ACHARYA N. G. RANGA AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY

DA-292

AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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ACHARYA N.G. RANGA AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY
Faculty of Agriculture – Polytechnic course
COURSE OUTLINE

Degree Programme	:	Diploma in Agriculture
Course No.	:	DA-292
Course Title	:	Agricultural Extension and Rural Development
Credit hours	:	3 (2+1)

Theory

1. Education – Meaning of formal, informal and non-formal Education and differences between Formal and Non-formal Education

2. Extension Education - Meaning, Definition, Concepts, Objectives, Principles & Importance

3. Agricultural Extension - Meaning and scope

4. Extension Teaching Methods - Meaning, Classification

5. Factors to be Considered in Selection and Combination of Extension Methods

6. Individual extension teaching methods - Advantages and disadvantages

7. Group extension teaching methods - Advantages and disadvantages

8. Mass extension teaching methods - Advantages and disadvantages

9. Agricultural Information Material s- Advantages, Production, Types – Leaflet, Folder, Pamphlet, Circular letter, News letter, Bulletin, News Story, Wall News Paper

10. Instructional/Teaching aids- Meaning, Objective, Classification

11. Edgar Dale's Cone of experience

12. Extension Programme Planning- Meaning of Planning, Programme, Project, Calendar of work, Plan of work, Principles of Programme Planning and Steps in Programme Development Process

13. Evaluation - Meaning, Elements, Degrees and Importance of Evaluation in Extension

14. Sociology and Rural Sociology - Importance of Rural Sociology in Extension Education, Characteristics of Indian Rural Society

15. Differences between Rural and Urban Community

16. Rural Development - Meaning, Objective and Problems

17. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)- Meaning, Principles, Salient features, Techniques of PRA
18. Mapping techniques in PRA
19. Ranking Techniques in PRA
20. Trend analysis techniques in PRA
21. Leadership - Meaning, Classification of Leaders, Characteristics of Leaders
22. Selection and Training of Leaders
23. Pre-Independence developmental programmes
24. Post-Independence developmental programmes
25. Community Development- Meaning, Principles and Objectives
26. Panchayat Raj System - Democratic Decentralization, three tiers of Panchayat Raj System
27. Structure of Panchayat Raj Institutions
28. Powers and Functions of Panchayat Raj Institutions
29. Evolution of Mandal System in Andhra Pradesh
30. Extension Reforms - ATMA
31. Extension Reforms - SREP
32. Extension Reforms - Marketled Extension

Practical

1. Visit to a village to identify the problems in rural development and plan a programme (using 9 steps) to solve the problems
2. Visit to Gram Panchayat
3. Visit to Mandal Parishad
4. Visit to Zilla Parishad
5. Preparation of Leaflet
6. Preparation of Folder
7. Preparation of Pamphlet
8. Preparation of News Story
9. Visit to a village to study the characteristics of rural society
10. Visit to a village to transfer technical information to farmers using any extension teaching method/s
11. Visit to a village to select lay leaders
12. Record writing and submission for final evaluation

"Education is the most powerful weapon you can use to change the world"

The role of education in our society is huge. Education is the key to opening more resources for growth and progress in life.

Education is the process of giving training and instruction to people to develop their knowledge, abilities, skills, character and mental powers.

There are three types of education-
    (1)   Formal education
    (2)   Informal education
    (3)   Non-Formal education

Formal Education - Is highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured 'education starting from primary school and reaching upto University education.
Eg. Education given in school, college, university

Informal Education - Is the life long process by which every person acquires knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work, at play etc.
Eg. **A parent teaching a child how to ride a bicycle**

Non-formal Education - Is an organised, systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, including adults and children.
Eg.: Agricultural Extension-An extension worker improving the skill of farmers in seed treatment through method demonstration.

Differences between Formal and Non – formal education

S. No	Criteria	Formal education	Non formal education
1	Concerned with	Educational growth of children and youth preparing them for future	Adults and youth actual life situations
2	Attendance	Is compulsory	Participation is voluntary
3	Learners	Are relatively more homogenous in terms of their age, educational qualification, experience, knowledge, interests and needs	Are relatively more heterogeneous in terms of their age, educational qualification, experience, knowledge, interests, and needs also vary with value systems, cultural background etc
4	Preconceived ideas	Learners do not generally have any preconceived ideas	Learners generally have preconceived ideas and notions because of their past experiences
5	Curriculum	Fixed and has pre decided subjects. Students should adopt themselves to the curriculum offered	No fixed curriculum and it is flexible to meet the diverse needs and demands of farmers
6	Teaching	Is more formal with class rooms, prescribed text books, and examinations	Is more informal without any fixed venue and text books, timings and examinations, it is specific and problem oriented
7	Mode of instruction	Vertical- from teacher to student. More instructive in nature	Horizontal. Shared learning between teacher and learner
8	Method of learning	Starts with theory followed by practical	Starts with practical and goes on to theory
9	Teacher	Is older and experienced than the learners	May be younger and inexperienced than the learners
10	Knowledge flow	Vertical in nature	Horizontal in nature
11	Evaluation	More formal in the form of marks, grades etc	More informal evaluation

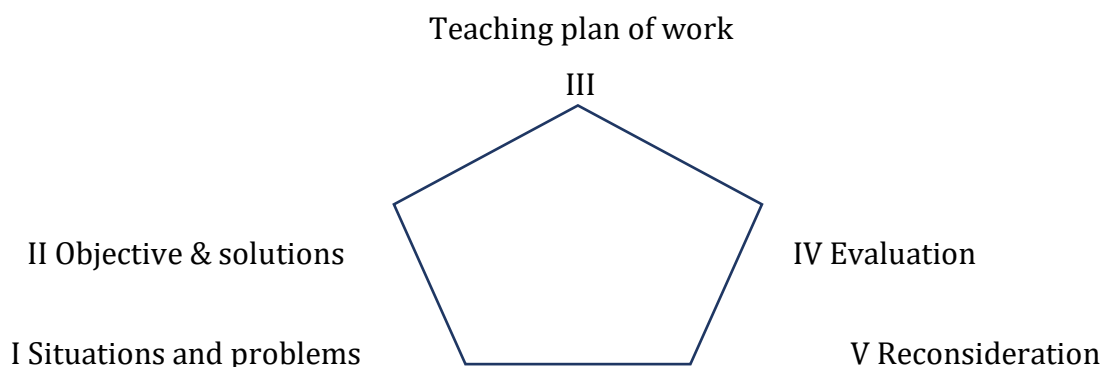| 12	Approach	Deductive	Inductive
13	Degrees and diplomas	will be awarded	No degrees and diplomas are awarded but as this non formal education develops certificates may be given as recognition of acquired Skill
14	Orientation	Board based and general in nature	Specific to situation
15	Nature of Education	It aims at developing learners physical and mental faculties In the institutional education, the knowledge and to some extent skills of the students are increased	This aims at developing knowledge, attitudes, and skill in the learners pertaining to specific subject. By extension education the human behavior is changed.
16	Duration	It is time bound programme	Free from regulation, participatory in nature
17	Place of teaching	Learning takes place within the four walls o the institution	Learning in real life situation-in villages and fields.
18	Need orientation	It has definite programme and do not run according to the needs of the student	It is according to the needs of the people and availability of resources
18	Problem solving	Problems of the student are solved by the teacher	Problems of the people are solved by the people

LECTURE-2

EXTENSION EDUCATION
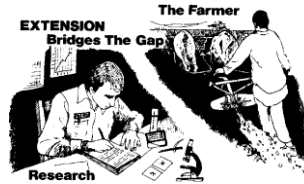
Increasing the farm income with the application of scientific and technical knowledge in cultivation is the main aim of extension education. Transferring the research findings and technologies developed in the research to the farmers in the role of extension personnel (Lab to land). The research findings/ technologies disseminated to farmers should be cost effective. Extension education was first started in Land Grant College of USA later introduced in all State Agricultural Universities in India.

Extension education is unlike formal education. It is an education given to farmers, farm women, rural youth in villages at as public places like evening meeting places, temples, etc in vernacular language that is understandable to all. India is an agrarian country hence Agricultural Extension Education is very needful. There are two important things scientific information and its disseminate. Extension personnel need to understand these this well before performing the extension duties.

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 U.S. A.

A Concept of the Extension Educational Process.

This concept identifies five essential phases in the extension educational process as Developed by Dr. J. Paul Leagans presented in fig.1

Teaching plan of work

III

II Objective & solutions   IV Evaluation

I Situations and problems   V Reconsideration

The Extension Educational Process

I. 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. A thorough analysis will examine changing conditions and take a careful look ahead, comparing "what is" with "what should be".

II. The second phase is **deciding upon objectives**. It necessary to distinguish between levels of objectives by separate 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 be offered must give satisfaction. Objectives should express t behavioural changes in people as well as the economic or soc outcomes which are desired.

 III. The third phase is **teaching**. This involves choosing (the content or what is to be taught and (2) methods and technique of communication.

 IV. The fourth phase is **evaluation** of the teaching. This should determine to what extent objectives have been reached. This will also be a test of how accurately and clearly the objectives have been stated.

 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.

Objectives of Extension

The fundamental objective of extension is the **development of the people or "the Destination Man**".

More specifically stated, the following are general objectives or functions of Extension

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

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

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.

Principles of Extension

According to Mildred Horton[2] the four great principles the 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 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 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.

AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

Extension service basically started in USA in Home science. Later used by Norway, Sweden for extension services in agriculture, fisheries. Extension services are dependent of several factors like farming situations, peoples needs, etc. India is a developing country, it needs development in several areas hence Extension activities are required in

- ✓ Agriculture
- ✓ Animal husbandry
- ✓ village institutions such as Panchayats and co-operatives
- ✓ Education
- ✓ Social education
- ✓ village industries
- ✓ public health and medicine
- ✓ women and children's programmes
- ✓ tribal people and depressed classes
- ✓ Fisheries

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[1] indicate the scope of Agricultural Extension work :

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.

EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS

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.

CLASSIFICATION OF EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS

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

(c) Mass contacts

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

2. According to Form

(a) Written

i. Bulletins;

ii. **Leaflets**;

iii. News articles;

iv. Personal letters; v. Circular letters.

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.

(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

FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN SELECTION AND COMBINATION OF EXTENSION METHODS

No single "rule-of-thumb" can he 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 ne 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. este 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 relatively 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 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 metho 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 already 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: 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 the 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.

LECTURE-6

INDIVIDUAL EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS - ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Extension methods under this category provide opportunity for face-to-face contact between the rural people and the extension workers. These methods are very effective in teaching new skills, creating goodwill between farmers and the extension workers. The various methods which come under the classification of individual extension teaching methods include farm and home visits, office calls, personal letters, result demonstrations, etc.

1. Farm and Home Visits

Advantages:

2. Provides extension worker with first-hand knowledge of farm and home conditions, and the viewpoints of farm people.

3. If made on request, the farmer or homemaker is likely to be ready to learn.

4. 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 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.

2. Office Calls

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.

3. Personal letters

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, viewpoint, 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 misstatement 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, striking's etc.

 g. Readable-short sentences, short words, and human interest make for easy reading.

   4. **Result demonstration**

   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.

LECTURE-7

GROUP EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS - ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

The rural people and farmers are contacted in groups which usually consists of 20 to 25 persons. These groups are formed around a common interest. These methods also involve a face-to-face contact with the people and provide an opportunity for exchange of ideas, for discussions on problems, technical recommendations and finally for deciding the future course of action. Group extension teaching methods include general meetings, method demonstrations, lectures, group discussions, field trips, etc.

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 skilfully.

6. Simple demonstrations readily lend themselves to repeated use by local leaders.

7. Introduces changes of practice at a low cost.

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 workplace.

