

AEX 101
RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY WITH
RELATION TO EXTENSION EDUCATION (1+1)

COURSE TEACHER
Dr. K.C. RAVI, Ph.D.,



DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY
CENTRE FOR AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
TAMIL NADU AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY
COIMBATORE-641 003.

CHAPTER I

RURAL SOCIOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Man cannot live in isolation. He lives in groups. So he is called as a 'social animal'. In social science various activities related to human society are studied. Therefore, sociology is the science of society.

Derivation:

The 'socio' in Latin means companions or society and 'logos' in Greek means reasoning or science. Therefore, sociology means companions, reasoning or science of societies. Society is the web of social relationship. In short, sociology means the study of society or human relationships.

Origin:

It originated in USA. Auguste comte is the father of sociology. He coined the word sociology in 1837. More systematic observation of the rural society was done in the middle of nineteenth century. Various scholars studied the rural society in various angles in different countries. However, development of rural sociology as a discipline is of very recent one.

Rural sociology studies started in the latter part of 19th century in USA. Its aim was to place emphasis on improving the welfare of people, solving the population problems, mobilisation of labour, economic problems, etc. Study of such problems and giving solutions led to rapid development of rural sociology in USA. Rural sociologists studied the practical problems of rural people in USA and gave solutions. During 1890-1920 American society experienced a decay. USA sociologists made significant contributions in solving population problems.

USA rural sociologists have also contributed solutions to the problems of other countries. Some of such significant works are: (i) Creation of Community Development Movement in India, by Dr.Douglas Ensminger, (ii) Setting up of adult education programmes in rural areas of Greece by Howard Beers, (iii) Work done by T.Lynn Smith

in Brazil, (iv) Participation by Robert A. Polson in development of Rural Reconstruction Movement in Philippines and (v) Works of Carl Taylor in Argentina and others.

India:

In ancient times, India had enough knowledge in sociology. All these knowledge deteriorated because of the foreign rules. India lost many good things known to our forefathers. The social life in olden days was very well organised, after independence, efforts are being made to revise some of the important institutions and organisations.

Sociologists of India very recently thought of giving more importance to rural sociology. In the syllabi of every Agricultural University offering the under graduate and the post-graduate education in Agricultural Extension has the rural sociology as a compulsory subject. The thesis of these post-graduate students add research data to the field. Because of the great number of villages and the variety in language, culture and social institutions, depending on the geographical area, there is no social uniformity. This necessitates a series of studies of village communities from different parts of the country, which may cover many divergent patterns of organisations.

Rural Sociologists have contributed in the areas of understanding the changing rural society, developing new methods of research, formulating public policies for rural life, social aspects of rural living, diffusion of the farm practices, demography, rural groups, social participation, levels of living, rural community, social security etc.

History:

Teaching of sociology as a separate discipline was started in the year 1876 in United States of America, 1889 in France, 1907 in Great Britain, after World War I in Poland and India, 1925 in Egypt and Mexico and 1947 in Sweden.

During World War II, the need for trained rural sociologists was greatly felt. Besides, the USA sociologists, the League of Nations, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, etc. have helped the advancement of rural sociologists by their grants to institutions for studies, extension using, training of rural social scientists, establishment of agricultural universities, etc.

Concept Clarification

Sociology

Literally sociology means the study of the processes of companionship and may be defined as the study of the basis of social membership. No definition could entirely be satisfactory because of the diversity of perspective which is characteristic of the modern discipline. However, the definition for sociology according to various authors are given below for better and comprehensive understanding.

- 1) Sociology is the study of human beings in their group relations. As such it studies the interaction within and between groups of people – Chitamber.
- 2) Sociology in its broadest sense may be said to be the study of interactions arising from the association of living beings – Gillin and Gillin.
- 3) Sociology is the science which attempts the interpretive understanding of social man – Max Weber.

Sociology seeks to discover the principles of cohesion and order within the social structure, the ways in which it roots and grows within an environment, the moving equilibrium of changing structure and changing environment, the main trends of the incessant change, the forces which determine its directions as any time, the harmonies and conflicts, the adjustments and mal adjudgements within the structure as they are revealed in the light of human desires and thus the practical application of means to ends in the creative activities of social man.

- Mac Iver.

Rural Sociology:

Rural sociology is the science of rural society. The laws of the structure and development of rural society in general can aid us in discovering the special laws governing a particular society.

Rural sociology is the study of sociological life in rural setting to discover their conditions and tendencies and to formulate principles of progress.

- A.R.Desai

Rural Sociology involves the study of human relationships in rural situations.

Extension:

The word extension is derived from the latin word 'tensio' meaning stretching and 'ex' meaning out. Hence, extension means "stretching out" the ideas of research findings into the villages and fields beyond the limits of the schools and colleges to which formal type of education is normally confined.

Douglas Ensminger defined extension as education and its purpose is to change the attitude and behaviour of people to whom the work is done.

Extension Education

Leagans defined Extension education as a behavioural science consisting of its contents drawn from researches in physical biological, social and in its own field synthesised into a body of knowledge, principles, and philosophy so as to focus the attention on the problems of adults and youths; who are to be taught in a non-credit system of education.

Nature of Rural Sociology

Having studied the science and the scientific method, let one proceed to study the nature of rural sociology. Whether rural sociology is a science or not can be decided only when one study the methods applied by it and certain factors on its methodology. Generally, it is believed that rural sociology employ the scientific method. It can be determined on the basis of the following facts.

- i) **Use of scientific method:** Almost all the methods of scientific study viz., observation, interview schedule, questionnaire method, case history method, statistical method etc., are employed in the study of rural sociology. Like other sciences in rural sociology also generalization are formulated on the basis of accepted facts.
- ii) **Factual study:** Like other sciences, rural sociology is also factual study. It studies the social events, social relationship and process in a factual manner. It also studies and analyse the facts and the underlying general principles and theories. From this consideration also, the rural sociology is by nature a science.

- iii) **Discovery of cause and effect:** Like other sciences, rural sociology formulates its theories and laws on the basis of cause and effect relationship.
- iv) **Universal laws:** The laws formulated by rural sociology are universal in nature because they, under normal and similar conditions prove to be correct and produce the same results. When there is change in the circumstances there is change in the laws, which is true of other science as well. Thus, from this point of view, rural sociology is also a science.
- v) **Prediction:** Since the laws formulated by rural sociology are based on cause and effect relationship, it is possible to predict the results. It means that in certain conditions the results shall be the same.

On the basis of the conditions enumerated above, it can be safely said that rural sociology is by nature a science. But certain objections are raised against the scientific nature of rural sociology and they are as follows.

- i) **Lack of objectivity:** While studying the rural sociology and its problems, the investigators continue to remain a part of the society that he/she is studying. Because the investigation are living being they have their own ideas and are also influenced by the subject matter. That is why, it is not possible to have objectivity in the study of rural sociology as in the case of natural sciences.
- ii) **Lack of laboratory:** Rural sociology is not studied in laboratories as these are natural sciences. Because of this, it is not possible to verify and test the theory and the principles of rural sociology like the principles of natural science.
- iii) **Lack of measurement:** In natural science, there are definite and standard measurements through which it is possible to measure and weight. Different units, grams, centimeters, meters etc. are the measurements through which the subject matter of natural science can be measured. But there are no such measurements for measuring the units of the rural sociology. Because of lack of measurement, the results that are put forward by the rural sociology are some times not very dependable.
- iv) **Lack of exactness:** Rural sociology lacks exactness. It is not possible to follow its laws and principles universally as the principles of natural science can be

followed. They lack the exactness because of which, they are not acceptable at every point. Due to this weakness, rural sociology is not regarded as science.

- v) **Lack of prediction:** Because of the lack of objectivity and exactness, the principles that are formulated by the rural sociology are not always correct. That is why on the basis of these principle and laws, predictions are not possible. In natural science they are on the basis of rules and regulations, and principle, hence prediction is always possible. On account of this weakness also rural sociology is not given the status of science.

While discussing the nature of the rural sociology, it has to be kept in kind that there is vital difference between the matter of the natural science and the rural sociology. So far as the exactness is concerned and the use of laboratory is concerned, rural sociology is every day heading towards that. So far as the use of scientific method is concerned, rural sociology is even a science today.

Scope of Rural Sociology

Each village in India lived almost an independent self sufficient social and economic existence. That was the unique agrarian socio-economic structure of India. This self sufficiency was disrupted in British period by foreign market. In social life the joint family systems, the caste, the village panchayat were gradually replaced by British laws (e.g.) revenue, judicial, executive etc. Introduction of modern communication and transport accelerated the above process. Every aspect of village life, social, economic, political and cultural experienced a steady transformation. Thus the old pattern of village, the old structure of village society has changed appreciably. These changes made an agrarian economy into an acute crisis. The rural sociology studies the various problems concerning the rural society and rural life. The problems that fall within the scope of the study of the rural sociology are:

- i) **Rural social life:** Rural sociology as the name itself indicates is the scientific study of the rural social life. It studies the rural society of rural life in all its aspects. In fact this basic thing is the subject matter or scope of rural sociology.

- ii) **Rural social organisations:** While studying the rural society, rural sociology makes a study of all the problems of various rural social organisation such as Red Cross Society, Co-operative movement etc.
- iii) **Rural social institutions:** No study of rural sociology shall be complete unless the rural social institutions like family, neighbourhood, marriage, caste, religion, economic and educational institutions are studied.
- iv) **Rural Social Process:** In rural society, different processes like co-operation, competition etc. will go on. The study of rural society shall not be complete unless all these social processes are studied thoroughly and properly in a scientific manner.
- v) **Social control and social change in rural social set up:** While studying the rural environment and complexities of the rural social set up, the factors of social control and social change have to be studied properly. They can be studied under rural sociology. The urban life influences the rural life. This in fact is very much responsible for social change. Factors of social control and social change form part of the scope of the study of rural sociology.
- vi) **Rural planning and reconstruction:** The rural society needs reconstruction. It has to be done in a planned manner. Proper guidance is provided by the scientific study of the rural society which is provided by the rural sociology. One of the objectives of rural sociology is to provide guidance to the institutions that are engaged in the task of rural reconstructions and planning of rural society. Therefore the rural planning and reconstructions form a subject matter of the study of rural sociology.
- vii) **Religion and culture in rural society:** In rural society religion plays an important role. Cultural difference in rural society is typical. Rural sociology studies all the aspects of religion and culture in the rural social set up.
- viii) **Rural problems and rural community:** Rural problems have to be viewed not from an isolated angle but from a comprehensive point of view. Problems of the rural community are a part of the problems of the society as a whole and they have to be viewed in this very context.

- ix) **Difference between rural and urban society:** The study of rural society shall not be complete unless the difference that exists between rural society and the urban society is studied in a proper and scientific manner.

Thus rural sociology studies the village society, so its scope is very wide.

Government agencies, scientists, welfare organisations etc. are now focussing their attention on the development of rural society. Thus, it becomes necessary for any development worker, scientist, administrator and planner to study the rural societies.

Further, countries which has agriculture as main occupation must have the well established rural sociology faculties. India has been described as a country of villages. In India, about 75 per cent of the population lives in about six million villages. After independence both the central and state governments are launching many rural development programmes and there is wider scope for rural sociology in India.

Aim of the study of Rural Sociology

The aim of the study of rural sociology may be enumerated as follows.

- i) To study in a scientific and systematic manner the rural society and its various aspects and complexities.
- ii) To study the structure, function and objectives tendencies of development of the rural society.
- iii) To discover the laws of the development of the rural society.
- iv) To make a scientific study of the rural society in order to help in the task of planning for the reconstruction of the rural social life.

Importance of Rural Sociology

For India rural sociology is more important any other country. India is basically a country of the villages. After independence the process of reconstruction of the country was started and therefore, the importance of rural sociology was recognised. If India is to achieve progress, the villages have to be improved and education has to be spread in these villages. That is why in community development programme every attempt is being made to improve the villages of this country. This objective can be achieved only when

the administrators and the planners have correct knowledge of the rural life and that knowledge can be provided only by rural sociology. That was the reason why it acquired greater importance in India after independence.

Importance of Rural Sociology for India

Rural sociology is more important for modern India. Its importance can be evaluated in the following heads:

- i) India lives in villages and villages are the centres of Indian culture.
- ii) India is an agricultural country and the poverty of this country can be removed only when agriculture is improved.
- iii) Solution to rural problems can bring about the changes in rural society.
- iv) The country and its society can be reconstructed only through rural reconstruction.
- v) In the interest of democratic decentralisation of village, the community is to be studied in totality.

Importance of Rural Sociology in Extension Education

The inter relationship between rural sociology and extension as given below will indicate the importance of rural sociology in extension education.

Rural Sociology	Extension
1. It is the scientific study of laws of the structure and development of rural society.	It is informal education for rural people with a view to develop rural society on desirable lines.
2. It studies the attitude and behaviour of rural people	It seeks to modify or change for the better, the attitude and behaviour of village people.
3. It studies the needs and interests of rural society.	It helps rural people to discover their needs and problems, and builds educational programmes based on these needs and wants.
4. It analyses rural social relationship or groups or organisers and leaders in rural area.	It utilises the organisers and leaders to achieve the objectives of rural development.
5. It studies social situation and assembles social facts of rural society	It makes use of such social data as a basis for building up extension programmes for rural people.
6. It investigates the social, cultural, political and religious problems of rural society.	It also studies these problems with reference to their impact on extension work in village.

From the above inter-relationship between the rural sociology and extension education, one could understand that rural sociology will help the extension worker to make a correct diagnosis of the ills of the rural society and evolve a correct prescription or programme to overcome these ills. Therefore, rural sociology is important in extension education and inturn to any rural development worker.

Rural-urban Differences and Relationships

Environment affects human life to a greater extent. Human beings live in two different environments of rural and urban. Since, there is difference in social life in both environments it is of interest to know the differences. Further, extension workers are concerned themselves to rural environment, they must be in a position to differentiate the rural from urban environment.

While comparing and contrasting it has to be kept in mind that both the societies are the part of the one human society. As a result of development one particular society assumes the name of rural society while the other becomes urban society. The two societies are basically the same. The differences that exists between the two are of theoretical and academic than the real.

Parameters or Criteria	Rural	Urban
1. Occupation	Totality of cultivators and their families	Totality of people engaged principally in manufacturing, trade, commerce, profession and non-agricultural occupation.
2. Environment	Direct relationship with nature	Predominance of man-made environment. Greater isolation from nature.
3. Size of community	Rurality and size of community are not correlated	Urbanity and size of community is positively correlated.
4. Heterogeneity and Homogeneity of population. (Similarity in socio-psychological and other characteristics of population like behaviour belief, language etc.)	More Homogeneity	More heterogeneity
5. Culture	1. Quite conservative and tradition bound.	Free from conservation and tradition

	2. Guided by superstitions and age old customs. They do not accept importance of scientific functions	Free from superstitions and customs. They are influenced by the scientific inventions which bring about changes in every day life.
6. Social stratification (it determines the status and role of individuals, or differentiation or certain persons as superior to others)	1. Has the traditional system of stratifications.	The society is divided into different strata on the basis of economic, social, political, educational and other factors.
	2. Status is determined by birth.	Status is not determined by birth. But on the economic, educational, social and other consideration.
	3. Stratification is more or less static. It does not change.	It changes with the changes in values (e.g.) A person who is rich now may become poor tomorrow. So the status shall change.
	4. Difference between the high and low is less.	More
7. Social mobility	1. Lack social mobility. People do not change their place, occupation, religion, political view etc.	Have a lot of social mobility.
	2. Wards generally carries the occupation of parents and the social status also thus remains more or less same.	Occupation of wards is not necessary that of the parents.
	3. Occupation is determined by tradition & customs	Occupation differs according to skill.
8. Systems of interaction	1. Less contact per man	Numerous contacts
	2. Narrow area of interaction	Wide area of contact
	3. More of primary contacts	Predominance of secondary contacts
	4. Predominance of personal and relatively durable relations	Predominance of impersonal, casual and short lived relations.
	5. Comparatively simple and sincere relations	Greater complexity, superficiality and standardised formality of relations.
	6. Man is interacted as a human person	Man is interacted as a "number" and address".
9. Social control	1. Informal because of size of community	More formal because of more laws
	2. It is the primary institutions like family & neighbourhood that control life and the society	Primary institutions have social control. There are secondary institutions like economic and other institutions that control social life.

10. Social change	The process of social change takes place at a very slow rate because of little competition	Social change is fast because there is a good deal of competition.
11. Social tolerance and family domination	1. More tolerance because	Less tolerance because
	a. People do not face the new situation	People often face new situation
	b. There is cultural uniformity	Cultural variety seen
	c. Lack of variety (Neither different castes nor religions)	Full of varieties
	2. Family is the most dominant institution	2. Apart from family other institution like economy dominates.
12. Status of women	1. Inferior to men	On par with men
	2. Role confined to house	Free to take part in out-door activities
	3. Live with serious restrictions. They do not enjoy full freedom	On par with men enjoy a good deal of freedom.
13. Neighbourhood environment	1. Have important place	Not important
	2. Rural life is based on co-operation and mutual goodwill. That is why neighbourhood is important.	People have fairly convenient life. People belong to different communities, castes and places and so no institutions like neighbourhood is built.
	3. Neighbourhood generally consists of same caste and economic status. That is why a good deal of co-operation and fellow feeling is seen.	Belong to different economic status and castes so no co-operation is seen.
14. Leaders	Based on personal characters	More impersonal leaders
15. Solidarity	Stronger, informal	Less predominant
17. Income	Less	More
18. Sense of belongingness	More	Less

Sorokin and Zummerman have summed the above differences as "Rural community is similar to calm water in a pail and urban life is like the boiling water in a kettle". differences as "Rural community is similar to calm water in a pail and urban life is like the boiling water in a kettle".

Limitations in studying the differences:

As it is discussed the above differences are theoretical and academic than real. It is so because there are many limitations in differentiating the both. Some of the limitations in differentiation are:

1. There are no demarcation where urban (city) ends and rural begins.
2. The parameters or criteria said above are not quantitative.
3. Changing characters create problems. The solidarity, belongingness etc. are now reduced in rural areas.
4. Due to communication of new ideas and extension facilities to rural areas the gap between rural and urban is being narrowed down. However, the complete closure of this gap will not be possible in the near future.

Important characteristics of Indian Rural Society

Reddy (1985) has stated the following as the characteristic of Indian Rural Society.

1. The village is the unit of the rural society. Its people carry on the business of living together within a distinctive framework of caste and social custom. Caste is a dominant social institution permeating social and economic relations. Traditional caste occupation mostly prevail. Co-operative labour of several different castes is required not only for agro-economic activities but also for socio-religious life. The large villages have within its population all the occupational castes, have a comparatively more integrated and self sufficient economic as well as socio-religious life than smaller villages.
2. The village as a social and cultural unit possesses a basically uniform organisation and structure of values all over India. Many problems are common to the entire Indian country side.
3. The ethnic, linguistic, religious and caste composition of a village largely determine its character and structure. Some villages or hamlets are inhabited almost exclusively by certain castes as in the case of Agraharams for Brahmins. Even in a village with mixed population the different castes usually live in different sections of the same village. Inter caste rivalries are present.

4. Women do not have full equality with men in several aspects of life.
5. Indian rural society is based predominantly on agriculture. Possession of land carries with it social and prestige value, besides being considered as an economic asset. In many villages, the land is mostly distributed between two or more castes, or among a few families, or between one big land owner and the rest of the community. Landless labourers and tenants constitute a considerable part of the population depending on agriculture.
6. Every village has its own organisational set up, authority and sanctions. It has its growing body, the panchayat, based on local tradition since long, but now constituted on a regular basis according to provisions of Panchayat Raj.
7. Social distance or isolation has a bearing on the nature of the organisation of a village and of its view on the world. Availability of or nearness to modern means of transport or communications also modifies the setting and fabric of a village.
8. Village settlements are generally governed by certain regional and local traditions. The lay out of the village, construction of the house, the dress, the speech, and manners follow the set pattern of the cultural area. Each village possesses an individual of its own. Some have a reputation for generosity, hospitality and fair play, while others are notorious for their meanness and corruption. Some villages are known for their co-operatives, while some are noted for their litigations and factions.

The important characteristics of the Indian villager was summarised by Reddy (1985) as hospitality, feminist traditionalism, fatalism, religiousness often combined with superstitious beliefs, leisure attitude to life, and low standard of living. Nevertheless most villagers are capable change and will respond to the teachers whom they trust even though their past sad experiences make them conservation and hopelessness about the future. They are eager to learn how help themselves and they represent paternalism.

