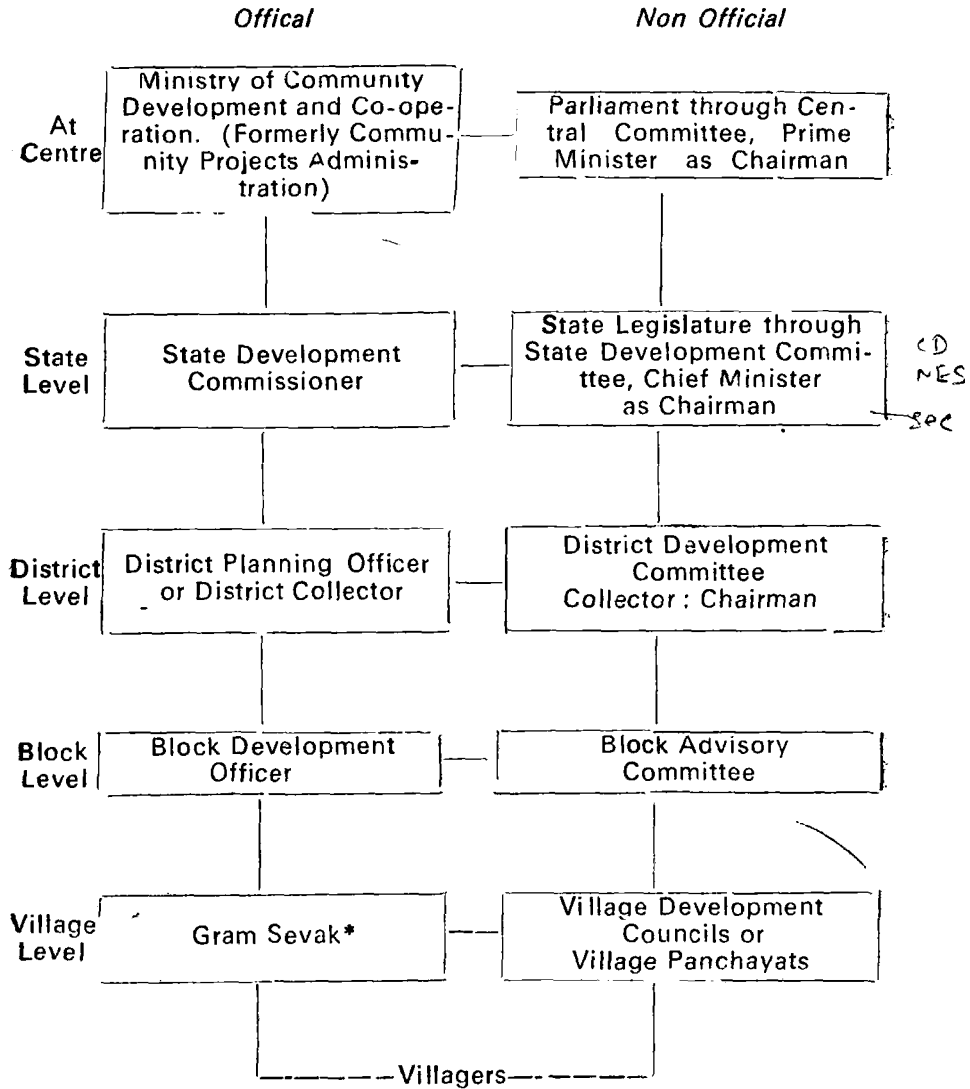
In recent times great importance has been assigned to the organisation of Panchayats; and according to Sri Nehru a Panchayat, a Co-operative and a school are the three essentials for an Indian village. The Panchayat would deal with the political affairs of the village, the co-operative with the economic affairs, and the school with education. With these things in a village, "we can build our country on a strong foundation".

### III. Panchayat Raj (Democratic Decentralisation)

1. *What is "Democratic Decentralisation"?* The word "democracy" is derived from the Greek roots-'cracy' meaning 'rule of' and 'demos' meaning 'the people'. It is governance of the people, by the people, for the people. The emphasis is on the 'people', as distinct from 'officers'. Rule by majority is, no doubt, an important feature of this system of governance; but the more important ingredient is rule by consultation -- consultation between the people's representatives on one hand, and consultation with the officers on the other. It is, in essence, a pooling of the intelligence and the experience of all concerned with administration. As a corollary it also implies and even enjoins on them an implicit acceptance of the decisions taken by the body of members, and a resolve to implement them.

*Left*

FIGURE- 22 C. D./N. E. S. Organisation Prior to Panchyat Raj  
(Upto 1-11-59)



\* In Andhra Pradesh, the designation of "Village Level Workers" has been changed as "Village Development Officer".

'Decentralisation' means devolution of central authority among local units close to the areas served. Where authority devolves by this process on people's institutions, it is 'democratic decentralisation'.

**2. Need for Democratic Decentralisation :**

India is a Sovereign Democratic Republic. Till recently, our administration was described as 'democracy at the top and dictatorship at the bottom', because the people were not associated with the administration in the lower tiers from the district downwards. It was 'an inverted pyramid' as it were, with no strong or stable base to rest on. It was mainly, as a result of the Community Development Programme, that it was realised that, so long as the people who constitute the sinews of the democratic system were kept apart from the administration at levels close to them, that is, at the village, Block and District levels, it would be impossible, to secure their support or enthusiasm for the Programme. The Study Team (on C. D. Programmes) headed by Balwantraji Mehta recommended "Democratic Decentralisation". The Team was of the definite opinion that the time had arrived in India when the Government of India and State Governments must repose greater faith and trust in the people for their own welfare.

