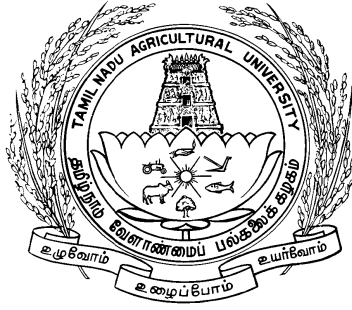


**Reading Manual on  
EXTENSION EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT  
MANAGEMENT**



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# 1. EXTENSION EDUCATION- SCOPE AND IMPORTANCE

## Extension - Meaning:

The word extension is derived from the latin roots 'ex' - meaning 'out' and 'tensio' meaning 'stretching'. Stretching out is the meaning of extension . The word 'extension' came to be used originally in USA during 1914 which means "a branch of a university for students who cannot attend the university proper". In other words, the word extension signifies an out of school system of education.

Education is an integral part of extension. The basic concept of extension is that it is education. The basic concept of extension is that it is education. Extension means that type of education which is stretched out to the people in rural areas, beyond the limits of the educational institutions to which the formal type of education is normally confined.

**EDUCATION:** It is the production of desirable changes in knowledge (things known), attitude(things felt), and skills(things done), either in all (or) one or more of human behavior.

## Types of Education

- a) *Informal Education* - Is the life long process by which every person acquires knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment at home, at work, at play etc.
- b) *Non-formal Education* - Is an organised, systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, including adults and children. Eg.: Adult Education, Vocational education, functional literacy, continuing education, Extension Education etc.
- c) *Formal Education* - Is highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured 'education starting from primary school and reaching upto University education.

**Extension Education** - According to J.P.Leagans, extension education is an applied science consist of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural sciences, synthesized with useful technology into a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focussed on the problems of out-of-school for adults and youth.

Extension Education is the process of teaching rural people how to live better by learning ways that improve their farm, home and community institutions.

Extension Education differs from formal education in a number of ways. Some of them are

### **Formal Education**

1. Teaching is largely confined to the premises of the institution
2. Learners are homogenous with common goals.
3. There is a fixed curriculum, students are examined and degrees are awarded
4. Knowledge flows from teacher to the learners (vertical)
5. Approach is from principles to problems

### **Extension Education**

It is largely outside the four walls of the institution

Learners are heterogenous and have diverse goals.

No fixed curriculum, it is flexible depending on the needs of the learners. No examinations are conducted and no degrees are awarded.

The extension worker also learns from those who he teaches (horizontal). He teaches through local leaders.

Approach is from problem to principles.

### **Scope of Extension Education**

Extension appears to have unlimited scope in situations where there is need for creating awareness amongst the people and changing their behavior by informing and educating them.

Kelsey and Hearne (1967) identified nine areas of programme emphasis, which indicate the scope of agricultural extension.

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

Extension is an integral part of agricultural and rural development programmes in India. The progress in production which has been achieved in agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, veterinary, fishery, social forestry, sericulture etc., may be thought of as proportional to the strength of extension service of the relevant government departments. The following statements will further amplify the scope of extension.

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

The need for extension arises out of the fact that the condition of the rural people in general, and the farm people in particular, has got to be improved. There is a gap between what is-the actual situation and what ought to be- the desirable situation. This gap has to be narrowed down mainly by the application of science and technology in their behavior

According to Supe (1987) the researchers neither have the time nor are they equipped for the job of persuading the villagers to adopt scientific methods and to ascertain from them the rural problems. Similarly it is difficult for all the farmers to visit the research stations and obtain first hand information. Thus there is need for an agency to interpret the findings of the research to the farmers and to carry the problems of the farmers to research of solution. This gap is filled by the extension agency.

## **2. PRINCIPLES, PHILOSOPHY AND PROCESS OF EXTENSION EDUCATION**

According to Mildred Horton (1952), the four great principles underlying extension services are:

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

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

### **Principles underlying the Philosophy of Extension**

1. Extension is an organisation to plan, execute and evaluate programmes with the people, and not for the people.
2. Extension is an organisation set up to teach people and motivate them to action, not to dictate what people should do.
3. Extension should help people to help themselves.
4. Extension should be based on felt needs and enlightened desires of the people.
5. Extension should reach the people where they are.
6. Extension aims and objectives should not be rigid but it should be flexible (Time, date etc.)
7. Extension should change the people and not the subject matter.
8. Extension should work in harmony with the culture of the people.
9. Democratic procedures must be adopted in the formulation and execution of the programmes (group ideas only)
10. The designated programmes should give greatest benefit to greatest number of people in a society.

## **Philosophy of Extension**

Philosophy is the pursuit of wisdom, a body of general principles or laws of a field of knowledge. Philosophy of a particular discipline would furnish the principles or guidelines with which to shape or mould the programmes or activities relating to that discipline.

The philosophy of extension work is based on the importance of an individual in the promotion of progress for rural people and for the nation. Extension Educators should work with people to help them, develop themselves and achieve superior well-being. The basic philosophy of extension work that is directed at conversion of the whole man determines the approach that must be adopted for its implementation. Compulsion or even a beneficent act does not necessarily improve the man. The only way to secure cooperation of a person for betterment is to educate him. Therefore the primary aim is to transform the people by bringing about desired changes in their knowledge, attitude and skills.

According to Kelsey and Hearne (1967) the basic philosophy of extension education is to teach people how to think, not what to think. Extension's specific job is furnishing the inspiration, supplying specific advice the technical help, and counseling to see that the people as individuals, families, groups and communities work together as a unit in "blueprinting" their own problems, charting their own courses, and that they launch forth to achieve their objectives. Sound extension philosophy is always looking ahead.

## **Extension Educational Process**

An effective extension educational programme involves five essential and interrelated steps. This concept of the extension educational process is intended only to clarify the steps necessary in carrying out a planned educational effort. It does not imply that these steps are definitely separate from each other. Experience shows that planning, teaching and evaluation take place continuously, in varying degrees, throughout all phases of extension activities.

**First step:** The first step consists of collection of facts and analysis of the situation. Facts about the people and their enterprises; the economic, social, cultural, physical and technological environment in which they live and work. These may be obtained by appropriate survey and establishing rapport with the people.

The responses obtained are to be analyzed with the local people to identify the problems and resources available in the community. For example, after a survey in a community and analysis of the data, the problem was identified as low income of the farm family from their crop production enterprise.

**Second step:** The next step is deciding on realistic objectives which may be accomplished by the community. A limited number of objectives should be selected by involving the local people. The objectives should be specific and clearly stated, and on

completion should bring satisfaction to the community. Objectives should state the behavioural changes in people as well as economic and social outcomes desired.

In the example, the problem was identified as low income from the crop production enterprise. A deeper probe into the date revealed that low income was due to low yield of crops, which was attributed to the use of local seeds with low yield potential, application of little fertilizer and lack of protection measures. By taking into consideration the capacity and competency of the people in the community and the availability of resources, the objective was set up to increase the crop yield by 20 per cent within a certain period of time. It was estimated that the increased yield shall bring increased income, which shall enhance the family welfare.

**Third step:** The third step is teaching, which involves choosing what should be taught (the content) and how the people should be taught the methods and aids to be used. It requires selecting research findings of economic and practical importance relevant to the community, and selection and combination of appropriate teaching methods and aids.

Based on the problems identified in the particular example, technologies like use of HYV seeds, application of fertilizer and plant protection chemicals were selected as teaching content. Result demonstration, method demonstration, farmers' training and farm publications were chosen as teaching methods, and tape recorder and slides were selected as teaching aids.

**Fourth step:** The fourth step is evaluating the teaching i.e., determining the extent to which the objectives have been reached. To evaluate the results of an educational programme objectively, it is desirable to conduct a re-survey. The evidence of changed behavior should be collected, which shall not only provide a measure of success, but shall also indicate the deficiencies, if any.

In the example, the re-survey after the fixed period of time, indicated that the crop yield had increased by 10 percent. It, therefore, indicated that there was a gap of 10 per cent in crop yield in comparison to the target (objective) of 20 per cent fixed earlier. The re-survey also indicated that there had been two important deficiencies in carrying out the extension educational program, such as, there was lack of proper water management and the farmers could not apply the fertilizer and plant protection chemicals as per recommendation due to lack of funds.

**Fifth step:** The fifth step is re-consideration of the entire extension educational programme on the light of the results of evaluation. The problems identified in the process of evaluation may become the starting point for the next phase of the extension educational programme, unless new problems have developed or new situations have arisen.

After re-consideration of the results of evaluation with the people, the following teaching objectives were again set up. For example, they were, training the farmers on proper water management practices and putting up demonstrations on water management.

The people were also advised to contact the banks for obtaining production credit in time to purchase critical inputs.

Thus, the continuous process of extension education shall go on, resulting in progress of the people from a less desirable to a more desirable situation.

### **Objectives of Extension:**

Objectives are expression of the ends towards which our efforts are directed.

**Fundamental objective:** The fundamental objective of extension is the development of the people or the "Destination man". In other words, it is to develop the rural people economically, socially and culturally by means of education.

Eg.: To increase socio-economic status and standard of living of Indian farming Community.

**General objectives (Function):** The general objectives of the extension are-

1. To assist people to discover and analyse their problems, their felt and unfelt needs.
2. To develop leadership among people and help them in organising groups to solve their problems.
3. To disseminate information based on research and /or practical experience, in such a manner that the people would accept it and put it into actual practice.
4. To keep the research workers informed of the peoples' problems from time to time, so that they may offer solutions based on necessary research.
5. To assist people in mobilising and utilizing the resources which they have and which they need from outside.

Eg.: To increase the a production and productivity of Paddy in India.

**Working objectives:** Is one which focuses on specific activity of a specific group in a selected geographic area.

Eg.: To increase the yield of PKM-1 of the tomato among the tomato growers of Madhukkarai block in Coimbatore District.

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

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



### 3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT

#### The Concept of Rural Development

**Rural** - Is an area, where the people are engaged in primary industry in the sense that they produce things directly for the first time in cooperation with nature as stated by Srivastava (1961).

A society or community can be classified as rural based on the criteria of lower population density, less social differentiation, less social and spatial mobility, slow rate of social change, etc. Agriculture would be the major occupation of rural area.

**Development:** It refers to growth, evolution, stage of inducement or progress. This progress or growth is gradual and had sequential phases. Always there is increasing differentiation. It also refers to the over all movement towards greater efficiency and complex situations.

**Rural Development (RD) :** is a process which aims at improving the well being and self-realisation of people living outside the urbanized areas through collective process.

According to Agarwal (1989), rural development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of rural poor.

#### Scope and Importance of Rural Development

Rural development is a dynamic process which is mainly concerned with the rural areas. These include agricultural growth, putting up of economic and social infrastructure, fair wages as also housing and house sites for the landless, village planning, public health, education and functional literacy, communication etc.

Rural development is a national necessity and has considerable importance in India because of the following reasons.

1. about three-fourth of India's population live in rural areas,
2. nearly half of the country's national income is derived from agriculture,
3. around seventy per cent of Indian population get employment through agriculture,
4. bulk of raw materials for industries come from agriculture and rural sector,
5. increase in industrial population can be justified only in rural populations' motivation and increasing the purchasing power to buy industrial goods, and
6. growing disparity between the urban elite and the rural poor can lead to political instability.

## **Objectives**

The major objectives of rural development are:

- 1) to achieve enhanced production and productivity in rural areas,
- 2) to bring about a greater socio-economic equity,
- 3) to bring about a spatial balance in social and economic development,
- 4) to bring about improvement in the ecological environment so that it may be conducive to growth and happiness, and
- 5) to develop broad based community participation in the process of development.