CHAPTER 2

SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS & ORGANISATIONS

Social institutions have been created by man from social relationships in society to meet such basic needs as stability, law and order and clearly defined roles of authority and decision making.

Every organisation is dependent upon certain recognised and established set of rules, traditions and usages. These usages and rules may be given the name of institutions. These are the forms of procedure which are recognised and accepted by society and govern the relations between individuals and groups.

Definition

An institution is a set of folkways and mores into a unit which serves a number of social functions.

- Woodward and Maxwell

An institution is an organized system of social relationships which embodies certain common values and procedures and meets certain basic needs of society.

- Horton.

Social institutions are formal cultural structures devised to meet basic social needs.

- Landis.

Characteristics

- i) Institutions are the means of controlling individuals.
- ii) Institutions depend upon the collective activities of men.
- iii) The institution has some definite procedures which are formed on the basis of customs and dogmas.
- iv) Institution is more stable than other means of social control.
- v) Every institution has some rules which must be compulsorily obeyed by the individual.

Five major institutions in rural sociology are political, educational, economic, family and religion.

1. **Political:** Government as political institution, administers the regulatory functions of law and order, and maintains security in society. Form of government and its method of working depends on the accepted patterns of behaviour in a society. Development work is now-a-days a major responsibility of the government. For effective implementation of programmes, government may decentralise its functioning by creating local self-government like panchayats at different level.
2. **Education** is the process of socialisation, which begins informally at home and then formally in educational institutions. Education as an institution helps develop knowledge, skill attitude and understanding of the people and strive to make them competent members of the society. Education widens the mental horizon of the people and make them receptive to new ideas.
3. **Economic:** Economy provides basic physical sustenance of the society by meeting the needs for food, shelter, clothing and other necessary supply and services. Economic institutions include agriculture, industry, marketing, credit and banking system, co-operatives etc.
4. **Family** is the most basic social institution in a society, and is a system of organised relationship involving workable and dependable ways of meeting basic social needs.

Function

1. Sex regulation.
2. Reproduction and perpetuation of the family and human race.
3. Socialisation.
4. Provision of economic maintenance and livelihood in many cultures.
5. Provision of love, affection and security to the individual.
6. Provision of class status to the individual of the family into which he has been born.

Definition of Family

Family is defined by Burgess and Locke as a group of persons united by the ties of marriage, blood or adoption; constituting a single household, interacting and inter

communicating with each other in their respective social roles of husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister, creating a common culture.

Elliott and Merrill defined the family as "the biological social unit composed of husband, wife and children".

Characteristics of family

Family is the most universal group. Family is classified based on structure (patriarchal or matriarchal) and residence.

1. Patriarchal family

It is the family where male being the head of family possessed inclusive powers. He is the owner and administrator of the family property and right. To him all persons living in the family are subordinated.

2. Matriarchal family

The authority vests in the woman head of the family. The male is subordinated to her. She is the owner of property and rules over family. This type of family is said to prevail among the primitive people, who led a wandering or hunting life.

3. Based on residence of the family is classified as

- a) ***Matrilocal family***: In this type of family husband goes to live in the house of his wife.
- b) ***Patrilocal family***: Wife goes and lives in the house of her husband.

4. Based on the marriage the family is classified as:

- i) ***Monogamous family***: In which man marries one woman only at one time.
- ii) ***Polygamous family***: In this kind of family one man marries many women at one time.
- iii) ***Polyandrous family***: In this kind of family one man marries many women and lives with all of them or each of them alternatively.

5. The family is also classified based on ancestry as follows:

- i) ***Matrilineal family***: Here woman is believed to be the ancestor of the family.
- ii) ***Patrilineal family***: Here the ancestry continues through the father.

6. Religion is belief in super natural. Religion constitutes a set of beliefs regarding the ultimate power in the universe, the ideal and proper pattern of behaviour and ceremonial ways of expressing these beliefs. Religion also provides a foundation for the mores of the society. Taboos in various cultures have religious sanction. Religion provides a means by which individuals can face crises and ups and downs in life with strength and fortitude.

ORGANISATIONS

Anderson defined organisations as those classes of human relationship structures wherein people purposefully associate in systematically arranged units to promote and achieve some common purposes or interests that are not specifically expressed in the institution.

Each member has a formal status and role. An organisation differs from an institution by its focus on a narrowly limited purpose; it is a group of people organised to pursue a specific objective. An institution on the other hand pursues broader and more general purposes and is basically a set of socially sanctioned procedures involving patterned behaviour, norms and roles. Organisations may operate within institutions, though supporting it and helping to achieve its objective.

The form and structure of an organisation develops as specialised activity, rules and regulations for operating, time and place of meetings, are formulated and the organisation operates as a clearly defined entity having a specific objective with officers and membership.

Essential Characteristics of Organisations

1. **Clearly defined Limits**: in keeping with a specific purpose and interest, the limits within which an organisation operates are clearly defined goals, and activity is

polarised around these goals. Organisations may seek new goals to justify their existence and continuation over a long period of time, however. For instance, the Red Cross society, born during World War I modified its function and objectives to meet peace time needs. Organisations may vary widely in purpose, being created to serve very different interests, such as welfare, music, poetry, religion etc. The purpose is normally specified in the organisation's constitutions and by laws, which are often legally registered in accordance with prevailing laws and practices.

2. **Formal membership, status and Role:** There are several aspects of membership in an organisation membership is voluntary and motivated by specialised individual interest. Organisations are almost completely government sponsored or sanctioned. Direction of these organisations is usually by government officials and membership is frequently compulsory organisations that are not under 'government control' are tolerated only if the government feels that their operation is in keeping with government interests, under such circumstances organisations can rarely be formed as spontaneous expressions of the interests of people in society.

Membership may involve restrictive qualifications and certain minimum requirements. These restrictions may be on the basis of sex, talents, interest occupation etc.

3. **Self contained Administrative structure:** Each organisation has its own administrative structure with roles and functions clearly defined and prescribed.
4. **Operative principles, procedures and goals:** All organisations have a carefully stated and constitution and by-laws, some times required by law, embodying objectives, rules, regulations and operational procedures.
5. **Provision for control, authority and decision making:** The rules and regulations of an organisation define authority, procedure for decision making and measures for maintaining conduct and behaviour of members.

6. **An outlet for individual interest:** An organisation enables a group of persons sharing a common interest in society to associate with one another, working together toward realisation of their interest.
7. **A Channel for purposeful action:** In fulfilling its goal, an organisation may influence social decisions and effect or stimulate social change.

Classifications of organisation

1. On the basis of political structure with in which they are created.
2. On the basis of motives of participation.
3. On the basis of organisational operation.
4. On the basis of admission to membership.

CHAPTER 3

ECOLOGICAL ENTITIES

Man associating in varying degrees and forms of inter-related organization with other in society, distributes himself in relation to land areas in such a way as to create land-based relationships or units called ecological entities.

The land based units of operation that man creates are of two types.

1. Natural, unplanned units with indefinite boundaries – regions, communities and neighbourhoods.
2. Planned ecological entities.

REGIONS: The term region refers to an area of sufficiently homogenous physical features to distinguish it from another region. It has also been defined as an area within which the combination of environmental and demographic factors have created a homogeneity of economic and social structure.

Regions have been classified on the basis of three distinguishing criteria.

- A. Number of indices used in delineation.
- B. Subordinate or super-ordinate relationship.
- C. Political boundaries between regions.

A. Number of indices used in delineation

Four types of single factor regions have been identified.

1. **Natural regions:** differentiated from one another on the basis of a single geographic characteristic such as soil, rainfall, topography, forest irrigation.
2. **Cultural regions:** A cultural region is an area in which society is characterized by a sufficient homogeneity in pattern of behaviour, including ways of living, values, beliefs and social organizations, to differentiate it from other areas.
3. **Agricultural regions:** based on the type of farming practiced in various areas, climate, soil and other factors influencing a central crop and/or livestock production.

4. *Service regions*: man-made regions formulated for administrative purposes by government and non-government agencies.

B. Subordinate or super-ordinate relationship

Smaller units, within larger homogeneous units or major regions, often display sub-regional heterogeneity and must be recognised and identified, usually as a sub-region. By a major region is meant a societal division of the nation delineated and characterized by the greatest possible area homogeneity. A sub-region or minor region is a sub division of a major region representing some variation within the large framework of the homogeneity of the major region.

C. Political boundaries between regions

While political boundaries often do not consider economic and cultural factors the advantage in using political boundaries accrues from the availability of analytical data periodically collected and analysed by the political bodies concerned and the ease of establishing administrative functions.

SOCIETY

Important aspects of society is not the structure, it is the system of relationship. The relations which do not have definite associations have been excluded from the definitions of society. Society exists only when the members know each other and possess common interest on subjects. The travel in train does not form the society. But when they came to know each other the element of society is created. Thus, the society is a number of like-minded individuals, who know and enjoy their like mindedness and are therefore able to work together for common ends.

DEFINITION

A society is a collection of individuals united by certain relations and modes of behaviour which mark them off from others who do not enter into these relations or who differ from them in behaviour.

- Ginsberg

A society may be defined as a group of people who have lived together long enough to become organised and to consider themselves and be considered as a unit more or less distinct from other human units.

- John F. Cuber

Society is a group of people who have lived together long enough, sharing common values and general interests, to be considered as a social unit. Rural societies are found in the rural areas like villages and urban societies in the urban areas like towns, cities, industrial and commercial centres.

Elements of Society

- i) **Society means likeness:** Likeness is an essential pre-requisite and therefore society means likeness.
- ii) **Society also implies difference:** If people are all very much like or exactly alike the social relationship becomes very much limited. Family rests upon the biological difference of sex. There are differences in aptitude, interest and capacity. Difference is also necessary for society.
- iii) **Inter-dependence:** In addition to likeness, inter-dependence is another essential element.
- iv) **Cooperation:** Without cooperation no society can exist. They cannot have a happy life (e.g.) Family rests of cooperation.

Thus likeness, inter-dependence and cooperation are the essential elements to constitute society. Society is no more an agency for comfort but it is the whole system of society relationship.

COMMUNITY

Person rarely exists alone. It is inevitable that people who over a long period reside in a particular locality should develop social likeness, have common social ideas, belonging etc.

Definition of Community

Community is a human population living within a limited geographic area and carrying on a common inter-dependent life.

- Lund berg

Community is a social group with some degree of "we-feeling" and living in a given area.

- Begardus

Elements of community

Following are the elements on the basis of which it can be decided whether a particular group is a community or not.

- i) **Group of people:** Community is a group of people.
- ii) **Locality:** That group as people reside in a definite locality, a territorial area.
- iii) **Community sentiment:** It means a feeling of belonging together. It is a "we feeling" among the members, in modern societies it lacks. Even the neighbours are not known. Mere neighbourhood does not create a community, if community sentiment is lacking.
- iv) **Permanency:** Community is not transitory like a crowd. It refers permanent life in a definite place.
- v) **Naturality:** Communities are not created by an act but are natural.

There can be larger communities like nations and smaller communities like neighbours. Here the large community provides peace and protection and the smaller community provides friends and friendship.

Difference between Society and Community

Society	Community
1) It includes every relationship which is established among people (It is the web of social relationship)	Group of people who live together in a particular locality and share basic conditions of a common life (Consists of group of individuals)
2) It refers all social structural relations direct or indirect, organised or unorganised, cooperative or antagonistic etc.	To constitute a community the presence of sentiment among the members is necessary.
3) There is an element of likeness in society	We think life that community brings.
4) It has no definite boundary	It refers a group of people living together in a particular locality and share the basic condition of a common life.
5) Community exist within society and possess its distinguishable structure	Small communities exist within greater communities like villages or nagars within a town.

ASSOCIATION

A group of people organised for a particular purpose or a limited number of purpose. Sometimes it is a group of social beings attached to an organisation with a view to secure a specific end or specific ends.

Definition of Association

Mac Iver defines an association as "an organisation deliberately formed for the collective pursuit of some interest or set of interests, which its members share".

According to Ginsberg an association is "a group of social beings related to one another or have instituted in a common organisation with a view to secure a specific end or specific ends".

Elements of Association

- i) There must be group of people.
- ii) It must be an organised one based upon rules and regulations.
- iii) They must have a common purpose.

Thus family, church, trade union, music or any such clubs are associations. Associations may be formed on several basis.

Vocational (trade unions, teachers association) recreational (Tennis clubs) or philanthropic (Charitable societies). They may be formed on the basis of duration (ie) temporary or permanent like flood relief association or trade unions.

Difference between society and association

1. Society is older than association: Society exists since man appeared on the earth, while association arose when man learnt to organise himself.
2. Aim of society is general: Society is for the well being of the individuals, whereas association is formed for the particular purpose or purposes.
3. Society may be organised or unorganised but association must be organised.

4. Membership of society is compulsory as no man can live without it. But man can live without being member of any association at all. Society will exist as long as man exists but association may be only transitory.
5. Society is marked by both cooperation and conflict whereas association is based on co-operation alone.
6. Society is a system of social relationship, whereas association is a group of people.
7. Society is natural, whereas association is artificial.

Difference between Association and Community

1. An association is partial, whereas community is a whole. Association is to achieve some specific purpose, which does not include the whole purpose of life. Whereas community includes whole circle of common life. It is not for specific purpose.
2. Community is not deliberately created. It has no beginning, no hour of birth. It is simply whole life, more comprehensive and more spontaneous than any association.
3. Associations exist within community. Human beings belong to association by virtue of some specific interests that they possess (music club etc.). Though they born into communities they choose their associations.

It should be remembered that associations may become communities by serving plurality of ends, though that may never be reached.

NEIGHBOURHOOD is a smaller unit than the community; a community often is composed of several neighbourhoods.

Neighbourhoods have been described as limited geographic areas in which the individuals and facilities are known to each and carry on intimate associations together (Anderson).

Characterist

- 1) A locality group of people.
- 2) Limited geographical area.

- 3) Frequent face-to-face contacts and intimate association with one another.
- 4) Frequent participation in common activities such as visiting, inter-dining, borrowing and exchanging and other forms of mutual aid.
- 5) Presence of some service or supply agency, organization or institution.

Neighbourhoods are hence more sociality entities based on personal relationships than are communities which are based on social and economic requirements of residents and the satisfaction of them. Neighbourhoods usually have homogeneity. There exists a physical closeness of dwelling places and greater inter-personal contacts among those living in the same neighbourhood with in individual neighbourhoods, the men and women may associate together in both work and leisure time. Thus, the neighbourhood is important because of the effects of the interpersonal relationships and social interaction on the decision making process, both in the families and the community.

Planned Ecological Entities

Planned ecological entities are those land based units that are purposefully created by man in order to fulfil specific functions and meet definite needs. Units such as villages, towns, cities, districts, countries, states etc., are usually based on convenience of operation on the population of the area. In India these units are established by governments to meet regulatory and administrative functions, including revenue collection, police protection and maintenance of law and order.

A government can establish new units from time to time depending on the purpose to be served.

CHAPTER 4

SOCIAL GROUPS

Groups is a unit of two or more individuals who are in reciprocal communication and interaction with other.

In the widest sense the word 'group' is used to designate a collection of items. The consideration of the following terms will give a clear concept of what we generally mean by a 'social group'.

- i) **Category:** means collection of items that have atleast one common characteristic that distinguishes from other items which have other characteristics in common (eg.) individuals between 15 and 20 years of age, for instance, are referred to as an age group.
- ii) **Aggregation:** is a collection of individuals in physical proximity of one another. (eg.) cinema audience, spectators of a football game. There may be some interaction between the individuals in an aggregation but it is generally of a temporary nature and lacks definite pattern of organisation. Interaction will be normally lacking.
- iii) **Potential group:** is a group made up of number of people having some characteristics common but does not possess any recognizable structure. A potential group may become a real group, if it becomes organised and comes to have union or organisation. Students form a potential group as long as they have no union but once they become organised, they form a social group.
- iv) **Social group:** is a collection of two or more individuals in which there are psychological interactions and reciprocal roles based upon durable contacts, shared norms and interests, distinctive patterns of collective behaviour and structural organisation of leadership and followership.

Social group definition according to different authors

Bogardus: It is a number of units anything in close proximity to one another.

Mac Iver: Any collection of human beings who are brought into social relationships with one another.

Sheriff and Sheriff: A group is a social unit which consists of number of individuals who stand in, more or less, definite status and role relationships to one another and which possess a set of values or norms of its own regulating the behaviour of individual members at least in matters of consequence to the group.

Williams: A social group is a given aggregate of people, playing inter-related roles and recognised by themselves or others as a unit of interaction.

Meaning of Group

A social group is

- a collection of individuals
- two or more
- interacting with each other
- who have common set of objectives
- participate in similar activities

Characteristics of Social Group

1. **Relationship:** Members of group are inter-related to each other. Reciprocal relations form an essential feature of a group.
2. **Sense of Unity:** The members of the group are united by a sense of unity and a feeling of a sympathy.
3. **We-feeling:** The members of a group help each other and defend their interests collectively.
4. **Common interest:** The interests and ideas of the group are common. It is for the realisation of common interests that they meet together.
5. **Similar Behaviour:** The members of a group behave in a similar way for the pursuit of common interest.
6. **Group Norms:** Every group has its own rules or norms which the members are supposed to follow.

One must remember that social group is dynamic and not static. It changes its form and expand its activities from time to time. Sometimes the changes may be swift and sudden, while at other times it may occur so gradually that its members are unaware of it.

Occasions for group Formation

- i. Physiological kinship
- ii. Marriage
- iii. Religion
- iv. Common language
- v. Neighbourliness
- vi. Occupational or economic interests
- vii. Attainment of some occasions like school, profession, club etc.
- viii. Common dangers
- ix. Mutual aid and so on.

Classification of Group

Social groups have been classified in various ways by different authors.

1. According to Dwight Samderson

He suggested a three fold classification of social group by structure as involuntary, voluntary and delegate groups.

- a) ***Involuntary group*** is based on kinship such as family. A man has no choice to what family he will belong.
- b) ***Voluntary group*** is one which a man joins of his own volition. He agrees to be a member of it and is free to withdraw at any time from its membership.
- c) ***Delegate group*** is one which a man joins as a representative of a number of people either elected by them or nominated by some power. Parliament is a delegate group.

2. According to Tonnies

He classified the groups into communities and associations. Both these groups are already defined and discussed.

3. According to Cooley

Cooley classified the groups on the basis of kind of contact into primary and secondary groups. In a primary group there is face to face and intimate relationship such

as in the family. In the secondary group such as a political party the relationships are indirect, secondary or impersonal. These groups are defined and discussed separately.

4. According to F.H.Giddings

F.H.Giddings classifies groups into genetic and congregate groups.

Genetic group is a family in which a man is born involuntarily. The congregate group is the voluntary group into which one moves or joins voluntarily.

The social group according to him may also disjunctive or overlapping. The disjunctive group is one which does not allow a person to be a member of other groups at the same time. (e.g) college or nation which do not allow their members to be the members of other colleges or nations at the same time.

An overlapping group is one whose members also belong to other groups of the same type such as Indian Political Science Association.

5. According to George Hasen

He classified the groups on the basis of their relationships to other groups into unsocial, pseudo-social, anti-social and pro-social.

Unsocial group is one which largely lives to itself and for itself and does not participate in the larger society of which it is a part. It does not mix up with other groups and remains aloof from them.

Pseudo-social group participates in the larger social group but mainly for its gain and not for the greater good.

Anti-social group is one that acts against the interest of society. A group of students that destroys public property is anti-social group. Similarly a political party that plan to overthrow a popular government is anti-social.

Pro-social group is the reverse of anti-social. It works for the larger interests of the society. It is engaged in constructive tasks and concerned with increasing the welfare of all the people.

6. According to Sorokin

Sorokin divided the social groups into horizontal and vertical groups.

Horizontal groups are large, inclusive groups such as nations, religions, organisations, political parties etc.

Vertical groups are small divisions such as economic classes. Since the vertical group is a part of the horizontal group (the larger group) an individual is member of both.

7. According to Charles A. Ellwood

He distinguished among

- i. Involuntary and voluntary groups
- ii. Institutional and non-institutional groups
- iii. Temporary and permanent groups

8. According to Leopold

He classified groups into

- i. Crowd
- ii. Groups and
- iii. Abstract collectives.