4. Requires a certain amount of showmanship not possessed by some extension workers.

1. **General meetings**

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.

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 available.

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. The holding of meeting may become the "real" objective, rather than the purpose the meeting was intended to advance.

2. 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 skilfully.

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1. Suitable only for practices involving skills.

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3. May require considerable equipment to be transported to the workplace.

4. Requires a certain amount of showmanship not possessed by some extension workers.

3. Lectures

The lecture method can be used advantageously: (1) with 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.

4. Group discussion

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

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 adhoc 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 debators.

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 He 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.

5. Field trips

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.

LECTURE-8

MASS EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS - ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

An extension worker has to approach a large number of people for disseminating a new information and help them to use it. This can be done through mass-contact methods conveniently. These methods are more useful for making people aware of the new agricultural technologies quickly.

Advantages:

1.Can reach a large number of people quickly and can be read at leisure, and kept for future simultaneously. 2. 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.

LECTURE-9

AGRICULTURAL INFORMATION MATERIALS

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 something?

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 leader 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 subhead 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 an 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 can be read at leisure, and kept for future simultaneously. 2. 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.

Types of information materials

1. **Leaflet:** Information is printed on one side of the paper. Sometimes it is folded. Information on any one aspect of a particular topic is printed on the leaflet.
   Eg. Leaflet on seed treatment in groundnut

2. **Folder:** Information on one or more aspects of a particular topic is printed. The paper is folded 1/2/3/or more times. It is generally prepared on thick paper. Information is in the form of text and images.
   Eg. Folder on package of practices in groundnut

3. **Pamphlet:** This contains mor information. It is use ful to give information on critical crop interventions in a crop.
   Eg. Critical crop interventions in groundnut

4. **Circular letters:** 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:
- ✓ To attend a meeting,
- ✓ To stimulate interest in a subject.
- ✓ To adopt a new practice.
- ✓ To perform a service to community or block.
- ✓ To answer a questionnaire.
- ✓ To maintain interest and cooperation of youth club members, local leaders, co-operators etc.
- ✓ To prevent spread of pests and diseases.

5. **Bulletin**

A short official statement or broadcast summary of news having up to 20 pages.

The purpose of bulletin is to inform people about the latest happenings.

Eg. College bulletin, research station bulletin

6. **News stories**

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 newspaper.

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.

Eg. News story on bumper yield in K-9 groundnut variety

7. **Wall News Papers**

They are the newspapers printed on one side and displayed on walls, boards, and fences in public places either indoors and outdoors.

They contain local information and news that is useful or interesting to the villagers.

The purpose of displaying in public places is to inform more things in a a short span of time

Eg. Wall news paper on entrepreneurial activities of SHGs

Lecture-10
Instructional/Teaching aids

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.

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. macho on 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.

Classification of teaching aids

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

1. 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 graph (c) Flash cards. (d) Photographs. (e) Illustrations. (f) Charts. 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.

LECTURE-11

EDGAR DALE'S CONE OF EXPERIENCE

"**Cone of Experience"** devised by Edgar Dale explains 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.

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

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

4. Demonstrations

5. Field Trips

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

7. a) Television: already dealt within this Chapter.

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

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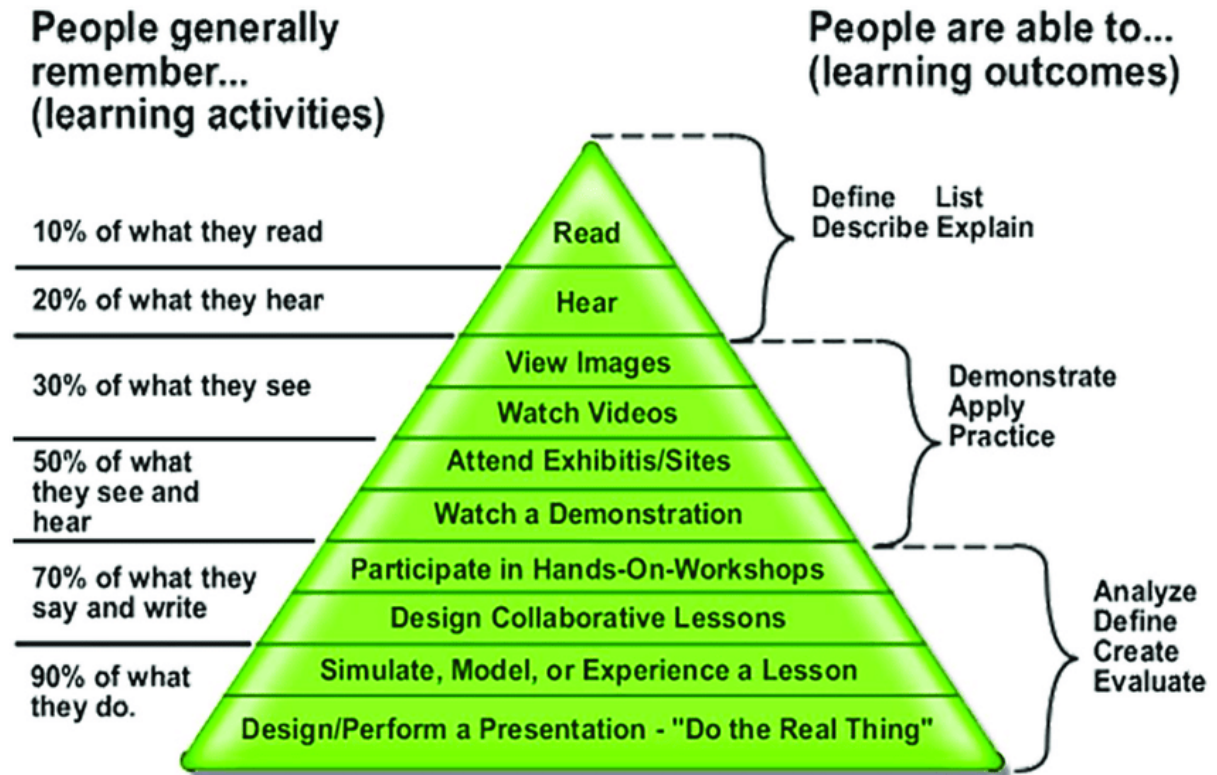
 b) Recordings

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 physic resemblance to the objects or ideas for which they stand. These are used together with every other material on the

"cone of experience".

People generally remember... (learning activities)

People are able to... (learning outcomes)

10% of what they read — **Read** — Define List Describe Explain

20% of what they hear — **Hear**

30% of what they see — **View Images** / **Watch Videos** — Demonstrate Apply Practice

50% of what they see and hear — **Attend Exhibitis/Sites** / **Watch a Demonstration**

70% of what they say and write — **Participate in Hands-On-Workshops** / **Design Collaborative Lessons** — Analyze Define Create Evaluate

90% of what they do. — **Simulate, Model, or Experience a Lesson** / **Design/Perform a Presentation - "Do the Real Thing"**

EXTENSION PROGRAMME PLANNING

Extension Programme

According to Leagans '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.

Programme planning

It is the process of bringing about planned change. It is a deliberate and collaborative process involving change agent 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.

Plan of Work

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.

Project

A project is an outline of procedure and pertains only to some phase of extension work.

Calendar of Work

A calendar of work is a plan of work arranged chronologically.

Principles of Programme Planning

According to Kelsey and Hearne, sound extension programme building is based on the following principles

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

Steps in Programme Development Process

There are nine (09) steps in Programme Development Process as given below

1. Collection, analysis and evaluation of data
2. Determination of objectives
3. Definition of Problems
4. Finding solutions to problems
5. Selecting problems to be tackled
6. Annual plan of work
7. Carrying out the plan
8. Continuous checking and evaluation of results
9. Review of progress and projection of plans

FIGURE   PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT PROCESS
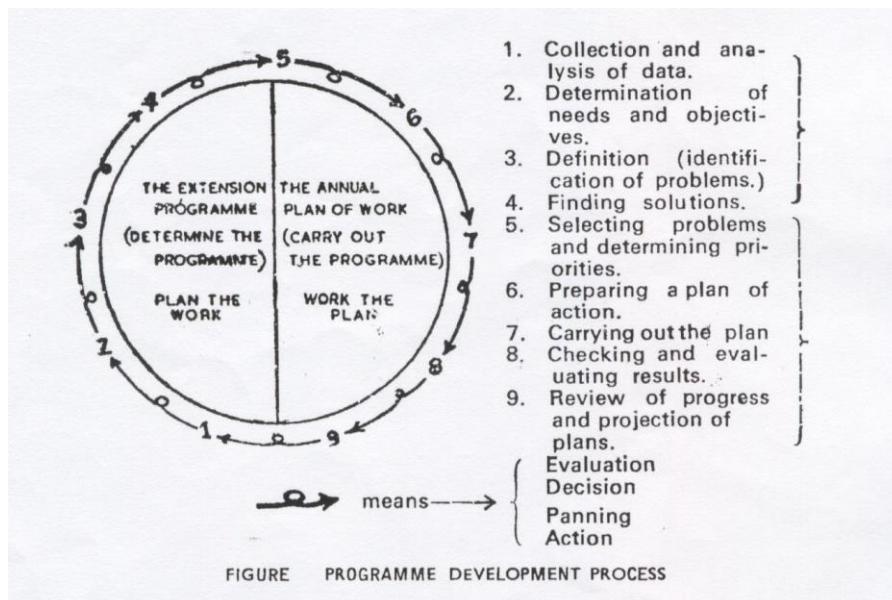
1. **Collection and analysis of data:** Good planning depends on the collection of adequate, reliable data about the situation. The facts must be carefully analyzed and interpreted through the joined efforts of technically trained staff and progressive village leaders. All extension workers must possess the basic farm and family information for preparing sound family, village and block plans which should include

   a. Basic information about the village which includes the data pertaining to population, total number of families, main occupations of the village, communication facilities, schooling facilities, medical facilities, drinking water facilities etc.

b. Information about farm management and production programmes includes total cultivated area of the village, size of agricultural holdings, types of crops, soil'... types, disease and pest control, agricultural machinery etc. It is necessary for increasing agricultural production in the village.

2. **Determination of objectives:** Effective rural development programmes must have clear and significant objectives before deciding the project to be undertaken. The basic objectives of the programme are to be determined by the villagers in consultation with extension personnel. The villagers should have the clear concept of the project by deciding on objectives. The involvement of various institutions and voluntary organizations should be secured. The objectives of the programme for family plans could be decided upon by the head or active members of the participating family and by Panchayats in case of objective to be undertaken on community or village basis. The objectives should specify behavioral changes of the people.

3. **Definition of problems:** The village activities should be classified properly before planning. This helps in execution of the programme. Problems can be classified into 3 categories as follows

   a. Problems solved by the villagers with their own resources like improving the yields by adopting improved practices, digging compost pits, organizing rural youth clubs etc.

   b. Problems that need community cooperation without involving much outside assistance like construction of village approach road or deepening of tank etc. by volunteering efforts.

   c. Problems that require outside assistance on account of high cost involved and the technical knowledge needed like purchase of plant protection equipment, construction of school building etc.

   In this way the internal and external resources can be utilized economically and quicker results obtained. It is also desirable to break up complex problems step by step in to simple problems

4. **Finding solutions to problems:** The extension workers should advise the villagers and guide them in finding the solutions to the problems. The solutions offered should be practicable, economical and should result in satisfaction and learning. District and state specialists should help the extension functionaries at the village and block level in doing this work

5. **Selecting problems and determining priorities:** All the problems cannot be tackled simultaneously even though solutions are known for them. At this stage it is essential to set up programme committees 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 completed and which new projects need to be started. Extension workers have to play a great role in this respect.