## **4. PRE-INDEPENDENCE RURAL DEVELOPMENT EFFORTS**

### **Objectives and Importance**

Over a period of about seventy years number of rural development experiments and programmes were conducted in India. Long before the introduction of the Government managed extension system at the national level in 1952, there had been sporadic attempts in developing the rural life. A knowledge of the early extension efforts shall serve as a useful background in understanding the development of systems of extension in India.

The early extension efforts had two distinct patterns. First, there were attempts by some benevolent persons and private agencies to improve rural life. Second, attempts were made at government level to initiate some projects to solve the pressing problems in agriculture.

When these experiments were conducted there existed certain conditions like, agriculture was the primary occupation to a large percentage of population, extremely low purchasing power, lack of application of science and technologies, lack of understanding about the natural resources especially the flora and fauna of the region and their commercial usage, lack of socio-economic organisations, etc. These realities are to be remembered before understanding the past rural development works. When these experiment were conducted, colonial rule was existing.

### **Merits and Demerits:**

These programmes and experiments were conducted at different points of time, in different regions, and under different politico-socio-economic conditions. They varied in area, population coverage, financial and other resources. They were designed according to the policy makers perception of problems and needs of people. Therefore common

evaluation is not possible and each experiment for programme is to be studied independently for its approach, performance, effectiveness against the stated objectives, etc.

The projects had one or the other shortcomings which may be summed up as follows:

1. Most of the efforts were based on individual initiative.
2. Government backing and financing were not forthcoming.
3. All attempts were isolated, uneven and discontinuous.
4. Staff were mostly inexperienced and untrained.
5. Plans and programmes were ill-defined and unbalanced.
6. Need for proper methods and skills for approach was not realised.
7. No evaluation was carried out, hence the results were not known.
8. Association and coordination other development departments were very limited
9. Involvement of the people in planning and execution i.e. finding out the problems and their solutions was very limited.

### **Sriniketan Project (1914)**

Shri Rabindra Nath Tagore wanted to develop a centre to extend his ideas on education in a rural setting. During 1914 he established a rural reconstruction institute at Sriniketan involving youth from a group of 8 villages. It maintained a demonstration farm, a dairy and poultry unit, an outdoor clinic, a department of cottage industries and a village school. These agencies were to treat the villages as their laboratory to identify problems and test their ideas. The villages were expected to approach these agencies through the village workers to obtain solution of their more pressing problems. These social workers lived in the villages and worked with the people.

At Sriniketan centre, agriculture, dairy and poultry were the foremost activities. Scheme of land development and tree plantation were given due importance. Experiment on paddy, sugarcane and cotton were undertaken. Improved seeds, vegetable seedlings, fruit grafts and saplings were distributed. New breeds of cattle were introduced. Local artisans were trained in cottage industries. Other activities were village scout movement, village developmental council, health, cooperatives, circulating library and village fairs.

### **Drawbacks**

1. This institute could not get Government help and support.
2. It could not do research work and hence the programmes remained limited to those 8 villages only.

### **ECONOMIC CONFERENCE OF MYSORE**

This programme was operated in Mysore state of the present Karnataka in the year 1914-1918. The objectives were: 1) achieve all round progress, 2) bringing related

economic development, and 3) give first priority to agriculture. District and taluk committees with the respective revenue officers were the officials responsible with a chairman. The officers of the development departments and the selected non-officials were members.

The committee surveyed the needs and possibilities, listed them, fixed the priorities and suggested the means for attaining them. But this programme was discontinued due to the immense work load to the officials and non-involvement of the people in the programme.

### **MARTHANDAM PROJECT (1921)**

During 1921 under the auspices of YMCA, Marthandam project was started at Travancore in Kerala by Dr. Spencer Hatch, an American agricultural expert specialized in sociology. Fundamental aim of this programme was five fold development of physical, spiritual, mental, economic and social, Dr.Hatch implemented an all round development in agriculture, public health and education.

In this centre prize bulls and goats, model bee-hives, demonstration plots for improving grain and vegetable seeds, poultry with prize laying hens, a weaving shed, etc. were maintained.

It also worked for improving literacy. On weekly market day it set up a portable tent with teaching equipments, and exhibits with better poultry and livestock. The centre also promoted the cooperative. The society developed the improved breeds of egg layers and good bees. It assisted the people for marketing their produces through cooperative organisations. In 1939, the egg selling cooperative society become a self-governing body. Another society 'honey club' was also formed. This society cured the honey brought by villagers and marketed cooperatively. There were bull clubs, weavers' clubs, etc. These cooperative organisations are still continued by YMCA and the rural development is taken up intensively.

### **SARVODAYA MOVEMENT**

It was a Gandhian concept and evoked great enthusiasm in Bombay since 1948-49. The main features were simplicity, non-violence, sanctity of labour and reconstruction of human values. It aimed in raising the standard of living, scientific development of agriculture, promotion of cottage industries, spread of literacy, medical and health facilities and the development of village panchayats.

### **GURGAON PROJECT (1920)**

Towards the end of 1920 F.L.Brayne, an Englishman, was posted as Deputy Commissioner of Gurgaon district. After his assumption of the charge he studied the area by touring and observed that the people were extremely poor, dirty and unhealthy, with no conscious desire for any better because they had no idea that anything better was

possible. After seven years of study he developed a scheme called "The Gurgaon scheme" with the following objectives:

- to jerk the villagers out of their old groove and convince them that improvement is possible;
- he must be laughed out of his economic and unhealthy customs and taught better ways of living and farming.

He took the whole district as the field of operation and approached the area with every form of propaganda and publicity.

Under his programme village guides were posted in each village, who acted as the channel to pass on the information to villagers. The programme introduced improved seeds, implements, methods of cultivation, etc. The activities introduced by Brayne were:

1. A school of rural economy to train the village guides in 1925.
2. A domestic school of economy to train groups of women under women and children welfare work in 1926.
3. Health association, which ran five health centres in the district.
4. A women's Institute at Gurgaon to manage the ladies' garden in Gurgaon.

As the village guides were not technical men, only very little could be achieved.

### **Indian Village Service (1945)**

Arther T. Mosher of New York and B.N.Gupta established it in 1945. The objectives were to assist village people to realise the best in their own village by developing individuals, volunteer leaders and local agencies, and establishing them to be effective in helping themselves and others. It was mainly to assist the government in villages.

For the realisation of these objectives the organisation adopted the techniques of personal contact, informal group discussion, use of volunteers, demonstrations, use and production of visual aids, exhibitions, tours, dramas, books, periodicals etc. It was financially supported by the contribution and donations.

### **ETAWAH PILOT PROJECT (1948)**

This project was started in 1948 by Mr. Albert Mayer of USA who came to India as a warrior at a village called Mahewa in UP. A pilot project for development of Etawah district in UP was formulated by him with the following objectives.

1. To know the degree of productive and social improvements, through self confidence and cooperatives;
2. To find how quickly these results could be attained;

3. To know whether the results remain permanent even after the special pressure is withdrawn; and
4. To assess how far the results were reproductive in other places.

In the project, development officers at various levels were posted. At village level, there was a 'multi-purpose' village level worker (VLW) with four or five villages under him. The entire project was sponsored and funded by the Government of UP.

This programme works were, by and large, similar to earlier projects; introduction of improved variety seeds, chemical fertilizers, improved implements, plant protection measures, horticultural development, soil conservation, improved cultural practices and the like. There were projects in animal husbandry, cooperation, credit provision, marketing and supply, improvements of roads, water supply, drainage etc. There were adult literacy programmes, tour for farmers, village leader training camps, mass contact programmes, etc.

The project total expenditure was 1.54 million rupees. Of this total expenditure only 1.3 per cent was on grants-in-aid and subsidy. This was very little share. It also did not distribute materials of any kind at free of cost to the people. The emphasis was self-help. Advice alone was free.

Initially the work was started in 64 villages. After an year the number of villages covered by the project went up to 97. In 1951, another 125 villages were included. Finally this project was merged with the National Extension Service (NES) block.

The most convincing achievement of this project was in agriculture, particularly in wheat production due to adoption of improved production technologies. This project solved the problem of unemployment and under-employments. There was 53.3 per cent expenditure on capital works, which resulted in making available of good roads, and other structures. Success gained in Etawah could not be maintained after Mayer's departure in 1957.

### **NILOKHERI PROJECT (1948)**

Started during 1948 under the leadership of S.K.Dey. Its primary purpose was to develop a new township to rehabilitate displaced persons from West Pakistan. The project was built in a swampy barren land by refugees 'self help and governments' assistance, located around the vocational training centre on the highway of Delhi and Ambala.

Dey launched the new scheme called 'Mazdoor Manzil' for construction of township at Nilokheri. This scheme gave the people (1) training on Agricultural implements preparation, (2) cottage industries (3) carpentry etc. It was based on self-sufficiency for rural cum urban in all essential requirements of life. Later this township was subsequently handed over to the Government of Punjab. After the bifurcation of Punjab, Nilokheri went to Haryana state.

## **Grow More Food Campaign (GMFC - 1947)**

GMFC was launched during 1947 to increase agricultural production. Under this programme additional staff were provided at district and subdivisional levels. But even after four years of working of this programme, it was observed that the system was not functioning properly and cultivators' response towards the programme was very poor. Moreover all departments for rural development were working in isolation and teaching the people directly and without any close coordination of development departments was felt and strongly emphasised in 1949. A committee was again appointed to enquire about the working of this programme and suggest ways and means to improve it.

## **GMFC Enquiry Committee Report (1952)**

The main recommendations of this committee were

- (i) The administrative machinery of Government should be recognized and equipped for the efficient discharge of duties imposed on it under the new concept of India as a 'welfare state'.
- (ii) The best non-official leaders available should be mobilised for guiding the 60 million farm families in the villages in their effort to improve their own conditions.
- (iii) An extension organisation should be set up for rural work which would reach farmer and assist in the coordinated development of all aspects of rural life.
- (iv) The pattern of staffing should consist of a BDO,. Four technical officers and 12 VLW for a taluk with an average of 120 villages.
- (v) The development activities at the district level will be under the collector assisted by specialists. The non-official side will consists of a District Board to which MPs and MLAs should be added as members.
- (vi) At the state level, there should be a cabinet. The development commissioner should be incharge of the entire rural development programmes; and
- (vii) The economic aspect of village life can't be detached from broader social aspect. Agriculture improved in every respect linked up with a whole set of social problems. All aspects of life are inter-related and no lasting results can be achieved if individual aspects of it are dealt with in isolation.

## **The Weakness (Demerits) of Early Rural Experiments**

It may be noted that nearly all early attempts at village uplift were characterised by initial enthusiasm, the attainment of many desirable objectives, followed by a period

of declining activity and usually ending in abandonment of the scheme. This failure has been due to the following factors:

1. The attempts were mostly based on individual initiative inspired by humanitarian considerations.
2. Government backing and financial support was not forth-coming in sufficient measure.
3. The attempts were mostly isolated, uneven and discontinuous.
4. The staff employed was inadequate, inexperienced, untrained and hurriedly selected, ignorant of local conditions who could hardly command any respect or influence in the village.
5. The objectives were ill-defined or lopsided in their development. Little attempt was made to study the peculiar conditions of the villages and to adapt the programme to its need.
6. Plans, programmes and organisations were lacking, weak or unbalanced.
7. Parallel programmes of supplies, services, guidance and supervision were not developed.
8. The need for proper methods and skills of approach to the task was not fully realised.
9. Research and evaluation was lacking.
10. Association and co-ordination with other development departments was very limited.
11. The involvement of village people in thinking, placing and executing village development was not properly achieved.

From the results of the past efforts we can learn that public participation is an integral part of any programme for its success. This can very well be brought out by extension education only.

## **5. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

**Community:** is a group of people who live in a geographical area and have an interest in each other for the purpose of making a living.

**Development:** connotes growth or maturation. It implies gradual and sequential phases of change. It refers to the upward or increasing differentiation.