9. According to Park and Burgess

They distinguished the groups as territorial and non-territorial groups.

10. Louis Gillin and Philip Gillin (*Gillina and Gillin*)

They classified the groups on the basis of

- i. Blood relationship
- ii. Bodily characteristics
- iii. Physical proximity and
- iv. Culturally derived interests

11. According to Sumner

He classified the group as in group and out group.

In group is the group with which the individual identifies himself, his family, tribe, sex, college, occupation, religion, etc. by virtue of his awareness of likeness.

It has inclusion of some persons and exclusion of other persons. It has the collective pronoun 'we'. It has some sympathy and a sense of attachment to other members of the group.

Out group is defined in contrast between 'they' and 'we', like we are democrats and they are communists. We are Hindus and they are Muslims. We are Brahmins and they are Nadars.

Such attitudes that "these are my people" and that "those are not my people", produce a sense of attachment to other members in group while a sense of indifference and even antagonism to the members of out group.

Primary and secondary group

They are distinguished from each other by their type of social contact and degree of formal organisation. In the primary group there is face-to-face association, contacts are personal, individuals live close to one another socially and do not need the formal framework of a constitution to achieve their purpose. Members of a family, a neighbourhood, friends circle are good examples of primary group. In this type members are loyal to one another because of personal regards and the sharing of many interests. The secondary group is larger, more formal, specialised and indirect in its contact.

Characteristics of Primary Group

i)	Physical proximity	Close proximity because they are close to each other
ii)	Small size	Intimate and personal
iii)	Stability	To have intimate relationship the primary group should be stable to some extent
iv)	Similarity of back ground	Each member come from equally experienced, intelligent, etc.
v)	Self interest	They have limited self interest
vi)	Intensity of shared interests	In primary group common interests are shared by every member
vii)	Association	Close and there is face to face contact

The face to face contact does not mean that it exerts a compelling influences over its members.

Difference between primary and secondary groups

Sl. No.	Characteristic	Primary group	Secondary group
1.	Size	Small	Wide spread
2.	Kind of co-operation	Co-operation with other members is direct. Members sit together, discuss together and decide together	Co-operations indirect and less. Members co-operate to achieve common goal and objectives
3.	Type of structure	Informal structure. There is spontaneous adjustment in working of the group. No formal or detailed rules. The structure is simple.	Formal structure. Regulated by formal authority. Secondary group is, therefore, carefully worked out.
4.	Relationship	Direct, intimate and personal. Face to face.	Indirect, less intimate and impersonal. Need to have face to face contact.

CHAPTER 5

CULTURE, CUSTOMS, SOCIAL VALUE

CULTURE

Culture has been defined in number of ways. Some of these definitions are the following.

- 1) To Sorokin, culture stands for the moral, spiritual and intellectual attainments of man.
- 2) David Bidney defines the culture as the self cultivation of the natural geographical environment. He says that culture is a product of agrofacts (products of cultivation), artifacts (products of industry), sociofacts (social organisation), and manifacts (language, religion, art, etc.)
- 3) According to Mac Iver culture is the expression of our nature in our modes of living and our thinking, intercourse in our literature, in religion, in recreation and enjoyment.

In Sociology, the word culture is used to denote acquired behaviours, which are shared by and transmitted among the members of the society. The essential point in culture is that it is acquired by man as a member of society and persists through tradition.

Characteristics of Culture

i) Culture is an acquired quality

Culture is not innate, traits learned through socialisation habits and thoughts are called as culture. Culture is learned.

ii) Culture is social and not individual heritage of man

It is inclusive of the expectations of the members of the groups. It is a social product.

iii) Culture is idealistic

Culture embodies the ideas and norms of the group. It is a sum-total of the ideal patterns and norms of behaviour of a group.

iv) Culture is the total social heritage

Culture is linked with past. The past endures because it lives in culture. It is passed from one generation to another through tradition and customs.

v) *Culture fulfils some needs*

Culture fulfils those ethical and social needs of the groups which are ends in themselves.

vi) *Culture is an integrated system*

Culture possesses order and system. Its various parts are integrated with each other and any new element which is introduced is also integrated.

vii) *Language is the chief vehicle of culture*

Man lives not only in the present but also in the past and future. He is enabled to do because he possesses language which transmits to him what was learnt in the past and enables him to transmit the accumulated wisdom.

Ethnocentrism

It is the tendency of a society to consider its own culture as best and others as inferiors.

It is a feeling whereby the natives come to despise foreigners and feel superior to them.

Functions of culture

Culture is important for individual and group. So one has to consider the functions of culture under two heads.

- a) for individual and
- b) for groups.

Importance to the individual

- i) Culture makes man a human being, regulates his conduct and prepares him for group life. It provides him a complete design of living. It teaches him what type of food he should take and in what manner; how he should behave with and influence the people and how he should co-operate or compete with others. In short, the qualities required to live in a social life are acquired by man from his culture.
- ii) Culture provides solutions for complicated situations. Culture provides man with a set of behaviour even for complicated situations. Culture thoroughly influences

- him so that he does not require any external force to keep himself in conformity with social requirements. His actions become automatic (eg.) forming a queue where there is a rush.
- iii) Culture provides traditional integrations to certain situation (eg.) if a cat crosses his way he postpones the journey. These traditional interpretations differ from culture to culture.

For the group

i) Culture keeps social relationships intact

Culture is important not only for man but also for the group. Had there been no culture there would have been no group life. By regulating the behaviour of people and satisfying their primary drives pertaining to hunger, shelter, and sex it has been able to maintain group life. Infact life would have been poor, nasty, brutish and short if there had been no cultural regulations. It is culture which keeps all social relations intact.

ii) Culture broadens the vision of the individual

Culture has given a new vision to the individual by providing him a set of rules for the cooperation of the individuals. It provides him the concepts of family, state, nation and class and makes possible the coordination and division of labour.

iii) Culture creates new needs

Culture creates new needs and new drives, for example, thirst for knowledge and arranges for their satisfaction. It satisfies the aesthetic, moral and religious interests of the members of the group. In this way group owe much to culture.

Cultural Diffusion

Cultural diffusion is the processes by which the cultural traits invented or discovered in one society are spread directly or indirectly to other societies.

Exact origin of a specific cultural trait is difficult to trace, however, the diffusion of a trait can fairly be traced. In history certain societies have served as centres from which cultural traits have spread to other societies. Egypt was for many centuries a cultural centre. Subsequently Rome was a great cultural centre from where Roman law

spread in most countries of Europe. In Asia the Chinese Middle Kingdom was considered from early time as the dominant culture centre. Around fourteenth century Western Europe became the dominant cultural centre. Now, the United States is exporting its culture to other countries.

Following are the influential factors to the process of diffusion.

- a) Relation and communication
- b) Need and desire for new traits
- c) Competition with old traits
- d) The respect and recognition of those who bring new traits.

Cultural diffusion may be incidental or by direction. Whenever a person migrates from one culture area to another he carried culture patterns with him. Cultural diffusion by direction is normally done either by sending missionaries or by colonisation.

Cultural lag

Cultural lag means that some parts of people's culture do not change as do other traits. It means that one or more phases of culture have moved ahead and that all other phases are lagging behind.

Marginal man

Difference in culture produces a marginal man. A person who is living in two cultures is likely to occupy not the centre of either by the margins of both. He is the man who belongs to two or more cultures but is not fully accepted in any. A migrant, who has moved into a decidedly different culture area from the one in which he grew to manhood, is likely to be marginal man.

CUSTOMS

Customs are socially prescribed forms of behaviour transmitted by tradition. Customs regulate the whole of man's action – his bathing, washing, cutting his hair, eating, drinking etc. customs are well established and difficult to change.

Classification of Customs

- i) Folkways and usage
- ii) Mores and Taboos
- iii) Conventions and
- iv) Rituals

i) Folkways and usages

They are approved forms of behaviour for specific situations. This is the expected way in which persons are to behave. It arises without prior intention (eg.) petty acts. Observations of folk-ways is not a must. So violation of folkways are not punished severely.

ii) Conventions

Conventions are customs regulating more significant social behaviour.

- wearing clothes in public
- Polite to others
- Eating using knife, fork and spoon instead of hand/fingers.

People care for the adoption. Conventions are less violated than folkways.

iii) Mores and Taboos

The difference between folkways and mores is the degree to which they are enforced. Folkways may be broken without punishments but mores broken will be punished. Mores are defined as those of folkways which are essential to ethical or moral values of people.

Mores are positive action enforcing what ought to be done (e.g.) saluting the flag, standing during the playing of national anthem.

Taboos are negative action envisaging what ought not to be done (e.g.) not smoking in front of elders.

iv) Rituals

It is the pattern of behaviour or ceremonies which has become the customary way of dealing with certain situations (e.g.) performing the marriage ceremonies.

Characteristics of culture

- i) It provides a series of patterns whereby the biological demands of the group members can be met, (e.g.) for subsistence, shelter and reproduction.
- ii) It provides a set of rules to ensure the cooperation of the individual of a group in adjusting to the environmental situations.
- iii) It provides channels of interaction for the individuals within the group.
- iv) Culture provides methods of adjustment of the group to its external and internal needs.
- v) For individuals in a society culture provides
 - a) ready-made adjustments to a number of situations and (b) a series of familiar stimuli to the individual, to which he has only to respond in a familiar way.

Role of culture in agriculture

Learning the customs, folkways, mores, taboos, etc. of a group of people will help one to predict what they will do in a given situation. Without such predictability on expectations of what the other would do in a given situation the result would be only chaos in society.

Culture is not a static but dynamic, because of internal and external forces. Development programme are such external force which changes the culture of the society. Hence it is important for an extension worker to understand this fact. The scientific understanding of the culture of the people among whom extension worker operates is basic to the effective performance of his function (eg.) if caste structure is there in the village, study the caste system and function.

Functions of culture

- 1) Culture provides a series of patterns whereby the biological demands of the group members can be met, example for sustenance, shelter and reproduction.
- 2) Culture provides a set of rules to ensure the co-operation of the individuals of a group in adjusting to the environmental situation. The group is thus able to act in certain situations as a unit.
- 3) Culture provides channels of interaction for the individuals with in the group.

- 4) Culture provides methods of adjustment of the group to its external and internal needs. It provides a pattern for the development of the individual.
- 5) For the individual in a society, culture provides (a) ready made adjustments to a number of situations and (b) a series of familiar stimuli to the individual to which he has only to respond in a familiar way.

All the functions are controlled through norms or rules made in society.

SOCIAL VALUE

The function of extension is to bring about desirable changes in the behaviour of people. The overt behaviour or what we call as action is based on attitude. Unlike action, attitude cannot be seen. They can only be inferred by way of tendency to act or react positively or negatively to some stimuli. These tendencies or attitudes in turn are based upon individual's values.

Social values are ideas which help an individual to discriminate whether a particular object or behaviour is good or bad, desirable or undesirable. There are at times rules which govern the action which is known as "Norms". People are expected to behave in accordance with the values held by the individual and in the expected behaviour which is known as "normative behaviour". S.C.Dood defined the value as "desiderata" (i.e.) anything desired or chosen by someone, sometime. In broad sense value may be considered as attitude-related attribute that are projected upon people, objects and situations. Since values, sometimes gives orientation or striving towards a given goal, it can be viewed as motives.

Socio-psychological determinants of values

People will be eager to change and many times they accept changes, when changes give prestige to them and/or increases their socio-economic changes. Though change is common every individual will not accept changes. Only some individuals accept the changes. An analysis of factors that influences the changes were studied by Reddy (1987). They are: Caste of the individual, age, possession of land and type of tenure, wealth and economic position, hard work and physical stamina, personal

characteristics like truthfulness, honesty, reliability etc. These factors have obvious implications in the introduction of improved practices.

Type of Values

Value may be classified in different ways. Fraenkel (1976) classified as:

Moral value	deciding particular alternative as better than other because of its just or more humane
Real value	deciding based on real worth in terms of legal, aesthetic, etc.
Market value	based on how much can be paid – value in terms of price
Personal value	based on ones likes and preferences over things of similar nature
Instrumental value	based on some standards that help us to achieve or acquire other values.

Spranger classified as

Theoretical value	expressed in the urge for discovery of truth
Economic value	based on the criterion of usefulness
Aesthetic value	based around form and harmony
Social value	referring to interest of people on others
Political value	central round power
Religious value	meaning thereby a mystic sense of unity

Major values prevailing

1. *Importance of described status*

Status of individual in a group is decided by the group to which he belongs. There is an established order of hierarchy of castes in Indian society.

2. *Recognition of inequality*

Still exists on caste basis.

3. *Patrilineal tendency*

Eldest male member of the family has supreme power and tends to act autocratically.

4. *Status of women*

Though there is a tendency to give greater respect they are still inferior to men.

5. *Charity*

There is a religious significance and approval for giving of alms. A person with a charitable disposition is respected.

6. *Tendency of non-violence*

Killing of animals except for the purpose of food is considered to be immoral. It sometimes brings conflict.

7. *Respect to old age and elders*

They are generally given respect and recognition.

8. *Religious attitude*

People in rural areas are religious.

Desired new values

1) Equal status to all.

2) Modification in marriage norms – (education on intercaste marriage)

3) *Charitable disposition*

Donation irrespective of the eligibility of vagrants to be avoided and channelised to the needy and welfare institutions.

4) *Attitude to non-violence*

Non violence is to be rationalised. Animal spoiling food crops should be prohibited.

5) *Respect for the elders and old and due consideration for the younger generation.*

6) *Religion and technology*

Along with faith in religion, people have to develop faith in science and technology.

Some of the values found out in farmers are:

1. Profitability and productivity preference were the highest ranked values for the adoption of improved practices.

2. Scienticism was the lowest ranked value for farming. Various studies suggested that Indian farmers are profit-minded. They aim for higher profit and greater productivity.

Role of Values of Agricultural Extension

We have already seen that culture of the people is changing and it is dynamic. The development workers or extension workers are the major strongest forces to bring

changes in the culture of rural India. In fact community development programmes are for the promotion of cultural changes among rural people towards desired goals. It is accepted on that irrespective of the involvement of extension workers the changes will happen. But the desired changes in the direction deemed desirable by the government will happen in the rural society only when extension workers are involved the change agent.

Scientific understanding of culture of people among whom extension workers operate helps the effective functioning by these workers. This is particularly significant in countries like India. For instance, piggery is not introduced in Muslim areas, poultry farming in Brahmin areas, and the like. Thus, the study on caste structure would reveal certain types of improvements of change.

Religious festivals and other local functions form important part of village life. Extension workers can look upon these festivals and meals as potentially useful for technology transfer through exhibition, demonstration, etc.

It is generalised that greater success may be anticipated when a new improved practice is introduced in familiar terms something that is already present in the culture.

Change is more likely to occur where there is lack of adjustment. For example when village fields are wiped out by flood or fire, that would be the right opportunity to introduce a technology. Several model villages and model settlements have been established with little resistance on the part of people under such conditions. The point is not such calamities are desirable, but when they happen the full advantage can be taken up for development.

Some of the recent high yielding varieties of wheat and rice could not make head way due to the colour of the wheat which is not liked by the buyers, poor cooking quality etc. When the extension workers bring this to the researcher's knowledge the later would evolve new varieties which do not have these drawbacks. This is a good example of how the value factor can influence both the extension worker and researcher.

CHAPTER 6

LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP

It is difficult for any country to provide enough number of extension workers to reach each and every family for its development programmes. It is rather more difficult for the developing countries where the resources are scarce. This problem can be solved to some extent through the use of local leaders.

A local leader who has adopted improved practices extends the same to others. The common man has much faith in local leaders. A villager would like to hear and imitate his own neighbour as compared to accepting the advises of an outside change agent. Moreover there is a healthy competition among the villagers which promotes action among them.

There is no doubt that extension worker also has to play the role of leader but he may confine his role to the few selected contact farmers. The information from the extension workers will reach these leader farmers which will further trickle down to other people from the leader farmers.

These leaders would like to act as local leaders and feel pleasure in serving to others. They must have certain qualities. He should be a person from the same community and has the same type of resources. It has been often observed that innovators and big farmers do not pass on freely their knowledge to other people in the village due to some gap. It is, therefore, essential for the students of extension education to study the process of leadership. Once the process of dissemination through leaders is known the introduction of new ideas through village leaders can be solved to a great extent.

Leader

- 1) Leader is a person who has been spontaneously considered or chosen as being influential. - Dahama & Bhatnagar
- 2) Leader is the servant of the group. The position of leader is an essential mechanism of effective group organisation. - Sanderson

- 3) Leaders are persons who are selected by the people because of their special interest or fitness to work on some phase of the local programmes. - J.S.Gang
- 4) A leader is one who, in a social situation, can elicit (stimulate) positive reaction from other members of the group. - B.M.Stogdill

Leadership

According to Niderfrank (1966) leadership is essential in simply influencing the attitudes and actions of one or more persons leading towards the achievement of some purpose.

"Leadership is an act that influences" says Tead (1926).

Cartwright and Zender (1960) perceived leadership as the performance of acts that help the group to achieve its preferred outcome.

Lester (1975) defines leadership as the resource that an individual or group used to enable the organisation to do what it needs, should or wants to do.

According to Davis (1977) "leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically".

Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985), leadership is the process who in any social situation with his ideas and actions influence the thoughts and behaviour of others. Leadership is the process of influencing the thoughts and behaviour of others towards the goal setting and goal achievement.

Functions of Leaders

There is no unanimity of opinion as to what the functions of leadership are. Generally speaking leadership functions are related to goal achievement and to the maintenance and strengthening of the group.

According to Barnard, a leader performs four main functions. They are:

- i) Determination of objective
- ii) Manipulation of means

- iii) Control of the instrumentality of action; and
- iv) Stimulation of coordination action.

According to Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985) following are the functions.

- i. Executive
- ii. Planner
- iii. Policy maker
- iv. Expert in human relations as well as technical field.
- v. External group representative
- vi. Controller of internal relationship
- vii. Purveyor of reward and punishment
- viii. Arbitrator
- ix. Exemplar
- x. Group symbol
- xi. Surrogate of individual responsibility
- xii. Idealist
- xiii. Father figure and
- xiv. Scape goat.

Classification of Leaders

Different authors classified the leaders in different ways. Some of the classifications are:

- 1) Beal, Bohlen and Raudabaugh (1962) classified the leaders into four types as
 - i) Born leaders
 - ii) Passive leaders (personal power or characteristic leader)
 - iii) Bureaucratic leaders and
 - iv) Democratic leaders
- 2) Mott (1972) spoke about three major leadership categories
 - i) Democratic
 - ii) Multifactor and
 - iii) Situational
- 3) Henning (1962) analysed the leadership and given the following three:
 - i) Autocrat
 - ii) Bureaucrat and
 - iii) Neurocrat
- 4) Lester (1975) also pointed three types as:
 - i) Autocratic
 - ii) Democratic and
 - iii) Free rein

- 5) Haiman (1951) described five categories as the
 - i) Executive
 - ii) Judge
 - iii) Advocate
 - iv) Expert and
 - v) Discussion leader
- 6) Carter (1961) identified three leadership patterns according to the manner in which the leader was most oriented.
 - i) Personal
 - ii) Institutional and
 - iii) Flexible
- 7) Sachdeva and Vidyabhushan (1974) studied three main leadership types
 - i) Authoritarian
 - ii) Democratic and
 - iii) Laissez-faire
- 8) Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985) found several ways of classifying leaders, some of them are:
 - i) Democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire
 - ii) Formal and informal leaders
 - iii) Professional and lay (voluntary) leaders
 - iv) Political, religious, social and academic
 - v) Elected, selected or nominated
 - vi) Popular and unpopular
 - vii) Traditional and progressive leaders

Characteristics of Leaders

The characteristics of leaders differ. The characteristics of three types of leaders are as detailed:

1) *Autocratic*

- i) Determines all policies, activities and goals of the organisation.
- ii) Takes no part in work except when conducting meeting, telling others what to do or demonstrating.
- iii) Members are uncertain about what to do and usually take actions they are told to take.
- iv) Leader is personal in both praise and criticism of the work.

2) *Democratic*

- i) Produces a shared leadership that permits a feeling of satisfaction and achievement.
- ii) Helps the members of understand the steps required in working.
- iii) Members take more responsibility for group maintenance and task performance.

3) *Laissezfaire*

- i) Gives minimum guidance
- ii) Remains in the background and seldom express an opinion or works with a minimum of rules.
- iii) Members often act as leaders in making decisions that guide the organisation.