6. **Preparing a plan of action or Annual plan of work:** A plan of work is listing of activities by which objectives already decided upon are to be achieved. It includes the methods of executing a programme, timing and persons responsible for carrying out programme along with evaluating the progress. It is an important step to solve selected problems. It is essential to involve villagers in planning the programmes

7. **Carrying out the plan:** The success of the programme depends on the method by which it is carried out. For successful implementation of any programme, it is desirable that advance planning is made at the first step towards its implementation. The activities to be carried out each month should be taken out. Proper arrangement for the supply of materials and training of workers should be made. All steps in carrying out the programme should be discussed with the villagers and local leaders and the consent should be obtained to see full cooperation, steps for assistances and direction should be clearly stated to avoid confusion in launching the programme

8.   **Continuous checking and evaluation of results:** Adequate records of each activity should be kept for future evaluation by extension staff, development committees and village institutions. Each future programme should be based on results of the previous one. Successful evaluation gives a correct direction to the programme. The evaluation of programme has to be done with the reference to the original objectives set. Systematic evaluation provide information about the effectiveness of various methods used and various steps taken for executing the programme

9.   **Review of progress and projection of plans:** At the end of each cycle of programme planning process as a periodical review of situation and reconsideration of plan for setting up revised objectives should be done in view of the changes in social and economic levels of people. Acceptable programmes may be expanded to the neighbouring areas. Research should be conducted to find out the reasons of failure of the programmes. All developmental programmes are tools for doing more work that is effective

LECTURE-13
EVALUATION

Evaluation means judging the value of something. It may be informal or formal. This something in extension may be a programme or part of programme. The main purpose of evaluation is to facilitate effective decision-making without jumping to conclusions.

Formal Evaluation

It is defined as a process of systematic appraisal by which we determine the worth, value or meaning of a project/ thing is formal evaluation.

Extension evaluation

The process of determining how well the desired behavioural changes have taken place or are taking place as a result of extension educational efforts is extension evaluation.

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 of Evaluation

Casual every day evaluations	Self-checking evaluations	Do-it-yourself Evaluations	Extension studies	Scientific research
1	2	3	4	5
In-Formal			Formal	

The first three degrees of evaluation are informal in nature and the next two degrees of evaluation are formal in nature.

1. Causal every-day evaluation: This is the initial part of evaluation we do every day. Eg- Good dress, best actor, worst speech etc. These simple observations are important but have their own limitations. We must be careful in analyzing what is the truth and what is seen. It is most crude and subjective method of evaluation.

The following are some of the limitations of this type of evaluations:
- Personal ideas used instead of standard measurements.
- Intuition (guess) and personal bias cannot be eliminated
- No systematic plan for arriving at conclusion
- May have only part of the information.

2. **Self-checking evaluation:** This is the next higher degree of evaluation. It makes conscious attempt to apply principles of evaluation. Eg- checking on ordinary observations, talking with others, getting other people's judgments etc

3. **Do-it-yourself evaluation:** This is still higher degree of evaluation. This involves more careful planning and applies principles of evaluation and are more systematically done. They usually require surveys or score cards.

4. **Extension studies:** This is the fourth level of evaluation continuum, complicated than the above three methods. Uses higher tools, techniques, and methods for evaluation purpose. Uses more scientific approach. **Eg: theses of M Sc and Ph D in extension studies come under this category**

5. **Scientific research:** last on evaluation continuum and most complex. Experimental studies scientifically carried out to determine cause and affect relationships. The scientific research must be
a. **Factual (or Valid):** Measure what you think you are measuring
b. **Analytical:** Analyze the relationships of various factors
c. **Reliable**: Sample representative of population consistency of results.
d. **Objective:** Free of bias- others get similar results.
e. **Impartial:** Approach with a open mind and spirit of enquiry

Importance of evaluation in Agricultural Extension

1. Extension evaluation helps to determine the degree to which the important purposes and specific objectives are attained
2. It also helps to provide periodic tests which gives direction for continuous improvement of work
3. It helps to serve as a check on extension teaching methods
4. It helps to furnish data regarding the rural situation to extension programme

planning

5. To provide evidence of the value of the programme and a basis for adjusting a programme

6. To give satisfaction to leaders and co-operators through an understanding of what is accomplished

7. To help in locating strong or weak points in any programme or plan

8. To ascertain the result of organization and administrative procedures of the programme

9. It also helps to establish a bench mark

10. It provides the information with whom we work i.e. people

SOCIOLOGY AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY

Characteristics of Indian Rural Society:

1. **Agriculture** is main economic activity of rural people. It is based predominantly on **Agriculture**. **Agriculture** is the main source of livelihood. The land is distributed between certain families. The distribution of land is between a big land owner and rest of the community, possession of which (land) has prestige value

2. **Caste** is **dominant** institution of village. It is peculiar type of grouping found in rural India. The village is governed to a very great extent by traditional caste occupations, carpenters, cobblers, smiths, washer men, agricultural laborers etc., all belonging to separate castes, caste relations are important characteristics of rural life

3. The **religious** and **caste** composition of village largely determines its **character**. Different castes exist in village due to **social distance**. The habitations of each caste are separated from others. The habitation area has usually a distinct name e.g. Harijanawada

4. Each village is **independent**. All villages have their own organizations, authority and sanctions. Every village has **Panchayat** which is village **self-government**

5. Village settlements are governed by certain **traditions**. The layout of the village, construction of houses, the dress etc., is allowed according to the prescribed patterns of the culture of the area. In different areas a certain degree of diversity (differences between villages in the above aspects of the village life) in village organizations is **peculiar**

6. The rural society is **self-sufficient**. The unit of production in rural society is the **family**, which tries to produce much of its required goods. **Economic production** is the basic activity of rural aggregates (rural groups)

7. As a territorial, social, economic and religious unit, the village is a **separate** and distinct entity

8. It is common to find out a sense of **attachment** towards own settlement site. In rural society people do not have widely diversified tasks in different parts of the community

9. Village is characterized by **isolation**

10. The chief characteristic of rural life is **homogeneity,** there are not many differences among people pertaining to income, status etc.

11. The other characteristics are less density of population, less social mobility, less education, simplicity, traditionalism, fatalism, believing superstitions etc.

LECTURE-15

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN COMMUNITIES

Rural people are different from those living in urban areas. These differences are mainly due to the environment and its consequent impact on the lives of the people

	Item of comparison	Rural community	Urban community
1.	General environment and orientation to nature	Closely associated with nature. Direct effect of natural elements like rains, drought, heat, etc., on their lives	Remote from nature. Predominance of manmade environment
2.	Occupation	Major occupation is farming. Non-agricultural occupations are secondary in importance	Most of the jobs are non-agricultural and specialized
3.	Working conditions	Being **agriculture** work in open air	Work in closed environment. Greater isolation from nature. Poor fresh air
4.	Family	Works as a unit. More unity or integrity and more contacts between members	Work in different occupations and contact is less between members
5.	Size of the community	'Agriculturalism' and size of community are negatively correlated. Community is small in size. Land to man ratio is higher	Large. Less land per person
6.	Density of population	Low density of population	High density of population
7.	Material possession	Less	Different types and more
8.	Homogeneity and heterogeneity	More homogeneous. Similarity in social and psychological characteristics	More heterogeneous. Wide variety of interests, occupations, languages

		in the population. Such as beliefs, language etc.	etc.
9.	Social institutions	Most of the institutions are a natural outgrowth of rural social life. Less of enacted (approved or created) institutions	Numerous enacted institutions
10.	Social stratification and differentiation	Less among groups and low degree of differentiation. Gap between higher and lower classes is less	Different types of groups like professional, occupational etc., and high degree of differentiation. Gap between the higher and lower classes is more
11.	Hierarchy	Less in number e.g. lower, middle and upper classes	More in number e.g. upper-upper, upper-middle, upper-lower, middle upper and so on
12.	Social contacts and type	Less number, social interaction is narrow. Primary contacts are more predominant. Personal and relatively durable relations. Man is interacted as a human	Large number, social interaction is wider. Secondary contacts are predominant. Impersonal, casual and short-lived relations. Man is interacted as number and address
13.	Social mobility	Occupational and territorial mobility is less intensive. Normally the migration current carries more individuals from countryside to the cities	Occupational and territorial mobility is found more intensive. Urbanity and social mobility are positively correlated. Only in the period of social crises migration is from cities to

			countryside
14.	Social control	Informal control i.e. more related to the values and traditions of the society	Formal control i.e. legally
15.	Social change	Rural life is relatively static and stable	Urban social life is under constant social change
16.	Social solidarity (unity)	Strong sense of belonging and unity due to common objectives, similarities and personal relationships	Comparatively less sense of belonging and unity due to dissimilarities and impersonal kinds of relationships
17.	Standard of living	Low standard of living	High standard of living
18.	Educational facilities	Less	More
19.	Economy	Subsistence	Cash
20.	Communication	Less transport facilities, bad roads etc.	Many transport facilities, better roads, communication etc.
21.	Society	A simple uni-group society	A complex, multi-group society
22.	Culture	Sacred	Secular (all religions are equal)

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LECTURE-16

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

"Extension Education is primarily for the rural development"

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Importance of Rural Development

Social significance

- Innumerable rural problems
- Social change
- Best utilization of resources
- Infrastructural facilities

Economic significance

- National Income
- Employment and Source of livelihood
- Fuel and fodder
- Industrial Development
- Internal Trade and Transport
- International trade
- International ranking
- Capital formation and Investment

Political Significance

- Political stability

Objectives of Rural Development

1. Providing goods and services in terms of social and economic infrastructure
2. Increasing the income of every rural family on a self sustaining basis
3. Creation of additional employment opportunities in rural areas.
4. It implies a broad-based reorganization and mobilization of the rural masses so as to enhance their capacity to cope effectively with the daily tasks of their lives and with changes consequent upon this.
5. Improvement of services or rural masses in the process.
6. Improvement of know-how, which is to be implemented to the rural people.

Problems in Rural Development

1. Most people are illiterate- for such people extension teaching methods like Demonstrations, individual and group approaches, Training classes require large number of extension workers.

2. Inadequate communication channels especially Mass Media in rural areas

3. Limitation of Funds and staff for training the farmers

4. As a traditional society with old ways and practices does not want to take risk unless they see the results.

5. In an illiterate traditional society real leadership could not come forward.

6. Preaching to rural people and educating them in new techniques require specialized skilled workers. It is very expensive to produce such workers

7. Communities and individuals differ in their needs as their circumstances change.

8. Organizational constraints

Vaguely framed objectives of Organization.

LECTURE-17

PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL (PRA)

PRA is one of the tools of surveying that helps outsiders to understand about a village in depth by using various techniques which often produce interesting and authentic information about the village.

People of the rural area participate and appraise about the village pertaining to demography, institutions, agro-climatic and agro-ecological conditions, habitats, habits, occupations and livelihoods, adoption of technologies, the past and present village conditions, working patterns and also the needs to improve the present conditions and future aspirations to the members of the team.

PRA is considered as intensive and systematic learning experience carried out in a community by a multidisciplinary team which includes community members.

Salient features of PRA

1. Triangulation
2. Multi-disciplinary team
3. Mix of techniques
4. Flexibility and informality
5. Involvement of community
6. Considering only needful information
7. On the spot analysis

1. Triangulation

➢ It is a "method of cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research data."

➢ Triangulation is very important for PRA to check the validity and reliability of data collected from more than two sources especially in qualitative method.