**3. Implementation :** The study Team's recommendations as approved by the National Development Council were communicated by the Centre to the States for implementation in the middle of 1958. The State of Madras had started as an experimental measure a pilot Block of democratic decentralisation in her own way as early as 1957. The experiences of this block were there. Andhra State started in July 1958, twenty pilot Blocks more or less on the same lines as recommended by the Study Team, one in every district of Andhra. Inspired by these experiences the State of Rajasthan became the pioneer to bring the whole of Rajasthan under democratic decentralisation on October 2, 1959, the birth anniversary of Gandhiji.

On November 1, 1959, Andhra Pradesh State introduced this scheme of democratic decentralisation in the entire State by the enactment of the Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Samithis and Zilla Parishads Act, 1959.

**4. "Panchayat Raj" - its meaning :** There is something anomalous and contradictory in the term "Democratic Decentralisation". It was

also not easily understood by our people in India. At the instance of the Prime Minister it was decided to give this process of the three-tier administration a strictly Indian name. "Panchayat Raj" evolved as the natural expression that fitted admirably to the situation. Panchayat Raj means a system of government. Horizontally, it is a network of Village Panchayats. Vertically, it is an organic growth of the Panchayat rising up to the national level. The decision is by universal consent or at least by consensus. The village is an extension of the joint family principle. In a family there can be honest differences of opinion. There can be no room for political controversies. Panchayat Raj was accepted as the new concept because it meant administration by mutual consultation, consent and consensus. It fitted closely into the ancient cultural pattern of India.

#### **Philosophy and Objectives of "Democratic Decentralisation"**

There is much in common between community development and local government. Both have as their origin the desire in the people to serve their common ends largely through their own effort, i. e, the desire for self-help is present in both. In a way, local government can be regarded as an institutional device for placing the impulse for selfhelp to meet common ends, on an organised and continuing basis. We have already considered the place of community organisation as a process in community development. When people discover through community development the value of joint action, they may begin to feel the need for organising themselves for such action on a continuing basis which may take the shape of local government. And yet community development and local government are also different. The former relies entirely on persuasion, works largely with *ad hoc* groups and through their natural leaders; while the latter functions on the basis of legal compulsion, works with the entire community through its chosen leaders, chosen according to some laid-down procedure. Local government can and does discharge some functions of the State or Central Government as their agent; some of these functions may also be wholly transferred to the local Government, just as some functions which a local Government may develop may later be taken over by the State or Central Government. Similarly Community Development and local government can help each other. Community services and institutions begun by self-help effort, like schools, hospitals, etc, can be taken over and maintained by local government. By promoting the sense of community and willingness to

work for community ends, community development programmes help to improve the quality of local government. We have seen that community development programmes based on self-help effort also need intensive and extensive help from Government. The nearer is the seat of the Governmental authority from which this assistance is to come, the more easily and timely will it be obtained. Co-ordination in the functioning of the different agencies of Government is facilitated if these belong to a Government having jurisdiction over a small area and functioning near the people it serves. Hence the need for the decentralisation of Government authority and the creation of local government.<sup>1</sup>

### THE THREE TIERS OF PANCHAYAT RAJ

I. **The Gram Panchayat :** The following is a brief account of the structure, powers and functions of the three tiers of Panchayat Raj, as per the Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Samithis and Zilla Parishads Act, 1959 and the Andhra Pradesh Gram Panchayats Act, 1964. The more important among the changes introduced in this regard as a result of the Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Samithis and Zilla Parishads (Amendment) Act, 1975 and the Andhra Pradesh Gram Panchayats (Amendment) Act, 1975 are given toward the end of this section.

The first formal democratic institution as enjoined on us under the directive principles in the Indian Constitution is the Gram Panchayat. It is the primary unit of local self-government. Gram Panchayat is a cabinet of the Village elders, directly elected by the adult citizens of the village.

The Gram Panchayats are constituted taking into consideration their income, population and area. Some are big townships, some are fairly large and some are small. Their incomes vary from a mere Rs. 500 per annum to more than Rs. two lakhs per annum, their populations from about 500 to 25,000 and their membership from 5 to 17. There is provision for reservation of seats for women and for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The members of the Gram Panchayats have a tenure of five years and are directly elected from wards while the Sarpanch is elected by the members. There is a Gram Sabha for each Panchayat and the Sarpanch is required to convene Gram Sabha meetings at least once in six months. The Sarpanch is required to convene a meeting of the members of the Panchayat once in a month. Each Gram Panchayat is required to

1. Mukerji, B. "Community Development in India", op. cit.

have functional committees. The Gram Panchayats are basically civic bodies but function also as agents of the Samithi and the Zilla parishad in all developmental and social welfare activities. The levy of house tax and profession tax is compulsory while the imposition of some others like vehicles tax and Kolagaram tax is optional. They also collect license fees for Professions and Trades, run markets and other remunerative enterprises, raise fisheries, grow plantations, etc.

The Gram Panchayat can be a menace to itself Without a continuing check and balance from the people. There must be a wider institution of the people for which the Panchayat can be the cabinet. This institution has now been recognised to be the Gram Sabha. The Gram Sabha is an assembly which should consist of all the adult citizens of the village--men and women, young and old. In other words, it is the counterpart of the National Parliament. The Gram Sabha should elect out of themselves the Panchayat as its cabinet for administering the affairs of the village. The Gram Sabha should meet at periodic intervals. They should review the work of the Panchayat.

*The functions of the Gram Panchayat* could be broadly classified into three categories: <sup>1</sup>

- a) Those that may be called 'representative' functions where the main role is to voice and represent the community's opinion on matters affecting it.
- b) Those that may be called 'regulatory and administrative functions' which consist of regulating the conduct of individuals and institutions, and also collecting taxes; e. g., watching the work done in the village school, registering births and deaths, enforcing measures of safety and sanitation etc.
- c) What may be called 'service or developmental' functions, such as promotion of education, health, agriculture, communications, irrigation etc.

**2. The Panchayat Samithi:** This is the next tier of administration at the Block level. It consists of:

- i. Sarpanchas of all Panchayats
- ii. Local M.L.As and M.L.Cs with right to vote but not to hold office.