**Community Development:** It is a movement designed to promote better living for the community with the active participation and/or the initiative at the community.

It is a method by which people of villages are involved in helping to improve their own economic and social conditions and thereby they become more effective groups in programmes of their national development.

It is a process of change by which people's efforts are united with those of group authorities to improve their economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national programmes.



## **Genesis of Community Development Programme (CDP - 1952)**

Based on the experiences within the country and abroad, the recommendations of the Fiscal Commission (1949) and the Grow More Food Enquiry Committee (1952) the CDP was launched on October 2, 1952, the birth-day of Mahatma Gandhi.

At the initial stage in 1952 there were 55 community projects in 3 blocks. Each of the community development project covered an area of about 450-500 sq.miles with about 300 villages and a population of about 2 lakhs. Each project area has been divided into three development blocks. A development block consisted of about 100 villages with about 150-170 sq.miles and a population of about 60-70 thousands. Each block was further divided into groups of 5-10 villages each. Each such group formed the area of operation for a village level worker (Gram Sevak) who was the basic level extension functionary in the community development programme.

The need for rapid extension of the programme to other parts of the country led to the National Extension Service (NES) along side the CDP on October 2, 1953 covering the entire country within a period of 10 years.

In 1957, the Balvantroy Mehta team recommended the establishment of statutory elective of local leaders i.e., Panchayat Raj Institutions (Village Panchayat, Panchayat Union and District Development Council). This programme laid emphasis on all round development of the whole community with special emphasis on weaker and under privileged sections through the use of area development, self-help and integrated approaches. The CDP, however, could not bring expected change in improving the conditions of rural masses or there was not much development in the area of agricultural development.

## **Objectives of Community Development in India**

The fundamental or basic objective of Community Development in India is the development of people of "Destination Man".

Its broad objectives are (I) economic development, (ii) social justice and (iii) democratic growth. The attempt is to secure as good a balance as possible among these three objectives and to inter-relate them in a manner that they support one another.

More specifically, objectives of the Community Development Programme are:

- i) To assist each village in having effective panchayats, cooperatives and schools;
- ii) Through these village institutions, plan and carry out integrated multi-phased family, village, Block and District.
  - a) increasing agricultural production.
  - b) Improving existing village crafts and industries and organising new ones.

- c) Providing minimum essential health services and improving health practices.
- d) Providing required educational facilities for children and an adult education programme.
- e) Providing recreational facilities and programmes.
- f) Improving housing and family living conditions, and
- g) Providing programmes for village women and youth.

### **Administration of CDP - prior to Panchayat Raj**

**National level:** For implementation of CDP at the national level there was a central committee with Prime Minister as Chairman. This committee was to lay down broad policies and to provide general supervision. It was also responsible for economic development. It was assisted by an Advisory Board consisting of the secretaries of developmental departments of central ministries. Under central committee there was Community Projects Administration (CPA). At the beginning CPA was very small and it grew up as a big organisation. Therefore, from September 20, 1956 a separate central ministry was created known as ministry of community development.

This Ministry was overall in-charge of the programme. This department prepared national basis programmes, budgeting, directing and coordinating throughout the country.

**State level:** There was a State Development Committee or a similar body. This body was entrusted with the execution of CDP and NES. This committee was presided over by the chief minister and consists of all ministers of development departments. The Development Commissioner acted as Secretary to this committee. This Development Commissioner had three-fold functions.

- I) He had two functions with the centre. He had to receive kprogramme guidance from the centre and report progress and suggestions to the centre .
- II) He coordinated the programme at block levels. He also assure proper and adequate supervision.
- III) He maintained an administration relationship with the District Collector who in turn is responsible for planning, coordination, executing and evaluating the work of each block in his district.

**District level :** At district level the district collector is the chairman of the district planning of Development Committee. He is assisted in carrying out this development responsibilities by BDOs. The district Development Committee consists of all Heads of Department in the district. It has both officials and non officials as members.

**Block level:** At Block level BDO is assisted by a team of experts in agriculture, cooperation, animal husbandry, cottage industries, etc. These technical personnel are assigned with the development works at block level. Block Development Committee consists of representatives of panchayats, cooperatives, progressive farmers, social workers, MPs and MLAs of the area.

**Village level:** VLW or Gram Sevak acts as a multipurpose man at village level. Each Gram Sevak is incharge of about 7 or 10 villages. He is incharge of both village and family development. He is guided and assisted by various technical specialists at the block level. He is the last official administrative person in the administrative chain for carrying out this nation-wide programme for village development.

As seen, at every level along with the official setup, non-officials participation has also been emphasised. This programme is often called as a "peoples' programme". There is great stress on the peoples' participation not merely in the execution of the programme but also in its planning.

According to Nehru a Panchayat, a cooperative and a school are the three essentials for an Indian village. Panchayat deal with political affairs, cooperative with the economic affairs and school with education. With these three village institutions Indian villages are built on a strong foundation.

### **National Extension Services (NES-1953)**

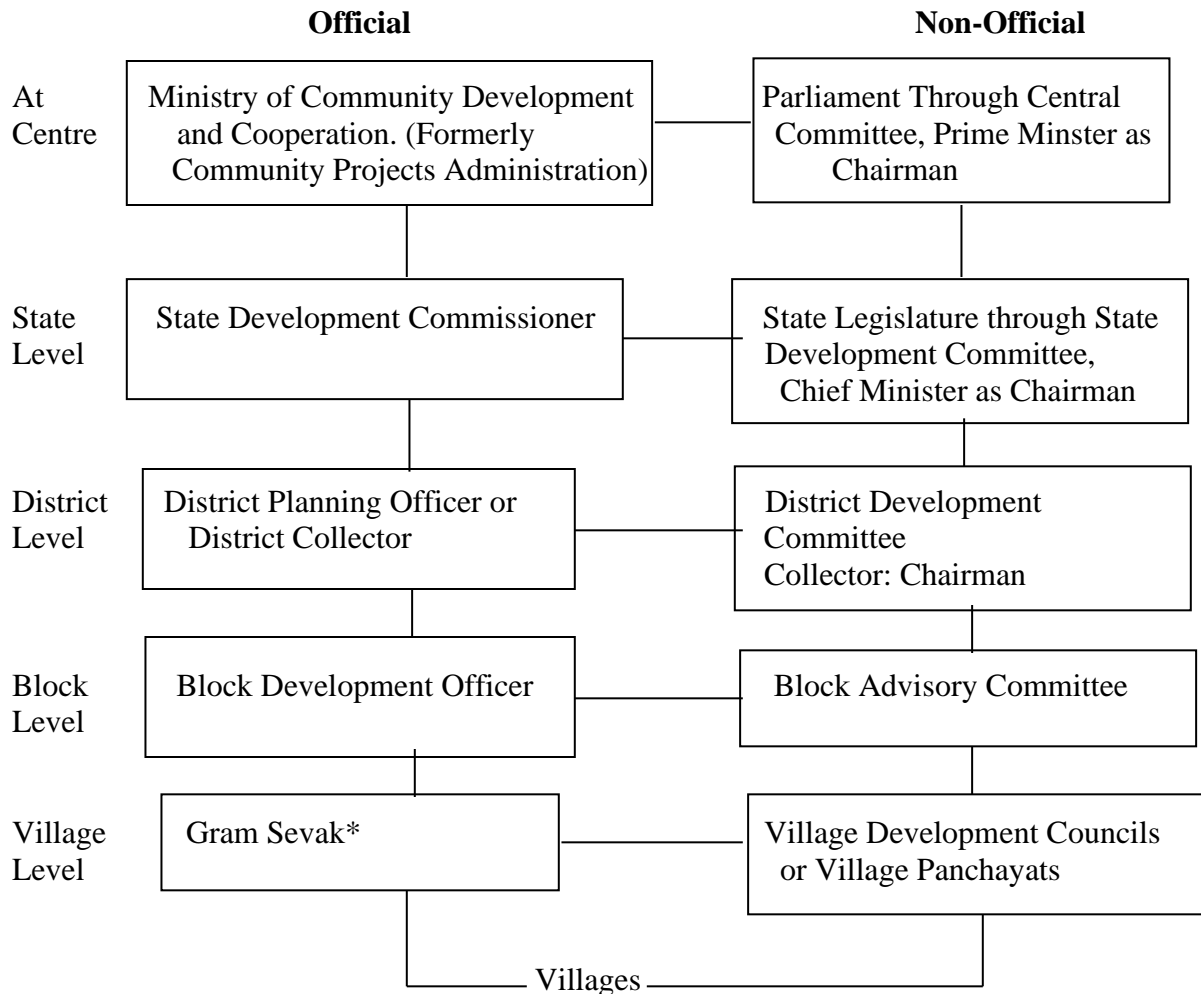
NES was implemented from 2.10.1953. This was implemented in the areas which were not covered by CDP, so that entire country would get the benefit of development. When compared to CDP, the NES was less intensive in character.

Since CDP and NES had the same basic ideas, they were integrated both at the centre and state. With effect from April, 1958 there was no distinction between CD blocks and NES. All NES blocks became CD blocks was achieved by October 1963.

NES covered almost all the villages in the country; For this national programme apart from the existing system, a new administrative organisation was built. At central level Planning Commission itself headed by PM acted for direction and coordination of development. It was assisted by an advisory board comprising of secretaries of several Central Ministries concerned. An administrator for CDP was appointed to work under the control of the Central Committee for the overall management of the programme.

At state level, a state development committee under the chief minister was set-up with several ministers as its members. It was assisted by the state level advisory board with development department secretaries. A development commissioner was responsible for management of the programme.

### CD/NES organizational pattern prior to Panchayat Raj (upto 1.11.1959)



\*In Andhra Pradesh, the designation of "Village Level Workers" has been changed as Village Development Officer".

At district level, there was a district development council (DDC), headed by the District Collector. Various district level development officers, as well as non-officials such as legislative etc., direction of development commissioner is responsible for implementing all the projects within the district.

Project advisory committee in the block was headed by Block Development Officer (BDO). Several officials and non-officials are the members of this committee. Blocks were formed with the cutting edge of about 100 villages with an approximate population of 60,000 to 80,000. District Committee to guide and support BDO to implement the multi dimensional development project. The BDO was assisted by a number of extension officers representing agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperative, industries, health, social education etc.

The Block was divided into a number of circles of villages and a multi-purpose village level worker was appointed at each circle to motivate, guide and assist rural people to improve their social and economic conditions. A few multi-purpose women workers (gram sevikas) were also appointed to motivate and help rural women.

The central government provided substantial grants to state governments so as to augment their resources for allocation of funds to each development block. On the completion of first five years of the programme, the planning Commission appointed a high-ranking study team headed by Balvant Rai Mehta, Chief Minister of Gujarat. This team pointed out both positive results and inadequacies in the implementation of the programme.

The study team made a significant recommendation with implementation of a programme. According to it there should be effective administrative decentralisation for the implementation of the programme. The decentralised administration was to be placed under the control of elected and integrated local self-government system ordinarily of 3 tiered bodies from village level to block level and then to district level. This democratic decentralised system was named as "Panchayat Raj". CDP was by and large bureaucratised management.

#### **Objectives of NES :**

- (i) to change the outlook of village people;
- (ii) to make the people participate effectively in development programmes;
- (iii) to develop village leaders accepted by all; and
- (iv) to increase the employment and production.

#### **Defects of CD/NES**

- (i) Uneven distribution of benefits;
- (ii) Absence of clear-cut priorities;
- (iii) Lack of self reliance and mutual aids; and
- (iv) Inadequate emphasis on development of cottage and small scale industries and agriculture.

### **6. PANCHAYAT RAJ**

The realization that peoples' participation is crucial for successful implementation of programmes like CD and NES, was brought to sharp focus through the report of the team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension Service by Balvantray G.Mehta (1957). The Committee observed that one of the least successful aspects of CD

and NES work is its attempt to evoke popular initiative and recommended democratic decentralization.