➢ A diverse team uses a basket of tools and techniques to generated information from several sources for cross checking of qualitative information and ensure reliability.
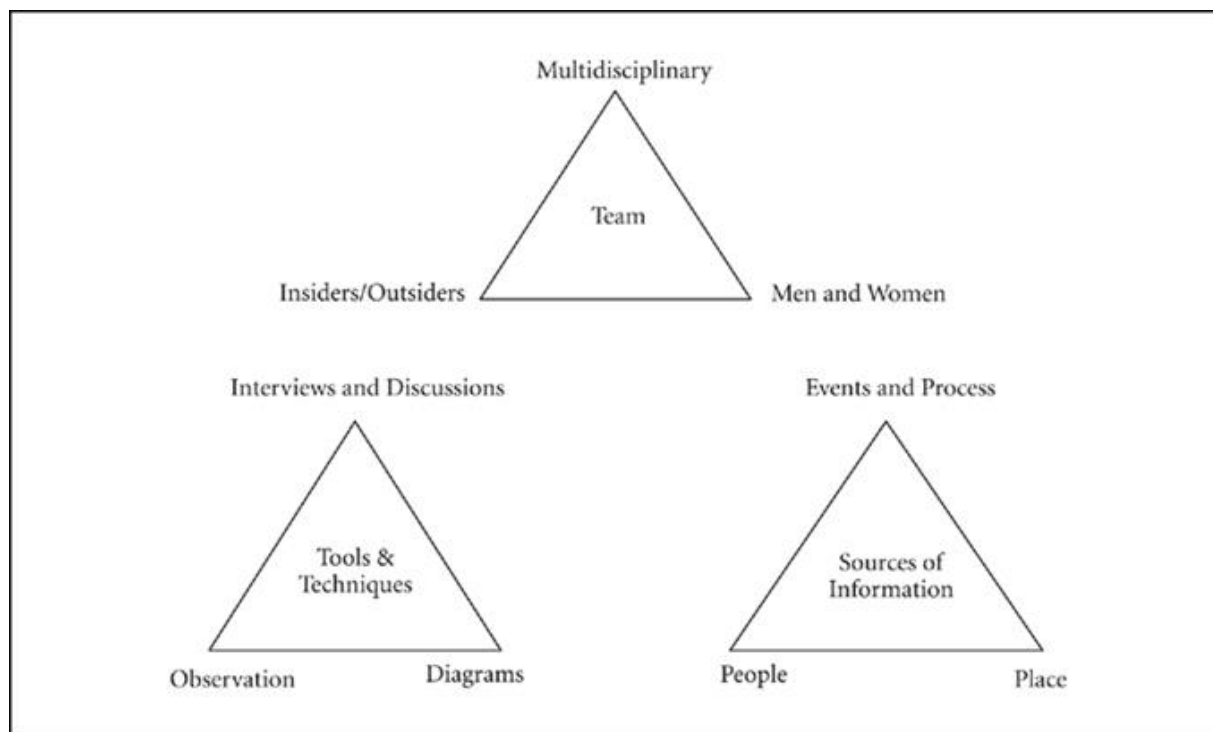
2. **Multi-disciplinary team**

   The team should be multi-disciplinary combining in-side and outsides, men and women as well as children if necessary.

3. **Mixing of Techniques**

   ➢ A diverse team uses a basket of tools and techniques to generated information from several sources for cross checking of qualitative information and ensure reliability.

   ➢ They can cross check with the data collected by interviews and discussion with observation, diagram or checklists.

4. **Flexibility and informality**

In PRA, collection of data and interpretation or generate data is more flexible and it mainly depend on the purpose of the study and need of the researchers. The study design also allows flexibility and adoptability.
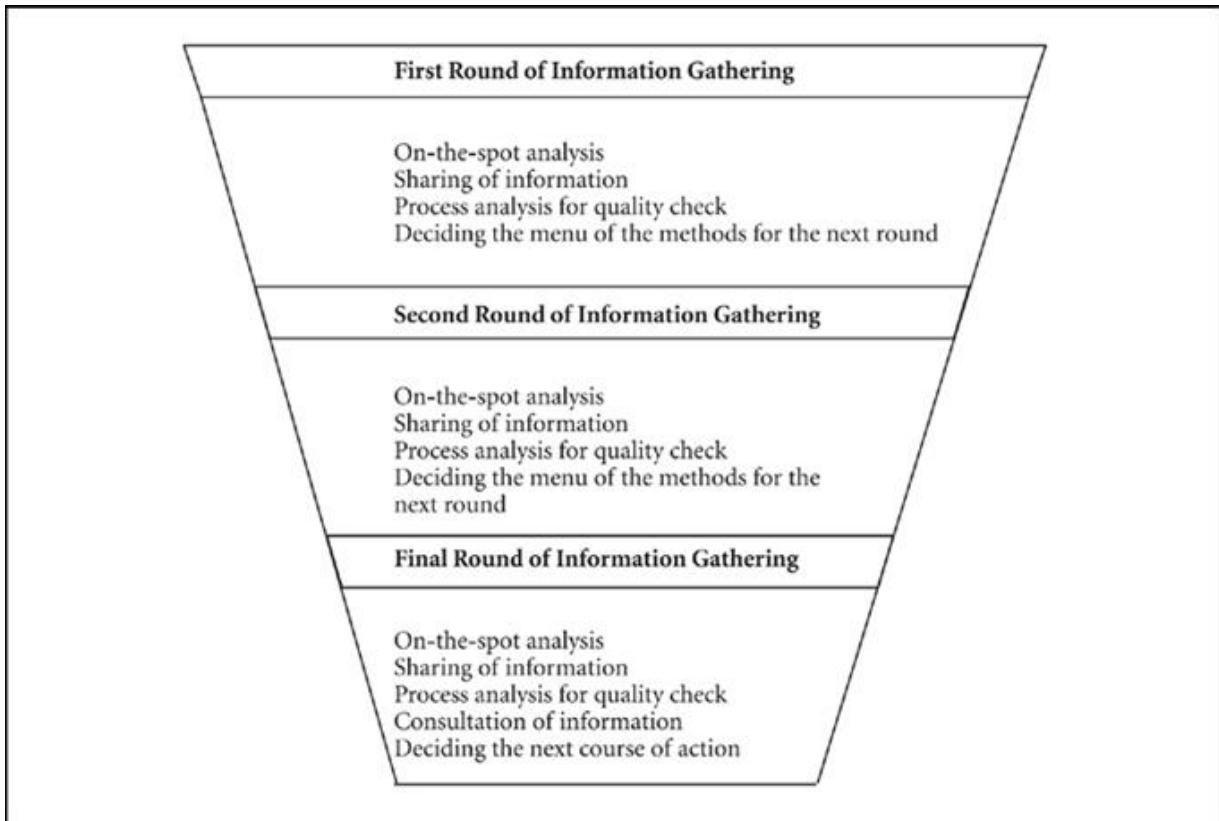
5. **Involvement of community** : local people are involved to appraise the situations as they know better about their surroundings. Development plans need to be prepared with the involvement of the people.

6. **Considering only needful information**: out of the total information collected through various techniques and tools, only needful information should be taken into consideration for planning developmental programmes.

7. **On-spot analysis**: Gathering, learning, reviewing and analyzing data

should be on spot while staying with the community in PRA; otherwise there could be recall bias.

The final analysis in PRA method is as follows

First Round of Information Gathering

On-the-spot analysis
Sharing of information
Process analysis for quality check
Deciding the menu of the methods for the next round

Second Round of Information Gathering

On-the-spot analysis
Sharing of information
Process analysis for quality check
Deciding the menu of the methods for the next round

Final Round of Information Gathering

On-the-spot analysis
Sharing of information
Process analysis for quality check
Consultation of information
Deciding the next course of action

Principles of PRA

1. Active participation of rural people for self critical analysis.

2. Reversal of learning: learning from rural people directly on the site and face to face

3. Broad, complete and accurate analysis of local situation and rural people.

4. Learning rapidly and progressively with conscious exploration.

5. Use of secondary data for comparison.

6. Catalyst role of PRA expert team.

7. Off setting biases by taking the concerns and priorities of women and poor people.

8. Optimizing trade offs: relating the costs of learning to the useful truth information.

9. Triangulation: using of a wide range of methods and

information to cross check the collected data.

Techniques of PRA

There are mainly three techniques of PRA namely

1. Mapping
2. Ranking
3. Trend analysis

MAPPING TECHNIQUES IN PRA

The most commonly used PRA techniques is mapping which include

a) Participatory Mapping : This is the construction of a map of village area by villagers themselves by interaction with one another using rangoli powders or chalk or various locally available materials like cotton bolls for cotton crop, small slabs for houses, grass for grazing lands etc on the ground or a cement floor for understanding the village layout, main features such as houses, temples and other infrastructure and other resources like forests, lands, rivers, pastures, watersheds etc. There are several types of maps:

    a. Resources maps of catchments, villages, forests, fields, farms, home gardens;

    b. Social maps of residential areas of village;

    c. Wealth rankings and household assets surveys on social maps;

    d. Health mapping.
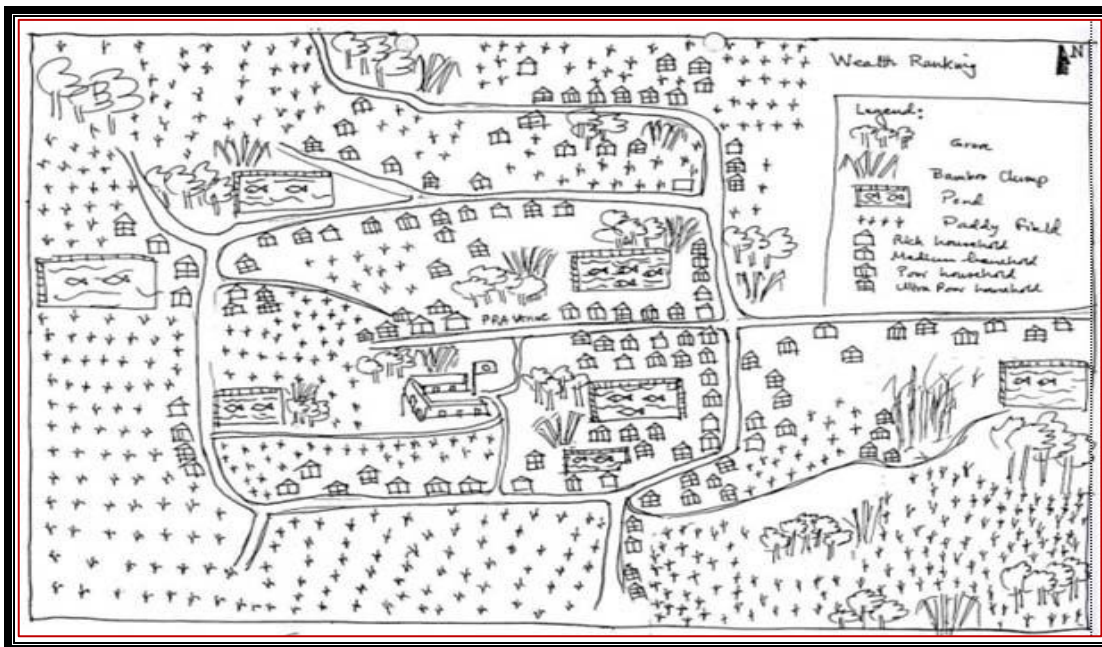
b) Transact walk: A transact walk is a kind of exploratory walk which is under taken by team along with the villagers to observe and record every send in minute detail of a particular area. The area under study is systematically traversed together with villagers e.g. from north to South