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1. Mukerji, B. "Community Development in India", op. cit.

- iii. One person nominated by District Collector for every Panchayat for which no Sarpanch has been elected.

**Reservation and Co-option**

- iv. Two women  
 v. One from Scheduled Castes  
 vi. One from Scheduled Tribes  
 vii. Two persons with experience in administration and public life.

The President and Vice-President of the Samithi are elected from among the Village Panchayat Presidents.

Block Development Officer appointed by the Government is the chief executive of the Samithi and functions as the leader of the team of block level officials.

Every Panchayat Samithi normally has seven Standing Committees as detailed in Table 10.

**Table-10 Panchayat Samithi Standing Committees & their Assignments**

Designation of the Standing Committee	Subjects dealt with
Standing Committee - I	Planning and Production
Standing Committee - II	Co-operation and Industries
Standing Committee - III	Education
Standing Committee - IV	Women Welfare
Standing Committee - V	Social Welfare
Standing Committee - VI	Communications
Standing Committee - VII	Taxation and Finance

Each Standing Committee consists of 7 members including the Samithi President who is the Chairman of all Standing Committees. Each Standing Committee has independent powers of sanction within specified limits and arranges for executing the works and schemes within its jurisdiction.

**SUMMARY OF POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF PANCHAYAT SAMITHIS<sup>1</sup>**

1. The Presidents and members of the Panchayat Samithis have to endeavour to instill among the people within their jurisdiction a spirit of self-help and initiative and harness their enthusiasm for raising the standard of living.

1. Adapted from "Panchayat Raj in Andhra Pradesh - - A Brief Outline" published by Govt. of Andhra Pradesh.

2. They have to enlist the whole hearted support of the people for the implementation of the Development Programmes, not only of those which relate to the Community for which Government assistance is forthcoming, but much more so of those which relate to individuals and which are mainly based on self-help.

3. They have to exercise all the powers conferred on and perform all the functions entrusted to the Panchayat Samithi by the Government.

4. In particular, all the activities of Community Development Programme are taken over by Panchayat Samithis. The activities concerning the rural welfare and development in the fields of Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Health and Sanitation, Elementary Education, Cottage Industries, Social Welfare etc., which were being carried on by the normal Development Departments are now entrusted to the Panchayat Samithis. These schemes have been transferred with all the institutions, staff and funds to the Panchayat Samithis.

5. The powers and functions of the District Boards, with institutions, staff and assets and liabilities have been transferred to the Panchayat Samithis with effect from 1st December 1959. The Presidents and members will have to see to the proper implementation of all the programmes and working of the institutions entrusted to them.

6. The Panchayat Samithis can borrow funds for carrying out the purposes of the Act subject to the conditions laid down in the Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Samithis and Zill Parishads Loans Rules, 1959.

7. The powers of the various authorities to accord administrative and financial sanction in respect of the works and schemes of Panchayat Samithis are embodied in the rules issued by Government.

8. Government of Andhra Pradesh have given to the panchayat Samithis the funds provided under the head "Loans for irrigation and rural housing" in the Community Development Programme. These funds will be recovered from the Panchayat Samithis in instalments. The Panchayat Samithis will have to sanction and disburse loans to individuals and will have to recover them from the loanees.

9. The loan funds available with some of the normal development departments such as Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Industries, etc., are also made over to Panchayat Samithis to be similarly spent and recovered.

10. The funds available under the Village Housing Project are also entrusted to Panchayat Samithis. All these loans will have to be recovered from the loanees by the Panchayat Samithis themselves.

**3. The Zilla Parishad :** is the third tier of Panchayat Raj operating at the district level. It consists of :

- i. All Presidents of Panchayat Samithis in the district
  - ii. The District Collector
  - iii. M. L. As of the District
  - iv. M. L. Cs.
  - v. M. Ps. of the District
  - vi. Two women representatives
  - vii. One representative of Scheduled Castes
  - viii. One representative of Scheduled Tribes
  - ix. Two persons interested in rural development
- } with right to vote but not to hold office.

The members of the Parishad elect a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman.

The district heads of development departments take part in the proceedings of the Parishad and its Standing Committees. There will be a Secretary appointed by the Government, who attends all meetings of the Parishad and its Standing Committees. Official members are not entitled to vote. Every Zilla Parishad has normally seven Standing Committees as detailed in Table 11.

Each Standing Committee consists of 9 members of whom the Chairman of Zilla Parishad and the District Collector are ex-officio members. The District Collector is the Chairman of all the Standing Committees. In his absence, the Chairman or Vice-Chairman will officiate.

TABLE — 11

**Zilla Parishad Standing Committees and their Assignments.**

<i>Designation of the Standing Committee</i>	<i>Subjects handled</i>
Standing Committee I	Planning and Production
Standing Committee II	Co-operation and Industries
Standing Committee III	Education
Standing Committee IV	Women Welfare
Standing Committee V	Social Welfare
Standing Committee VI	Communications
Standing Committee VII	Taxation and Finance

**SUMMARY OF POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE  
ZILLA PARISHAD<sup>1</sup>**

9/2/71  
2/1/71  
1. Zilla Parishad should function as advisory body over the Panchayat Samithis with powers to: (a) approve their budgets, (b) co-ordinate their plans and (c) distribute funds given by the Government among the blocks.

2. It has to prepare plans for all items of developmental activities in the district including Municipal areas.

3. It has to secure execution of plans etc., which are common to two or more blocks.

4. Secondary education is the responsibility of Zilla Parishad.

5. The Parishad should perform such of the powers and functions of the District Board as are transferred to it by the Government.