Democratic leadership

In extension education, the extension worker will be dealing mainly with democratic leadership. Therefore it will be worthwhile to know their advantages and limitations.

Advantages

- i) People fully understand those ideas which they have helped to formulate.
- ii) Decision made by the group members will get more support from the members.
- iii) Democratic leadership enables the society to grow upon all of the human resources that are available to it.
- iv) Democratic leadership creates strong, responsible and self-reliant individuals.
- v) It builds a group which will not fall apart if something happens to the leaders.
- vi) Democratic leadership makes for higher morale in a society than does the autocratic leadership.
- vii) Those who disagree with group decisions are free to express their discontent, even though they may have to abide by the group decisions.
- viii) It is always open to the possibility of change.
- ix) The method of making social decisions is important as the decisions themselves.

Limitations

- i) The vocal and powerful members become dominant, thus creating sense of inequality in the group.
- ii) Policies are agreed upon verbally in groups which do not automatically provide an answer to every specific question which arises.
- iii) Problem of individual who refuses to confirm to group decisions.
- iv) Decision making is a time consuming process. The officials have to face the tyranny of indecision's.
- v) Participation of large number of people becomes a problem, because there is a physical limit to the number of people who can work together conveniently at one time.

Quality of leaders

Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985) brought out the determinants of effectiveness in leadership functions (ten 'A's').

- i) Awareness of the functions of the group.
- ii) Ability (self-adjustment) in performing the functions
- iii) Achievement of goals
- iv) Assignment of group functions to members
- v) Appraisal of effects of distribution of functions
- vi) Accomplishment of different purposes under different environments
- vii) Attainment of positive value as a leader
- viii) Attaching a high code of conduct, ethical values and high morale in the group
- ix) Arrangement of communication structures
- x) Acceptance of failure

They have also identified through researches the most important factors for effectiveness of leaders. The factors identified are given below:

- i) Need fulfilment
- ii) Prestige
- iii) Valued membership
- iv) Co-operative relationship
- v) Heightened interaction

- vi) Clarity of goal
- vii) Small units
- viii) Homogeneity
- ix) Outside events
- x) Increased position
- xi) Attack from environment

Reddy (1987) tested the following traits or qualities as desirable for effective leadership.

- i) Physical fitness
- ii) Mental ability (intelligence)
- iii) Sense of purpose (having definite ideas regarding the aims of the group)
- iv) Social insight (sensitivity to other person's position problems or points of view)
- v) Communication (including good listening and speaking acceptably in public)
- vi) Love for people (friendliness without favoritism or without giving scope for indiscipline)
- vii) Democracy (giving all members equal opportunities for participation, etc.)
- viii) Initiative
- ix) Enthusiasm
- x) Authority (based upon mastery of knowledge and skills in a particular field)
- xi) Decisiveness (ability to make good and prompt decisions or judgements)
- xii) Integrity or character
- xiii) Teaching ability
- xiv) Convictions and faith

Role of Leaders

Reddy (1987) brought out the following eight important roles.

1. *Group Spokesman*

Leader has the responsibility to speak for the group and representing the group's interests and position faithfully and accurately.

2. *Group Harmonizer*

All groups will usually have both uniformities and differences of opinion. The leader is responsible for pointing out to the group when potential conflict situations arise, that the common purpose is sufficiently worthy of co-operation that the differences be resolved peacefully.

3. *Group Planner*

Generally persons are chosen for leadership positions because it is assumed that they know a little more about the problems confronting the group and their possible solutions than do the other members of the group. The group expects its leader to have new ideas for initiating activities. To meet this expectation leader must be able to plan, to visualize in his imagination the ways by which the group can satisfy its needs.

4. *Group Executive*

Most groups have some established methods of conducting business and achieving consensus of opinion on issues that come up before them. The leader is the one who presides when the group is conducting business. As a group executive the leader is responsible for seeing that the business of the organisation is carried on according to democratic principles.

5. *Group Educator or Teacher*

Leader must share with the followers his knowledge and experience. Such sharing of experience and insight is teaching. Good leadership depends a large part upon teaching because the good teacher is not a dictator.

6. *Symbol of Group Ideals*

All social groups have implicit or explicit norms or ideas. As a rule, persons accepted as leaders are those who have accepted these norms and live by them. The group expects his leadership to embody the ideals of group.

7. *Group Discussion Chairman*

This role is more related to that of group executive. In recent years there has been an increased interest in group discussions. Having a panel, forum, conference etc. are common. In view of the increased use of these discussions this rule has been described.

8. *Group Supervisor*

The leader has to work with followers and also with group organisations like youth clubs, co-operatives, farmer's associations, etc. Therefore this role becomes important for the leader.

Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985) ascertained the role expectations of farm leaders in view of the new strategy of agricultural production from the experts in the field of agricultural extension. By working out the index following were identified as the expected role of farm leaders.

- i) Raising demonstration plots and showing it to others
- ii) Keeping themselves abreast with the latest agricultural technology
- iii) Adopting themselves all the improved agricultural practices
- iv) Organising meetings and other discussion groups
- v) Serving as marketing advisers
- vi) Supplying the improved seeds to the farmers
- vii) Assisting the farmers in getting credits
- viii) Serving the innovative farmers in the village
- ix) Educating the farmers to grow more than two crops a year
- x) Acting as liaison officers between the extension workers and the farmers
- xi) Educating the farmers in the latest agricultural technology
- xii) Helping the fellow-farmers in getting the needed agricultural inputs.

Singh and Saraswat (1968) as quoted by Singh (1987) studied the important roles of leaders in promoting the rural development efforts. They are:

- i) They coordinate the efforts of the group to achieve its goals.
- ii) It is the responsibility of group leaders, to establish proper social climate in the group.
- iii) Leaders assist the groups to organise themselves.
- iv) They promote the message of the extension agencies.
- v) They help extension workers in planning and executing various development programmes.
- vi) They act as demonstrators for the innovations.
- vii) It is their job to create better inter-group and intra-group coordination.
- viii) They also act as spokesman for their respective groups.
- ix) Local leaders help the group to make the effective decisions and develop scientific decision-making process.

- x) They encourage the members to learn from each other's experiences.
- xi) They develop self confidence in the followers to solve their own problems.
- xii) They act as model for other members.
- xiii) They help in establishing favourable climate for various developmental agencies to start their work.
- xiv) They support and motivate the followers to make self efforts for realizing their needs.
- xv) They take an active part in organizing and the functioning of various rural institutions.

ADVANTAGES OF LEADERS IN EXTENSION

Reddy (1987) brought out the following advantages and limitations in using local leaders in extension.

Advantages

- i. Local leaders virtually play the role of extension teachers and hence the volume of coverage with improved practice is increased.
- ii. Cost of extension is reduced, as local leaders are not paid for their work.
- iii. Local leaders themselves become better taught, because of the experience they gain in teaching and influencing others.
- iv. People accept a new idea more readily from a local person who has practically tried it, while they may resist if the ideas were to come from a paid extension workers.
- v. The frequent association of extension personnel with the local leaders enhances his prestige.

Limitations

- i. Persons selected as leader may not have the expected following among neighbours.
- ii. Sometimes they may not be willing to devote required time to work or may be a poor teacher.
- iii. Considerable time is required to locate and train local leaders.

- iv. Local leaders may try to use prestige with position for personal advantage.
- v. Public recognition and publicity given to informal local leaders may sometimes jeopardise their position and adversely affect their influence among the people.

Selection and Training of Leaders

Selection of leaders

Various methods have been used by different researchers for identification of leaders. Some of the common methods of locating leaders are discussed here.

1. *Sociometric stars*: All the members of a community, group or organization are asked to name three persons in order of preference as their leaders from the same group. The name obtaining the maximum choice is accepted as the possible leader. In this method, every member of the group has to mention his choice. Assumption is that a person liked by majority of the people is the most popular in the group and is capable of leading the group.

Advantage

1. It is easy and valid method.
2. Suitable to most of the situations.
3. Leader selected through this method may be able to organize group activities in a better way, because he has the majority support.
4. More than one leader can be located for different jobs at the same time.

Limitations

1. It is difficult to contact all the members of the group especially in big communities.
2. Selected person may not be interested to take up various responsibilities.
3. He may not be neutral person.
4. Statistical analysis of this method is complex and time consuming.

2. *Active participants*: In any group activity, the persons taking more active part can be spotted out. These are the persons who are taking initiative to make or lead in making the decisions relative to the events or actions selected. Active participants can also be located

in the community meetings. Active participation is an indication of their leadership ability.

Advantages

1. It is a simple method and does not need special efforts.
2. It is possible to find out a willing and hardworking person.
3. In addition to locating leaders, one can get other information also.
4. Replacement of a leader, if not found suitable is easy.

Limitations

1. There are chances of making wrong choices.
2. Selected person may not be popular among other members.
3. Real leader may not be present at the occasion.
4. Suitable person for a particular job may not be taking active part in that activity.

3. Social Participation: Higher the social participation of a person the more is the promise in him of becoming a leader. It is assumed that a person already having active participation in the existing organizations will be useful to provide leadership in the new situation. In this method, the selection is made of those people who are already holding positions in other organisations.

Advantages

1. Less chances or risk, because selection is made of a person who has already exhibited his leadership qualities and is popular among the people.
2. Past experience of the leader can be made use of in the new situation.
3. It will be possible to get support from other organizations.
4. He can also get official support for the programme due to his social contacts.

Limitations

1. As he is already busy, it may not be possible for him to find time to participate in the new activities.
2. Social distance may be more between these leaders and the people.

3. This method can be applied in those situations where very few or no social organisation exists.
4. These persons may not be active members of a particular group.

4. *Informal Meetings:* In this method, the opinion of the group members selected at random is obtained through informal meetings. They are asked to name those persons to whom people go to see for ideas or help in emergencies. Persons having respect of the neighbourhood or groups can be nominated as leaders.

Advantages

1. Risk is less in this method as one is contacting members of all the sub-groups.
2. This method is applicable in almost all the situations.
3. It can be used as an extra advantage to other activities.
4. It is possible to find a popular and acceptable man.

Limitations

1. In certain cases it may not be a representative selection.
2. Sometimes it becomes difficult to find a person acceptable to all the sub-groups in a community.
3. It takes comparatively long time.
4. It may not be possible to choose a representative sample.

5. *Formal leaders:* Formal leaders are those persons who hold offices in formal organizations. They are very easy to locate. One has to pick persons who are in formal organizations and public official positions. Any how, it is essential to win the confidence of these leaders, otherwise they can create many obstacles for the successful implementation of the new programme.

Advantages

1. It is the easiest method.
2. Being in formal position, these leaders may have more influence among the people.
3. They have more contacts with formal change agencies.
4. They are generally resourceful persons.

Limitations

1. They may not be practical persons, (e.g.) active farmers.
2. Generally, there is more social distance between them and the common man.
3. They may not have enough time for the new programme.
4. In most of the cases they are not action-leaders.

6. *Persons with Reputation*: These are certain persons who have the reputation for being actual or potential leaders for a particular job. Even the persons having reputation of being honest, intelligent and helping-hand can be selected to act as leaders because the people have faith in the integrity of these people. This method is similar to the case history method.

Advantages

1. Few chances of wrong selection.
2. This method is easy, simple and needs less time.
3. Past reputation will help in win the confidence of others.
4. There will be better social climate.

Limitations

1. Selected person may not be suitable for a particular type of leadership role.
2. Persons selected through this method might lack technical knowledge.
3. He may not be interested to act as a leader.
4. He might be lacking in other leadership qualities.

7. *Self-rating Technique*: In self rating technique each respondent is asked to evaluate his own abilities to act as a leader. How far others think him as influential? The success of this method depends upon frankness and boldness of a person to express his true feelings.

Advantages

1. Only those persons who are willing to act as leaders will be selected.
2. It also measures that perceptions of individuals.
3. It is easy to work with these leaders.
4. It proved unsuccessful, there will be less difficulty in replacing these leaders.

Limitations

1. Success depends upon the accuracy of the information. There are chances of over-estimation or wrong evaluation of the self.
2. It is a difficult method and needs more time to contact persons individually.
3. Persons selected through this method may not be very popular among other members of the group.
4. There are chances of getting too many people or none.

8. *Information Ratings*: In this method, three or four judges are appointed to nominate the persons suitable to act as leaders for a particular activity. The names obtained in this way are sorted out by frequency mentioned, and those of high frequency are accepted as possible selectees. Only those persons with good reputation, (e.g.) school teachers, officials, religious persons, in a village be asked to act as judges.

Advantages

1. It is simple method and needs less efforts.
2. It is also a time-saving method.
3. There are more chances of getting an accurate and detailed picture.
4. It is based on their ratings of the judges.

Limitations

1. Judges may have biased opinion.
2. Informants may not be having through knowledge.
3. In certain situations, suitable informants may not be available.
4. It may become difficult to have unanimous choice.

Some of the other methods used for the selection of leaders are:

9. *Election*: The members of the group elect the leaders through vote.

10. *Discussion Method*: A discussion is arranged to find own one's proficiency on a subject matter. Individual's ability is assessed and recognised. On any subjects the person has sound knowledge a discussion is arranged and an individual's ability is soon recognised. 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 value leader.

11. *The Workshop Method*: Through this method, where the large group breaks up into smaller groups and the responsibility of the programme and decision-making rests upon the smaller unit, leadership emerges in each group. Over a period of time, the extension worker can spot certain leaders who come to the fore in taking responsibilities. The extension worker or professional leader in the workshop has the position of consultant observer, discussion group, leader, etc.

12. *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.

13. *Seniority and Past Experiences*: In some communities the oldest person is supposed to have the most knowledge and experiences and normally can and stability to the group. But this may not be a proper way of locating leader.

Training the leaders

Need for training

persons identified as leaders may sometimes 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.

***Objectives of training*:** According to Singh (1987) the training objectives is to:

- i. Attract the genuinely interested persons who are either self motivated or externally stimulated to take part in the course,
- ii. Impact new knowledge, teach better skills and bring about the desirable changes in their behaviour,
- iii. Place the latest knowledge in the hands of desirous persons,
- iv. Develop acquaintance between the farmers and specialists and also the scientists,

- v. Encourage mutual exchange of experience among the participating farmers,
- vi. Pave way for the flow of problems of farmers to the research system and
- vii. Enhance faith in the research findings.

When to organise farmer's training

Presence of the following pre-requisites are essential for the success of training programmes.

- i) Availability of sound technology that is superior to the prevalent practice.
- ii) Farmers realise that by adoption of technology they can get more profit.
- iii) Qualified and trained personnel who can successfully transmit new technology.
- iv) A desire on the part of the farmers on the specialised topic.
- v) There are increasing number of problems that can be solved by the specialists rather than a generalist.
- vi) There is large segment of clientele which is neither affluent enough to take initiative to obtain information individually by their own initiative, nor persons who will never care to move out of their places to pick any ideas.

In view of the above pre-requisites it can be hypothesized that there is necessity for training the farmers.

These training programmes for farmers should be timed so as to synchronise with slack seasons or periods when the local leaders will have leisure or relatively less pressing items of work.

It has also been found more desirable to have training camps of short duration of 3 to 5 days, followed by frequent and systematic contacts between extension workers and local leaders.

Where to Train

Using well-established training institutions for this purpose has been found to have some disadvantages such as:

- i) The need for leaders to travel long distance and stay at the institutes resulting in more expenditure in terms of both money and time, and

- ii) The nature of training imparted by such institutions are not of local interest to the trainees. Due to the above limitations the trainings are conducted in local environment itself (i.e.) in villages, providing training to leaders in their own home environment are becoming popular in several places.

What to Train

- i) Theoretical information should always be related to practical situations at every step.
- ii) The subject should be in the nature of problems encountered by the local leaders in their respective areas. Hence the content of the training programme should be problem-centred.
- iii) The following contents may be considered.
 - a) aims of rural development
 - b) leadership in rural society
 - c) community organisation principles, methods and techniques including methods of stimulating group thinking, group planning and group action.
 - d) Co-operative principles and methods with particular reference to coordination of local bodies.
 - e) Practical activities of community life like education, recreation, anti-crime, public health, agriculture etc.

How to Train

There can be either informal methods or formal method of training.

Informal Methods: It may be (i) Observation, (i.e.) noticing how others have performed. This may be a visit to farmer's holdings; (ii) Reading the printed literature, circular letters, etc. from community development workers and (iii) Talking with other leaders or progressive farmers or others in the field of interest.

Formal Methods: (i) Lecture. It may be supplemented with other formal methods, (ii) Discussion and workshop, (iii) Forum, panel or symposium, (iv) Audio-visual aids, (v) Field trips, (vi) Apprenticeship-learning things by staying with others who have

adopted improved practices, (vii) Training groups formal leader training camps, (viii) Direct assistance from experts, (ix) Buzz group-discussion by all in the group of less than seven persons and (x) Giving responsibility to local leaders so that they develop self confidence.

Suggestions for Improving Farmer's Training

- i) Training must reach the farmers where they are. Attendance of institutional training will always be thin than off-campus training. Further in institutional training participating farmers feel that many innovations demonstrated on institute farms may not be successful at their own farms. It is always better to have the training in villages.
- ii) Training must be directed, especially to farmer's present interests and needs. It should also be directed to the farmer's monetary interests.
- iii) Training must accept the fact that the trainees are adult farmers. They are not children. So they should not be trained in the way children are trained.
- iv) Training must be fitted into the period when farmers are not too busy, during evening or off-season.
- v) The subject must be a new or changed practice, explaining why is it? Why it is superior, how can it be carried out? etc.
- vi) Training must be accomplished by immediate opportunities for farmers to try the new things they have learnt like application of fertilizers, use of equipment etc., and also make the things available to them.
- vii) Farmers need encouragement to try things. Acquiring knowledge and skill, is not enough. They also need encouragement to try out new practices.

CHAPTER 7

SOCIAL INTERACTION PROCESS AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Social interaction is the general process whereby two or more persons are in meaningful contact as a result of which their behaviour is modified, however, slightly. This social interaction usually takes place in the form of co-operation, competition, conflict, accommodation and assimilation. These forms of social interaction are also called as ***Social process***. Therefore, social process can be described as the fundamental ways in which men interact and establish relationships.

Co-operation

It is an integrating activity opposite to competition. Co-operation generally means working together in the pursuit of like or common interest. It is defined as the process by which individuals attainment of common objective.

Co-operation can be either direct co-operation, indirect co-operation, primary cooperation, secondary cooperation and tertiary cooperation.

People learn their first lessons in cooperation as members of the family. Most of the individual and collective goals cannot be achieved without cooperation. It is needed at every step of our life. All the progress in mankind is due to the cooperative spirit of people.

Competition

Competition is striving of two or more people for the same goal which is limited so that all cannot share. It occurs whenever there is an insufficient supply of anything that human being desired. For example, in a society there would be more number of people than the jobs available. Hence there occurs competition.

Competition, like cooperation, is indispensable in social life. The theory of "***Survival of the fittest***" stresses the importance of competition in society.

Competition do useful functions in society. Firstly it assigns individuals a place in the social system. Competition determines who is to perform what function. The division of labour and the entire complex economic organisation in modern life are the products of competition. Secondly, competition furnishes motivation, the desire to excel or to obtain recognition or to win an award. It stimulates achievements to fulfil aspirations. Thirdly, competition is prerequisite for social progress. In economic life the real needs of people are not wasted or achieved. Labours unit for their wages. Races protect their interest. Thus, the social system has a balance between cooperation and competition forces.

Conflict

It is an ever present process in human relations. It is defined as a deliberate attempt to oppose, resist or coerce the will of another or others. The characteristics of conflict are: it is a conscious action, personnel activity, lacks continuity and universal.

Because it is universal one has to understand the causes. Reduced supply of the means of substance is one of the causes of conflict. The survival of the fittest theory is based on conflict. Psychologists say that the instinct for aggregation in man is the main cause of conflict. Thus various causes can be mentioned. We have a moral norm that children have to obey their parents. But younger generation like to go in their way. In consequence there is conflict between parent and youth. Similarly moral norms justify the conflict. For example employees would justify their strike. Thus status, race, physical appearance, sex, language, ideology, history, ethnocentrism and any strange or deviant behaviour may become the basis for group tension or conflict.