or east to west, or from the highest to the lowest point, while walking everything noticed directly or mentioned by the villagers is discussed and recorded. Diagrams may be drawn by making the team walk through the village and surrounding areas, observing, asking, listening, and discussing problems and opportunities while walking. Such a transactional analysis is important for understanding the rural situation in its totality. A model transect walk diagram is given below.
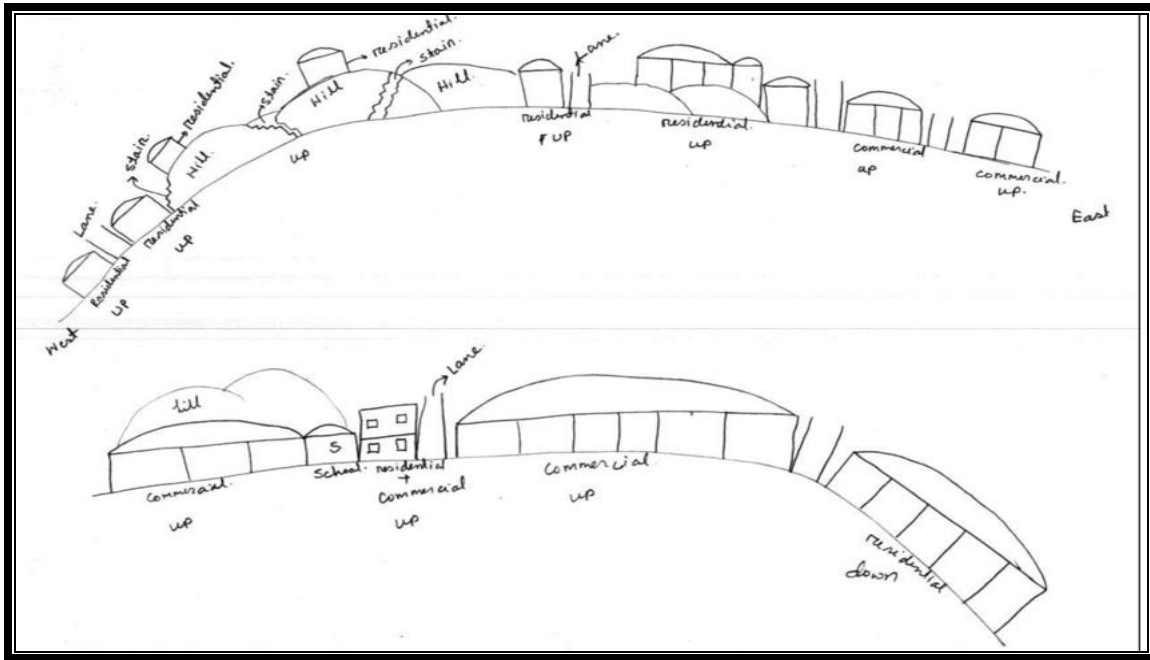
c) **Venn diagram:** The term "Venn diagram" refers to a diagram developed by a person called Venn' to indicate the contribution of outside and inside agencies and individuals in the decision making process of the inhabitants of a village as perceived by the villages themselves. The Venn diagram shows the diagram of a village and its institutions. The size of the circle represents the relative importance of the institution for the community. It is also called Chapathi diagram.
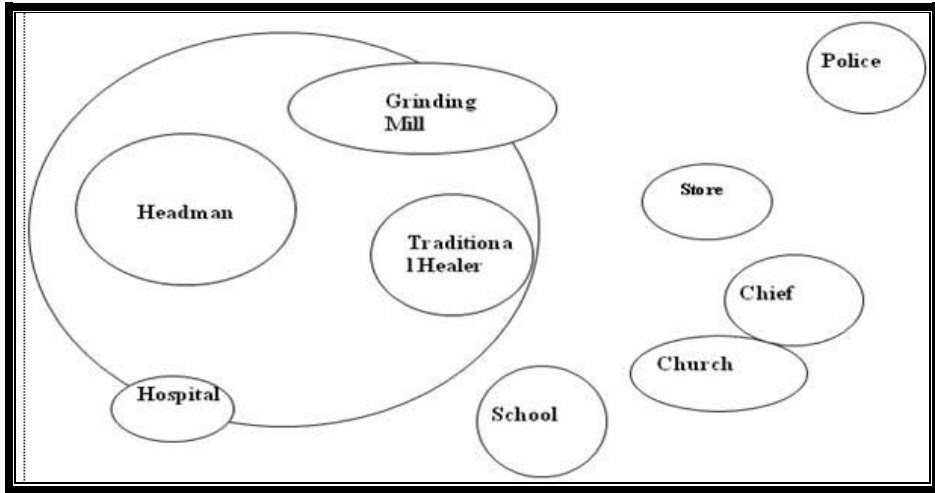
LECTURE-19

RANKING TECHNIQUES IN PRA

The most important PRA technique to study the preferences of farmers is ranking which include

a) Matrix Ranking: In matrix ranking a class of objects are evaluated-by applying different criteria and assigning value to criteria. One can understand villagers' preferences and attitudes towards a particular topic by this technique. It helps us to understand farmer's priorities in crop varieties, vegetables, tree species, live stock, soil and water conservation techniques, irrigation methods etc.

Variety / Criterion	Cotton Varieties		
	Karunganni	*Lakshmi*	*LRA 5166*
Duration	X X X X X X X	X X X X X	X X X X
Bolls/plants	X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X	X X X X X X X X X X	X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X
Boll weight	X X X	X X X X X	X X X X X X X X X X
Pest resistance	X X X X X	X	X X
Response to manuring	X X	X X X	X X X X X
Ease of boll picking	X	X X X	X X X X X
Possibility of inter-cropping	X	X	X X X
Pesticide use	–	X	X X X
Yield	X	X X	X X X X
Net return	X	X X X	X X X X
Overall rating	3	2	1

Source: Vijayraghavan et al. (1992).
Notes: (i) Free scoring has been adopted.
(ii) Low score means worst; high score means best.

b) Wealth ranking: It is a process by which members of a community jointly determine the relative wealthiness of all its members by taking into account all assets sources of income and liabilities of an individual family.

c) **Preference Ranking:** It can be used to quickly identify problem areas and the preferences of individuals and compare them with the assessments of others. Whether the aim is to rank preferred crops or the principle problems affecting agricultural production.

	Coffee	Rice	Sweet Potato	Beans	Groundnuts	Maize
Good for family	5	0	0	2	8	8
Short growing season	5	0	0	8	8	8
Good market price	8	8	4	3	3	3
Money from sale goes to women	0	0	0	6	6	6
Resistant to drought	8	7	0	0	0	0
No much labor needed	5	9	2	5	5	3
No much money for seed	5	9	2	7	7	8

d) **Pairwise ranking:** In this method, the relevant items relating to problems, preferences etc. are separately presented to the respondents in pairs in all possible combinations. If there are 5 items the number of pairs would be 10. The respondents would select one item over the other from each pair which they consider to be more important. A simple ranking of the items.

TREND ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES IN PRA

A time related PRA technique used to analyse changes and trends is trend analysis which include

a) **Seasonality/ Seasonal Analysis/** Seasonal calendars**:** This is a calendar which indicates month wise (even day wise or season wise), the abnormalities, specialties, threats, problems, abundance, and shortage, with regard to agriculture in a diagrammatic way. It is an important and useful exercise to determine seasonal patterns in rural areas as related to rainfall, farming practices, employment etc. This helps us to understand pest, disease problems in a particular season, employment availability, labour migration, rainfall patterns, labour wages, labour availability, water availability, market prices, crops, food consumption, diseases to crops, livestock, human beings etc

b) **Time trend:** If we depict the data obtained in time line by choosing a particular item and analyze its growth over a period of time and presented in the form of a graph or a line diagram it is called time trend.   Ex: yields of groundnut for the past 10 years.

c) **Daily activity chart**: time wise activities done by the villagers is depicted in a table for. This tells us when the farmers are busy and free.

LEADERSHIP

"Blessed is the leader who considers leadership an opportunity to serve"

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.

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.

It is an activity in which effort is made to influence people to co-operate in achieving a goal viewed by the group as desirable.

In other words, leadership is a social process which initiates action for and with followers. It is a necessary function of 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.

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 ornamental leaders they are called nominal leaders, figureheads.

(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

(1) **Professional 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., Ex tension Officer, Gram Sevak.

(2) **Lay leader:** The lay leader may or may not have received special training, he 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.

Modern classification of Leadership

(i)   Authoritarian or autocratic leader

(ii)   Democratic leader

(iii)   Laissez-faire leader.

(i)   Autocratic Leader

  ➢ Operates as if he cannot trust people.
  ➢ He thinks his subordinates are never doing what they should do and that the employee is paid to work and therefore, must work.

(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.

(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.

LECTURE- 22

## SELECTION AND TRAINING OF LEADERS

Selection of Leaders

(A) Selection of Professional Leaders:

1. Popular method is interview and an evaluation of the past academic and occupational records of the individual.

2. 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.

3. Performance Tests have been used in certain situation 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.

4. 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 inter-personal 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. Diagrammatic representation is called sociogram as depicted below
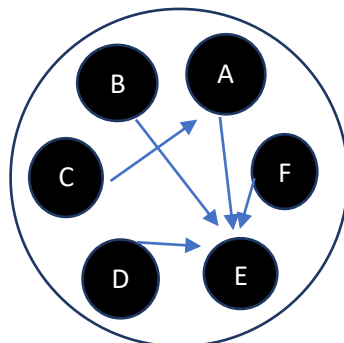
2. Election: Another method widely used in selecting leaders. Group member elect a leader for the group. The extension worker can guide or assist the local people in electing the right people for the right job by explaining to the group the functions of leaders in relation to particular problems and outlining the qualifications of a good leader for the given purpose.

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.

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.

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 Techniques: Consists of asking of respondent a series of questions to determine the degree to which he perceives himself to be an opinion leader.

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 background 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 facilitate exchange of information which is highly beneficial to leaders working within the same field of work.

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.

LECTURE-23

PRE-INDEPENDENCE DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

Before achieving freedom in India, many **developmental programmes were started.** They include

Pre-Independence Programmes (1866 - 1947)	Post-Independence Programmes (1947 - 1952)
1. Srinikethan Project 2. Sevagram 3. Marthandam Project 4. Guragaon Experiment	1. Firka 2. Etawah Project 3. Nilokheri

PRE-INDEPENDENCE PROGRAMMES

SHRI NIKETAN PROJECT (1914)

It was founded by Ravindra Nath Tagore. Sri Niketan was one mile away from Shanti Niketan, in West Bengal state. This area was backward socially, economically and politically backward. The main aim of this project was all round development of rural people. Shree Tagore thought that if some villages were developed, the other villages will get inspiration and the programme of village development will spread all over the country and thus the whole country will be developed.

Activities:

1. Survey of selected Villages.

2. Demonstration of improved practices

3. Arranging campaigns for the eradication of Malaria, T.B., and other infectious diseases.

4. Development of cottage industries.

5. Weaver's cooperatives were organized.

6. Night schools for male and female.

7. Establishment of social welfare centre in each village.

8. Establishment of cooperative societies.

9. Establishment of community centres.

10. Mobile library for rural people.

11. Scout organization.

12. Management of pure drinking water.

13. Village sanitation works.

GURGAON EXPERIMENT (1927)

In 1927, F.L. Brayne had been appointed on the post of Deputy Commissioner in Gurgaon district and he began this project of rural upliftment in his district, which became famous as "Gurgaon Project". According to him the main principle of this experiment was rural development on practical basis. This was the 1st programme started on a mass scale for rural upliftment by state in Gurgaon district.

Objectives:

1. To bring villagers out of old grooves by convincing them that improvement is possible

2. To kill their fatalism demonstrating disease and insect control through scientific means.

3. To deal with whole life of the villagers

4. The work should be started in whole district at a time.

5. Development work should be taken at campaign level.

Areas of work:

1. Agricultural development & increasing food production.

2. Health improvement.

3. Village sanitation.

4. Social improvement (Reforms).

5. Reforms in rural institutions

6. Emphasis on women education.

7. Organization of cooperative societies.

8. Coordination and publicity.

9. Home development works.

10. Controlling extra expenditure.

Method of work:

1. Propaganda was done by drama and music.

2. Guides were appointed to organise the programme at village level.

3. The teacher of village schools used to teach

Although this project got some success, yet this scheme could not survive for a long time because this project was also based upon the sentiments of F.L. Brayne and when he was transferred, gradually this programme also stopped.