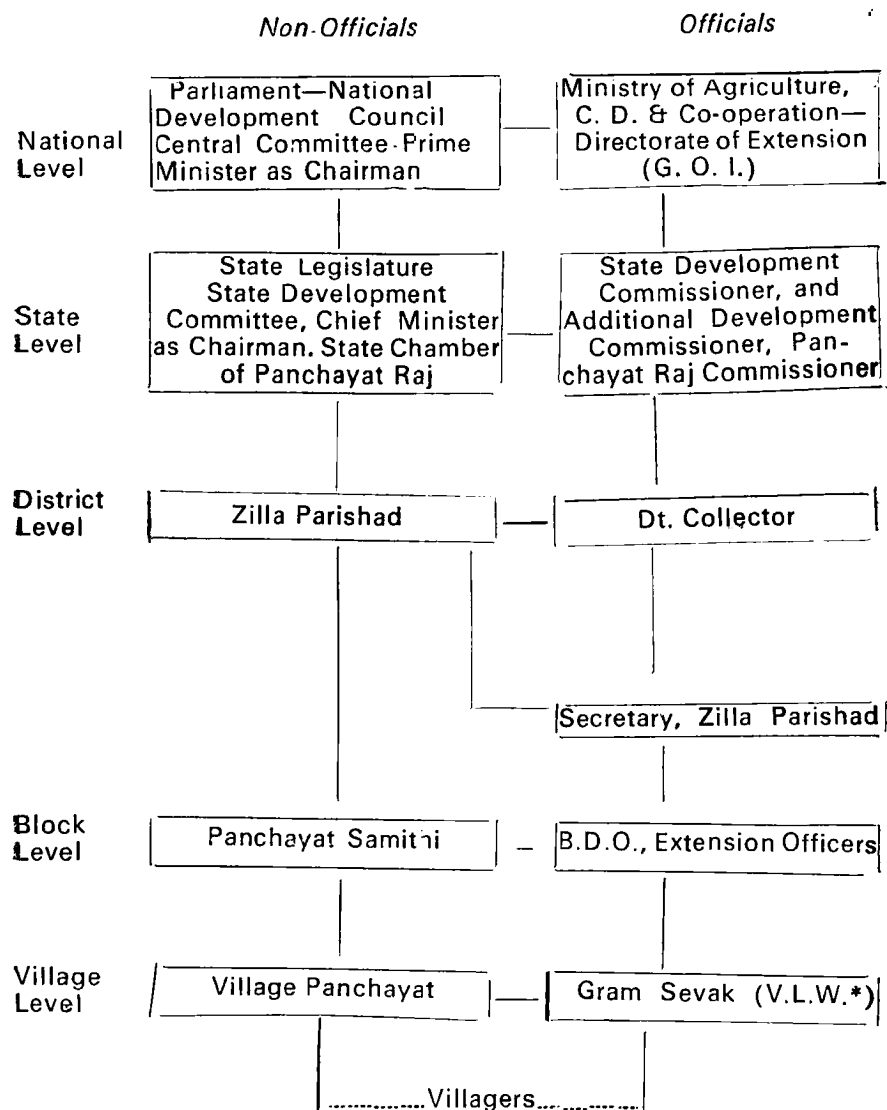
6. It should also perform the functions of Panchayat Samithis in respect of non-Samithi blocks.

7. It should advise the Government in all matters relating to rural development in the district.

8. It should discuss and review at its ordinary meetings the progress made or the results achieved under various items. Similarly the District Officer of every Development Department furnishes to the Parishad a brief note on the achievements in the schemes of his department. Such notes will be periodically reviewed by the Parishad.

1. Adapted from "Panchayat Raj in Andhra Pradesh - a Brief Outline", op. cit.

FIGURE-23. Extension Organisation in Panchayat Raj Set-up



\* Since changed as V. D. O.

Note: As per the amended Act of 1975 In Andhra Pradesh, the Dt. Collector is not a member of the Zilla Parishad and the Chief Executive Officer takes the place of Secretary, Zilla Parishad.

Table 12 summarises the more important functions of the three tiers of Panchayat Raj.

TABLE - 12. Functions of Panchayat Raj Institutions.

Panchayat	Panchayat Samithi	Zilla Parishad
1. Sanitation, conservation and water supply.	1. Administration of blocks.	1. Approval of Panchayat Samithis' budgets
2. Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, drains etc.	2. Execution of all programmes under C.D.	2. Distribution of funds among Panchayat Samithis.
3. Promotion of Agriculture, co-operation and cottage industries.	3. Approval of Panchayat Budget	3. Coordinating plans and supervising the activities of the Samithis.
	4. Management of elementary schools.	4. Advising the Government on developmental activities of the district.
	5. Promotion of Agriculture and cottage industries.	5. Establishing and maintenance of secondary, vocational and industrial schools.
		6. Maintenance of major communications.

#### Review of the Functioning of Panchayat Raj in Andhra Pradesh and Consequential Changes in the Relevant Acts.

The Committee appointed by the Congress Legislature Party (Vengal Rao Committee) and the High Power Committee on Panchayat Raj (Narasimham Committee) appointed by the Andhra Pradesh Government reviewed the functioning of Panchayat Raj in the State and made certain recommendations to revitalise these institutions.

The following is a summary of the achievements and failures of these institutions, as pointed out by the above two Committees.

**Achievements :**

It can be generally stated that significant progress has been achieved by Panchayat Raj bodies in the fields of primary and secondary education, communications, agricultural extension, co-operation, medical help etc.

Gram Panchayats having the needed resources, have provided drinking water facilities, including even protected water systems in some cases, besides improving the streets, providing electric lights, constructing sanitary conveniences and maintaining sanitation staff etc.

Despite its shortcomings, Panchayati Raj has brought about a remarkable awakening among the rural people, as a result of which the villager has become conscious of his own rights and developed the urge to improve his living standards.

**Shortcomings and failures :**

1. There seems to be a general feeling among the representatives of the Panchayati Raj bodies that there is a dilution of their authority and responsibility in actual functioning.

2. There were instances of the Collectors utilising the engineering staff of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samithis for the execution of schemes of rural housing, drought relief, crash programmes, etc. without involving these bodies in those schemes and to the detriment of other development works and maintenance programmes of these bodies which the engineering staff are expected to attend to.