Conflict sometimes bring positive and construction ends. In corporate conflict that is between two or more groups the solidarity and fellow feeling are increased. When two nations fight each nation gets cohesion and strength. Thus internal harmony and external conflict are the opposite sides of the same shield. However, the intra-group conflict are largely negative and weakens the group. This personal conflict has some positive side also. Opposition develops the personal tolerance. The verbal conflict of friends clears the air and permits once again the acceptance of the relationship. The individuals are separate

organism. They can co-operative for certain ends and not for all. They have mutually exclusive ends. To attain these ends they come into conflict with others.

There is difference between conflict and competition.

- i) Conflict involves contact, competition does not.
- ii) Conflict takes place on a conscious level, competition is unconscious.
- iii) Conflict is an intermittent process, competition is a continuous process.
- iv) Competition is non-violent, conflict may involve violence.
- v) Conflict disregards social norms, competition does care for these norms.

Accommodation

Life cannot go long if groups are engaged in conflicts. The conflict must, therefore, be resolved for making social life peaceful. Accommodation is resolution of conflicts, which generally means adjusting oneself to the new environment. The adjustment may be to the physical or social environment. If it is for physical it is termed as adaptation. The adjustment to social environment is called accommodation. Accommodation is the term used by the sociologists to describe the adjustment of hostile individual or groups.

The characteristics of accommodation are:

- i) Accommodation is the natural result of conflict. If there were no conflict, there would be no need of accommodation.
- ii) It is mainly an unconscious activity.
- iii) It is a continuous process.
- iv) It is a universal.
- v) It is a mixture of both love and hatred.

Assimilation

Assimilation means fusing or blending, whereby cultural differences tend to disappear. Assimilation implies complete merging or divergent cultural groups within society.

It is the process whereby persons and groups acquire the culture of other group in which they come to live, by adopting its attitudes and values, its pattern of thinking and behaving. In short, its way of life. Assimilation is defined by Nimkoff as "the process whereby individuals or groups once dissimilar, become similar and identified in their interests and outlook".

Closely related to the concepts of accommodation and assimilation is the concept of acculturation, referring to the changes in culture that result from continued contact between two cultures. Modern transport, communication, overseas development programmes facilitate the process of assimilation and acculturation.

Social Change

Change is the law of nature. What is today shall be different from what it would be tomorrow. Modern world is a world of rapid change. People too much change and acquire the facility of change. The social structure is also subject to change. Over a period of fifty years the government is changed. Family, religion etc., are also changed. Our understanding of the society will not be complete unless we take into consideration the changeable nature of society, however, differences emerge and discover the direction of change. So let us see what is social change and its characters.

Definition

The word 'change' denotes a difference in anything observed over some period of time. Following are some of the definitions.

- 1) **Jones:** Social change is a term used to describe variations in or modifications, of any aspect of social process, social patterns, social interaction or social organisation.
- 2) **Gillin and Gillin:** Social changes are variations from the accepted modes of life; whether due to alteration in geographical conditions, in cultural equipment, composition on the population or ideologies and whether brought about by diffusion or inventions within the group.
- 3) **Davis:** Social change is change in the relationships.
- 4) **Mac Iver:** Social change is change in the relationships.

Theories of Social Change

While studying the theories of social change one should know the theories regarding (i) the direction of social change and (ii) the causes of social change.

The Direction of Social Change

Early sociologists viewed the culture of primitive people as completely static. Anthropologists now agree that primitive cultures have undergone changes although at such a slow pace as to give the impression of being stationary. In recent years the social change has proceeded at a very rapid rate. Since World War I numerous countries have passed through profound changes not only in their political institutions but in their class structure, their economic system, their modes of living, etc. Various theories have been advanced to explain the direction of social change. Each of them is described.

- 1) **Theory of Deterioration:** Some thinkers have identified social change with deterioration. According to them, man originally lived in a perfect state of happiness in a golden age. Subsequently, however, deterioration began to take place with the result man has reached the degeneration. That is why the modern age is called as the age of '*Kaliyug*', wherein man is false, dishonest, selfish and consequently unhappy. This concept is understandable since we observe deterioration in every walk of life today.
- 2) **Cyclic Theory:** Some Sociologists believe that society has a predetermined life cycle and has birth, growth, maturity and decline. Modern society is in the last stage. It is in its old age. Then the history repeats itself. Society after passing all stages, returns to the original stage where the cycle again begins. According to this present "*Kaliyug*" will be over and after that "*satyug*" will again start which is the best again in which man will be honest, truthful and perfectly happy.
- 3) **Stage Theory:** Some thinkers subscribe to the stage theory of social change. According to them, society gradually moves to an even higher state of civilization and that it advances in a linear fashion and in the direction of improvement. August Comte postulated three stages of social change: the theological, the metaphysical and the positive. Man has passed the first two stages. In the first stage man believed the supernatural powers controlled and designed the world. He advanced gradually from

belief to metaphysical stage where man tried to explain by resorting to abstractions. On the third stages of positive stage man considers to search for ultimate causes and seeks the explanatory facts that can be empirically observed.

The causes of Social Change

It has briefed about the direction in which social change has taken place. But none of the above theories strikes the central question of causation of change. Among the causal theories of social change the deterministic theory is the most popular.

Deterministic Theory

According to this theory there are certain forces, social or natural or both, which brings about social change. It is not reason or intellect, but the presence of certain forces and circumstances which determines the course of social change. Sumner and Keller stated that social change is automatically determined by economic factors. Conscious effort has very little effect to change, social change is essentially unconscious process. Many sociologists held the religion as the chief initiator of social change.

The theory of religious determination has been criticised by Sorokin in his *Contemporary Sociological Theories*. According to him change is caused by the interaction of various parts of a culture and none of them is considered as primary. It means that change is pluralistic rather than monistic in origin.

Factors of Social Change

Social change has occurred in all societies and in all periods of time. But the rate of change differs from society to society. In one society the rate is rapid while in another it is slow. There are various factors which determine the rate and direction of social change. Some of the factors are:

I. Biological Factors

By biological factors we mean the factors that determine the number, composition, the selection and the hereditary quality of the successive generations. Every human element in society is always changing. If we compare ourselves with our parents, we will know that we are different from them in our make-up, ideas and in most other

things. No new generations is an exact replica of the old. Each new generation is a new beginning.

The changes in population in both number and composition have effect on society. For example, in a society where the number of girls is greater than the number of male children one will find out a different system of courtship, marriage and family organisation from where the case is reverse.

II. The Physical Factors

The surface of our planet is never at rest. There are slow geographical changes as well as occasional convulsions of nature in storm, earthquakes and floods. These changes in the physical environment sometimes bring about important changes in society. The flood in India may hasten the birth of model village in place of those which have been washed off or they may lead to the construction of dams in order to prevent future floods.

III. Technological Factors

Technology affects society greatly. A variation in technology causes a variation in some institution or custom. The introduction of machine technology as a result of the discovery of the new sources energy has made such far-reaching consequences that it is often described as a '*revolution*'. Invention and discovery are significant characteristics of our age. The present age is often called the "*age of power*", the scientific age. For example mechanisation has changed not only the economic structure of society but also led to a study devaluation of old forms of social organisation and old ideologies.

a) Changes in the production technology:

Our attitudes, beliefs and traditions have crumbled before technological advance. Take the familiar example of status of women in industrial age. Industrialism has destroyed the domestic system of production, brought women from the home to the factory and the office and distinguished their earnings. It has meant a new social life for women. Changes in agricultural techniques have affected the rural community. With the invention of new agricultural tools, chemicals and fertilizers agricultural production has

increased and thereby the standard of living of rural people raised. Fewer people needed for agriculture. Consequently many agricultural labourers shifted to cities.

b) Changes in the means of communication

The changes in the means of communication have also affected the social life greatly. However, the changes in the means of communication depend upon the production technology, for example, the newspaper and automobile are industrial products that have been made possible by modern technological developments.

The primary techniques of communication are speech and gesture, which greatly influences the intimacy and understanding between people of different societies and groups. The press has influenced entertainment, education, politics, and trade. Similarly radio, telegraph, telephone, television, etc. has influenced the business, public opinion, recreation and furthered the development of new modes of organisation.

c) Changes in the means of Transportation

Transport is the physical consequent of space. The methods and means of transportation determine how easily man can move themselves and easily meet the people of other places or other societies to exchange goods or ideas. Modern man lives so much on wheels. If the wheels are stopped for a single day, the life of modern society would be put out of gears.

Transport has broken the barrier to cultural isolation. People who were culturally isolated may under modern means of transportation technology become a host for all the world. The new transport modes have played significant role as the diffusion of cultural elements.

d) Derivative Social Effects

Invention influences the institution or customs. The influence does not stop there, but continues on and on. For example, the influence of cotton gin in USA was to increase cotton process more quickly with less labour. But cotton cultivation could not be increased without more labour. So additional Negroes were brought from outside and slavery grew very rapidly. The increase in slavery was the second derivative influence of

the cotton gin. The increase in slavery led o the Civil War, the third derivative influence of the cotton gin.

e) Social inventions may bring social changes

Technological invention may also give rise to social inventions. Social inventions are inventions that are not materials and not a discovery in natural science. Non-cooperation movement, boycott, representations, old age pensions, juvenile court, civil service, matrimonial bureau, rotary and other such clubs, are some of the examples of social inventions. So non-material inventions are social inventions.

This social invention brings about social changes. It is quite evident.

IV. Cultural Factors

The social and cultural factors are so closely interwoven. All cultural changes involve social change. Culture is not something static. Culture gives directions to social behaviour. The Gandhism has influenced economic and social order.

Measures of Social Chance

Following are the indicators of social change

- | | | |
|------|----------------|--|
| i. | Nutrition | - Calories consumed per head, protein consumption quantity, etc. |
| ii. | Clothing | - Quantity and quality of cloth used per head |
| iii. | House | - Number of houses for the population. Normally one house should be available for five members. |
| iv. | Health | - Number of hospitals, beds, nurses and doctors available per 10,000 population. Water supply at the rate of one well if population is less than 5000 and supply of protected water if population is more than 5000. |
| v. | Education | - Percentage of children going to school, literacy level, women literacy level, technical education facility available at school and colleges, etc. |
| vi. | Media exposure | - Number of radio sets, TV sets, cinema seats, newspaper, etc. per 10,000 population. |

- vii. Communication - Length of railways, black topped road, and transport number of vehicles, etc. for 10,000 population and number of post office and maximum distance for the population to walk to the post office.
- viii. Energy consumption - Percentage of village and town with electricity, domestic consumption of electricity, number of pumpsets in cultivation, etc.
- ix. Proportion of industrial workers
- x. Birth and death rate - Decreased trend in both the birth and death is a good indicator of society's development.
- xi. Urbanization - Proportion of population living in urban area, proportion of population living in slums, etc.

Any similar factor can be taken up to study the social changes based upon the nature of the study, its objective, availability of factors, their importance etc. The success of the researcher depends on how he selects appropriate variables, quantifies them and concludes and changes.

CHAPTER 8

MIGRATION

Definition of Migration

Among the various attributes of population, migration has perhaps attracted the maximum shades of meaning. Every movement from one place to another cannot be defined as migration. Such mobilities include the following:

- i) Commutating for work or study
- ii) Shopping
- iii) Visiting relatives or friends
- iv) Travelling for business or pleasure
- v) Residential mobility from one house to another in the same locality
- vi) Nomadism, the movement of population group that have no fixed place of residence and keep on moving.
- vii) Transhumance, the seasonal movement of persons who live in more than one places during the course of a year.

Migration involves a sustained or permanent sojourn in the place of destination from their place of origin. To avoid a residential mobility from being treated as migration, it has been suggested (UN: 1973 p.1), migration should be defined as a change of residence from one civil division to another. It is thus clear that volume of migration will depend on the size of civil division. If the division is village the volume of migration will be large. Similarly if district is the civil division, the volume of migration will become smaller. In this case considerable amount of migration within the district will not be counted. Similarly if the civil division is State, the volume of migration will further go down. Here not only within district but also within the State migration will be ignored and only inter-State migration will be reflected.

Operational Definition of Migration

In any survey of migration if above definition is used it will create a lot of practical problems. Respondents will find it difficult to realize whether they move from one administrative division to another. They will also find it difficult to assess the

underlying background of their movement whether it was permanent change or not. Keeping these difficulties in mind an operational definition of migration based on place of birth has been developed and used by the census of India and in many other countries also. For this purpose along with the place of enumeration the census of India has been giving the information on place of birth also. A person whose place of enumeration is same as his place of birth, he or she is supposed to be non-migrant. On the contrary, if the place of birth of an individual is different from his/her place of enumeration, he or she is considered to be a migrant. The logic is very simple. A person will always be enumerated at his place of birth unless he or she out-migrates from there. Birth place concept has been used for estimating the volume of migration by many other countries also. However, there are many drawbacks also associated with birth place concept. For example, if a person migrates to many places but comes back to his place of birth before the census enumeration, his birth place and place of enumeration will be same and he will not be counted as migrant. To overcome this problem the Indian Census has introduced the concept of place of last residence also. In the present example, although, his place of enumeration and place of birth will be same but due to different place of last residence he or she will be treated as migrant. Studies in India, however, have shown that there is not much difference between the estimated volume of migration by either definition. Indian Census, therefore, continue to give the birth place data.

Duration of migration

Migration occur almost continuously over time. Estimates of migration, therefore, have to be compiled with reference to specified period of time. The time interval may be e.g. one year, five years, ten years etc. Such a migration will be known as fixed term or period migration. When there is no time interval assigned for migration it is known as lifetime migration. If the duration of migration is the duration between two successive census it is known as inter-Censal Migration.

Origin and Destination of migration

Migration always involve area of origin and destination. The area from where a migrant moves out is the area of his origin. Similarly the area where migrant settles down is the area of his destination.

Distance of migration

Associated with every migration is the distance of migration also. It could be any distance in kilometer. To make it more meaningful generally it is classified as international and internal migration. International migration relates to migration from one country to another country and is of very long distance. Migration of people from one part of the country to another part is known as internal migration. Apart from distance there are qualitative differences also between international and internal migration. At the second level, the internal migration is classified into short, medium and long distance migration also. Census of India has adopted an alternative to short, medium and long distance categories.

It gives migration from (i) within the district of enumeration (intra-district migration), (ii) within the State of enumeration but outside the district of enumeration (inter district migration) and (iii) outside the State of enumeration (inter state migration). Very roughly these three categories of internal migration correspond to the short, medium and long distance migration.

Streams of Migration

Flow of migrants from one area to another area makes a stream of migration. Thus if there are 10 places within an area there will be 10×9 streams. As the number of areas will increase, number of streams will multiply faster.

In order to reduce the number of streams, migration originating and terminating at rural and urban areas have been clubbed together and following four stream are in general use:

- (i) Rural to urban
- (ii) Rural to rural
- (iii) Urban to rural and
- (iv) Urban to urban

In Migration, out migration and net-migration

Within a country when an individual migrates from an area of origin and enters into some area of destination by crossing its boundaries, he or she is in-migrant to the area of destination and out-migrant from the area of origin.

Total in-migrant to an area minus total out-migrants from that area during a fixed period is known as net-migration. If net-migration is positive it shows net in-migration and a negative value of net-migration will show net out-migration.

Immigration and Emigration

Migration of foreign nationals into a country from a place outside the country is known as immigration and the individual will be known as immigrants to the country of destination. To the country of origin it will be known as emigration and the individual will be known as emigrant.

Causes and Impact of Migration

Causes of Migration

Although every migrant has a different story behind his moves, there are some broad patterns in it. The literature survey given above helps us in identifying the main cause and consequences of migration. With some exceptions the aggregated picture gives the following as the main causes of migration in form of push and pull factors.

Push Factors

- i) Decline in the per capita share in resources such as agricultural land and stagnating agriculture, change in technology, exhaustion of mine, timber or other resources and closure of certain industries in some of the regions.
- ii) Reduction in employment due to mechanization.
- iii) Social, political or religious discrimination.
- iv) High fertility and control over mortality resulting in high population growth not matching with the resources.
- v) Natural calamities such as cyclone, drought, earthquake and epidemic etc.

Pull Factors

1. Availability of cheap land, labour and other resources, higher wages, employment and better transport.

2. Opportunities for education, better standards of life, marriage freedom in faith, religion and political both and company of ones own people. Better climatic conditions and safety and security.
3. Low pressure of population, better health and recreational facilities for retiring population.

Impact of migration

Although it is hard to differentiate between causes and consequences of migration, the studies suggest following important consequences of migration at places of origin:

- i) Families of the farmers have been able to supplement their income through remittances. Additional income has been used for education and improvement of agriculture. Through out-migration agricultural families escape the problem of fragmentation of land also.
- ii) There are, however, negative consequences also. As migrants are generally the most enterprising young members of the family, the places of origin of migration are deprived from the benefits of their leadership and innovations. As in the out-migrating areas predominantly old people and females are left behind, this creates the shortage of labour as well.
- iii) The sex ratio goes more in favour of female, demographic dependence increases due to out-migration of young population. An important demographic consequence of migration is its impact on reducing fertility (Sharma, 1992 – p.51-57). At places of destination also there are some very serious consequences of migration, such as:
 - a) In developing countries generally effective in-migration is towards the cities or more specifically towards the metropolitan areas. This migration to a large extent is the migration of very poor unskilled agricultural workers living under distress conditions. Economic base of these cities is not strong enough to absorb a majority of them and a competition between local people and migrant starts which create frictions and in some cases migrants are looked down and slogans like "sons of the soil are raised".

- b) Large volume of marginally employed migrants do not have enough paying capacity and hence start living in shanty houses. Local civic bodies are therefore, short of funds and are not in a position to provide amenities and pressure on existing civic amenities increases drastically. A continuous flow of migration to large cities create unequal distribution of urban population and alter size distribution of urban centres. Proportion of urban population in large cities increase and urban system becomes more and more primate (i.e. population gap between successive ranking towns keep on increasing). Huge metropolitan centres emerge with rising slum, unemployment, poor sanitation, shortage of drinking water, housing, transport, education, health care facilities and increasing crimes and law and order problems.
- c) Migration to big cities is from all the corners of the country with different social and cultural backgrounds. When such people meet in cities and start living together a new cosmopolitan culture develops, cities are, therefore, known as melting pot of cultures. Such cultures are more liberal impersonal, self centered and more materialistic.

CHAPTER 9

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Educational psychology is the systematic study of development of individual within the educational setting. Human behaviour can be understood, predicted, and directed towards desired goals by applying the principles of educational psychology. Educational psychology studies the individual through the life stages as he acquires new knowledge. As educational psychology is concerned with educational process from birth to death of an individual to scope is very wide concerned in the areas of the learner's developmental characteristics, individual differences, intelligence, personality and mental health.

Increasing use of psychology is noticed in various spheres of life and extension education is no exception to it. In extension education, the development workers deal with rural people to teach the rural people about innovations to be adopted in their farm, home and village. In as much as the extension worker is involved in educating rural people most of the concepts discussed in this chapter are applicable to extension educational psychology. The only difference between them is that the learners are children in the subject of educational psychology and the learners are rural adults in extension educational psychology.

The main aim of extension education is utilising the research findings in solving the problems of rural people and they must attain desirable changes in the values and attitudes. Bringing this changed is one of the major concerns of extension educational psychology. Thus, the main job of the extension worker is to teach the rural people. The learning experience is given in the areas in which rural people are interested. Thus, one could see the importance of educational psychology in extension education.

To understand the educational psychology and social psychology the knowledge on psychology is essential. Therefore, the derivation, definition and other details of psychology are discussed in this chapter.

Derivation of the term

The term psychology was derived from Greek; '*psyche*' meaning is soul or Atman and '*logus*' means Science. Hence about 2500 years back it was referred to a '*science of soul*'. In olden days, it was believed that soul was responsible for various activities of man such as thinking, imagining, reasoning etc.

In the middle ages psychology became a '*science of mind*'. Then after sometime, it became the '*science of conscience*'. This definition was criticised from '*abnormal psychology*' which brought the study of unconscious part of the mind. Then in 20th century psychology assumed scientific look and it became the '*science of mental behaviour*'. By observing one's behaviour we can have a knowledge of one's conscious and unconscious minds.

Definition of psychology

- i) Psychology is the science of human and animal behaviour.
- ii) Psychology is the positive science of human experience and behaviour.
- iii) Psychology is a field of study which seeks scientific methods to describe, understand, predict and control the behaviour of living organisms. Literally psychology means the science of mind.