SEVA GRAM (1921)

Mahatma Gandhiji started this programme in 1921 at Sewagram. Later it was extended to Wardha in 1938 after 2nd non-cooperation movement. This programme was totally based on the concept of "Helping the people to help themselves". Mahatma Gandhiji is a great social worker. He knew very well that as long as people are suppressed, their society and their nation cannot progress. For ending this suppression, he began this welfare project "SEVA GRAM" by establishing his Ashram in Wardha. The programme mainly focuses on prevention of the economic and social suppression of the people and creating feeling of patriotism among them. M. Gandhi also insisted that all extension workers should have 3 principles in practice viz., self purification, self reliance and self exemplary conduct. For fulfilling this objective, Gandhiji made this programme which became famous as "Gandhian Constructive Programme".

The main objectives of this project were as follows:

1. To use khadi clothes

2. To initiate programmes on sanitation, women welfare, health, economic help and social harmony in the village.

3. To uplift the backward classes.

4. Primary and adult educational programmes

5. The programme of economic help.

6. To improve the conditions of poor people

7. To popularize the mother tongue and other national dialects.

8. To serve the under privileged villagers.

9. To make the villagers self sufficient and self reliant.

10. To develop the power and courage in rural people.

> **Principles**
> 1. Self help
> 2. Dignity of labour e.g. Sharamdan, etc.
> 3. Self respect
> 4. Truth and non-violence

For Gandhi, independence of country would be meaningless without eco development. For making his programme successful and effective, he established All India Village Industry Association, All India Spinners Association, Hindustani Education Association and Kasturba Gandhi Association etc. Other activities are:

1. Economic equality:

(a) Equal distribution of wealth.

(b) Eliminate middle men and exploiters.

(c) Use of khadi clothes

2. Education: Basic education through *"learning by doing and earning while learning"*

3. Social equality

(a) Removal of un touchability

(b) Equal opportunity for women

(c) Community unity.

(d) Hindu-Muslim equality

Gandhaji's constructive programme was not fully successful because hand made products were dominated by machine made products which attracted common man more. The single cause of failure of Gandhiji's programme was Industrialization in the country.

MARTHANDAM PROJECT (1921)

This programme was started in 1921 by Dr. Spencer Hatch, an American

Agricultural expert. In Trivendrum at some places, people used to cultivate only paddy and coconut. To overcome this weakness, it was thought that some developmental work should be done, so that the Christian faith could spread. Consequently Dr. Hatch made agreement with Y.M.C.A. and Christian Church Association for his work and initiated this project in neighbouring village Marthandum. From the demo centre at Marthandam, about 100 villages were covered through YMCA centres.

It was having a 3 field programme - *development of spirit, mind and body*. But later it evolved a fivefold programme-*development of the physic, spirit, mind, economic and social aspects of life*.

Objectives:

1. Self help and cooperation.

2. Helping people to help in their own work.

3. Opening the demonstration centers.

Method of work

- Before launching the programme, surveys are made to know the needs of that area and on the basis of their needs the programmes were introduced.

- The rural dramas, rural exhibition, inter-rural competition, demonstration were also organized to attract the people

- Religious programmes were also organized for developing the religious feelings.

- All-round development of rural life and individual's progress were the subjects of importance in the programme i.e., Farming, rural industry, cooperation and development of Panchayat were initiated.

- For bringing economic development among the rural people, many programmes as soap making and the educational programmes etc. were organized.

- 6 weeks Short training courses to villagers and school teachers.

LECTURE-24

POST-INDEPENDENCE DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

Post-Independence Programmes (1947 - 1952)
1. Firka 2. Etawah Project 3. Nilokheri

FIRKA VIKAS YOJANA OR FIRKA DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (1946)

It is a Government sponsored programme and aimed at attainment of Gandhian ideal of "Gram Swaraj". It was launched in the last quarter of 1946 in 34 Firkas throughout Madras state. It was extended to another 50 additional Firkas at the rate of two Firkas per district on April 1950.

Among Pre-Independence projects, this was the biggest project.

Objectives:

1. Preparation of short term plans for the development of rural communication, water supply.

2. Long term plan to make the area self sufficient through agricultural, irrigational and livestock improvements.

3. Formation of panchayats and organization of cooperatives.

4. Introduction and development of Khadi and Cottage Industries.

5. All-round development of rural people

ETAWAH PILOT PROJECT: 1948

Etawah project has shown its way for Community Development in India hence it is called as Etawah pilot project. This is such an effective project that after witnessing its results, the way was cleared for initiating the Community Development Project. Therefore this was called the Pilot Projector it can be

treated as a **forerunner for Community Development Programme.**

Objectives:

1. To develop the mental power of people.

2. Arousing their interest and initiative.

3. To awaken the desires of rural people and to make them laborious.

4. The develop agriculture and animal husbandry.

5. Development of Panchayat

6. To development the feeling of self-confidence, co-operation and mass participation.

7. To seek the possibility of transferring this project elsewhere in the country.

8. To make villagers sanitation minded.

9. To measure the extent of agriculture development in terms of social improvement, initiative and self confidence.

10. To buildup the sense of community living.

11. To buildup a spirit of self help in villagers.

NILOKHERI PROJECT:

In 1948, Shree S.K. Dey prepared this project for the purpose of providing shelter for 7000 immigrants from Pakistan. The name of this project was "*Majdoor Manzil*". Later, S K Dey became the Union Minister of Community Development in 1965. It was built around the vocational training centre that was transferred from Kurukshetra in July 1948

Objectives:

1. Self sufficiency for rural cum urban township in all essential requirements of life.

2. Making provision of work and professional training for the people according to their experience.

3. To eliminate middle men.

4. To make 700 acres of Swampy land cultivable.

Activities:

Polytechnic training for B.D.O. and S.E.O. and V.L.W, Housing and marketing facilities. Management of schools, hospitals and recreation centre, Cooperative credit facility. Small scale industries were run on cooperative basis.

LECTURE-25
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community

A Community consists of persons in social interaction within a geographical area and having one or more additional communities.

Community Development

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.

Objectives of Community Development in India

The fundamental or basic objective of community Development in India is the development of people of "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 multi-phased family, village, Block and District plans for

a) Increasing agricultural production. out integrated

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.

- Indian Republic on October 2, 1952, started community development with 55 Community Projects. Each project had 3 development blocks
- Each block comprised of 100 villages/60,000-70,000 population/50,000 acres of cultivated area
- Villages with good irrigation facilities were selected for the study

Each project duration is 3 years with five phases

1. **Pre-emergence stage (3 months)**: Selection of villages, survey, preparation on plans.

2. **Emergence stage (6 months):** Providing transport and accommodation to staff

3. **Implementation stage (18 months):** Implement the programme planned

4. **Pre-final stage (6 months):** Complete the pending works

5. **Final stage (3 months):** Completion of all the activities

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- Huzur Nagar

Guiding principles of Community development

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 **multipurpose 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 community development programme on a national scale requires
   - ✓ Adoption of consistent 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 (NGO)** 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.

LECTURE-26

PANCHAYAT RAJ SYSTEM

Villages, mandals, districts looking after their own administration is local self government. In a democratic country people should be part of administration for which they should be trained. It is not possible to solve the all problems of all the people by the government, hence local self government system came into existence.

The activities like laying of roads, education, health, supply of safe drinking water, street lighting, etc are looked after by local self government system. This system was first introduced during **Maurya** Empire in India.

During British government 'Lord Ripon' in 1882 gave a basic structure to Local self government in India. Hence he is known as father of Local self government.

Article 40 of the Constitution says that the State shall take steps to organise village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government.

Democratic Decentralisation

It is governance of the people,

by the people,

for the people.

The emphasis is on the 'people' in Democratic Decentralisation

Rule by majority is an important feature of this system of governance; Rule by consultation - consultation between the people's representatives on one hand, and consultation with the officers on the other.

'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

Need for Democratic Decentralisation

Community development programmes were designed such that the development is achieved through peoples participation. But the peoples participation was not as anticipated.

Balwant Rai Mehta Committee was constituted by the central government on 16 January 1956. The committee recommended democratic decentralisation i.e. Panchayati Raj came into existence from 1st November 1958. The system consisted of three tiers of

1. Gram Panchayat at the village level.
2. Panchayat Samiti at Block level and
3. Zilla Parishad at District level,

These slowly transformed into present day Gram Panchayat, Mandal Parishad and Zilla Parishad. The villages elect their local self government for implementation of social and economic plans in the village.

Definitions given by Andhra Pradesh Panchayat Raj

➢ **Zilla:** An administrative district in a state with definite geographical boundaries

➢ **Gramasabha**: A body consisting of all persons whose names are included in the electoral rolls for the Panchayat at the village level

➢ **Panchayati area:** The territorial area of a Panchayat

➢ **Village:** area notified by a district collector as a "village'

LECTURE-27

## STRUCTURE OF PANCHAYAT RAJ INSTITUTIONS

The three tiers of panchayat raj

Bottom level- **Gram Panchayat**

Middle level - **Panchayat Samiti** in block (a few gram panchayatis together form panchayat samiti)

Top level - **Zilla Parishad**

The structure of Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRI) in India is as follows

Structure of PRI in India

District Level	➡	**Zila Parishad**
Block Level	➡	**Panchayat Samiti**
Villege Level	➡	**Gram Panchayat**
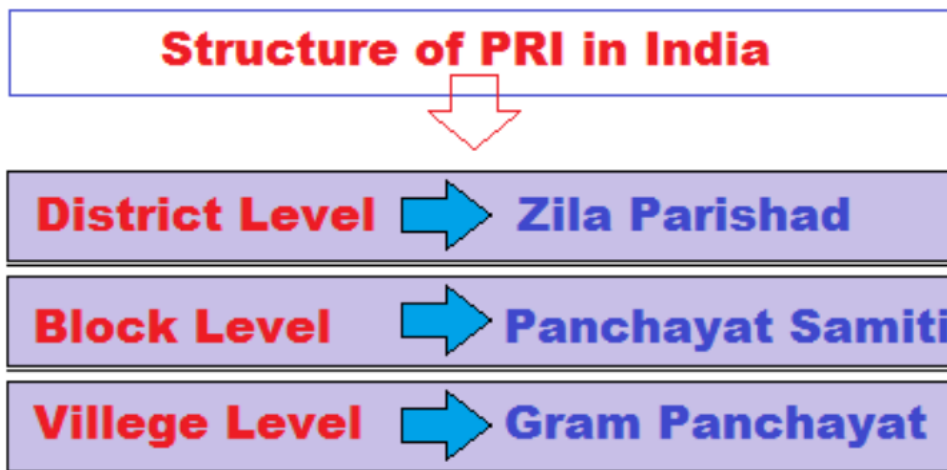
I. The Gram Panchayat

➢ Atleast 2500 population form a panchayati. But today more that 500 population area is called panchayati.

➢ In Andhra Pradesh 27445 such panchayats are present. It is headed by "Grama Sarpanch"

➢ Grama sarpanch is elected by the voters in that village

➢ Based on the population the village is divided into 6-16 wards

➢ From each ward one member is elected by the voters in that ward called Ward Member

➢ Panchayat members should be from 5 to 21. Special reservation is given to women, scheduled caste and scheduled tribe

➢ Among the elected ward members one member is elected as Grama Upa Sarpanch

➢ The duration of a grama panchayat is 5 years

II. **The Panchayat Samiti:** This is the next tier of administration at the Block level. It consists of

     i.   Sarpanch's of all Panchayats

     ii.   Local M.L.As and M.L.C.s with right to vote but not to hold office.

     iii.   One person nominated by District Collector for every Panchayat for which no Sarpanch has been elected.