### **Democratic Decentralisation**

The word 'democracy' is derived from the Greek 'demos' means 'the people'; 'cracy' means 'rule of'. It is the 'rule of people'. It is governance of the people, by the people, for the people. The rule by majority is an important feature of this programme.

Decentralisation means devolution of central authority among local units close to the areas served. Where authority devolves by this process on people's institution, it is 'democratic decentralisation'.

The State of Madras tried this as a pilot project as early as 1957. Based on the success in this State it was Rajasthan which became the pioneer to bring the whole state under democratic decentralisation on Oct. 2, 1959.

### **PANCHAYAT RAJ - Meaning**

The concept 'democratic decentralisation' was not easily understood by the people. Therefore, as decided by the then Prime Minister the three-tier administration was introduced in the name of "Panchayat Raj". Panchayat Raj means the system of Government. Horizontally it is a network of village panchayats. Vertically, it is an organic growth of panchayat rising upto national level.

Panchayat Raj was easily accepted because it meant administration by mutual consultation, consent and consensus. It fitted closely into the ancient cultural patterns in India.

### **Three tiers of Panchayat Raj**

**The Gram Panchayat:** The first formal democratic institution under the directive principle in the Indian constitution is the Gram Panchayat or Panchayat. It is the primary unit of local self-government. Panchayat is a cabinet of the village elders, directly elected by the adult citizens of the village.

Gram Panchayats are constituted considering their income, population and area. The income varies from mere Rs.500/- kper annum to more than Rs.2.00 lakhs. The population varies from 500 to 25,000. The panchayat membership varies from 5 to 17. There is provision for reservation of seats for women and SC and STs. The panchayat has a tenure of five years and is directly elected. The meeting is to be convened atleast once in six months. It has income through taxes to perform its functions. The main functions of Panchayats are:

- (i) representative function, where the main role is to voice and represent the opinion;
- (ii) regulatory and administrative functions, which consists of regulating the conduct of individuals and institutions and also collection of taxes;

- (iii) service or developmental function, such as promotion of education, health, agriculture, etc.

**The Panchayat Samithi or Panchayat Union:** This is the second tier of the administration at Block level. It consists of Panchayat Union Chairman, presidents of all panchayats in the area, local MLAs, MLCs, MPs etc., with the right to vote, but not to hold office and nominated persons. Reservation and cooperation are given for women, SCs and STs and persons with experience in administration and public life.

Block Development Officer is appointed by the Government. He functions as the leader of the Block.

### **Functions of the Block**

- (1) It has to instill among people within its jurisdiction a spirit of self-help and initiative and work for raising the standard of living;
- (2) It has to support for the implementation of development programmes;
- (3) It has the welfare and development activities in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, health, sanitation, elementary education, cottage industries and social.
- (4) It has to use the village housing project funds and loans.

### **District Development Council (Zila Parishad)**

This is the third tier of Panchayat Raj functioning at district level. The members are all Panchayat Union Chairman, District Collector, MLAs, MLCs, MPs of the district with right to vote but not to hold office and women, SC, ST and persons interested in rural development are also given representation. District Collector leads the work with the help of District Development Officers.

### **Functions**

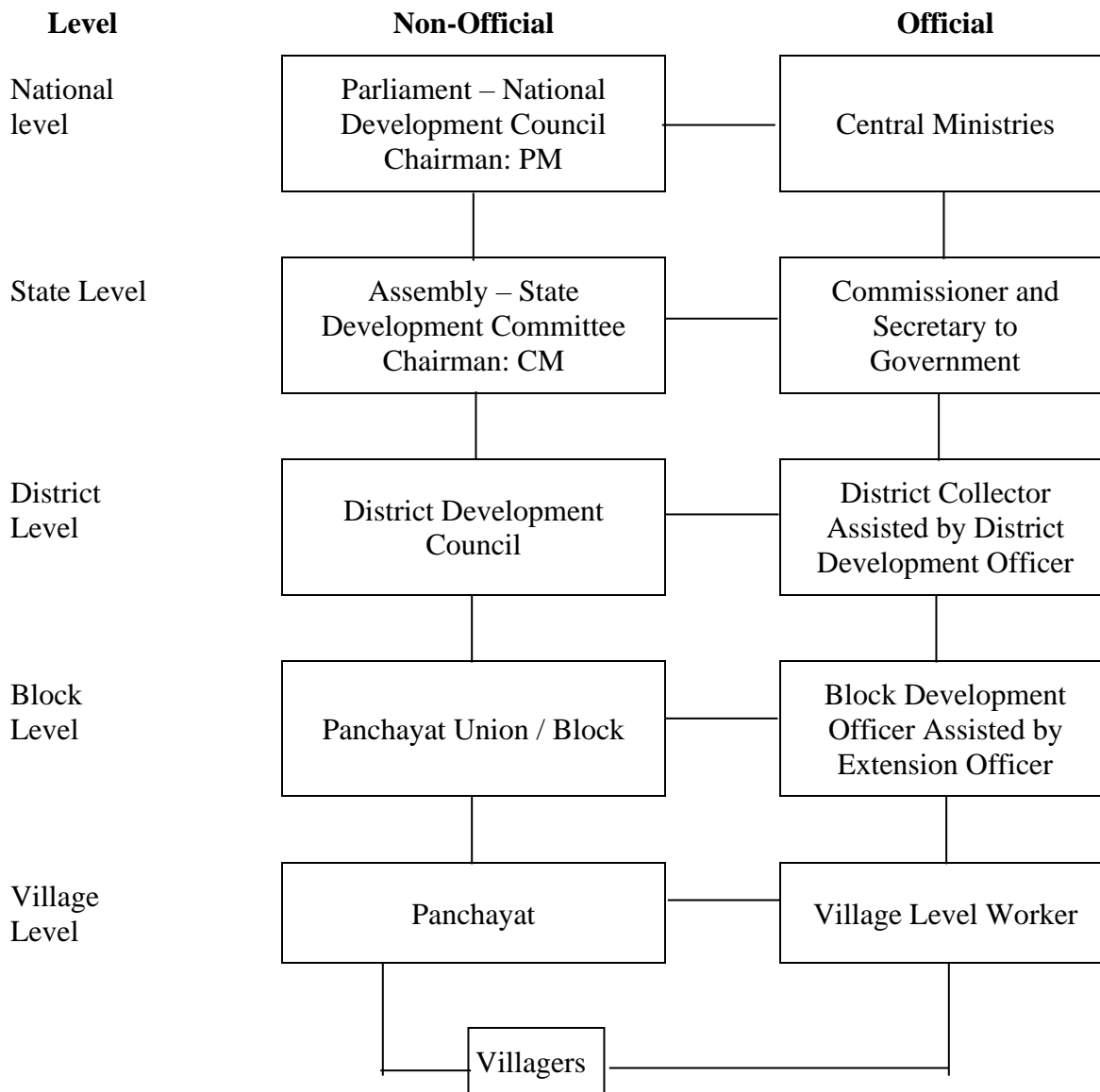
It works as advisory body for blocks. It approves budget and plan of blocks. It allots funds to the blocks. It approves budget and plan of blocks. It allots funds to the blocks. Secondary education is the responsibility of this council. It should advise Government in all matters relating to rural development in the district. It has to review the results achieved under various items in all the blocks.

The functions of Panchayat Raj Institutions can be summarised as below:

<b>Panchayat</b>	<b>Panchayat Union</b>	<b>District Development Council</b>
1. Sanitation, conservation and water supply	1. Administration of blocks	1. Approval of panchayat union budget
2. Construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, drains etc.	2. Execution of all programmes under CDP	2. Distribution of funds of Panchayat Union
3. Promotion of agricultural cooperative, cottage industries etc.	3. Approval of panchayat budget	3. Coordinating the plans and supervising it
	4. Management of elementary schools.	4. Advise the Government for all the district rural development works
	5. Promotion of agriculture, cottage industries etc.	5. Secondary education



### Extension Organisation in Panchayat Raj Set-up



### **Some special features and advantages of Democratic Decentralisation.**

- a) Previously the sanction of most of the works and schemes was invested in the hands of officials at higher levels. As a result of devolution of these powers, panchayat samithis and their standing committees can themselves now sanction most of the schemes in the overall programme of community development. Government are also advancing loans to the panchayat samithis so that they by turn pass them on to panchayats according to needs and the latter may sanction to individuals and institutions.
- b) Most of the functions which were hitherto implemented by the Government through the Heads of Departments are now performed by and under the administrative control of the Panchayat Samithis. Thus, there is a single agency at Block level for all development programmes.
- c) The power and functions of the District Boards are allocated among the parishads and the samithis, which are within the reach of rural people.
- d) Panchayat samithis have all the technical assistance required at the block level itself.
- e) Elementary education is now the sole responsibility of the panchayat samithis.
- f) Rural medical institutions in the Block are under the administrative control of the panchayat samithis.
- g) Members of the panchayat samithis have the right to inspect institutions or works in the Block with a view to ensure efficient working and execution and draw the attention of the executive to any defects.
- h) All state aid and assistance from the All India Boards for various non-official organisations in the Blocks are routed through the samithis.
- i) Personnel functioning within the Block are pooled together so that they function in a coordinated way under the samithis.
- j) The responsibility for maintenance of minor irrigation works which was hitherto vested with Collectors and the Public Works Department, belongs to samithis now.
- k) Panchayat samithis provide financial and technical assistance and supervision to panchayats.
- l) Previously at village, block and district levels, especially the later two levels there were advisory bodies constituted by various departments. Now the functions of all these different advisory bodies are performed by the three statutory bodies and their standing committees.

- m) Block plans will be based on village plans and district plans on block plans, and the district plans will be made the state plans. Thus the state plans will be built up from the village panchayat upwards. This will make out plans truly reflect needs of the people.
- n) Panchayats and panchayat samithis have better finances.
- o) The panchayat samithis are given power to levy surcharges on taxes levied by the panchayats. This will help the panchayat samithis to build up their resources.
- p) The main function of the popular institutions will be planning and execution of all schemes of rural development on the twin principles of self-help and mutual co-operation.

**Role of Officials:** No doubt that any programme is peoples' programme. Local leaders knew the people and know the local needs and potentialities. However, the officials are the most competent persons to judge what is good for people. So, their roles are:

1. to identify the felt needs of the people.
2. To fix priorities for peoples' needs, with their assistance;
3. To list out the local resources available;
4. To harness available and potential resources;
5. To encourage peoples' involvement in programmes;
6. To develop a community outlook among the people;
7. To educate the people to think in terms of planned development;
8. To mobilise required resources;
9. To act as SMS at the time of programme development and implementation; and
10. To assist people in evaluating their progress.

#### **Role of Non-officials**

- 1) to offer suggestion for block development;
- 2) to arrange priorities for maximum advantage within minimum period of time.
- 3) To organise work voluntarily;
- 4) To raise additional resources, if necessary;
- 5) To execute the plan;
- 6) To assist the official, in evaluating the progress of the programme etc.

#### **Sources of Income for Panchayat Raj Institutions**

The main source of income is from Government grants. Some income are also derived from local taxes on property and profession or trade, etc. Some revenue kare also accrued from surcharges or cesses on land revenue, water rates, etc. Income are also received from fees for local services, and rent or income from owned land and property. On the whole most of the Institutions have meagre incomes from taxes and other local resources. They are mostly depending upon the Government grants.

## **Salient Features of Panchayat Raj**

### **Achievements**

- (1) Panchayat raj system gave significant progress in the fields of primary and secondary education, communication, agricultural extension, cooperation, health, etc.
- (2) People could get drinking water. In some places people had protected water supply. Village streets, electric light provision, village sanitation, etc., had enough resources.
- (3) Rural awakening was brought up among rural people, as a result villagers became conscious of their rights and improved their standard of living.