Meaning of psychology

An individual's behaviour consists not only of his observable act but also all his reactions to inner states and to environmental factors of influence. The human organism is extremely complex. The environmental factors that can affect the organism include all the persons

Any person's interaction with his environment represent many different kinds of experiences that vary in intensity and values to himself and to others. Psychology is concerned with discovering the ways in which individuals and groups at different age levels, tends to respond to environmental stimuli. To the present, some tentative psychological principles have been evolved. According to data obtained from

scientifically conducted studies of human behaviour, it has been concluded that people tend to react similarly in certain situations and under certain conditions.

Although human behaviour seems to follow certain general trends, individuals tend to respond differently to elements in specific situations. Psychologists are interested in the *Why* as well as *what* of both similarities and differences among human reactions. Various schools of thoughts have arisen. Most of the pertinent assumptions are:

- i) human behaviour is functional and dynamic.
- ii) at every stage of development, an individual's reactions are influenced by the effect of his experiences with people, things, situations and environmental conditions upon his desire to satisfy felt needs, wants and urges.
- iii) a person's reactions usually represent the functioning of a total integrated pattern of behaviour.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

It deals with the behaviour of human beings in educational situations. This means that it is concerned with the study of human behaviour or the human personality – its growth, development and guidance under the social process of education.

It is a branch of general psychology which deals with various aspects of psychological factors affecting education, teaching and learning processes. It describes and explains the learning experiences of an individual from birth through old age. Its subject matter is concerned with the conditions that affect learning.

Educational psychology can be regarded as an applied science in that it seeks to explain learning according to scientifically determined principles and facts concerning human behaviour. In the light of available data, educational psychologists attempt to discover.

- i) the extent to which the factors of heredity and environment contribute to learning.
- ii) the nature of the learning process.

- iii) the educational significances of individual differences in rate and limit of learning.
- iv) the inner change that occur during learning.
- v) the relation of teaching procedures to learning outcomes.
- vi) the most effective techniques for evaluating progress in learning.
- vii) the relative effect upon an individual of formal learning as compared with incidental or informal learning experiences.
- viii) to value the scientific attitude towards education and
- ix) the psychological impact upon learners attitude of sociological conditions.

Scope and it's importance in agricultural extension

1. Educational psychology studies the limitations and qualities of individuals – physical capacity, intelligence, aptitude, interests, etc. which play a major role in one's learning.
2. It helps in improving teaching and learning. This branch helps in formulating training programmes for improving the skill of teachers and methods for organising good learning situations.
3. It helps to have better education through evolution of syllabi for different level of education, preparation of different text books, development of examination patterns, etc.
4. Psychology attempts to discover the source of knowledge, belief, customs and to trace the development of thinking and reasoning so as to find the kind of environmental simulation that produces certain type of activity.
5. It will help extension workers to find causes of prejudices, the habit of sticking to old practices and ways of doing things, the doubts and lack of confidence and factors affecting motivation.
6. It also helps them to know the emotions and feelings of farmers, how villagers or farmers learn new practices and what type of approaches be adopted and teaching aids be used.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Social psychology, as discussed earlier, attempts to determine the character of social behaviour. Social behaviour involves one of the four following basic reactions.

- i) When one individual meets another individual there is reaction. Each individual affects the other individual with whom he comes into contact is in turn affected by them.
- ii) Individual may be reacted to group (e.g.) extension worker meeting a group of farmers.
- iii) As a counterpart of the above situation there will be reaction of a group of individuals to a single individual (e.g.) group meeting its leader.
- iv) There is reaction of one group of individuals to another group of individuals.

Social psychology studies the characteristics of all these four forms of social behaviour. It must, however, be borne in mind that social psychology studies the individual and not the group itself. Social psychology studies the individual in relation to his fellow-men.

Scope of social psychology

The world is beset by many ills which may be ascribed to difficulties in interpersonal relationships. Caste, prejudice, industrial unrest, crime, and delinquency are some of the major social problems. It is the task of social psychology to help to understand how these problems arise and how they can be controlled and predicted.

Another very important development in social psychology concerns the problem of the formation, change and measurement of social attitudes. The investigations have helped us to understand the way in which a person perceives his group and other groups. They also help us to understand how prejudices arise and why they resist the call of idealism on the one hand and the realities on the other. We will also study the methods adopted to study public opinion in the recent years. Public opinion research has advanced considerably.

In brief we shall have to study such fundamental processes as how the individual perceives his social environment, how he learns his social behaviour and how he achieves his social goals.

Meaning of social psychology

From the above description it can be realised that this discipline is one the border land between the two branches of knowledge – sociology and psychology.

Some look this branch as a knowledge itself or a special science. Some look upon it as a discipline that engaged itself in the study of those problems of social life which are not adequately studies by either sociology or psychology. It is asserted that it fills the gap between the two sciences and the analogy is put forward that social psychology is to sociology and psychology what bio-chemistry is to biology and chemistry.

Definition of social psychology

Social psychology is, therefore, defined as the branch of knowledge which studies the relationships arising out of the interaction of individuals with each other in social situations. In brief, it deals with thinking, feeling, and acting of an individual in society.

CHAPTER 9

HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Behaviour

It is the expression of one's thoughts and feelings. Behaviour patterns that are expressed outwardly are called as ***overt behaviour patterns*** and those that are internal are called as covert behaviour patterns.

Psychology studies mental behaviour. All Activities or behaviour patterns could be fitted into stimulus – response mechanism.

S-R mechanism

A stimulus is anything that arouses the organism or any of its parts to activity.

Eg. Light is the stimulus for eyes and sound for ears.

A response is any resultant activity that is aroused by a stimulus.

Eg. Somebody pricks you with a pin and you lift your arm. Here pinprick is the stimulus and lifting of arm is the response.

Type of stimulus/response: External stimulus and External response.

Internal stimulus: need to be external. It may sometimes be internal.

Eg. Feeling hungry and taking food.

Internal response: Changes in one's organic or physiological conditions as a result of some stimulus.

All behaviour patterns and mental phenomena are due to this S-R mechanism.

The S-R mechanism involves the following things:

- 1) **Receptors**: Refer to sense organs possessed by organism through which stimuli are received. The environment of objects and persons influence these receptors and these receptors get impressions from objects and persons. Receptors are sensory cells specialised for sensitivity to environmental stimulation.
- 2) **Effectors**: Parts of body by which man's actions to objects and persons are performed are called ***motor organs*** or organs of response. Any kind of movement is

possible only through these effectors. Effectors are the cells of muscle whose activity is behaviour.

- 3) **Connectors**: Those connect receptors and effectors. For example, The spinal cord is connected with receptors and also units the effectors. These nerves are called *sensory nerves* and also called as ***in-carrying or off afferent nerves***.

Another set of nerves connects the spinal cord with the motor organs. These nerves are called ***motor nerves*** and also called as ***out-going or efferent nerves***. They carry the nervous impulse from the spinal cord to the effectors. There are several sensory and motor nerves in our body. These nerves form the peripheral nervous system. They are called as peripheral nervous system because they connect the central nervous system with the receptors and effectors.

Nervous system

Central Nervous system

It is very important. It comprises of brain, spinal cord and all nerves emerging from these and running to the different parts of body.

Peripheral nervous system

Nervous spread over different parts of the body and connecting them.

To some extent central nervous system and peripheral nervous system function independently. But most activities are largely under the control of central nervous system.

Nerve cells : Structural unit of nerve is neuron.

Neuron : Short projections – dendrites

In a typical nerve axon one nerve is linked up with dendrites of the next and so on.

Neurons types:

- Sensory neurons - Carry messages from the peripheral organs of the body to the central nervous system
- Motor neurons - Found in nerves carrying messages from various centres of central nervous system to different peripheral parts.
- Associative neurons - Connect sensory and motor nerves.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF BEHAVIOUR**Sensations**

Sensations are the gateways to knowledge. Sensations are the simplest mental activities of man. A sensation is the awareness of a quality of an object that stimulates any sense organs. There are as many kinds of sensations as there are sense organs. Each sensation is important and each has particular sense organs.

Eg. Visual sensations of light and colour – related eyes.

Auditory sensation of noise and tone – related to the ears.

Types of sensations

Sl. No.	Name of sensation	Sense organ concerned	Type of sensory experience
1.	Vision	The human eye, retina	Light, colour, shape, form etc.
2.	Audition	The ear, the basillar membrane	Sounds of different types
3.	Taste (Gustatory)	The tongue-taste buds	Sweet, sour, bitter, spicy etc.
4.	Olfaction	The nose-receptors in the skin	Smells, fragrance, pungent etc.
5.	Cutaneous	The skin receptors in the skin	Heat, cold, pain and pressure
6.	Kinesthetic	The muscles receptors in the muscles	Sense pull, push, strain etc.
7.	Organic	Receptors and the muscles of the internal organs	Bodily sensations like hunger, nausea, etc.
8.	Static of posture	Ear semicircular canals	Sense of equilibrium, dizziness, reeling etc.

Characteristics of sensation

- 1) **Quality**: Ex: A visual sensation may be of one colour or another. The quality of a taste sensation may be sour, sweet, bitter etc.
- 2) **Intensity**: Each sensation may vary in intensity from low to high in a continuous manner. Thus, we experience mild pain or severe pain, faint light or bright light and so on.
- 3) **Threshold**:
 - a) **Absolute threshold**: For any stimulation to be aroused, the stimulus (light, sound, touch etc.) must have a minimum intensity. Stimuli of very low value are not responded to. Thus, for every sensation there is an absolute threshold level.
 - b) **Differential threshold**: When we listen to some sound, we do not respond to every small change in the sound. Hence, changes in stimuli are not sensed unless the change involved is at least of a certain minimal intensity. This change in the sensory experience is known as differential threshold value of stimulus.
- 4) **Adaptation**: A sensory system is able to adapt itself to a sensation if it is subjected to that sensation for a long time.
- 5) **After-images or after-sensation**: Strong sensory experiences continue to remain for a few more moments even after their sensation.
- 6) **Extensity**: Sensations may also vary in extensity or size (eg.). Thus we may see a small patch or large patch of light.
- 7) **Duration**: Sensations also possess the property of duration. Our sensory experiences last for different lengths. The sensation may persist for a long time or may disappear immediately.
- 8) **Latency period**: Sensations have a latency period. This is the time taken by the bodily tissues before they start making their normal responses.

CHAPTER 11

ATTENTION AND PERCEPTION

ATTENTION

This is the process of attending to series of stimuli. From among the many stimuli which are within range psychologically we select only those that are related to our present needs and interests.

Objective factors

The objective factors mean the factors possessed by the object, by which it attracts our attention. They are intensity, colour, size, repetition, movement, change, systematic form and novelty.

- 1) **Intensity:** Our attention is attracted by a louder sound than a weaker one. A bright colour attracts our attention than a lighter shade. Of two stimuli the stronger one has an advantage over the weaker.
- 2) **Colour:** A bright colour attracts our attention than a lighter shade.
- 3) **Size:** Bigger the stimulus better the chances of its catching our attention. Among a group of boys, the boy who is bigger in size than others will easily attract our attention.
- 4) **Repetition:** Sometimes, a stimulus even when it is not very intense or big in size, may still attract our attention by being repeated several times. If an advertisement is given several times repeatedly easily it will catch our attention.
- 5) **Movement:** A moving object will easily attract our attention.
- 6) **Change:** If there is a sudden change either in the intensity or in the size or even by way of sudden stopping then we attend at once to the change in the stimulus. For example, the ticking of clock in our room usually will not draw our attention because of its being repeated continuously. But if it suddenly stops we may at once turn and remark why has the clock stopped?

- 7) **Systematic form:** We easily attend to those stimuli which have a definite systematic pattern. Some melodious tune though sung very softly may be picked up for attention even in midst of other louder noises. Gestalt psychologists have emphasized the importance of the systematic form.
- 8) **Novelty:** Anything strange or unusual whether a sight, sound or any other sensation invariably draws our attention.

Subjective factors

Subjective factors mean the factors possessed by individual, which facilitate his attention. They are interest, organic state, habits and inner drives.

- i) Interest is an important subjective factor. One who is interested in gardening may be attracted by a new kind of flower or plant. He attends to it because of his own developed interest and knowledge.
- ii) Organic states also play an important role. A hungry person may be attracted by anything that could be eaten in preference to other objects. Our mood also determines our attention, when we are in happy mood we may notice things that are pleasant.
- iii) Affection, motivation and inner drives also play great part in attracting our attention. A sleeping mother may not be disturbed by a whole lot of loud noise outside. But if her sick child raises even a faint cry, it attracts her attention.
- iv) **Habits:** Habits also can help in selection of stimuli, as children we are taught to attend to certain types of stimuli and neglect others and these habits of attention determine to a large extent the trend of our attention in later life.

Span of attention

Span of attention means how many letters or digits that we can see at a single glance. How many figures or letters can notice in one act of attention? This can be determined by the use of an apparatus called the '*Tachistoscope*'. There are individual differences but usually 4 or 5 numbers or letters can be attended to at a single glance. The registration plate of a motor car contains usually only for 4 figures. Serial numbering will

go upto 9999, but not 10,000. This is because when a car runs fast the traffic constable will not ordinarily be able to take note of more than 4 numbers.

PERCEPTION

Perception is the process of understanding sensations or attaching meanings based on past experience to signs.

Characteristics of perception

- 1) ***Perception shifts***: Just like attention perception also shifts. As we attend to one part of the stimulus we perceive that part and then as attention passes on to another part we perceive that part also.
- 2) ***Perception is a grouping and combining response***: We put several stimuli together and make a joint response to it. When we perceive the face of a friend there are several stimuli coming to us from different parts of his face eyes, ears, nose etc. We put them all together and understand it as a totality.
- 3) ***Figure has advantage over background in perception***: There are no gaps in nature and the human mind also hates gaps. It tends to fill in gaps and perceive things as having a definite form.
- 4) ***Perception is an isolating response***: We perceive the thing we select for our attention and do not perceive the things that are not attended to.
- 5) Perception follows the '***Law of Reduced cues***'. Applied to perception, the law of reduced cues means that as we become more and more acquainted with an object, the signs by which we can perceive it become less and less till at last, a fraction of the original sign is enough for us to recognise that object.

Determinants of perception

The various factors that determine our perception can be grouped as follows:

- 1) ***The sense organs***: Perception depends upon sense impression and upon the number, structure and function of the available sense organs. For example, if colours are not

developed in the retina there cannot be perception of colour. Similarly absence of certain taste buds will limit one's taste perception.

- 2) **Brain function:** Perception depends on the nature of the brain function. This gives us various frames of reference against which perception is made. Certain relations such as bigger and smaller, lighter and heavier, above and below etc., are all perceived because of the function of the brain.
- 3) **Past experience:** Perception also depends on one's past experience. The few light sensations that come from a ship are interpreted as a ship because of our past experience. We are able to supplement a number of characteristics that are not sensed at the particular moment. Past experience may also influence perception in the form of creating various kinds of prejudices and assumptions regarding the object perceived.
- 4) **Set or attitude:** Perception also depends very much on one's set or attitude. This is the subjective conditions.
- 5) **Organic conditions:** One's organic condition will also influence his perception. The individual who is starving from hunger will easily perceive the eatable objects. One's motive also determines his perception.

Errors of perception

There are several possibilities of our perceptions process being wrong and misleading. Such errors of perception are studied as two different phenomena viz., illusions and hallucinations.

a) Illusions:

An illusion is a wrong or mistaken perception. The perceptual process always involves an interpretation of the sensory experience in the light of our past experience or present attitude, our organic needs etc. In some cases this interpretation is done wrongly and so the stimulus is perceived wrongly. Such a phenomenon is called 'illusion'. (Eg: We perceive the coil of a rope in darkness as a snake).

Psychologists have experimented with a number of geometrical designs to understand the phenomenon of illusion. Two of the well known examples.

- 1) Muller-Lyer Illusion
- 2) Horizontal-vertical illusion

In the Muller-Lyer illusion there are two straight lines of equal length. One is bounded at the two ends by pairs of short opening outwards. The other is bounded by two pairs of short lines which are reversed and give the idea of closure.

Though the two lines are equal in length invariably the latter is perceived to be shorter than the former. This is an illusion.

In the horizontal-vertical illusion there are two straight lines, one horizontal and other vertical. Both are of equal length. But invariably the vertical line is perceived to be longer than the other.

b) *Hallucinations*

we perceive a figure or an object purely because of our subjective conditions, when there is no stimulus at all.

Such an error in perception which has no basis in a real sensory stimulus is called '*hallucination*'. While illusion is wrong perception, hallucination is false perception.

If at night we see a ghost when there is practically no stimulus in the form of a human figure or anything resembling it would be an example of hallucination.

CHAPTER 12

TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

Teaching-learning is a continuous process consisting of various steps. It is difficult to separate the steps from one another. According to Wilson and Gallup the following are the steps in the teaching-learning process.

ATTENTION
INTEREST
DESIRE
CONVICTION
ACTION
SATISFACTION

ATTENTION

The first task of the extension worker is to attract attention of the learner to the new and better ideas. Farmers are to be made aware of the improvement.

INTEREST

Once attention has been captured it becomes possible for the teacher to appeal to the basic needs or urges of the individual and arouse his interest in further consideration of the idea. Extension worker reveals how new practice will contribute to the farmer's welfare. The message should be presented attractively.

DESIRE

The desire is concerned with the continuing farmer's interest in the idea or better practice until that interest becomes a desire or motivating force. The extension worker explains to the farmer that the information applies directly to the farmer's situation and that the doing of this would satisfy his needs.

CONVICTION

Action follows desire, conviction of the people, and prospect of satisfaction. In this step the learner knows what action is necessary, and just how to take that action. He also makes sure that the learner visualises the action in terms of his own peculiar situation and has acquired confidence in his own ability to do the thing.

ACTION

Unless conviction is converted into action, the efforts are fruitless. It is the job of extension worker to make it easy for the farmers to act. If new control measure is the action needed the recommended chemical should be available within the farmers reach. Necessary equipments should also be available. If action does not quickly follow the desire the new idea will fade away. Therefore this phase should never be neglected.

SATISFACTION

This is the end product of the process. Follow up by the extension worker helps the farmers to learn to evaluate their progress and strengthens satisfaction. Satisfaction helps to continue his action with increased satisfaction. Satisfaction is the motivating force to further learning. "A satisfied customer is the best advertisement" will also apply to the extension worker.

The above six steps are often blended in with each other and lose their clear cut identify. Of course these steps are based on motivation.

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

- (i) The learner should subscribe to and understand the purpose of the course.
- (ii) The student should want to learn.
- (iii) The teacher should keep friendly and informal relationship with learner.
- (iv) The physical condition should be favourable and appropriate to the learning.
- (v) The teacher should involve the learners so that they participate and accept some responsibility for the learning process.
- (vi) The teacher should make use of the learner's experiences.
- (vii) The teacher should prepare well for the class, should keep his teaching aids handy and should be enthusiastic about teaching it.
- (viii) The method of instruction should be varied and appropriate.
- (ix) The teacher should change his notes with the availability of new knowledge on the topic of subject.

LEARNING

DEFINITION

Learning is a process by which a person becomes changed in his behaviour through self-activity.

"Learning is process of progressive behaviour adaptation".

AMPLIFICATION

1. Learning is something that takes place within the learner.
2. It takes place within the individual when he feels a need, strives for fulfilling it, and experiences satisfaction with the fruits of this labour.
3. Learning is the goal of teaching.

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

LEARNING EXPERIENCE

DEFINITION

It is mental and/or physical reaction one makes through seeing, hearing or doing the things to be learned, through which one gains meanings and understandings of the material to be learned.

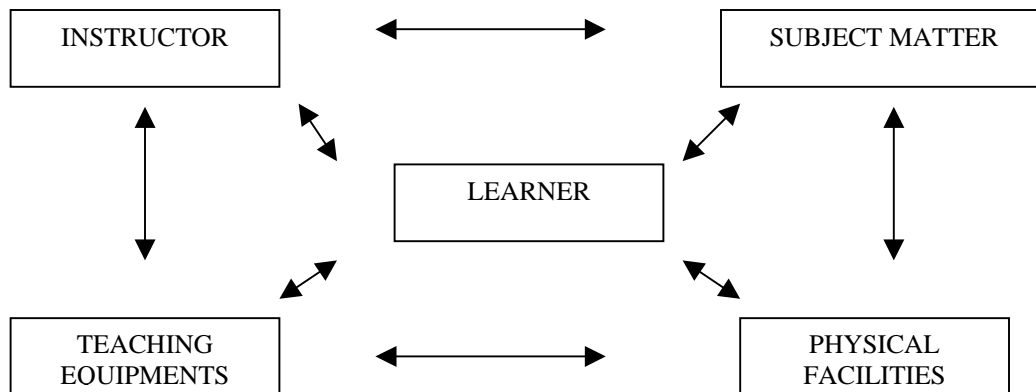
Learning is an active process to the part of the learner. Hence, a learning experience is not attained by mere physical presence in a learning situation. It is what the participant does (i.e. his reaction) while in the learning situation that is all-important in learning. He must give undivided attention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

LEARNING SITUATION

DEFINITION

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

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



To have an effective learning situation, these five major elements should satisfy the following condition.