3. Frequent changes in the authority competent to make transfers of teachers, etc., have created a poor image of these bodies.

4. The main objective of creating a team of competent officials at the block level has been diluted by taking away some of the block functionaries like the Social Education Organiser from the control of the Samithis. Attempts are being made by some heads of departments to withdraw their functionaries back to departmental control.

5. In the case of Gram Panchayats, Government poramboke lands instead of being handed over to them, are being assigned or leased, even without consulting them. Thus they have not only been deprived of the opportunity to develop the porambokes and strengthen their own finances but have also been made the target of mockingly democratic decentralisation.

6. Failure to mobilise resources to the extent necessary.

7. Failure to secure people's participation except in the case of works sponsored by themselves.

8. Tendency on the part of the office bearers to identify themselves with their own party men neglecting the needs of others.

9. The failure of many office bearers to take adequate work from the staff of the Samithi Office and wilful omission to follow rules and procedures prescribed by Government.

10. Failure to take up schemes specially intended for the benefit of the weaker sections and to bestow special attention to complete them and also failure to take adequate steps for complete abolition of untouchability.

11. Frequent transfers of primary school teachers

12. Inadequate maintenance of amenities already provided.

13. Visits of office-bearers to Panchayats being not always purposive but mostly casual.

14. The works sponsored by Panchayats being badly delayed for want of prompt attention by the engineering supervisors at the block level to prepare estimates, to check-measure works etc.

15. Political power as well as social and economic benefits have flown largely to the affluent sections of the rural community.

16. Election malpractices due to indirect election of Sarpanchas, Samithi Presidents and Zilla Parishad Chairman.)

The following are the more important changes introduced in the structure and functioning of the Panchayat Raj bodies, as a result of the Andhra Pradesh Gram Panchayats (Amendment) Act, 1975 and the Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Samithi and Zilla Parishads Act, 1975.

**(A) Gram Panchayats :**

1. The total strength of a Gram Panchayat shall be in accordance with Table 13.

T A B L E - 13.

Total strength of Gram Panchayats population at the last census :	Number of members (including Sarpanch)
less than 500	7
500 or more but not exceeding 1,500	9
exceeding 1,500 but not exceeding 3,000	11
exceeding 3,000 but not exceeding 5,000	13
exceeding 5,000 but not exceeding 10,000	15
exceeding 10,000 but not exceeding 15,000	17
exceeding 15,000	19

2. Greater representation to women, Scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, as follows :

(a) two seats, if the total strength aforesaid is nine or less, three seats if the total strength aforesaid exceeds nine but does not exceed fifteen, and four seats if the total strength aforesaid exceeds fifteen, for women; and

(b) (i) where the combined population at the last census of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the village is twenty-five, one seat to the Scheduled Castes or to the Scheduled Tribes, whoever are greater in number;

(b) (ii) Where such combined population of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in the village is more than twenty-five but such combined population does not exceed one-half of the total population of the village, such number of seats for Scheduled Castes or for the Scheduled tribes, as the case may be, as may be fixed by the Commissioner having due regard to the proportion of their population to the total population of the village, subject to the condition that atleast one seat shall be reserved either for the Scheduled Castes or for the Scheduled Tribes, whoever are greater in number.

3. Direct election of the Sarpanch by all persons listed in the electoral roll of the Gram Panchayat, at the same time and in the same place as the ordinary elections of the members of the Gram-Panchayat. A person who stands for election as Sarpanch shall not be eligible to stand for election as a member and vice versa. The Sarpanch shall be an *ex-officio* member of the Gram Panchayat, with a right to vote.

4. For every Gram Panchayat, one of the members shall be elected as Upa-Sarpanch from among themselves.

5. The provision relating to the motion of no-confidence shall be confined only against the Upa-Sarpanch as a consequence to the direct election of the Sarpanch.

6. Members of the State Legislature can hold the office of Sarpanch, while continuing as such.

7. Compulsory levy of Kolagaram Katarusum by Gram Panchayats; (which is at present in the discretion of the Gram Panchayat) and irrespective of whether or not a Market Committee has been constituted.

8. Gram Panchayat funds to be lodged in Government Treasuries only and not in Post Office Savings Bank Accounts etc.

9. The collection of Gram Panchayat taxes to be entrusted to the Village Officers compulsorily where there is no separate staff of Gram-Panchayat for the purpose, on payment of remuneration by way of commission not exceeding 6½% of the gross amount collected.

10. Barbers, washermen, Medaris and Kummaris to be exempted from payment of profession tax and licence fee.

11. Gram Panchayats to levy profession tax on corporate bodies like Andhra Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation, Andhra Pradesh State Electricity Board etc.

**(B) Panchayat Samithis and Zilla Parishads :**

1. The members of the State Legislature and of Parliament who are registered voters in the Block or District, as the case may be, to become the members of the respective Panchayat Samithis or Zilla Parishads and also to be eligible to hold elective offices in those bodies while continuing as Members of the State Legislature or Parliament.

2. The President of Panchayat Samithi shall be elected by all the members of the Gram Panchayats in the Block from among the registered voters in the Block (i. e. by direct election) on the same day as the ordinary elections of the members of the Gram Panchayats. The President shall be an *ex-officio* member of the Panchayat Samithi with a right to vote. If the President is elected as Chairman of the Zilla Parishad, he shall, from the date of his election, cease to be President.

3. There shall be a Vice-President for each Panchayat Samithi who shall be elected by the members of the Samithi from among themselves.

4. The Chairman of a Zilla Parishad shall be elected by the Sarpanchas of all the Gram Panchayats in the district (i. e. by direct election) from among the registered voters in the district on the same day on which the elections of the Sarpanchas in the district are held. The Chairman shall be an *ex-officio* member of the Zilla Parishad, with a right to vote.