### **Shortcomings and failure**

- (1) Panchayat raj representative had a feeling that there is a dilution of their authorities and responsibilities in actual functioning.
- (2) There were cases which utilised directly the services of block level technical staff without involving the non-official.
- (3) Frequent transfer of staff gave poor image to the bodies.
- (4) Failure to mobilise resources to the extent necessary.

## **7. DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES**

### **Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP-1960)**

The major outcome of the above thinking was the formulation of a strategy of intensive approach to agricultural production, specially the foodgrains. A new programme named as IADP was formulated which was launched gradually from 1960. The third five year plan (1961-1966) incorporated this programme into the planned development process.

This programme was popularly known as a "package programme". This name was given because of the collective and simultaneous application of all practices of improved seeds, irrigation, fertilizer, plant protection, implements, credit, etc.

This programme was started in July 1960 in seven selected districts in various states. They were (i) West Godavari in AP, (ii) Shahabad in Bihar, (iii) Tanjore in Tamil Nadu, (iv) Raipur in MP, (v) Ludhiana in Punjab; (vi) Pali in Rajasthan; and (vii) Aligarh in UP. The selection of these districts were done on the basis of their high potentiality for increasing the yield in shorter time. These selected districts had assured water supply for irrigation, well developed cooperatives, good physical infrastructure and minimum hazards.

### **Objectives**

- (i) to achieve rapid increase in the level of agriculture production through a concentration of financial, technical, extension and administrative resources;
- (ii) to achieve a self-generating breakthrough in productivity and to raise the production potential by stimulating the human and physical process of change; and
- (iii) to demonstrate the most effective ways of increasing production and thus, to provide lessons for extending such intensified agricultural production programmes to other areas.

### **Short coming**

- 1. Educational approach to reach farmers was lacking.
- 2. VLW were found below standard and were not able to impress farmers.

### **Intensive Agricultural Area Programme (IAAP-1964)**

During the third five year plan 30 per cent increase in food grain production was achieved through IADP. The intensive promotion of agriculture was very popular among policy-makers and administrators. As a result of this a revised version of IADP with less intensive and therefore less costly programme was formulated and launched in selected blocks of 150 districts. It was named as IAAP. The selected blocks were to have the same physical conditions as in the case of selection of districts for IADP. Under this programme 20 to 25 per cent of the cultivated area of the country was brought under the intensive agricultural development.

Implementation of IAAP was accepted by Agricultural Production Board and came into operation in March 1964. This programme also followed the package approaches of use of improved methods. The use of interrelated factors of physical, social and institutional were also followed in a strategic combination mainly to produce an impact on agricultural production. The management of these programmes did not function as envisaged. There were many weaknesses of deficiency in inter-agency and inter-personal coordination, inadequate staff motivation, malpractices, non-formulation of local production plans on proper lines and delay in delivery of inputs to farmers. However, the production and productivity were modest. The highly adverse conditions (droughts) during 1966-68 served as a big blow. The foodgrains output was still insufficient to meet the rising domestic demands. Imports were also continued to supplement the local production.

### **High Yielding Variety Programme (HYVP-1966)**

Launched in 1966, which helped the country in attaining self-sufficiency in food. The technological development did not remain confined to the introduction of high yielding crop varieties alone. These were combined with the application of high analysis and balanced fertilizer, irrigation, plant protection, improved implements etc, which made a 'green revolution' possible in the country. The pervasive influence of high yielding technology spread to other areas of farm production such as animal production, such as animal production, fishery, sericulture, social forestry etc.

Punjab, Haryana and Western parts of UP were initially selected for the phased launching of this strategy. The cultivation of HYV since 1966-67 had resulted in a substantial increase in foodgrains production. Wheat production was doubled. Rice production also had a substantial increase, though not as much as in the case of wheat.

The target of coverage of 2.5 crore hectares of area under HYVs of cereals and millets under fourth five year plan was exceeded. The coverage was more than four crore hectares.

### **Small Farmers' Development Agency (SFDA) and Marginal Farmers' and Agricultural Labourers' Agency (MFALA)**

Several official committees from the closing years of the decade of the sixties onwards began to draw the attention of the Government to the inadequacy of existing development process to enable very small and small cultivators, owning less than two hectares of land who constitute the majority of farmers, to improve their income and quality of life. The Rural Credit Inquiry Committee in 1969 highlighted the depressed condition of these farmers and recommended the setting up of SFDA in selected districts. The fourth plan endorsed this view point and recommended the formation of this agency. The Government accepted the recommendation made in the fourth plan and set up two separate agencies of SFDA and MFALA in selected districts. The farmers were those owning less than two hectares each. Marginal farmers were those owning less than two hectare each. The agricultural labourers were those having only a homestead and getting more than 50 per cent of income from wages.

These agencies started functioning from 1971-72 onwards in a number of selected districts. Some years later MFALA was amalgamated with SFDA to form one unified corporate body and continued to be known as SFDA.

### **Objectives**

The basic objective of this agency was to enable selected target groups of marginal and small farmers and agricultural labourers to improve their income through productive activities and improving their existing ones.

The concrete steps for the above objectives were:

- (i) identification of target groups in selected districts;
- (ii) formulation of viable agricultural and non-agricultural schemes for the target groups;
- (iii) provision of subsidy at the rate of 25 per cent and 33 per cent of the total cost of an approved scheme to the selected beneficiaries and also helping them to get institutionalised credit from cooperatives and nationalised banks.
- (iv) Coordinate the various public sector agencies located in the area to promote inputs and requisite support to the selected target groups; and

- (v) Promotion of common facilities of providing storage, marketing as well as strengthening co-operative institutions for providing credit.

Each sanctioned agency was expected to identify and help 50,000 small farmers to become economically viable by adopting improved technology and making use of the credit and inputs required. About 15,000 marginal farmers and 5,000 agricultural labourers were to be identified and helped to start or expand self-employment activities.

The total number of beneficiaries identified did not cover all the target group households. Secondly, even among the identified beneficiary households only half of those were given some assistance. Thirdly, the assistance in the form of subsidy and institutional credits was too small in many cases to enable the very poor households to improve their economic conditions.

### **District Rural Development Agency (DRDA)**

The District Rural Development Agency is implementing two types of programmes:-

1. Poverty Alleviation Programme.
2. Employment generation programme.

Under the Poverty Alleviation Programme, the main item is Integrated Rural Development Programme with subsidiary schemes such as training rural youth for self-employment, and the Development of Women and children in rural areas.

Under the employment generation programme, the Jawahar Vela Vaippu Thiitam is being implemented with Social Forestry as subsidiary scheme.

In addition to the above programme, the National Bio-gas Programme and the National Programme of Improved Chulah are also implemented as part of the Non-conventional energy sources.

## **8. INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME**

### **Genesis**

The CDP launched in 1952 could not bring expected change in improving the conditions of rural masses or there was not much achievement in the areas of agricultural development.

The apparent failure of the CDP was the main reason for the evolution of the IRDP. The main drawbacks of the CDP were

- Uneven distribution of the benefits of the programme
- Absence of clearly defined priority in the programmes.
- The inability of the CDP to recognise and solve the inherent conflicts in the inter and intra target groups.

- Lack of mass participation.
- More bureaucratic.

### **Difference between CDP and IRDP**

<b>CDP</b>	<b>IRDP</b>
1. Meant for total development of the Community ex. Road, drinking water, Etc.,	Meant for the individual development, who are below the poverty line.
2. Community approach	Family approach
3. Multi-dimensional and multi-sectorial programme	Integrated programme
4. The felt needs of the beneficiaries were not taken into account.	They are given due consideration
5. Financing is less intensive.	Financing is more intensive.

So, it was considered necessary to go in firstly for a programme directed mainly at agriculture and secondly to attempt the process of development in selected areas. Thus, in 1960 Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP) was formed and implemented. In this programme, efforts to boost agricultural production were concentrated in areas with better prospects of higher yields (package programme). The success achieved in increasing agricultural production under IADP, led the Government to extend the programme to other districts with slight modifications under the name of Intensive Agricultural area Programme (IADP) in 1964.

The food situation became alarming, particularly due to successive famines during 1964-67 and this happened despite intensive efforts in selected areas. In order to overcome this crisis, the GOI launched a new agricultural strategy known as High Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP) in 1966. The achievement was the single goal of increasing agricultural production.

This unusual shift in the rural development strategy in favour of increasing agricultural production led to the accentuation of regional disparities on one hand and economic inequalities among different sections of the population on the other. Various reports revealed that the gains of intensive development efforts, including institutional credit flew more towards large and resourceful farmers to the neglect of small farmers, landless labourers, tenants and artisans.

On realisation of the above, there was a shift in the rural development strategy. The main purpose of such a change in the approach was to make deliberate efforts to flow development benefits to the poorer sections and the backward areas. Accordingly, Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA); Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers (MFAL); Drought Prone Area Programme (DPAP); Hill Area Development Programme (HADP) etc., were implemented.



The beneficiary-oriented programmes as well as area development programmes, despite some successes could not make much dent into the problem of poverty and unemployment. Considering the magnitude and dimensions of rural poverty, the rural development strategy, therefore, took a major turn in its emphasis, content, coverage and methodology. This resulted in launching of the programme “Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) in 1978-79, covering 2,300 development blocks and extended to all the 5011 blocks in 2<sup>nd</sup> October, 1980. For implementing the programme, DRDA was set up at district level. IRDP envisages the integration of methodology and approach of both beneficiary oriented programmes as well as area development efforts for the purpose of poverty alleviation as well as increasing productivity.

The goal of poverty alleviation was achieved by having two main instruments.

- (i) a set of self employment schemes for the poor i.e., IRDP and its two sub-programmes of TRYSEM and DWCRA.
- (ii) Wage employment programmes like NREP (1980) and RLEGP (1983). These have now been merged into Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY0).

While the programmes under set (I) aim at giving the poor family an income generating asset, the latter set (ii) provides direct income to the poor through wage employment.

### **Objectives of IRDP**

The main objectives are creating assets, employment, increased income, removal of poverty and minimising inequality. The guide lines given to achieve the objectives include:

- (i) to provide gainful employment and increase the purchasing power of rural poor.
- (ii) The job opportunities must be provided through the application of science and technology in making optimum use of existing local resources.
- (iii) The programme must be simple enough to operate and be economically viable to ensure quick self-reliance of its beneficiaries.

For achieving its objective of rural poverty alleviation, IRDP aimed at the provision of assets to the identified poor in the form of Government subsidy and bank credit on reasonable rate of interest.

### **Operation**

For managing the programme a corporate governmental agency name as District Rural Development (DRDA) was set up at district level. TH DRDA is guided and directed and supported by a governing council headed by the Project Officer of DRDA.

The District Collector, Heads of District Officers, legislators, Panchayat Union Chairmen and some other non-officials from the member.

The existing development block was strengthened to enable it to bear the additional responsibility of implementing DRDA directed and supported programmes. IRDP is a centrally sponsored scheme implemented by DRDA of the states. The scheme is funded on 50:50 basis by the centre and the states.

The integration involves several categories of:

- (i) Spatial integration (integration between areas)
- (ii) Sectoral integration (integration between agriculture, off-farm activities, industries, etc.)
- (iii) Integration in economic and social development.
- (iv) Integration of total area and target group approach.
- (v) Integration of human and other resources.
- (vi) Integration of income generating schemes.
- (vii) Integration of credit with technical services.

Thus IRDP involves integration both in its means and ends.