1. INSTRUCTOR SHOULD

- (a) Have clear objective.
- (b) Know the subject matter and have it well organized.
- (c) Be enthusiastic and interested in the subject.
- (d) Be able to communicate with learners.
- (e) Be democratic in his leadership.
- (f) Allow student participation, ask for it.
- (g) Be prepared, be prompt, be friendly, be courteous.
- (h) Use a teaching plan.
- (i) Speak so that all can hear.
- (j) Set a good example of a good leader and teacher.
- (k) Be skilled in the use of teaching materials and equipments.

2. LEARNING SHOULD

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

3. SUBJECT MATTER OR CONTENT

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

4. PHYSICAL FACILITIES

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

5. TEACHING EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

- (a) Meet the needs of effectivity.
- (b) Readily available.
- (c) Each item used skillfully.

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

LEARNING PROCESS

Learning is the process of modifying our activity through experience. This is a process that is continuously going on in all human being and animals. By learning we increase our knowledge of the external world.

Learning is the process by which the individual acquires various habits, knowledge and attitudes that are necessary to meet the demands of life in general. Learning is defined as the process of effecting changes in the individual behaviour and making such changes permanent.

IMPORTANT POINTS REGARDING THE PROCESS OF LEARNING

Learning means modifying or changing one's behaviour with reference to achieving a particular goal.

Learning means the development of a method for dealing with our problems.

CONDITIONED LEARNING (Classifical conditioning)

The principle of conditioning was first noticed by the Russian Psychologist Petrovitch Pavlov. Conditioning represents learning at a very simple level. According to some people conditioning is the only principle by which all human or animal learning takes place.

PAVLOV'S EXPERIMENT ON CONDITIONING

Pavlov was conducting some experiments with dogs studying the digestive process. During these experiments a servant was responsible for feeding the dog. The sight of food or the placing of food in the mouth will always cause the flow of saliva in a dog. Food is the natural stimulus of the Salivary reflex. Pavlov one day noticed that even before the food arrived, the mere sound of the footsteps of the servant caused the dog to salivate.

Pavlov demonstrated that the dog can be made to salivate to any stimulus, such as the ringing of a bell. Salivating is a reflex action. It is innate and is determined by a natural and unlearned connection with some particular relevant stimuli. Here contact with

the food is the natural stimulus. If you ring a bell before a dog, it may bark and get angry or just disregard the sound, it will not salivate. There is no natural connection between the sound of a bell and the salivary reflex.

Pavlov demonstrated that the dog can be made to salivate to any stimulus, such as the ringing of a bell. Salivating is a reflex action. It is innate and is determined by a natural and unlearned connection with some particular relevant stimuli. Here contact with the food is the natural stimulus. If you ring a bell before a dog, it may bark and get angry or just disregard the sound, it will not salivate. There is no natural connection between the sound of a bell and the salivary reflex.

Pavlov demonstrated that if you ring a bell repeatedly for a few times and each time feed the dog, then it will begin to salivate even when the bell is rung and no food is brought. Thus, the process of conditioning simply means the establishment of a connection between response and a stimulus which has no natural connection with it. Pavlov conducted his experiments with the flow of saliva which is a reflex action, he called the response of the dog to the bell the conditioned reflex.

The natural stimulus is technically called the 'unconditioned stimulus' (US) the response to the natural stimulus is called the 'unconditioned response' (UR) the strange experimental stimulus to which the response is conditioned is called the conditioned stimulus (CS) and the response after it has been conditioned to the strange stimulus is called the 'conditioned response' (CR).

Pavlov's conditioning experiments are also called a "Classical conditioning".

INSTRUMENTAL CONDITIONING

Instrumental conditioning was first given by Bechterev's conditioning experiments developed as the 'Instrumental conditioning'. In this instrumental conditioning the US was an electric shock, the CS was a bell, the response was lifting the foot. The subjects learned to lift the foot at the sound of the bell. In Pavlov's experiments to get the reward viz., food which is the reinforcing stimulus the dog did not

have anything to do it. It played only a passive role. Its response of salivating was a glandular reflex.

As different from this in the instrumental conditioning Bechterev initiated the subject has to do something or learn something as avoidance or as positive approach. Because of the activity of the subject being instrumental to effect the final response, this type of experiments came to be called instrumental conditioning.

Learning all sorts of mazes, avoiding various kinds of punishments, learning specific activities leading to reward such as food or escape have all been experimented upon by this technique of instrumental conditioning.

MAZE LEARNING

Most popular kind of learning experiments has been done with mazes. A maze is essentially a series of alloys some leading to the goal and others leading into dead ends. From the starting place to the goal, the subject meets a number of points where he must choose one or two alternatives.

For rats, the partitions are built in the form of walls over which they cannot climb. For human subjects, the maze pattern may be in the form of groves of slots in fiber board in which a pencil or stylus is moved. It may be in the form of ridges raised on the surfaces of a board to be followed by the finger tip. In order to make the human problem more comparable with that of the rat, the subject may be blindfolded in using slot maze. The maze patterns can be made identical for both rat and man and their modes of learning can then be compared in this matter.

EXPERIMENT

One of the most common experiments in animal learning is maze learning by white rats. The general plan of the experiment is to see the number of trials taken by a rat to learn the maze successfully, i.e. to run without committing any mistake and in the shortest possible time. A turn towards a blind alley is conducted as an error.

When the hungry rat is placed in the maze, it cannot see its way to the food. Therefore, the first reaction is the rat gets active and begins to explore. The beginning activity will not take any organized form. It moves here and there. It may enter almost all the passages including those leading to blind alleys, and finally succeeded in reaching the food. The rat is caught as soon as it reaches the food and after allowing it to have bite is again placed at the start. Like this, several trials may allowed per day. In later trials the rat does not go into all the blind alleys and even if it takes a wrong turn it does not go very deep into the blind alley. Finally, after a number of trials spread over a few days, it learns to avoid all wrong entrances and go direct and quickly to the food.

PERCEPTIONAL LEARNING: (Insight learning)

The factor of perception in learning was emphasized by Wold Gong Kohler. He has conducted a large number experiments with chimpanzees to study the problems of learning with particular reference to the factor of perception.

EXPERIMENT

In one experiment Kohler put the chimpanzee, by name Sultan, inside a cage and a banana was kept outside. Inside the cage two sticks were placed, one longer and one shorter. One was hallow at one end so that the other stick could be thrust into it to form one long stick. The banana was so placed that neither of these two sticks could be reached. When the experiment started, the chimpanzee got active. It tried various means of reaching the banana. It tried in vain with the two sticks one after another.

In one trial Kohler noticed that after some unsuccessful attempts the monkey give up the problem just sat down in a corner and was playing with these two sticks. While playing like this accidentally, one stick fell into the hole of the other but not properly. This gave the animal a 'bright idea'. The animal straightaway joined the will long enough to reach it. The two sticks were joined and got the banana. Kohler emphasises the suddenness with which the right solution appeared. This sudden and new way of looking at the problem and solving it is called 'insight'.

TRIAL AND ERROR LEARNING

Motor learning is most effected through the method of Trial and Error.

THORNDIKE'S EXPERIMENT

Inside a specially constructed cage called the 'problem box' or 'puzzle box', a hungry cat is kept. A piece of fish is kept outside the box. The cat is kept hungry and the fish is kept outside to make sure that the cat would be sufficiently motivated to go into action. The box is build in such a way that its door can be opened by pressing an inside lever. Cat becomes restless and made all kinds of attempts to get out, like clawing and biting at all the bars and shaking all the movable parts in the box. This kind of random activity characterises to initial stages of the trial and error methods. After some time by chance, the cat press the lever and opens the door. It is again taken and put into the box for a second attempt and during the second attempt also the cat goes on with the restless and random activity as before.

In the same manner the experiment is continued for several attempts. Thorndike noticed, as the number of trials increased, unnecessary and irrelevant activities of the animal were getting reduced. Gradually, the errors became less till a last after number of trials the animal learned to operate the door straight away. The result of this experiment emphasized; (1) the random activity, (2) the gradual reduction of useless movements, (3) the fact that the animal finally learned the trick. These findings made Thorndike to conclude that animals learn only by trial and error.

ACQUISITION OF SKILLS

When we acquire through learning a co-ordinated series of responses which are performed with proficiency, that is called skill. Playing the piano, piloting a plane and reciting a poem are all skills.

TRANSFER OF TRAINING

One of the problems in the psychology that has been experimentally studied is the possibility of the skill attained in learning one task, helping the learning of another task. Mastering one skill may make it easier to learn another. One influences the other. This

influence may be of two kinds. It may be positive in that the first learning process facilitates the second one. It may be negative, in as much as one learning activity may interfere with subsequent learning activity and retard the progress of the later. The negative transfer is commonly called 'habit interference'.

William James and Thorndike have conducted many experiments on this subject. A number of experiments with mazes, puzzles, verbal material etc., have been conducted to study the problem of transfer of training in general and obtaining in learning more complicated skills. Many experiments have shown that what is actually transferred is the technique of dealing with the problem; it is actually an application of a principle already learned to new situations.

CHAPTER 13

ADULT LEARNING

Active participation, of farmers individually and in groups is very essential for successful improvements of any development programme. As an extension worker one should create consciousness among farmers to motivate them for increasing their income. In other words, an extension worker has to educate the farmers about the technology related to agriculture.

FUNCTIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION

1. Help the farmers to identify their needs by involving them in the programme.
2. Teach the farmers about the technology so as to bring the desired learning.
3. Help them to decide and plan for carrying out various activities under the programme.
4. Create a situation that will motivate the farmers to have desire to learn. Motivation is one of the important factors which is responsible for effective teaching and learning.
5. Make the farmers perceive how they can satisfy basic needs through learning. Human basic needs are: desire for security, new experience, affection or response and recognition. Convince the farmers how the programme will help them to achieve these basic needs.
6. Use the most effective extension methods and techniques to achieve the desired learning. Learning is the process by which a farmer through his own activity becomes changed in his behaviour. The farmers have learnt when there are changes in their knowledge, skill and attitude on any technology. The extension worker should also bring out the changes in farmer's interest and understanding about the technology.
7. Help the farmer to evaluate certain benefits derived by him by the adoption of the technology and this will help him to convince him about the merits of the technology.

ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES

1. The adults must want to learn.
2. Adults will learn only when they feel a need to learn.
3. Adults learn by doing.
4. Adult learning centres on problems and problems must be liable.

5. Adults learn best in an informal environment.
6. Experience affects adult learning.
7. Adults favour a variety of learning methods.
8. Adults want guidance but not grade.
9. Learning is facilitated when the new behaviour is satisfying the felt need.
10. Learning must be meaningful.
11. Learning is facilitated when two or more senses are used at a time.
12. Learning is effective when the learners participate actively.
13. Learning is facilitated when there is repetition.
14. Learning is facilitated when the learners are ready to learn.
15. Learning is effective when the teacher uses praise and rewards.
16. Teaching must be consistent to learner's ability.
17. Learning is facilitated when the learners know the progress of learning.
18. Learning is increased by knowledge of results (the end product of learning).

FACTORS INFLUENCING LEARNING SITUATION

1. Have teaching objectives clearly in mind, that are significant to the learners, that are attainable through the educational process within the mental, economical, physical and time limitations of learners and make these clear to them.
2. Have a thorough knowledge of significant subject matter related to the learner's needs.
3. Be personable, enthusiastic and interested in the subject matter and the welfare of the learners.
4. Be able to communicate effectively with the learners.
5. Use democratic instructional methods and approaches.
6. Encourage learners' participation in the learning situation. This requires more physical presence.
7. Be prepared, prompt and courteous in every teaching situation. This requires more physical presence.
8. Get a good example of educational leadership and effective teaching.

9. Arrange and manage the situation so as to prevent and minimise distractions within and outside the learning situation.
10. Have a suitable equipment and supplies ready for easy use with a minimum of distraction of the learners' attention from the subject.
11. Be skillful in the use of every item of teaching material and equipment-chalk board, visual equipment, reading materials etc.
12. Always prepare and use a carefully developed teaching plan.
13. Take care of light, location, space, furniture arrangements and teaching and reading materials.

METHODS FOR ADULT LEARNING

Human behaviour is goal oriented and rural people are no exception to this general rule. If the extension worker helps them in reaching the goals decided by them then they would hear him readily. There are large number of goals or needs to rural people. They have basic needs or physiological needs, such as security, affection, prestige and desire for self fulfillment.

The extension worker has to understand the wants and incentives of rural people. He should relate all these needs with his teaching and show the people that the usage of latest technologies would satisfy their needs. It is necessary to clarify their needs. It is necessary to add the innovations which would help in satisfying them. For example farmer may need money for sending his son for higher education. This may be an increase for farmer to adopt the innovation to increase yields. So in the first step it is necessary to motivate him for learning, then he has to be convinced of the relevance of technology to his own interest and finally seek for his co-operation.

Adults are more sensitive to success and failure than children. Therefore in adult education care should be taken. An adult will pick up things more easily if he sees any relationship to his occupation. If he is convinced he will try to learn more quickly. The learning is also related to his vocational interest. Adults have greater sense of responsibility than children. Therefore, they should be given some responsibility for their own learning. There are stronger and more permanent sentiments. The sentiments towards his family, his friends and a stronger desire for learning are some of the sentiments which will help the extension worker.

CHAPTER 14

PERSONALITY

CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the total quality of an individual. The word personality comes from the Latin 'persona' which means the mask worn by players in the theater. Personality consists of observable behaviour. It is defined as an individual, typical or consistent adjustments to his environment. The elements of personality are called the traits of personality, it is the traits that make one person different from another person in his behaviour. Shyness and sociability are different traits of personality. Personality is the dynamic organisation of the traits and characteristic of an individual. All characteristics which an individual possesses are his powers, needs, abilities, wants, habits, his goal and aspirations. His patterns of behaviour to objects and persons continue his personality.

Since an individual is a bundle of characteristics as traits we can define personality as an integrated pattern of traits. According to Worth, one's personality is made up of high physique, chemique, instincts, and intelligence.

1. Material self (his body, clothes, family property etc.)
2. Social self (his home, club, office, church etc.)
3. Spiritual self (his ability to argue and discriminate consciousness, moral sensitivities).

According to Medougali personali consists of his (a) disposition, (b) temper, (c) temperament and (d) character.

DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

Personality is that which makes one effective, or gives one influence over others. In the language of psychology it is one's social stimulus value-May, M.A.

A man's personality is the total picture of his organised behaviour, especially as it can be characterised basis fellow men in a consistent way – Dashiell, J.F.

Our personality is the result of what we start with and what we have lived through. It is the 'reaction mass' as a whole – Watson, J.B.

Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment – Allport, G.W.

It can, therefore be defined as an individual's typical or consistent adjustments to his environment. It is the most characteristic integration of an individual's structure, modes of behaviour, interests, attitudes, capacities and aptitudes.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

Traits may be regarded as a dimension of personality. For example, dominance-submission is a trait that a person may show in any degree. A trait is a description of human behaviour. The traits of a person describe his personality. One's traits and the ways they are patterned make him different from other person. In identifying a defining traits, psychology has made considerable progress toward a specific and objective understanding of personality. Personality is unique. This uniqueness is the result of the difference in the traits of different individuals and in the dynamic organisation of the traits. Some of the traits are ascendant, cheerful-gloomy, friendly hostile etc.

Cateel has given two types of traits (a) surface traits and qualities of one's behaviour that are observable directly in action and (b) source traits – the qualities at a deeper level.

PERSONALITY TYPES

Jung has given this introversion-extraversion type in personality. Introverts will react negatively to situations, withdraw from the society, inwardly, selective. The introvert withdraw from the active participation in the objective world and he is interested in his inner world of thought and fantasy. He will not move freely with others. He won't express out his feelings and inner desires. He is sensitive to criticism, magnifies his failures and occupied with self criticism.

Extroverts are opposite to introverts. Extroverts react positively and outwardly expressive. An extrovert is supposed to be thick skinned and relatively sensitive to

criticism, spontaneous in his emotional expression, impersonal in argument, neither deeply affected by failures nor much occupied with self analysis of self-criticism.

SHELDON'S CLASSIFICATION (TYPES)

Sheldon classifies the people into 3 types. (1) Endomorphy, (2) Mesomorphy and (3) Ectomorphy.

In addition to this Sheldon also classified people into 3 types according to their temperaments. They are (1) Viscerotonia, (2) Somatotonia and (3) Cerebrotonia.

	Body types	Temperamental types
1.	Endomorphy Large Viscera Soft body contours	Viscerotonia Love of comfort affection Sociability
2.	Mesomorphy Heavy muscular development Ambitious Hard body contours	Somatotonia Vigorous, self-assertive
3.	Ectomorphy Long, slender build Extremities, poor muscular development	Cerebrotonia Restrained Social withdrawal thoughtful

MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY

The measurement of personality serves both the critical and practical purposes. When an individual who has difficulties of personal adjustment comes for help to a psychiatrist, it is valuable to assess his personality. To measure the personality we have to measure the traits of personality. It is possible to measure needs, attitudes, interests, values and other personality characteristics also.

The following methods have been used for measuring personality characteristics.

1. THE QUESTIONNAIRE METHOD

This method involves the preparation of a list of questions or statements. Each one is concerned with some aspect of the feeling, attitude, habit or mode of behaviour related to the personality characteristic which is intended to be measured. The respondent

is required to indicate his agreement or disagreement, acceptance or rejection, affirmation or denial of each statement. The questions are constructed in such a way that the affirmation of some and the denial of others express the presence of the trait that is measured. Each question is followed by 'Yes', 'No', 'Untrue', 'Doubtful' or other similar responses. Here the respondent under line a response that shows his character.

Example:

1. In social gatherings, I like to be the centre of attention.
2. In a meeting, I prefer to occupy a back seat.
3. When you have to make an important decision, do you prefer some one else to decide for you.

Usually a personality test contains 30 or 50 items. This questionnaire method is also called objective test of personality. In this method the respondent should be truthful and very frank.

2. PROJECTIVE TESTS

Projective tests are so named because they induce the individual to project to put himself into the test situation or to identify with the person therein and by telling about them, to reveal his own motives, attitudes, apprehensions and aspirations.

The use of projective test is based on the mechanism of projection. The projective test is a device for measuring the personality which the person tested does not recognize as such. He makes spontaneous responses in the test. The test presents a highly ambiguous situation which the tests is required to perceive and describe. The situation has no definite characteristics and so different persons perceive it in different ways. In perceiving the ambiguous situation, each person reflects his own needs, attitudes, habits, interests, feelings and behaviour patterns. The projective method is called projective because in perceiving and describing the situation, a person brings out his personality characteristics.

Two well known projective tests are (1) Roschach Inkblot Test and (2) Thematic apperception Test.

a) RORCHACH TEST

Rorschach test was introduced by Hermann Rorschach. So the test was called after his name. This is the most widely used test. It was first described in 1921 by Hermann Rorschach, a Swiss psychiatrist.

Rorschach Test consists of 10 cards, each one having an inkblot on it. Some blots are coloured and some are in black and white. These cards are always presented in regular serial order. The inkblot does not represent any subject. It is ambiguous or unstructured figure. The ambiguity of the blot results in the great variety of responses it produces. Such an inkblot is placed before the subject. He is asked to describe what he sees. He is also required to say in what portion he sees and what makes him see the object that he describes. His responses are noted and classified under different categories.

These responses differ from person to person. Some respond to the whole figure, some to the parts of the figure. Some respond to form a shape, some to colour or the white space between the coloured or black patches. Some see moving and others stationery objectives. Some see human figures or parts of human body. Others see animals. Classification of the responses made to the 10 cards by a subject shows that certain types and categories are made consistently. These responses are interpreted as indicating the personality characteristics of the respondent.

b) THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST (TAT)

This TAT is also widely used projective Test. This TAT was first given by Murray. This test consists of 20 pictures. Each picture contains one or more persons in very ambiguous situations. For example, in one picture a very old woman is standing behind a young woman looking very serious. The subject is asked to write a story on each picture. The story should have a theme. It should say what is happening, and what is going to be the outcome or result.