Reservation and Community-option

     iv.   Two women

     v.   One from Scheduled Castes

     vi.   One from Schedule Tribes

     vii.   Two persons with experience in administration and public

The President and Vice-President of the Samiti are elected from the grama panchayat sarpanchs. Block Development Officer appointed by the Government is the chief executive of the Samiti and functions as the leader of the team of block level officials.

The structure of panchayat samiti is as given below
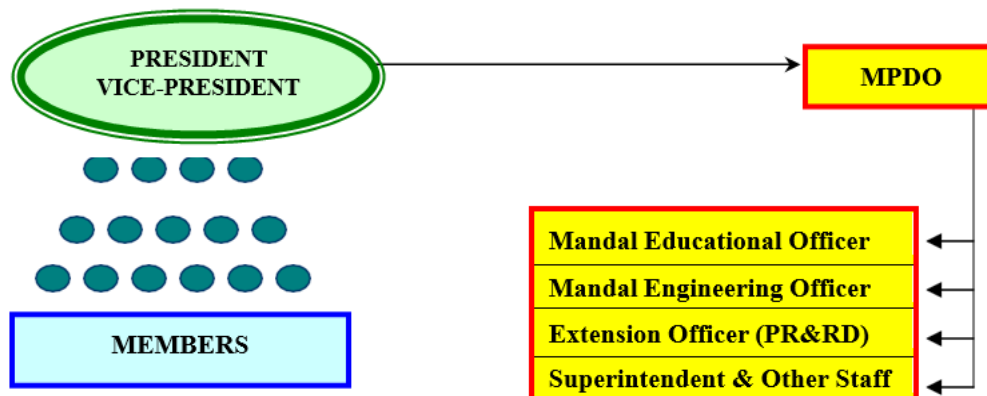
III. **The Zilla parishad**

It is the third tier of Panchayat Raj operating at the district level. It consists of :

1. One elected member from each Mandal
2. Member of Legislative Assembly (MLA) of the State representing the constituency,
3. Member of House of People (MP) representing a constituency

4. Member of the Council of State (MLC) who is a registered voter in thedistrict concerned and

5. Two co-opted members belonging to minorities.

Each ZP has seven Standing Committees (Planning and Finance, Rural Development, Agriculture, Education and Medical Services, Women Welfare, Social Welfare and Works).

The structure of Zilla Parishad is as follows
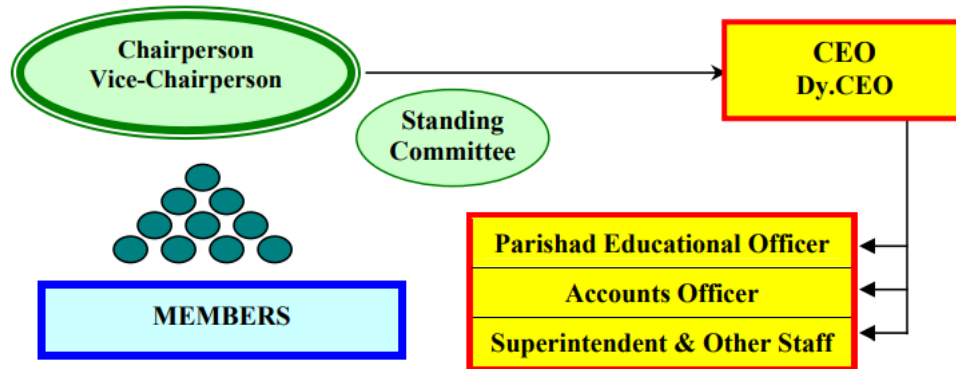
Each Standing Committee of 9 members of whom the Chairman of Zilla Parishad and the District Collector are ex-officio members. The District Collector is the Chairman of all the Standing Committees.

(i) **Standing Committee for Planning and Finance**: District Plan, budget, taxation, finance and coordination of the work relating to other committees.

(ii) **Standing Committee for Rural Development:** Poverty Alleviation Programme, Area Development Programmes, employment, housing, cooperation, thrift and small savings, Industries including cottage, village and small scale industries, trusts and statistics.

(iii) **Standing Committee for Agriculture:** Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, soil reclamation including contour bunding, social forestry, fisheries and sericulture.

(iv) **Standing Committee for Education and Medical Services:** Education including Social Education, medical services, public health and sanitation including drainage, relief for distress in grave emergencies.

(v) **Standing Committee for Women Welfare:** Development of Women and welfare of children.

(vi) **Standing Committee for Social Welfare:** Social Welfare of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes and cultural affairs.

(vii) **Standing Committee for Works:** Communications, rural water supply, power and irrigations.

Democratic Decentralization-Merits

✓ It improves governance and social justice

✓ Increases peoples participation in rural development

✓ It enhances the transparency of government, and the flow of information between government and citizens

✓ It enhances the accountability of elected leaders and citizens

✓ It makes government more responsive and responsible

**Democratic Decentralization-Demerits**

✓ Lack of peoples support and participation as anticipated

✓ Sometimes decisions are dominated by bias of rich and affuluent people in all the three tires

✓ Revelries between people are flared up during and after elections

✓ Lack of co-ordination between line departments

✓ Cordial relation between officials and people is not observed many a times

LECTURE-28

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF PANCHAYAT RAJ INSTITUTIONS

Functions of Grama Panchayat

- ✓ Health & Sanitation
- ✓ Water supply
- ✓ Street lights
- ✓ Documentation of birth and death
- ✓ Mother and child care
- ✓ Construction and maintenance of roads, canals, wells in the village
- ✓ Primary education
- ✓ Establishment of hospitals, library and reading groups
- ✓ Organizing Festivals, shandies, etc
- ✓ Afforestation in government lands
- ✓ Collection of house and professional tax

- ✓ Gram Panchayat – Revenue
- ✓ House tax
- ✓ Professional tax
- ✓ Government funds
- ✓ Donations from peoples

Grama Sabha is conducted twice in a year. The meeting is chaired by the Grama Sarpanch. If sarpanch happens to be out of the village then the meeting is chaired by Grama Upa Sarpanch. A report on the activities of the Gram Panchayat or other developmental activities of the village are discussed in the meeting. New taxes to be proposed, revision of tax rates, etc are also discussed. The suggestions and recommendation of the Grama Sabha are considered in administration of the local self government. The structure of grama Sabha is as follows
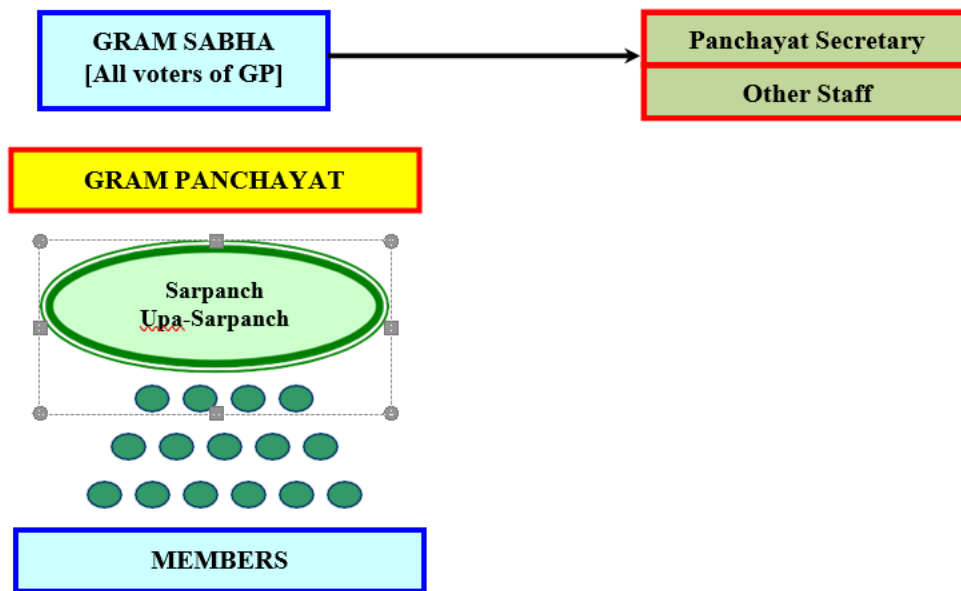
Functions of Panchayat Samiti

- ✓ Agriculture development
- ✓ Animal husbandry, fisheries development
- ✓ Rural health
- ✓ Primary education
- ✓ Social education
- ✓ Arrangement of transport
- ✓ Establishment of Co-operatives & micro enterprises
- ✓ Women and child welfare, social welfare
- ✓ Save forests
- ✓ Rural housing
- ✓ Inspection and advisory services to Gram Panchayat

Powers and functions of the Zilla Parishad

1. Zilla Parishad should function as advisory body over the Panchayat Samitis with powers to: (a) approve their budgets, (b) community-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. Secondary education is the responsibility of Zilla Parishad.

4. The Parishad should perform such of the powers and functions of the District Board as are transferred to it by the Government.

5. It should also perform the functions of Panchayat Samitis in respect of non-Samiti blocks.

6. It should discuss and review at its ordinary meetings the progress made or the results achieved under various items. Development Department furnishes to Parishad a brief note on the achievements in the schemes of its department.

EVOLUTION OF MANDAL SYSTEM IN ANDHRA PRADESH

The central government under the chairmanship of **Ashok Mehta** in 1978 has appointed a committee to review and rectify the weakness of the Panchayat Raj system.

The committee presented a report and recommended to implement the Mandal System and suggested to make small administrative unit instead of larger unit at Taluka (consists of about 100 villages level.

Karnataka was the first state to adopt mandal system. The government of Andhra Pradesh on **25th May 1985** dismissed the old revenue limits of Taluka and Firka.

The Mandal Adhikari will work with same power as Tahasildar and Taluka Magistrate and the Mandal Development Officer was placed in-charge of all the developmental functions and all the regulatory function are handed over to the Mandal Adhikari.

Features of Mandal system

➤ The development activities in a mandal are looked after by Mandal Development Officer (MDO).

➤ There are 1128 mandals in Andhra Pradesh. Every mandal consists of 12-14 villages with a population of 35,000-50,000.

➤ The Taluka or Samiti head quarter of Municipalities is the headquarters of Revenue Mandals.

➤ Mandal Revenue Officer heads the Mandal Revenue Office.

➤ The Deputy Tahsildar/Superintendent, Mandal Revenue Inspector, Superintendent, Mandal Surveyor, Assistant Statistical Officer and Other Ministerial Staff are also present.

➤ MRO provides the interface between the government and public within his jurisdiction.

➤ The Deputy Tahsildar/ Superintendent supervises the day today functions of MRO's office and deals mainly with general administration. Most of the files are routed through him. He monitors all the sections in the MRO's office.

➤ The (Mandal Revenue Inspector) MRI assists the MRO in conducting

inquiries and inspections. He supervises the Village Secretaries. He inspects crop fields, writes field inspection details, collects land revenue, non-agricultural land assessment and other dues and keeps close watch on the villages within his jurisdiction to maintain law and order.

➢ The Assistant Statistical Officer (ASO), who is under the overall control of Chief Planning Officer at the District and Directorate of Economics and Statistics at the State Level, maintains data related to rainfall, crops and population. He conducts crop estimate tests. He inspects crops to submit crop condition details. He prepares periodical reports on births and deaths and assists the MRO in conduct of livestock census, population census and other surveys taken up by the government from time to time.

➢ MRO sends reports on above items to the District Collector. Later these are sent to the department of economics and statistics and planning department at government level.