5. There shall be a Vice-Chairman for each Zilla Parishad who shall be elected by the members of the Zilla Parishad from among themselves.

6. The provision relating to the motion of no-confidence shall be confined only against the Vice-President of Panchayat Samithi or the Vice-Chairman of a Zilla Parishad as a consequence

to the direct election of the President of a Panchayat Samithi and Chairman of a Zilla Parishad.

7. The number of Standing Committees of the Panchayat Samithi or the Zilla Parishad shall be reduced from seven to five as shown in table 14.

Table-14

**Standing Committees of Panchayat Samithis/Zilla Parishads**

S. No.	Name of the Standing Committee	Subjects Assigned
i)	Standing Committee for development	Planning, food and Agriculture including irrigation wells, animal husbandry, reclamation including soil conservation, contour bunding, forests and fisheries, co-operation, thrift and small savings, industries including cottage, village and small scale industries, trusts, rural housing and statistics;
ii)	Standing Committee for Education	Education including social education, medical relief, public health and sanitation including drainage, relief of distress in grave emergencies and self help programmes;
iii)	Standing Committee for Social Welfare and Women Welfare	Social Welfare and welfare of women and Children;
iv)	Standing Committee for works	Communications, rural water supply, power and irrigation, excluding irrigation wells;
v)	Standing Committee for Finance	Taxation and finance.

8. In the case of both Panchayat Samithi and Zilla Parishad, every Standing Committee shall consist of such member or members as may be determined by the Samithi or Parishad so however that every member of the Samithi or Parishad (as the case may be), shall be represented in any one of the Standing Committees and that at least one representative of the Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes and one woman shall be among the members of each

Standing Committee other than the Standing Committee for Social Welfare and Women Welfare. The representatives of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women should constitute a majority in the case of the Standing Committee for Social Welfare and Women Welfare.

9. Every Standing Committee, other than the Standing Committee for Finance, shall elect from among its members, a chairman in the prescribed manner; and in respect of the Standing Committee for Finance; the President shall be its *ex-officio* Chairman in the case of Panchayat Samithi, and the Chairman of the Zilla Parishad shall be its *ex-officio* Chairman in the case of Zilla Parishad. This arrangement disassociates the District Collector from being a member of the Zilla Parishad and the Chairman of any Standing Committee there of.

10. The Government shall appoint a Chief Executive Officer for each Zilla Parishad in place of the existing Secretary to Zilla Parishad, with more executive powers.

11. The Chief Executive Officer shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its Committees (including any Panchayat Samithi) and take part in the discussions thereat, but shall not be entitled to vote or to move any resolution. He shall supervise and control the execution of all activities of the Zilla Parishad.

12. If at a special meeting of the Zilla Parishad not less than two-thirds of the total number of members of the Zilla Parishad vote in favour of a resolution requiring the Government to withdraw the Chief Executive Officer from office, the Government shall withdraw such officer from service under the Zilla Parishad.

#### **Role of Officials and Non-officials in Panchayat Raj**

For democracy to function efficiently, there should be a well-informed body of persons drawn from the people. It also comprehends the existence of a band of public servants experienced and competent to give counsel to the former. Any programme of the size and nature as Community Development can hardly strike root, so long as the agency chosen to implement it is purely mercenary in character. Being of and nearest to the people and sharing their pains and pleasures, and knowing their needs and potentialities, their representatives could surely be relied upon to better fulfil their role, and more effectively too, than the paid servants. There can be no doubt, that they are the most competent

to judge what is good for the people, and that, being of the people, they are in a more advantageous position to give them the correct lead. Their role may roughly be :

- a) to map out the needs of each village and of the Block,
- b) to list out its latent potentialities,
- c) to take stock of the resources, internal and external,
- d) to allot priorities among the needs listed out at (a) above, with reference to the resources,
- e) to harness available and potential resources,
- f) to enthuse the people to the tasks involved in development programmes.
- g) to develop community outlook among the people and to organise voluntary effort, so as to create Community assets and to maintain them, and
- h) to educate the people to think in terms of planned development both individually and as a Community.

Their task is, thus, to bring to the forefront the needs of the area, to take stock of the resources and to match the resources, monetary and otherwise, to the task ahead and to fulfil the requirements of the individual as well as of the Community. It is also their duty to implement the decisions taken and be answerable for the proper and prompt implementation of those decisions. In short their role is, thus, to think for and with the community and to activate the community towards achieving the goals marked for their welfare and advancement.

In playing the above role the representatives of the people have largely to rely on their official counterparts, who constitute the permanent link in the administration. On many occasions their advice and experience may have to be indented upon. Thus, while the non-official body envisions the picture of development, it is the task of the staff to provide the correct advice and to give it a practical shape, so that results may be beneficial and lasting and achieved with the utmost economy in time, money and effort. Their role shall, therefore, be :

- a) to process the proposals of the non-official members,
- b) to offer suggestions for the development of the Block;
- c) to relate targets to resources,
- d) to arrange priorities to secure the maximum advantage in the minimum time.
- e) to organise work requiring voluntary effort,
- f) to raise additional resources wherever necessary and possible,

- g) to suggest and aid in improving existing assets,
- h) to examine the latent potentialities of the area and to suggest means of development.
- i) to assess the possible rate of growth of development and find means and measures for achieving them,
- j) to execute the plan of work and,
- k) to constantly evaluate progress, review and readjust the programmes.

From the above it may be realised that the roles of both the officials and non-officials are closely knit and complimentary, and that what the one visualises, the other strives to materialise. Together they constitute that two arms of the administration, the one to plan and enthuse the people and the other to advice and provide the working base. The degree of success or efficiency of the administration, therefore, depends directly on the extent to which both of them walk in step and work in unison, each spurring the other on to ever-increasing activity for the good of all.