### **Short comings**

Since 1985 the Government has promoted concurrent evaluation of the implementation and impact of the programme. These evaluation had indicated that there has been some increase in income but only a minority of them could cross the newly determined poverty line of 6400 rupees. Various evaluation indicated the followings:

- the resources provided were inadequate in majority of the cases;
- there were large number of over dues due to one reason or the other
- poor quality of assets provided to the beneficiaries in many cases;
- the follow up of the beneficiaries was inadequate;
- delay in provision of assets and preliminary high costs incurred by beneficiaries;
- lacking of training facilities to farmers;
- delay in releasing subsidy;
- bribes taken by various functionaries concerned;
- very inadequate supporting facilities or services;
- non-availability of loans for making capital; and
- lack of guidance about insurance cover.

Selection of beneficiaries the 'very poor' are overlooked, by and large.

## **9. EMPLOYMENT ORIENTED PROGRAMMES**

### **Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM-1979)**

With a view to provide technical skills to rural youth to equip them to take up self-employment in the fields of agriculture and allied activities, industries, services and trade the scheme TRYSEM was launched by GOI in August 15, 1979. It now operates as a component of IRDP. Its' main features are:

- (i) to provide need-based technical skills to rural youth aged 18-35 years who belong to the category of the poor, to enable them to take up self-employment and to some extent even wage employment.
- (ii) Training is provided at the regular training institutions like polytechnics or under selected master craftsman.
- (iii) Atleast 30 per cent of the trainees should belong to SCs/STs and atleast 33 per cent should be women.
- (iv) Marketing facilities for the products made by beneficiaries are improved.
- (v) The trainees are given stipend and tool kits during the period of training and are eligible after training for assistance under IRDP to start a viable economic activity suited to the learned skills.
- (vi) Non-recurring grants are made for strengthening the training infrastructure of the institution involved in TRYSEM.
- (vii) Rapport is being established by DRDA and employment exchanges for exploring employment opportunities for the trained youth.

During Sixth Plan 9.4 thousand youths were given training under this programme. In seventh plan period no fixed target for training was fixed. From 1985-86 to the end of 1989 nearly 8.5 thousand youths were trained. The coverage of SCs, STs and women has exceeded the prescribed minimum percentage. The employment position was only partially satisfactory. It varied from 52 to 64 per cent over the years. Inadequate employment opportunities for TRYSEM trainees have been attributed to three main factors.

Adequate and timely assistance under IRDP not given at several times to them to start their own enterprise. Secondly, systematic survey for identifying the potential for new productive ventures are not being carried out by most of the DRDAs. Thirdly, the rapport between carried out by most of the DRDAs and BDOs on one side and employers on the other side has not been strong and fruitful to provide placement of increased number of trained youths.

The major trades under TRYSEM are tailoring, printing and binding, basket making, radio repair, electrical works, pump repair, carpentry, blacksmithy, production of mushroom, honey processing, cultivation of medicinal herbs and plants, poultry farming, fruit plants nursery, processing of fruits and vegetables, sericulture, installation of biogas plants etc.

## **Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) (1982)**

The need for introducing specific programmes for the development of poor women was felt. Many programmes were launched for them. One such programme formulated and launched since September 1982 in DWCRA.

It aims at motivating and assisting women to engage themselves in a productive activity for earning a substantial income as well as to improve the quality of their own and children's life. Thus, though the economic activity is the priority, the social betterment of the women and their children is also aimed at. It is partly supported by UNICEF and is jointly financed by Union and State Governments. It operates in conjunction with IRDP and TRYSEM. The main features of this programme are:

- (i) Women of identified poor families are organised into groups of 15-20 each for taking up income generating activities suited to their skills and aptitude.
- (ii) Group members are given training usually under TRYSEM.
- (iii) One time grant of Rs.15,000 is provided for each group as revolving fund for purchase of raw materials, marketing, child care etc. This amount is shared equally by Union and State Government and UNICEF.
- (iv) Each group selects one of its members as group organiser who is to help women in the selection of economic activities suited to their skills and aptitude, procurement of raw materials etc.
- (v) Besides engaging in economic activity, each group is expected to be recipient of benefits of other development and welfare programmes.
- (vi) Multi-purpose centre are being set up to serve as the central place for the working of women groups.

The list of income-generating activities undertaken under the scheme are: tailoring, embroidery, ready-made garments, pickle making, papad making, bakery, candle making, soap making, chalk making, envelop making, match box making, knitting, weaving, basket making, agarbathi making, poultry, dairy, piggery, goat rearing, bee keeping, mushroom production, fruit and vegetables processing, etc.

## **Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY-1989)**

### **Recent nomenclature**

The latest employment generating programme launched by the Government was the Jawahar Rozgar Yojana, introduced from 1<sup>st</sup> April, 1989, as an integration of National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP).

It is stated to be a nationwide programme implemented through village panchayats, basically aimed at providing supplementary gainful employment to atleast one member of about 44 million rural poor families who seek unskilled employment for a minimum period of 50 to 100 days in a year. The financial resources to be shared by centre and the state in the ratio of 80:20.

## **Objectives**

**Primary Objective:** Generation of additional gainful employment for the employed and underemployed persons in the rural areas.

### **Secondary Objectives**

- Creation of sustained employment by strengthening the rural social and economic infrastructure.
- Creating productive community and social assets in favour of the rural poor for the direct and continuing benefits.
- Positive impact on wage levels of rural poor.
- Overall improvement in the quality of life in rural areas.

### **Overall Objectives**

1. To provide productive assets to the rural poor to enable them to generate additional or incremental income out of the provided assets and also leave a surplus to repay the loan.
2. To provide employment to the rural poor by creating durable community assets or undertaking other work programme both during busy and lean period.
3. To provide basic infrastructural facilities like clean drinking water, medical facilities, education, electrification, rural roads etc.
4. To provide clinical and other types of guidance and support to the unemployed to make them the potential entrepreneurs for self-employment.

## **Operation**

- People below the poverty line will be the target group. Preference was given to SC/ST for employment. 30% of the employment opportunities were reserved for women.
- Seventy five per cent of the funds allocated for the JRY in a year, subject to a maximum of Rs. 2546 crore will be utilized for the implementation of JRY throughout the country.
- Twenty five per cent of the funds, subject to a minimum of Rs. 700 crores will be used to implement an intensified JRY in 120 backward districts in different states of the country.
- The allocation of funds for the two sub schemes of JRY viz., Million Wells Scheme (MWS) and the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) are to continue with stepped up funds.
- Coverage of non SC/ST as also the small and marginal farmers, subject to the condition that the benefits in financial terms to these persons do not exceed 10 per cent of the total allocation of JRY.
- Wages paid are partly in cash and partly in food grains.

## **Approaches**

- ❖ **A poverty alleviation mechanism:** It is bound to alleviate the sufferings of the people in years of scarcity, drought, floods and such other natural disasters and ultimately to eradicate poverty.
- ❖ **Rural Employment:** Poverty is inextricably linked with low productivity and unemployment. A massive programme of employment is necessary to make a dent on rural development, with special impetus to SCs, STs and free bonded labourers.
- ❖ **Indira Awas Yojana:** To provide dwelling units free of cost to members of SCs/STs and free bonded labour living below the poverty line.
- ❖ The cost ceiling under IAY was revised in 1990-91 from Rs.6000 to 8000 with Rs.1400 for the construction of sanitary latrines and smokeless chulahs and Rs.3300 for providing infrastructure and common facilities.

The permissible expenditure on a house built under the scheme is Rs.12,700 to Rs.14,000 in plain areas and from Rs.14,500 to Rs.15,000 in remote and hilly areas.

## **Million wells scheme**

It is a sub scheme under JRY. Objective is to include farmers amongst SCs/STs and the free bonded labourers.

During 1994-95, more than 5 lakh wells have been constructed during the last three years at a cost of Rs.1631 crores.

## **Second stream of JRY**

They will take up works with a prescribed basket of schemes for implementation in those pockets. The schemes under this category may include construction of all-weather roads, minor irrigation works, soil and water conservation works, water harvesting structures, wasteland development, farm forestry etc.\

## **Third stream of JRY**

It aimed to prevent the migration of labour, enhancing women's employment, special programmes through NGOs aimed at drought proofing as well as watershed development and wasteland development.

## **In non-agricultural sectors too**

The strategy for creating larger employment opportunities under JRY needs to be multipronged. The potential of employment in non-agricultural rural jobs should be fully explored. Through the formation of skills relevant to rural areas, rural manpower should be developed for taking up self-employment programmes.

This would necessitate the development of a well-designed and abroad based support system capable of assisting the new class of artisans, craftsmen, industrialists and entrepreneurs.

## **Shortcomings**

1. Release of resources of Mandal panchayats was delayed and as a result implementation of the scheme got delayed.
2. JRY wage rates are low as compared to the locally prevailing wage rates.
3. Non-availability of workers and material during certain seasons caused delay in completing the works.
4. Food grain distribution to the workers as part of their wage is difficult due to irregular supply, lack of storage facility, low quality etc.
5. Lack of co-ordination between different agencies involved in implementing the scheme.
6. Works are given on contract basis, though it is not permitted.

## **10. FORMAL RURAL INSTITUTIONS**

It is said that the dream of democracy will be brought into reality by three basic institutions in every village, namely, the panchayat, the cooperative society and the school.

### **Village School**

There is a natural bondage between the school and the community. It is in the home that the child is first introduced to the social life and till his fifth year the home functions exclusively as the child's school. Here the unconscious process of education is closely associated with the gradual growth of the child.

With the establishment of the foreign rule and the consequent villagers. With the introduction of the foreign language, education became further removed from the needs of the community.

It was Gandhiji who first gave serious thought to this decline of the role of the school teacher in the village community. He enunciated a new programme called basic education to rectify the defects in the educational system. The forces realised by Gandhiji through basic education were strengthened by another movement, the community development programme. Basic education prepared the child to become a full man, the creation of which is the goal of community development. In this context, the school has to assume a major responsibility in the development of the community. The role formerly played by the school and the school teacher in the village community has now to be restored.

In order to revitalise the school as a community centre, the school may undertake the following activities:

- a) Cultural and community activities
- b) Physical education activities and sports activities
- c) Organising youth welfare activities

- d) Literacy activities
- e) Scouting, sevadal and other social welfare movements.
- f) Conduct of exhibitions and campaigns
- g) Organising school cooperatives
- h) Organising museums and development of aesthetic sense
- i) Organising tours and excursions

In addition to these the following activities would bring a closer relationship between the school and the village community:

- a) Parent teacher's association
- b) The school betterment committee
- c) Observance of mother's day (for mothers of school children)
- d) Celebration of birthdays
- e) Celebration of birthdays of eminent personalities

The local panchayat and youth club can assist the school in certain activities such as Fencing the school gardens, supplying saplings for schools, sinking and cleaning of wells within the premises of the schools, maintenance of school gardens especially during vacations, while the teacher associated with the activities organised by the village community and who undertakes the responsibility of organising certain functions at the school, must see that such activities do not hamper the regular curriculum of the school.

The school teachers have to organise the school community in such a way that it will be a model of the future village community. The school may render all possible help to the voluntary organisations like youth mandal, mahila mandal, bhajan mandal, etc., when they undertake any programme which is useful for the village community. The school teacher must try to promote the growth of these voluntary organisations in the village.

In short, the teacher should act as a friend, philosopher and guide to the villagers in all extension programmes. He has to play a prominent part by cooperating with the field extension workers.

## **B. Service Cooperatives**

The principle of cooperation was brought into practice through cooperative societies. The cooperative society is an association of an unlimited number of persons formed on the basis of equality for the promotion of member's interests and managed by the members themselves.

The service cooperatives are expected to cater to the needs of the farmers. The farmers require a large number of services other than credit, such as supply of seeds, fertilisers and insecticides for increasing agricultural production. The service co-operatives were to serve as a store, a bank, a distribution agent, a supply and marketing unit for the members. In other words these societies are expected to act as 'production promoting units' for its members.



For the development of the village community the service cooperatives should be treated as an organisation of the villagers for mutual help and cooperation to meet their common economic requirements and to increase agricultural production. Thus service cooperatives are expected to perform the following functions for the economic development of the village.