➢ The Mandal Surveyor, who belongs to the Survey Settlement and Land Records Department, assists the MRO in survey operations.

➢ Chain Man assists Mandal Surveyor in his duties.

The following facilities are provided at every mandal head quarters

1. Bank,
2. Bus stand,
3. Railway station,
4. Primary health centre,
5. Veterinary dispensary,
6. Police station,
7. Post office,
8. Telephone exchange,
9. High school,
10. Marketing facilities and
11. Agricultural go down facilities.

Revenue record of all the Tahsil Offices are now shifted to the concerned mandal headquarters. Andhra Pradesh has passed the act with slight modifications and implemented in three stages this system viz: **Gram**

Panchayat, Mandal Praja Parishad and **Zilla Praja Parishad** and in this act every mandal Praja Parishad is having a Revenue Mandal.

Previously the Sarpanches of the Gram Panchayat were elected directly and these Sarpanches used to elect the Panchayat Samiti Chairman and Panchayat Samiti Chairmen, MLA's and MP's used to elect the Chairman of Zilla Parishad. It was almost always possible to pass a vote on non confidence against the Zilla Parishad Chairman. But due to the direct election of mandal and Zilla Praja Parishad Chairman it is now not possible to remove these people till the end of voters of mandals.

Mandal Praja Parishad consists of votes of

1. Sarpanches,
2. MLA's,
3. MP's and
4. one member from the Linguistic Minorities.

Reservation members for Chairman, Mandal Praja Parishads are

1. 15% from the SCs,
2. 6% from the STs,
3. 20% from the BCs,
4. 9% from the women members.

Zilla Praja Parishad is constituted at district level consists of Mandal Praja Parishad Chairman, MLA's, MP's, members of Rajya Sabha and a member from the linguistic or religious minorities.

1. The team to review the mandal developmental activities constitute
2. Mandal Praja parishad presidents
3. Zilla praja parishad chairman
4. MLA's, MP's, members of Rajya Sabha
5. District collector
6. District co-operative bank Chairman
7. District co-operative marketing society Chairman
8. District Library Chairman

The Hon'ble Chief minister of the state can nominate a minister to chair the review meeting of mandal developmental activities

LECTURE-30

EXTENSION REFORMS- AGRICULTURAL TECHNOLOGY MANAGEMENT AGENCY (ATMA)

➢ The main extension system primarily responsible for delivery of technical messages is operated by the State Department of Agriculture (DOA), through the state, district and block level machinery.

➢ The system however is more pre-occupied with implementation of a number of central and state sector schemes having input/subsidy delivery.

➢ The performance of the main extension system has been adversely affected by the difficulty in recruiting and retaining extension staff due to budgetary constraints, depleting operational support and inadequate technical background of the majority of the staff commensurate to the changing scenario of agriculture, resulting in the dependence of farmers on input dealers and others, as sources of information. Their role in technology up-scaling has been minimal and even non-existing.

➢ During the mid-1990s, the Government of India and the World Bank began exploring new approaches to extension that would address these system problems and constraints. The result was a new, decentralized extension approach, which would focus more directly on agricultural diversification and increasing farm income and rural employment.

The central institutional innovation that emerged to address these system problems was the Agricultural Technology Management Agency or "ATMA" model that was introduced at the district level to:

1. Integrate extension programs across the line departments (i.e., more of a farming systems approach)

2. Link research and extension activities within each district, and

3. Decentralize decision-making through "bottom-up" planning procedures that would directly involve farmers and the private sector in planning and implementing extension programs at the block and district-levels.

Agricultural Technology Management Agency (ATMA)

A Centrally sponsored scheme 'Support to State Extension Programmes for Extension Reforms' was launched by the ICAR in 1999. This scheme is a major initiative towards revitalizing agricultural extension in the States to make the extension system decentralized and demand driven. The scheme is implemented through autonomous district level institutions established in the States in the form of Agricultural Technology Management Agency (ATMA). ATMA is managed by Project Director at district level.

Aims and objectives of ATMA

The ATMA aims at accomplishing the following objectives:

1. Establishing new, structured and centralised institutions at the state, district and village level.
2. Strengthening the already existing extension system with innovative and effective operational procedures.
3. Simplifying and de-centralising the decision-making to the district and block levels.
4. Accelerating towards the viability of the extension services.
5. Encouraging the farmers to take part in the programme planning, coordination and resource sharing and grow their responsibility.
6. Strengthening the linkages between the key line Government departments, research organisations and the stakeholders.
7. Offering a structural mechanism for the coordination and supervision of upgradation activities of several institutions involved in technology modification and distribution at the district and village levels.
8. Enhancing the quality and sort of technology that is distributed.
9. Building partnership with the third party institutions such as NGOs, Panchayat Raj Institutions etc.
10. Implementing the farming system innovations and farmer organisation to overcome the technological differences and improper management of natural resources.
11. Tackling the issue of gender concerns by collecting and clustering women farmers into groups and offer them with the advanced training.

12. The availability of technical advice to farmers on new practices and technologies under ATMA has led to higher/rational use of new practices and technologies.

13. ATMA provides an institutional mechanism for coordination and management of Agricultural Extension System in the district.

EXTENSION REFORMS - STRATEGIC RESEARCH AND EXTENSION PLAN (SREP)

ATMA is mandated to develop a demand driven, situation specific, multi-actor oriented Strategic Research and Extension Plan (SREP) to accelerate agriculture development in the project district.

The SREP is the basic document which not only decides the development activities that need to be carried out but also in which manner and by whom it has to be done.

In formulating a SREP, the following guiding principles should be kept in view

- ➢ Identify and spread important farming system innovations or success stories that may intensify or diversify existing systems and thereby, increase farm household income.
- ➢ On-farm collaborative technology development, testing and refinement to address serious technological gaps in the existing farming systems.
- ➢ Promote appropriate natural resource management (NRM) plan for building and maintaining the sustainable production systems within each AES.

PROCEDURE FOR SREP PREPARATION: In order to prepare SREP for a district, representative mandals and villages will be selected for data collection. Secondary data is collected from records and again at village level primary data is collected from farmers by Agro Ecological Situation Team (AES) by use of participatory methods.

Contents of SREP

The SREP will have two sections: and each section will have two subsections as under:

Contents of SREP			
Diagnostic section		Strategy Section	
Information	Analysis	Strategies	Activities

Diagnostic section: Information sub-section: (For the District and Village)
Secondary data on the following aspects is collected from the available records of Agricultural Officer, Revenue officials, Panchayat records etc.

- ➢ General features: Agro-ecological situations, Agro-climatic information, Information on land based systems, Demographic data, Land and soil-land

utilization statistics, Rainfed and irrigated area.

> Area and percentage under each category, On-going development, extension and research, Information on markets, Agro-processing facilities, Storage facilities, Agricultural credit, Input and service facilities, Farmers' group and organizations, Private sector organizations and non- governmental organizations, Information and communication, Primary data is to be collected from the selected villages on the above aspects and also on : Farm holdings, Farming systems, Farming situations in each crop(Ag+ Horti)., Adoption gaps in crop cultivation, Existing INM, IPM practices, Seed Quantities used, Success stories, Innovative farming systems

Analysis sub-section: Analysis of existing farming systems and enterprises

SWOT analysis is to be carried out in respect of different Farming Systems, as observed in each AES.

Strategy section: Strategy sub-section: This section spells out strategies for research and extension for each AES in respect of different program components,. In this sub-section strategies would be developed, separately for extension and research, generally on the following categories.

How to Develop SREP

SREP is to be demand driven while it is in consonance with the prevailing Agro-ecological, socio- economic situations and also the development goals of various government departments. This is developed with a bottom – up approach. While it gives importance to the main clients i.e. the farming community, it does consider the views of the other stakeholders in the agricultural development scenario. Hence, the methodology for developing SREP for any NATP district is different from the method presently in vogue in different line departments of the government in formulating plans and strategies for their activities. The steps for developing SREP are outlined here under:

STEPS IN DEVELOPING SREP

STEP I   Orientation of District Level Officers and Scientists on SREP.

STEP II   Identification of Agro-eco-situations (AESs) within the district

	Constitution of AES teams and Logistic arrangements
STEP III	Training of AES teams
STEP IV	Participatory Field data collection
STEP V	Rechecking and analysis of data and information
STEP VI	Developing strategies for research and extension in the district
STEP VII	Developing Activity Schedules
STEP VIII	Approval of SREP

LECTURE: 32
EXTENSION REFORMS - MARKETLED EXTENSION

Indian agriculture has made express progress in the last half century by steering the country to a status of self sufficiency. It has been successful in keeping pace with the rising food demand of a growing population. Though the production has increased, farmers could not get remunerative prices for their produce which is the main cause for distress. Small and marginal farmers are forced to sell their produce at low prices due to several constraints like repayment of personal hand loans and to meet domestic needs.

With globalization of market, farmers have to transform themselves form mere producers- seller in domestic market to producers cum sellers in wider market sense to best realize the returns for his investments, risks and efforts. This to be achieved, farmers need to know answers to questions like what to produce, when to produce, how much to produce, when and where to sell, at what price and whom to sell his produce. Farmers received most of the production technologies from extension system. Extension system now needs to be oriented with knowledge and skills elated to market.

Reasons for distress of Indian farmer

- ✓ Small fragmented land holdings

- ✓ Inferior quality produce

- ✓ Multiple products in small quantities with heavy wastages

- ✓ Post harvest management is not up to the mark.

- ✓ Seasonal dependence

- ✓ Selling everything wholesale and buying everything in retail (No holding capacity/ storage facilities)

- ✓ Distress sale of produce

- ✓ Week market intelligence

Marketing: "Marketing involves finding out what customers want and supplying it to them at a profit."

Why marketing is important: The importance of marketing can be viewed from four different perspectives of the national economy, the farmer, the product and consumer.

Enhanced roles of Agricultural Extension personnel in light of Market Led Extension

> **SWOT analysis of market**. Strengths (Demand, high market ability, good rice etc), Weaknesses (inadequate staff, poor skills and information) Opportunities (Export, appropriate time of selling etc) and Threats (imports and perishability of the produce etc.) need to be analyzed about the markets. Accordingly, the farmers need to be made aware of this analysis for planning of their production and marketing.

> Organization of Farmer's Interest Groups (FIGs) on commodity basis and building their capabilities with regard to management of their own farm enterprise.

> Enhancing interactive and communication skills of the farmers to exchange their views with customers and other market forces for getting feedback.

> Establishing marketing and agro-processing linkages between farmer's groups, markets and private processors.

> **Advice on product planning:** Selection of crops to be grown and varieties suiting the land holding and marketability of produce will be stating point of agri-enterprise.

> **Educating the farming community:** To treat agriculture as an entrepreneurial activity and accordingly plan various phases of crop production and marketing.

> **Direct marketing:** farmers need to be informed about the benefits of direct marketing.

> Capacity building of FIGs in terms improved production, post harvest operations, storage and transport and marketing.

> Acquiring complete market intelligence regularly on various aspects of marketing.

> Regular usage of internet facility through computers to get updated on market besides internet.

- **Organization of study tours of FIGs :** To the successful farmers / FIG's for various operations with similar socio-economic and farming systems as the farmers learn more from each other.
- Production of video films of success stories of community specific farmers.
- Creating of websites of successful FIGs in the field of agribusiness management with all the information to help others to achieve success.

Challenges to Market Led Extension

- Gigantic size of Public Extension System of the public extension in the country.

- Generation of data on market intelligence would be a huge task by itself.

- The present extension system suffers from several limitations of stationery, mobility, allowances, personal development of cadres etc.

- Infrastructure challenges.

- Storage and preservation of produce

- Minimization post harvest losses.

- Capacity building of extension personnel and farmers.