In writing a story, the subject is expected to identify himself unconsciously with a character in the story. The story thus express out his own needs and frustrations, feelings and attitudes, ideas of self and of others, real or imaginary and so on. One cannot

get clue about the characteristics of the subject from a single story. When one finds the recurrence of the same or similar characters, expressing similar feelings and attitudes, entertaining similar hopes and fears etc., one may be led to think that the stories reveal the person's own characteristics.

3. PERSONALITY RATING

In this method one person judges or rates the characteristic of another person. The person who judges is the rater and the person who is judged is the rate. The basis of the rating is the rater's general impression drawn from his observation of the behaviour of the rates in a variety of related situations. For example, a class teacher may be asked to judge such personality characteristics of his pupils as orderliness, punctuality, industriousness, co-operativeness etc. The teacher may be asked to express his rating on each trait by locating the position of each pupil on a so called *rating scale*.

EXAMPLE OF A RATING SCALE

PUNCTUALITY

5	4	3	2	1
Always in time	Generally punctual	Sometimes punctual	Generally unpunctual	Never in time

If the teacher feels that the student is highly punctual he would place him at the left end of the scale and give him the score of 5.

4. SITUATIONAL TEST

In this situational test, a person is required to act in a situation which is specially arranged for the purpose of testing. The tester observes the behaviour of the testee while he is acting in the situation. Generally the testing is done in a group. For example, a party of 10 students is taken out and camps at the foot of hill. The students are given some cash. They are asked to plan and arrange for preparing their lunch. In this they will discuss and plan to report lunch. The teacher who accompanies them observes the behaviour of each and come to the conclusion regarding their personality character.

5. INTERVIEW

Interview is one of the methods to assess personality. The interview is a face to face situation consisting of the interviewee and the interviewer. The success of the interview depends upon the degree to which the interviewee makes free and frank responses. The interviewer should win the complete confidence of the interviewee. He should establish with the interviewee of a relation of cordiality, warmth and responsiveness. Such a relation has been called '*rapport*' without a rapport no psychological interview can be a success.

CHAPTER 15

SOCIAL INCENTIVES

1. MOTIVES AND INCENTIVES

Motives are a set of internal conditions which give rise to action in an organism. Society sets up conditions to support or initiate, decrease or inhibit or to direct activities. These are incentives. Thus we find that incentives are conditions set up in order to alter behaviour of other individuals. Thus, incentives may be positive or negative. A positive incentive reinforces action while a negative incentive inhibits action. The modification of the individual by the society is based upon the operation of these incentives. This is how social learning takes place.

2. INCENTIVE MODIFY BEHAVIOUR

Material regards are positive incentives which release drives and thus influence the speed and accuracy of performance. Similarly punishment or the removal of a reward is a negative incentive which inhibits certain drives. Apart from regards and punishments, praise and report of or scolding are also very powerful incentives affecting behaviour. This is how the puppy learns to respond to its name and to give up urination and defecation within the house. It is rewarded with a biscuit if it does what the owner wants him to do. We use not only rewards and punishments, we also use affection as an incentive to socialize puppies.

Incentives top the motives and change the attitudes of the individual in the group. When appropriate incentives are given the efficiency of performance improves considerably. On the other hand, inappropriate incentive may lead to decrease in efficiency.

3. REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS

A combination of rewards for right responses, and punishments for wrong responses will lead to more efficient learning.

4. PRAISE AND REPROOF

These incentives help children as well as adults to conform to the social norms. Consequently, conformity leads to rewards or approval and satisfaction while non-conformity leads to punishment or disapproval and self dissatisfaction. Socialization is achieved by these methods in all grades of human society in the tribal as well as in the most highly civilized groups.

5. COMPETITION AND CO-OPERATION

It is not always easy to differentiate between motives and incentives in their concrete operation in a complex society. Consequently, in a complex social activity it is neither possible nor necessary to draw any fine distinctions between motives and incentives. An individual may engage himself in gardening because he wants to attract more people to his garden than the neighbour or it may be due to an incentive, he wants to win the first prize in the garden competition. Thus, competition may be based on a motive when it is spurred by the desire for recognition and improvement in status or it may be due to an incentive when the desire is to win a competition or to earn more money.

Competition means striving to equal or surpass the speed and quality of another person's performance, or it may be to improve on one's own past performance. The basic characteristic here is to do better than what one has done or what another has done. This is a very powerful incentive in social life; particularly in the modern western society competition plays a very important part. The high level of prosperity among the nations of western Europe and United States is due to this strong incentive to compete and to do better than other countries.

6. COMPETITION AND RIVALRY

We must distinguish between competition and rivalry. Rivalry is a drive to equal or surpass the skill of another person. Sibling rivalry is a very important and outstanding phenomenon within the home. Constantly brothers and sisters become rivals and try to excel each other. In the same way in the old Indian society, there was a great deal of

rivalry among the different wives of a single individual. What is the difference between competition and rivalry?

In ordinary language as well as social psychology, we do not make any distinction between these two terms. However, it will be better to draw a clear distinction between these two terms. It is here suggested that the term rivalry may be limited to those situations where the person or a group tries to crush the rival. In other words, they try to surpass the rival not by themselves doing better, but by pulling down the rival. Thus in rivalry an attempt is made to become superior to the other not by improving one performance but by dislodging the other individual or group from the position occupied, so that one is superior to the other. The term competition may be restricted to the attempt by an individual or group to improve the level of performance so that one is superior to the other. Probably, a second distinction between the two may be made on the basis of the area of social relation in which the two may be made on the basis of the area of social relation in which the two individuals or groups are operating. Rivalry is limited to the fact to face relationship, whereas competition is much more impersonal. Competition does not lead to jealousy and hatred whereas rivalry inevitably leads to both of them. Rivalry may ultimately lead one to violence because the first aim is to bring down the prestige of the other man or of the other group in the eyes of the rest and the ultimate aim is to annihilate the rival. Thus, in a society in which non-violence is the ideal of human relationships there is no place for rivalry. But there can be plenty of scope for competition.

MOTIVATION

Motivation is the process of initiating a conscious and purposeful action. Motive means an urge, or combination of urge to induce conscious or purposeful action. It is goal directed.

Definition

- (h) The goal directed, need satisfying behaviour is called motivation.
- (i) It is a process of initiating a conscious and purposeful action.
- (j) Motive means an urge or combination of urges to induce conscious or purposeful action.

Motives, arising out of natural urges or acquired interests, or dynamic forces that affect thoughts, emotions and behaviour. Eg.: Motive for a murder.

Needs which motivate Human Beings

(i) Organic needs or physiological motives

Man is constructed in such a way that he requires certain things in order that he may keep living. He is also so constituted that these needs initiate activity that will eventually satisfy them. These are all basic organic needs which demand periodic or continued satisfaction. These needs are called appetites. (Eg.): breathing air, appetite of thirst, appetite for sleep or rest etc.

(ii) Wants

People have unique personal wants.
(eg.) Likes and dislikes for specific food; play etc.

(iii) Emotions as motives

Under the influence of fear, anger etc., people may do many things that they would not do normally. (eg.) Parents use fear to direct the behaviour of children. Organisations use fear to produce a desired form of behaviour.

(iv) Feelings and attitudes as motives

An individual's experience activity is evaluated by him as pleasant or unpleasant. When the experience is pleasant, individual has an attitude of approach to that experience and if it is unpleasant, his attitude is withdrawal.

(v) Social motives

Most people have a strong desire to achieve social approval. For this, they try to improve their personality through clothes, possession of things, knowledge, skills etc.

(vi) Others

Habit: Somebody's settled practice, especially something, that cannot easily be given up.

Established habit becomes almost automatic and requires only a stimulus to set it in action.

Objective environment: People act differently in different situations. The objective environment produces a 'set' or 'readiness' to respond in a particular way.

Functions of motivation

- i) Motives encourage a learner in his learning activities
(Eg.) Extrinsic motives like prizes, medals etc. motivate
- ii) Motives act as selectors of the type of activity in which the person desires to engage.
(Eg.) Selection of courses
- iii) Motives direct and regulate behaviour.
(Eg.) discipline in schools etc.

Significance of motivation

Motivation is concerned with the arousal of interest in learning. This forms the basis for learning. So, the teacher has to find the right type of stimuli in the individuals that will produce satisfaction in order that the interest of the learner shall be maintained long enough to master definite ideas or subject matter.

Value aspects of motivations

- (a) Intrinsic values: These are what a learner does for the sake of engaging in the activity itself. This is to be desired in learning and is more immediate.
- (b) Extrinsic values: These are when an incentive or goal is artificially introduced into a situation to cause it to accelerate activity.

Techniques of motivation

(1) Need based approach

The approach should be need based so that it could satisfy five categories of need by knowing the level of motivation and patterns of motivation among them. The five categories of needs are (i) physiological need, (ii) desire for security, (iii) desire for recognition, (iv) desire for new experiences and (v) organic needs.

(2) Training to set a realistic level of aspirations

Any attempt to revise the expectations of farmer's should be done with full understanding of their socio-economic status.

(Eg.) (i) Creating an aspiration in a farmer who doesn't have any land of his own for possession of one or two acres.

(ii) A person who attains 30 tonnes/acre of yield could be made to aspire for 40 tonnes/acre.

Such a realistic level of aspiration would ensure slow and steady progress.

(3) Participation

The involvement of farmers in the programmes of agricultural change acts as booster of motivation not only for the immediate participants but also for others.

(4) Use of audio visuals

The proper selection, combination and use of various audio visuals for the appropriate purpose will act as lubricants of motivation.

Importance of Motivation in Extension

- (1) For mobilising the villagers and extension workers.
- (2) Knowledge of biological drive/need helps the extension worker to realise the problems of the people. It helps in sympathetic handling.
- (3) Knowledge of psychological and social drives helps the extension worker to formulate programmes and make effective approaches in changing their attitude.
- (4) Knowledge of other motivating forces help avoiding conflicts or tensions.

Need is what one desires. It is lack of something. Need is the difference between "What is" and what "Ought to be".

Classification of Needs

- i) **The desire for security:** Economic, social, psychological and spiritual security. Man wants protection for his physical being food, clothing and shelter. It may also mean an adequate reserve of wealth to secure more material things in the future. The wish for security may also be satisfied by spiritual beliefs. In fact, in history whole cultures have put emphasis on security. The Great Wall of China, the Maginet Line, the Tower of Babel, the innumerable forts and fortresses in several countries are striking examples.

- ii) **The desire for affection or response:** Companionship gregariousness, and social mindedness, the need for a feeling of belonging.
- iii) **The desire for recognition:** status, prestige, achievement and being looked upto. Each individual feels the need to be considered important by his fellowmen.
- iv) **The desire for new experience:** adventure, new interests, new ideas, new friends and new ways of doing things. Some people primarily want the thrill of something new, something different.
- v) **Organic needs:** Organic needs like sex, hunger and thirstiness are also very important for human beings.

The above five categories represent all the powerful motivating forces stated in general.

Importance of Motivation in Extension

Motivation is necessary for mobilising the village people. Most of the development programmes could not bring the desired results because there was no motivation. Both the extension workers and rural people are to be motivated to achieve the results.

Motivation brings need based approach. It is possible for the extension workers to motivate the people to satisfy the five categories of needs. If there is a desire for security, the farmers can be motivated to adopt new practices by convincing them that the new practice will increase their income and enhance their security. If they have a desire for new experience, the extension teaching is oriented towards imparting new skills. Similarly other desires can be met with.

Motivation helps for the better involvement of farmers in development programmes.

The role of audio-visuals in motivating farmers needs no emphasis. The proper selection, combination and use of various audio-visuals for the appropriate purpose will act as lubricants for motivation.

Various studies conducted in India indicate that economic motivation is much predominant followed by innovativeness. Among the economic motives also providing better food, clothing and educating for one's children seem to be the dominant motives.

CHAPTER 16

EMOTIONS

We experience in our life various feelings of anger, fear, disgust, repulsion, etc. Emotions largely determine human behaviour and extension workers should learn how to utilise them for the purpose of education of rural people.

The definition for emotions are:

Jersild: Emotions denote a state of being moved stirred up or aroused in some way. Emotions involve feelings, impulses and physical and physiological reactions. These feelings, impulses, physiological reaction etc., occur in an almost unlimited variety of mixtures and gradations.

Rass: Emotions are modes of being conscious in which the feeling element is predominant.

Munn: Emotions are acute disturbances of the individual as a whole, psychological in origin, involving behaviour, conscious experiences and verbal functioning.

Gerow: Emotion is a reaction involving subjective feelings, physiological response, cognitive interpretation and behavioral expression.

Classification of Emotion

There are a number of ways to classify emotional responses and each has its own supporters. Wilhelm Wundt organised emotions on three interesting dimensions; pleasantness/unpleasantness, relaxation/tension, and calm/excitement.

Carroll Izard's classification has nine primary emotions. They are fear, anger, shame, contempt, disgust, distress, interest, surprise and joy.

Robert Plutchik argues for eight basic emotions of anger, fear, sadness, disgust, surprise, curiosity, acceptance and joy.

Development of emotion

Autonomic nervous system (ANS) serves the smooth muscles, glands, and internal visceral organs. Parasympathetic division of ANS functions to maintain a calm, relaxed state of the organism. Sympathetic division of the ANS is involved in emotional status. Epinephrine (adrenalin) a hormone produced by the adrenal glands are involved in emotional activity, mostly affecting heart activity. Note pinephrine, a hormone secreted by adrenal glands are involved in emotional arousal. Adrenal glands located on the kidneys, part of the ANS, is involved in emotional reactions. Limbic system, a set of small structures located low in the brain is involved in motivational and emotional states. These are the physiological bases for emotion. These emotions are expressed in facial and other expressions. Emotions when controlled effectively help the extension working to achieve their goals of educating the farmers.

CHAPTER 17

ATTITUDE

Attitudes involve some knowledge of a situation. However, the essential aspect of the attitude is found in the fact that some characteristic feeling or emotion is experienced and, as we would accordingly expect, some definite tendency to action is associated. Subjectively, then, the important factor is the feeling or emotion. Objectively it is the response, or at least the tendency to respond. Attitudes it is the response, or at least the tendency to respond. Attitudes are important determinants of behaviour. If we are to change them we must change the emotional components. Allport has defined attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects with which it is related.

A farmer may vote for a particular political party because he has been brought up to believe that it is "right" party. In the course of experience he may learn something about the policies of that party. In that case his attitude will probably change. As a result, he may be expected to vote in a different way. Knowledge, attitude and behaviour are then very closely linked.

Measuring attitudes

Attitude scales: It is meant for scientific studies. Scales have been developed for measuring a great number of attitudes. Each scale consists of a group of statements related to a particular attitude. Each scale consists of a group of statements related to a particular attitude. Some scales ask the person to respond by indicating whether he agrees or disagrees with each statement. Other scales ask the person to specify the degree of his agreement with a statement. The degree of agreement or disagreement will be given predetermined values.

Public opinion poll: A large number of people are asked only a question or two because they don't have much time to respond to many items.

There are two major problems in public opinion poll (i) wording of questions and (ii) sampling.

For the poll be accurate, the sample must be representative. For this we have to use stratified sampling. In stratified sampling, the polling agencies set quotas for certain categories of people based on census data. The most common categories are age, sex, socio-economic status, and geographical region, all of which are known to influence opinions. By seeing to it that the quotas in the sample are in proportion to the categories in the general population, the sample is made more representative.

Attitude change

Well established attitudes tend to be resistant to change, but others may be more amenable to change. Attitudes can be changed by a variety of ways. Some of the ways of attitude change are as follows.

- 1) By obtaining new information from other people and mass media, resulting in changes in cognitive component of a person's attitudes.
- 2) Attitudes may change through direct experience.
- 3) Attitudes may change through legislation.
- 4) Since person's attitudes are anchored in his membership group and reference groups, one way to change the attitude is to modify one or the other.
- 5) Attitude change differs with reference to the situation also.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES

I. MATURATION

The young child has only a very limited capacity for understanding the world about him and he is consequently incapable of forming attitudes about remote, or complex, or abstract things or problems.

At about a mental age of twelve years the child begins to understand abstract terms such as pity and justice, and his capacity for both inductive and deductive reasoning shows a marked and continuous increase during adolescence. As a result of this growth in capacity, he becomes able to understand and react to more abstract and more generalized propositions, ideas and ideals.

At the age of four or five years, three characteristics especially deserve mention. These are curiosity, centra-suggestibility, and independence. The child at this age is likely to express his curiosity by asking an endless series of questions.

Adolescence is marked especially by the maturation of sex emotions and by the development of altruism and co-operativeness. These in large measure furnish the basis for the formation of attitudes that differentiate adults from children. Boys at the age of twelve years may have a distant interest in girls and they may even have crushes on particular girls, but their interest is quite different from what it will be some years later.

2. PHYSICAL FACTORS

Clinical psychologists have generally recognised that physical health and vitality are important factors in determining adjustment, and frequently it has been found that malnutrition or disease or accidents have interfered so seriously with normal development that serious behaviour disturbances have followed.

3. HOME INFLUENCES

It is generally accepted that attitudes are determined largely by social environment and that home influences are especially important.

4. THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

The home environment is of primary importance in the formation of early attitudes, but friends, associates and the general social environment come to have an increasing influence as the child grows older and has wider social contacts.

5. GOVERNMENT

The form of the government seems to be an important factor in determining attitudes both towards government itself and towards other things.

6. MOVIE PICTURES

Attendance at movie pictures constitutes another important possible influence in determination of attitudes. Thurstone concluded that films definitely change social

attitudes, although only about 10 per cent of the attitudes studied seemed to be affected by movie attendance.

7. THE TEACHER

Brown asked 300 graduate and undergraduate students in educational sociology to evaluate the various factors in their school experience that had been influential in the formation of personality and character traits. According to their judgement, the personalities of their teachers had been the most important single factor, 65.3 per cent thought this influence had been good, but 33.3 per cent thought it had been unfavourable. Only about 10 per cent did not consider, the teacher's influence important.

8. THE CURRICULUM

Thorndike asked 155 teachers to rate eleven subjects and activities on the basis of what they considered the value of these to be or the training of character. Teaching has the highest rank, but athletic sports come next. English literature and history have the best ranks for the regular school subjects; mathematics and foreign languages are ranked much lower. This indicates that, in the opinion of this group of teachers, literature and the social sciences have more influence than other subjects on the determination of attitudes. This seems a reasonable view and it suggests that the units of work and the readings in these areas should be selected with particular reference to their probable influence on the attitudes formed by the students.

9. TEACHING METHODS

One of the categories in Brown's study was "*manner of presentation*" of subject matter. This was judged to have a favourable effect by 8.0 per cent of the students and an unfavourable effect by 17.7 per cent.

Development of Attitude

Attitudes are not mere accidents of individual experience. They result from day-to-day living in the home, in the school, and in the community. Whatever attitude children develop can be traced, in part atleast, to the effect upon them, of teacher precept and example. The challenge to teacher is that of helping the learner retain his identity,

develop his individuality and absorb a background of democratic culture. Theoretically all education is aimed at helping learners develop to the full extent of their ability and those attitudes that fit them for living constructively in a democratic society.

Attitudes are formed without direction and also by direction as the result of careful planning by a person or persons who desire to encourage the development of certain attitudes in others. One function of school is that of stimulating young people towards acquisition of attitudes that are individually and socially desirable. It is through initiation, emotional experience and deliberate efforts on the part of the individual himself, teacher, and other and new attitudes arise.

Child is a great initiator and builds its most of attitudes in that way. Adolescent develops attitude by his enlarging adjustment problems with expanding groups. The environment to which he is exposed influences the attitude either desirable or undesirably. Radio, television, film and printed matter contribute to the attitude development. Thus, there are so many factors that influence the adults to develop attitudes.

AEX 101
RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY WITH
RELATION TO EXTENSION EDUCATION (1+1)

COURSE TEACHER
Dr. K.C. RAVI, Ph.D.,



DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION AND RURAL SOCIOLOGY
CENTRE FOR AGRICULTURAL AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
TAMIL NADU AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY
COIMBATORE-641 003.