1. Advancing loans for the purchase of farm requirements and other industrial and agricultural purposes.
2. Arranging the supply of farm requirements such as improved seeds, fertilisers, insecticides, implements, etc.
3. Providing storage and marketing for the agricultural produce of members.
4. Maintenance and supply of agricultural machinery like plant protection equipment, threshers, cane crushers, etc. to members on hire.
5. Supplying essential commodities like sugar, kerosene oil etc., to members.
6. Providing technical guidance to the members in matters of agriculture for increasing agricultural production.
7. Mobilising the savings of the people to meet the above-mentioned requirements.

Thus the cooperatives are considered as a pivot of village economy and without cooperatives a village cannot progress economically. There are certain voluntary organisations in addition to the aforementioned which can play a vital role in the development of the village. Two of them, namely, mahila mandals and youth clubs are described here.

### **C. Mahila Mandals (Ladies club)**

Agriculture is a family enterprise. All members of the family, men, women and children are therefore involved in the process of increased production. The woman, in addition to her traditional responsibilities for the care of the family, also performs certain agricultural tasks, which are exclusively women's work. The care of buffalo, sheep, poultry and pigeons is entirely the responsibility of the housewife in many rural areas.

The income she earns from the sale of butter, milk, eggs and other products helps to determine the food and the household items the family can afford. Efforts to raise the standard of village life or to increase the amount of animal protein available to the total population must teach the village women better agricultural and marketing practices.

In addition to these the rural women need to be helped in spending the additional income in the interest of better health and a higher living standard. Such type of education should include better use of local foods, their preservation, storage and preparation, home improvements with special emphasis on sanitation, safety and comfort, childcare and simple home crafts. The education will also help in correcting inadequate and improper care of sick persons.

This education to the rural women should be given through mahila mandals. The mahila mandals are independent voluntary organisations of local women. The purpose of the mandals is to educate the rural women in the activities stated earlier.

#### **D. Youth Clubs**

The rural development programmes would be effective when it has sound, competent and enlightened leadership. There is obvious need for training local leaders and preparing them to take their place in the development programmes. Youth work can solve this problem to some extent. The training of young people in club work will prepare them for future responsibilities. These trained young farmers will grow up as scientific farmers, with responsibilities of helping their brethren to change their attitudes and to take up new practices in farming and living. Thus efforts should be made towards the development of young farmers by organising and encouraging the formation of young farmers' clubs (youth clubs). The organisation of these clubs and other activities among the village youth would act as a process for the training of future village leaders.

## **11.AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION EDUCATION SYSTEMS**

### **A. Training & Visit System (1979)**

It was felt that sustained high levels of agricultural production and incomes could not be possible without an effective agricultural extension service supported by agricultural research that is relevant to farmers' needs. With this concept Daniel Benor, the World Bank expert developed the Training and Visit (T and V) system for extension services to a wide range of agricultural and administrative environments in developing countries.

In Tamil Nadu this system was introduced as a pilot project in Madurai district and Sivagangai divisions of the then Ramnad district on 1.4.1980. This system was extended to all the districts of the state from 1.9.81. This scheme was aided by World Bank.

#### **Objective**

The purpose of T and V system of agricultural extension is to build a professional extension service that will be capable of assisting farmers to raise production and increase their incomes and of providing appropriate support for agricultural development. A key means to this end is the creation of a dynamic link between farmers, professional workers, and researchers. Some of the key features are outlined below.

#### **Salient Features**

##### **Professionalism**

Appropriate advice would help farmers to increase their income. This would come from an extension service that is professional at all levels. Extension staff must

keep in close touch with relevant scientific developments and research in order to formulate specific recommendations. This can be achieved only if each extension worker is fully and continuously trained. The T and V system fulfills this requirement.

### **Single line of Command**

The extension service must be under single line of technical and administrative command ie., under the Department of Agriculture. However, support is required from teaching and research institutions, input supply and other agricultural support organisations and local government bodies, but all extension workers should be responsible administratively and technically to a unit within only one department.

### **Concentration of Effort**

Only by concentrating on the tasks at hand the impact of extension become visible and progress can be sustained. All staff of the department will only work on agricultural extension.

Non-extension activities like supply of inputs, data collection, etc., will dilute the concentration of effort. These supporting activities are , of course, important to agriculture, but are the responsibility of other specialist staff who are trained and work full time in these fields.

### **Time-bound work**

Messages and skills must be taught to farmers in a regular, timely fashion, so that farmers will make best use of the resources at their command. Subjects for two fortnights are learned by the Subject Matter Specialist (SMS) at monthly zonal workshops. These recommendations are then presented to VEWs at the two fortnightly training sessions. VEW visit his farmers regularly on a fixed day once in a fortnight and teach the messages and skills.

### **Field and Farmer Orientation**

To serve farmers effectively, an extension service must be in contact with them. This contact must be regular and on a schedule known to farmers. Under this system, farmers served by a VEW are divided into groups; each group is visited on a fixed day once in every two weeks by the VEW. All other extension workers, including SMS, are to spend a large apart of their time in farmer's field.

### **Regular and Continuous Training**

Regular and continuous training of extension staff is required both to teach, and discuss with them. The training sessions ie., fortnightly training and monthly workshops are key means of bringing actual farmers problems to the attention of research.

### **Linkage with Research**

Effective extension depends on close linkages with research. Linkages are two-ways. Problems faced by farmers that can not be solved by extension workers are passed on to researchers for an immediate solution or investigation. The joint effort of research and extension staff help to formulate production recommendation.

**Working Pattern**

T and V system was introduced in 1974 in Rajasthan Canal areas in Rajasthan and Chambal Area in Madhya Pradesh. Then 13 states introduced this system. All the States extended this system in 1985.

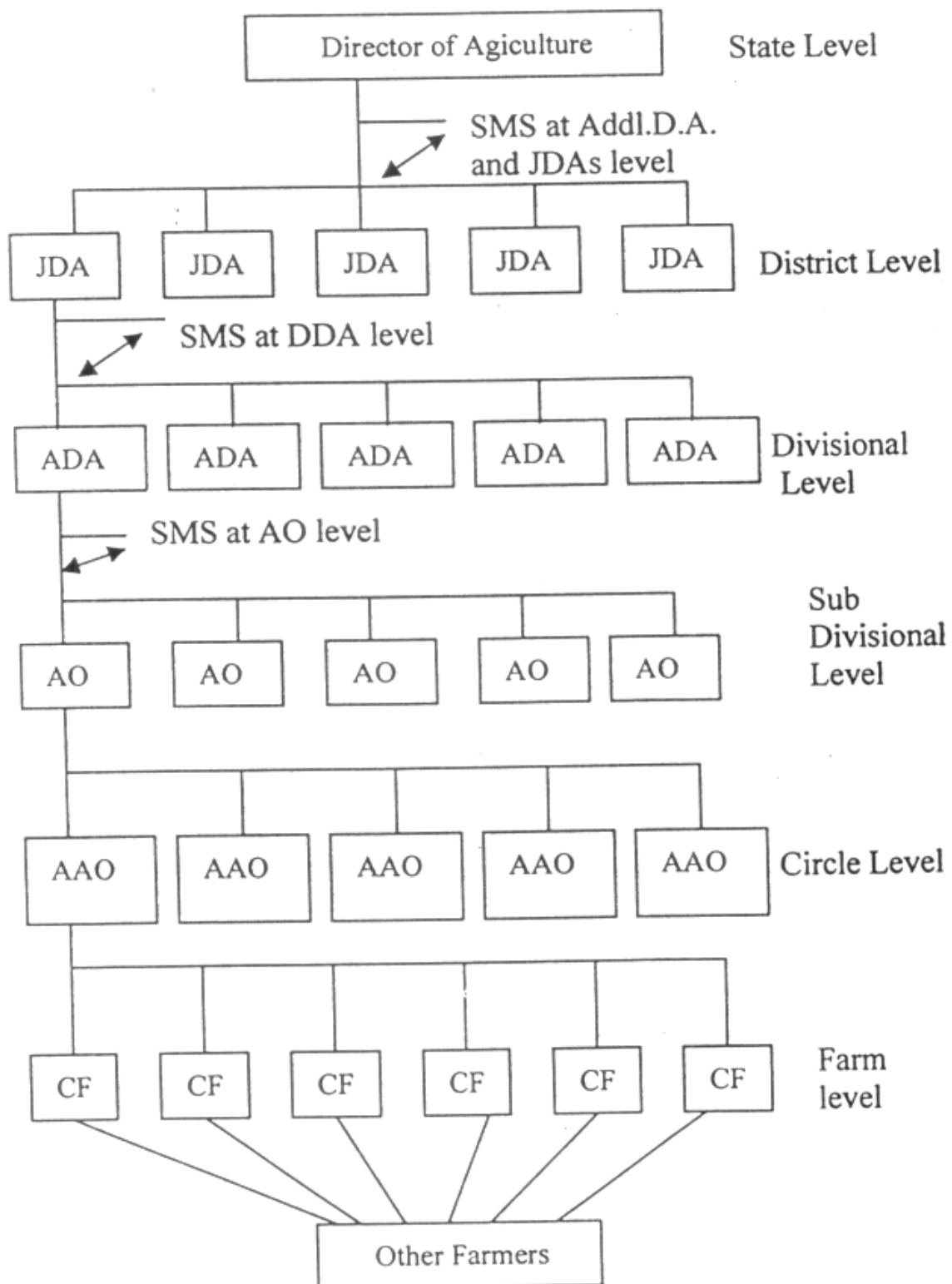
**Organisation Pattern (Administrative Structures)****Training Pattern**

The monthly zonal workshop is the main venue of inservice training for SMS and of regular contact between extension and research workers. The chief means of continuously upgrading and updating the professional skills of VEWs and AO s is the fortnightly training sessions.

**Pre-Seasonal Trainings**

Before the commencement of Kharif and Rabi seasons, pre-season trainings are conducted every year at research stations. The latest techniques pertaining to the season are passed on to the extension functionaries in this training programme.

## Organisational Pattern of the T & V System of Agricultural Extension



### **Monthly Zonal Workshop (MZW)**

This MZW is held for two days to build up the technical skills of SMS regularly in the field of their specialisation. The objective of this MZW is to cover six basic activities:

1. to review the rate of adoption of recommended practices by farmers, and the problems in adoption of recommended practices;
2. to note the difficulties faced by SMS in presenting and explaining recommendations;
3. to formulate and discuss recommended practices for major crops for the ensuing two fortnights;
4. to review the climatic, input and marketing situations of the area that may affect the adaptation of recommended practices;
5. in the practical and field sessions, train SMS to carry out recommended practices themselves; and
6. to discuss the progress and results of the farm trials.

Monthly Workshops should be held at research station that is conveniently located in the district from which participants are drawn. It is held for two days. The day of MZW should not be the days of fortnightly training sessions at sub-division level. Two full days are recommended for the workshop to discuss carefully the topics presented and their own work experiences, reviews current field problems, finalise recommendation, etc. The maximum number of participants should be about thirty-five.

The participants are from extension service and university scientists. The participating extension staff would be the ADAs, SMS at the district and divisional level (taluk). The JDA will be the coordinator and he is responsible for overall effective planning of the workshop. The trainers will be researchers from SAUs and research station who are thoroughly conversant with local crops and technology as well as an experienced person working on major crops of the area. Guest trainers can also be included.

The MZW comes out with recommendations for the next two fortnights. SMS will teach these recommendations to AOs and AAOs in fortnightly training session.

### **Fortnightly Training**

All Village Extension Workers (VEWs or AAOs) and Agricultural Officers (AOs) participate in one-full day training for each fortnight. This is the chief means of continuously upgrading the professional skills of extension workers and of infusing them with confidence to meet farmers. With an effective training the extension workers learn the specific recommendation that will be discussed with farmers over the coming fortnight. Without these recommendations, their visits are likely to be generalised and undirected and, therefore, of little use to farmers.