#### **Some Special Features and Advantages of Democratic Decentralization**

a) Previously the sanction of most of the works and schemes was in the hands of officials at higher levels. As a result of devolution of these powers, Panchayat Samithis and their Standing Committees can themselves now sanction most of the schemes in the overall programme of Community Development. Government are also advancing loans to the Panchayat Samithis so that they may in turn pass them on to Panchayats according to needs and the latter may sanction to individuals and institutions.

b) Most of the functions which were hitherto implemented by the Government through the Heads of Departments are now performed by and under the administrative control of the Panchayat Samithis. Thus there is a single agency at Block level for all development programmes.

c) The power and functions of the District Boards are allocated among the Parishads and the Samithis, which are within the reach of rural people.

d) Panchayat Samithis have all the technical assistance required at the block level itself.

e) Elementary education is now the sole responsibility of the Panchayat Samithis.

f) Rural medical institutions in the Block are under the administrative control of the Panchayat Samithis.

g) Members of the Panchayat Samithis have the right to inspect institutions or works in the Block with a view to ensure efficient working and execution and draw the attention of the executive to any defects, etc.

h) All State aid and assistance from the All India Boards for various non-official organisations in the Blocks are routed through the Samithis.

i) Personnel functioning within the Block are pooled together so that they function in a co-ordinated way under the Samithis.

j) The responsibility for maintenance of minor irrigation works which was hitherto vested with Collectors and the Public Works Department, belongs to Samithis now.

k) Panchayat Samithis provide financial and technical assistance and supervision to Panchayats.

l) Previously at village, block and district levels, especially the latter two levels there were advisory bodies constituted by various departments. Now the functions of all these different advisory bodies are performed by the three statutory bodies and their Standing Committees.

m) Block plans will be based on village plans and District Plans on Block Plans, and the District Plans will make the State Plans. Thus the State Plans will be built up from the village Panchayat upwards. This will make our plans truly reflect needs of the people.

n) Panchayats and Panchayat Samithis have better finances.

o) The Panchayat Samithis are given power to levy surcharges on taxes levied by the Panchayats. This will help the Panchayat Samithis build up their resources.

p) The main function of the popular institutions will be planning and execution of all schemes of rural development on the twin principles of self-help and mutual co-operation. They have to strive to create a new out-look among the people and make them self-reliant, hard working and responsive to community action. They have also to secure economic development along democratic lines by the application of co-operation in its varying forms. They have to develop cottage and small scale industries and provide

employment and exploit the use of locally available raw materials. In short the very concept of the functions of the statutory democratic institutions is transformed from one of providing amenities to that of bringing about a silent socio-economic revolution in the villages.

#### IV. RURAL YOUTH PROGRAMMES

The youth of to-day are the citizens of to-morrow. The progress and prosperity of a nation depends to a large extent on how well trained and disciplined its youth are. It was in appreciation of this fact that the 4-H movement began in a small way about sixty years ago in rural America as an effort to preserve and stimulate farm youth's interest in agriculture and ensure that their rural heritage was not swallowed up by the country's urban and industrial expansion. The movement has steadily increased its scope and now extends to about seventy countries all over the world.

##### 4-H Clubs in U. S. A.

As early as 1900, various clubs were started in U. S. A. for rural boys and girls. Seaman A. Knapp began boys' clubs to demonstrate corn growing and crop rotation in his fight against the boll weevil.

With the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, O. H. Benson, an associate of Dr. Knapp, was placed in charge of boys and girls' club work. It was Mr. Benson who furnished the inspiration for the name "4-H", the motto, and much of the plan of organisation now followed. These clubs inculcate in the youth (10 to 20 years old) a desire for service in rural areas and for facing problems connected with farms and homes.

The name 4-H became the official lable, signifying the four broad objectives of the organization, namely :

HEAD, pledged to clearer thinking, intelligent understanding and appreciation of the environment in which they live, and develop a scientific attitude towards the problems of the farm and the home;

HEART, pledged to greater loyalty, to the development of desirable ideals and standards for farming, home-making, community life and citizenship;

HANDS, pledged to larger service, to "learning by doing", to the acquisition of technical skills in farming and home-making and

conducting of suitable farm or home enterprises and demonstration; and,

HEALTH, pledged to efficient working, the intelligent use of leisure and to better living.

The 4-H Club emblem is the four-leaf clover with the letter "H" on each leaf. The club colours are green and white; the white back-ground of the flag symbolizes purity and the green of the emblem represents nature's most common colour, and also the attributes of youth, life and growth. The motto of 4-H Clubs is "*To Make the Best Better*".

The number of 4-H Clubs in the United States is about 90,000 with a total membership of nearly two-and-a-half million. The list of their comprehensive activities ranges from Development of new farming practices to promotion of internal co-operation and understanding. Any boy or girl between the ages of ten and twenty-one may join 4-H Club and may choose a project related to the science of agriculture or farm and home life - - improvement of crops, livestock or poultry, updating of handling, packaging and marketing techniques, elimination of farm hazards. Or a member may choose some other activity, such as home decoration, food preparation and preservation, handicrafts, child care, first aid, safe driving, landscape gardening or miscellaneous civic duties. The choice is indeed so wide that any boy or girl may take up almost any project in which he or she is interested. Profit may or may not be an objective of the project.

4-H Clubs organised on completely democratic lines. They are conducted under the supervision of Country Agricultural Agents, and voluntary leadership is provided by citizens -- farmers, teachers, businessmen, clergymen. The members elect their own officers and learn early to respect the wishes of the majority. Meetings are conducted in accordance with parliamentary procedure. Programmes are based on the member's own needs, desires and interests. The emphasis on local needs is one of the foremost reasons for the growth of the movement. Projects are re-examined from time to time and adapted to suit current conditions. They may be projects carried out by one individual or by a team of group under the guidance of club leaders and the Country Agent. Members are expected to write a report upon completion of each project, in which they assess mistakes as well as successes.

The results achieved by 4-H Clubs in the United States have been gratifying. They are reflected not only in increased agricultural out-put but in the general improvement of rural life. By developing manual skills the young members of the clubs add to their school or college education a highly useful element of professional or domestic training. Club work provides the missing element in much of school instruction -- a close and personal relationship between book knowledge and actual life situations and problems. By learning to solve some of these problems and acquiring self-confidence and self reliance, young people learn to equip themselves better for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

A spirit of healthy rivalry is strong in 4-H Clubs work. Demonstrations and exhibits are held from time to time, and judging of finished products helps in improving standards of quality and stimulating members' interest. Participation in local, state and national fairs provides opportunities for display of both individual and team work, and for incentives to greater effort. Since the earliest days of the movement, 4-H Clubs boys and girls have been award-winners in country-wide shows and contests, and have often excelled their elders in achievement.

Recreation, healthy and inspirational is an important part of 4H Club programmes. It includes camping, hiking, tours and educational trips, music and dramatic performances and pageants. The first National Camp, attended by delegates from all over the United States, was held in Washington in 1927 and, except during the war years, the camp has been held annually thereafter. It enables rural youth to exchange ideas, to become better acquainted with the research work of the United States Department of Agriculture and to see the machinery of the Federal Government at work.

In 1959 a generous grant from the Ford Foundation helped establishment of the 4-H. National Centre in Washington Located on a twelve-and a-half acre site and with facilities for accommodating 300 visiting members, the Centre is the venue of varied activities and serves as headquarters for the International Farm Youth Exchange Programme. Under this programme, American farm youth have visited some sixty other countries, including India, living and working with farm families; and rural youth from those countries have come to the United States to get first-hand knowledge of American farm life and techniques.

Based on ideals of self-help, co-operation and progressive citizenship, which are of universal application, the 4-H movement has naturally crossed national boundaries of U.S.A. It is now a potent force for building better communities everywhere and is making a worth-while contribution to international understanding and good will.<sup>1</sup>

### YOUTH PROGRAMMES IN INDIA

#### (A) Young Farmers' Association

During recent years the 4-H idea has spread to many countries all over the world. In India the Young Farmers' Association was formed in 1956 by a group of zealous Farm Youth Exchanges and other progressive rural youth, under the guidance of Dr. P. S. Deshmukh, at that time Union Minister for Agriculture. In this address at the Mysore State Young Farmer's Rally held by the Association in February, 1959, late Prime Minister Nehru remarked : "This inspires me and encourages me because this is the kind of thing we want to have all over india". The Association now has a membership of about 2,00,000 and, inspite of handicaps, is making progress. It has organized national conventions, seminars and training camps. Some 150 members of the Association have already visited the United States and other countries under youth exchange programmes.

The following is a brief account of the Young Farmers' Association, India, its objectives, and activities.

**YOUNG FARMERS' ASSOCIATION, INDIA :** (Bharat Yuvak Krishak Samaj) : Established in April, 1956.

#### *What is Y F A ?*

It is a non-political and non-sectarian organisation devoted to social and economic advancement of the rural youth of India.

#### *Aims and objectives :*

1. To co-ordinate and utilise the creative abilities of rural youth for improvement of community life and agriculture.
2. To organise local clubs of rural boys and girls to help them adopt improved farming and home-making methods through specific programmes which will also develop leadership, healthy competition and co-operative spirit in work and recreation.

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1. Sagar, N. V., "To make the Best Better"—Span, December 1962.

3. To promote international goodwill and understanding through exchange of young farmers and home makers.

The Association is particularly interested in diffusing practical information about the improved methods of farming among the young agriculturists. It stands for stimulating and maintaining the interest of the young farmers in the all-round development of village life.

#### *Who is a Young Farmer ?*

Any person who joins the Y F A and is a duly enrolled member of Y F A, India, or a member of any of its State branches is a *Young Farmer*. There is no age limit for Associate Membership *but Active Members* must be below 35.

The Y F A publishes two monthly journals, "Rural Youth" in English and "Gram Yuvak" in Hindi besides informative and technical booklets. It has its branches at State, district and village levels.

#### **Activities of the Y. F. A.**

##### **Central Organisation :**

1. Sends circular letters on topics relating to rural youth to life-members, patrons, sympathisers and organisers.
2. Maintains close contacts with national and international youth organisations.
3. Publishes monthly journal 'Rural Youth' and "Gram Yuvak".
4. Publishes informative and technical booklets.
5. Conducts all-India and regional rural youth organisers' training camps.
6. Organises the annual national convention of young farmers, rural youth festivals and seminars.
7. Provides information about national and foreign youth movements.
8. Coordinates the activities of the different State branches of the Association.
9. Enrols life members, patrons, sympathisers and patrons in-chief.
10. Conducts research on the programme planning techniques and leadership possibilities of the rural youth.

**State Organisation :**

1. Sends circular letters on topics relating to rural youth in regional languages.
2. Distributes and sells Y F A literature and publishes literature in regional languages.
3. Publishes journals in regional languages.
4. Conducts State training camps.
5. Arranges inter-State study tours.
6. Coordinates district-level activities.
7. Enrols associate and active members.
8. Organises State Young Farmers' conventions and seminars.
9. Organises district branches.

**District Organisation :**

1. Distributes Y F A literature.
2. Holds district conventions and organises sports, cultural festivals, etc.
3. Organises study tours.
4. Holds training camps.
5. Organises and affiliates village cells.

**Village Organisation :**

1. Organises programmes aimed to develop leadership, healthy competition and co-operative spirit in the rural boys and girls.
2. Allots to members individual and group projects in horticulture, agriculture, animal husbandry, cottage industries and co-operative consumers' stores.
3. Helps club members in carrying out their projects.
4. Organises demonstration of improved methods of cultivation.
5. Organises cultural and recreational activities.
6. Organises contests, exhibitions, etc.
7. Enrols ~~and~~ associate members.