**Fortnightly training sessions have two main objectives:** one is to present specific recommended practices for the coming fortnight to the AOs and AAOs. The other objective is to act as a link between field level extension staff and research via SMS. This session is also used for regulating the input supplies.

This session can be held in research station, department farms or farmers field depending on the facilities available. AO s and AAOs must learn and practice the skills involved in the recommended technologies. Materials and equipments needed for teaching should be brought to the training site for each sessions.

## **Visit Schedules**

### **Contact Farmers**

Frequent contact between a Village Extension Worker (VEW) or AAO and all farmers in his area is not possible. Therefore visit of VEW focuses on a small, selected number of farmers called 'contact farmers' in each farmers' group and along with any other farmers who are willing and interested to attend his visit and seek his advises. The contact farmers, normally, constitute about 10 per cent. These contact farmers are selected by VEW based on the following characteristics: they should represent proportionately to main socio-economic and farming conditions of their group and regarded by other farmers as able and worthy of imitation; they should be practicing farmers; they should be willing to adopt the recommendations in their land and allow other farmers to observe the practices and explain the practices to them; as far as size and composition of farmers' groups, they must come from different families; and their farms should be dispersed throughout the group area.

### **Purpose of Visit**

VEW's field visits have two chief purposes. One purpose; which is primary, is to advise and teach farmers and encourage them to adopt improved agricultural technology that is relevant to their resources and skills; the second purpose is to enable extension staff and through them, researchers to be closely and continuously acquainted with farm conditions and problems so that production recommendations and agricultural research are relevant to actual farmers' needs. On field visits, all extension workers should listen as much as they talk.

### **Formation of circles**

First step to organise visit schedule of VEW is to define the circle of his operation. The circle should be a compact and continuous area. Each VEW is responsible for a manageable number of farm families. The number of farm families per VEW may range from 300 to 1500 depending on the actual field situations. Under the present conditions of Tamil Nadu a VEW may cover effectively 800 to 1000 farm families. The criteria fixed in hilly tracts is 1:250 farm families; 1:400 farm families in irrigated areas and 1:800 farm families in dry areas.

### **Scheduling Visits**

Once VEW circles are established and contact farmers identified the visit can be scheduled easily. His circle is divided into eight groups. VEW visits each group in his circle for a full day once in a fortnight. With a fixed schedule for visiting a particular group, farmers will expect the VEW on the specific day at the established time. A typical schedule of VEW is given below:

	Fortnight I		Fortnight II	
	I week	II week	I week	II week
MONDAY	G1	G5	G1	G5
TUESDAY	G2	G6	G2	G6
WEDNESDAY	G3	G7	G3	G7
THURSDAY	G4	G8	G4	G8
FRIDAY	Depot review	FT	Depot review	FT
SATURDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY
SUNDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY	HOLIDAY

The visit schedule is the same for all fortnights. Alternative Fridays are used for fortnightly training. The remaining two Fridays are used by the VEW for depot review and to meet SMS and discuss with them, or to meet AO and appraise the progress or to make extra visits in case if he has missed any visit due to illness and so on.

All the farmers in the circle must be fully aware of the day, time, place and purpose of the VEW visit.

#### **Conduct of Visits**

Visits should be field oriented. Most of the farmers who meet VEW should meet him in their fields. The time of the visit should be the time when farmers are in their fields. In Tamil Nadu, VEW makes field visits in the forenoon and meets as many farmers as possible and in the afternoon he makes himself available in a common place in the village so that farmers who want to discuss with him can do so.

#### **Demerits of T & V System**

1. The approach was too staff-intensive, some states faced difficulty to provide such a large number of staff members.
2. The emphasis was only on the development of agriculture, thus, neglecting other enterprises and aspects of family and rural development. In States having separate Directorates of Horticulture, Social Conservation etc., flow of information to the farmers relating to these disciplines was scanty
3. The approach is mainly confined to the farmers. The youth and farm women were almost neglected.
4. There was a problem of coordination with the research institutions and supply agencies.



5. The system was more suitable to the institutions where the process of development was just started. It has less relevance to the developed areas.
6. Information for the farmers in many cases were of routine type, which made sustenance of their interest in the programme difficult.
7. In training, emphasis was on technology and very little on extension methods, management techniques etc., which are also needed.
8. Emphasis was on personal contact of the extension worker with a few selected farmers, to the exclusion of almost all other extension methods and aids.
9. The existing village leadership and village institutions have been neglected.
10. Inadequate linkage with first-line extension programmes of the ICAR and Agricultural Universities.

## **B. Broad Based Extension System**

( Introduced under Tamil Nadu Agricultural Development Project – TNADP )

This system has been introduced in Tamil Nadu State from 1.4.1991. Government of Tamil Nadu has entered into an agreement with World Bank through Government of India for implementing the project for seven years from 1991.

### **Need for Broad Based System**

The Training and Visit system recognised the farm family approach rather than 'crop approach' and 'area approach'. In irrigated areas the village extension workers have full time job because the agricultural crops occupy 9-10 months in a year. In dryland the village extension workers do not have full time opportunities since the crops occupy 4-6 months. The messages delivered to the farmers were crop oriented and less importance was given to allied activities.

### **How broad based extension is an important over T & V System?**

This system aims at rectifying the defects. Role of subject matter specialist is amplified and they are invited to formulate messages suitable to their land based activities. The village extension workers will have full time job by offering messages during lean season. The concept of broad based education lies in formulating and delivering composite messages to the farmers to meet the needs of their full agricultural environment.

### **Principles of broad based extension**

1. Adoption of an integrated farming systems approach for the generation of relevant composite messages.
2. Broadening the range of subjects from agricultural crops to all allied subjects.
3. Improvement of the effective communication of the farming community.
4. Introduction of resource based planning down to sub-division level.
5. Encourages participation of non-governmental organisation in all agricultural extension activities.

## **Objectives of the broad-based extension**

1. To increase the farm income.
2. To solve problems of the farming community.
3. To make extension system more cost effective.
4. To upgrade the quality of the extension workers.
5. To popularise integrated farming system approach.

## **Scope of the broad based extension system**

The activities of all land based departments will be unified in the long run. Duplication of efforts and unhealthy competitions will be avoided. Agricultural department offers full support to the activities of all the line departments.

**Methodology :** Broad based extension system help the farmers in getting multiple message needed to improve their overall economy besides helping to grow agricultural crops. Thus, the farmers are encouraged in sericultural activities, growing good fodders, animal husbandry activities and growing fish in the farm ponds etc. These activities enable the farm community to get extra income.

**Need for the broad-based extension:** This system was formed to encourage the activities of the farmers. Different departments compete with one another and they have proposed to increase the staff component to contact as many farmers as possible. World Bank and Government of India thought to utilise the well established extension agency and bringing all extension and land based activities together.

**Role of Subject Matter Specialist:** District level subject matter specialists were positioned under the T & V system. They were SMS agronomy, SMS plant protection, SMS information and training and SMS training and visit. One additional SMS is responsible for the activities of oilseeds, horticulture etc., SMS have to expand their horizon. For instance SMS agronomy has to expand his activities to areas like mulberry cultivation, fruit trees, fodder cultivation etc. In areas where SMS is not available trainers from that particular department will act as SMS in that particular department will act as SMS in that particular subject.

**Organisational set up:** The extension system created under T & V system will be maintained. The VEW, AO, Taluk level SMS, District level SMS will be operating. There will be only marginal changes in the strength of field functionaries. The ratio of one VEW to farm families will be brought down and thus there will be marginal increase of VEW.

**Operational guidelines:** The monthly zonal workshop, fortnightly training, and fixed programme of field visits will be continued without any change. In the monthly zonal workshop SMS will help to formulate messages which are location specific.

## **Implementation of broad based extension system in Tamil Nadu**

Tamil Nadu is the pioneer state which has implemented this system from 1993. An agreement has been signed with World Bank for executing a seven year contract. The GOI and State Government have organised regional level workshops to discuss and finalise training programme. The state level institute at Kudumianmalai will help the officers to understand this system much more effectively. Ultimately the VEW will be trained fully in all aspects of broad based extension system.

**Training Programme:** A comprehensive training programme is envisaged. All land based departments will identify five numbers of state level and district level trainers who are SMS. They are responsible for conducting classes fully or partly. The district level trainers will attend the monthly zonal workshop. They will help to solve the field problems faced by the extension agents. Trainers from sister department will be made to participate in this programme.

### **Role of Agricultural Department and Line Department**

Broad based extension involves the coordination of line departments with the agricultural department. Agricultural department will serve as nodal department. For eg. In NWDPRA areas messages delivered will cover agricultural department, agricultural engineering department and forest department for land treatment, vegetative bunding crop and trees. In hilly areas messages will be delivered by horticultural department. In areas where silk industries are predominant sericulture department will take a leading role. Agricultural department will be the nodal department to initiate activities.

It can be concluded that the broad based extension system will help the farmer to obtain composite messages suitable to agriculture as well as allied activities. The agricultural extension system will work in close coordination with sister and line departments. The farmer is expected to derive maximum benefit from this system.

## **12.TRANSFER OF TECHNOLOGY PROJECTS OF ICAR**

### **A. National Demonstrations (ND-1964)**

A nationwide programme of demonstrations, known as National Demonstrations (ND) on major food crops was launched in 1964. The NDs are intended to show the genetic production potentiality of new technologies and to influence both the farmers and the extension agencies.

#### **Objectives**

- i. To demonstrate convincingly to the farmers and extension worker the genetic production potentialities of major crops per unit area of land and per unit time and encourage them to adopt and popularize these technologies for accelerating production;
- ii. To fully exploit these demonstrations for the purpose of training farmers and field extension workers in improved cultivation practices;

- iii. To provide the research workers an opportunity to get firsthand knowledge of the problems being faced by the farmers in adopting high yielding varieties and practising recommended package of practices;
- iv. To determine the income and employment generation potentialities of the crops/subjects under demonstration, and educate the farmers and extension workers about them; and
- v. To influence the extension systems (the State Department of Agriculture, voluntary organizations etc.) in the country by demonstrating the yield gaps and pointing out operational constraints.

The national demonstration project which once covered 100 districts spread all over the country, is at present being implemented in 48 districts, mainly through the State Agricultural Universities. The projects are shifted from one district to another after six years, but the farmers are changed every two years. About 100 demonstrations are conducted annually in each district by the team of four subject matter specialists.

This is the only project in the country where field-based data on production performance are available. They are being used by both government and non-government agencies for developing crop production strategies.

### **Special Features**

National Demonstration differs from other demonstration in the following aspects.

- i. There is a specific yield target and there is no separate control plot near the demonstration. The idea behind this principle is that the entire living memory of the farmers about the yield potential of the crop, as well as the entire block in which the demonstration has been laid out, should serve as the control.
- ii. The area of the demonstration plot is about one hectare (it may be one acre if bigger plots are not available) so that the feasibility of raising a good crop can be strikingly and unquestionably demonstrated.
- iii. The farmers in whose plots the demonstrations are laid out are the actual cultivators with small holdings, so that the high yields obtained are not attributed to the effects of affluence.
- iv. The agricultural scientists conduct these demonstrations in association with local extension agencies/workers.

To achieve the best results, the most enthusiastic and cooperative farmers are selected, the best technologies and techniques used, and a team-approach followed involving scientists from relevant disciplines, including local extension workers. The organization of field days, field visits, and training for the farmers and field extension workers are considered important for rapid spread of technologies.

### **B. Lab to Land Programme (LLP-1979)**

The Lab to Land Programme (LLP) was launched by the ICAR in 1979 as a part of its Golden Jubilee Celebration. The overall objective of the programme is to improve the economic condition of the small and marginal farmers and landless agricultural labourers, particularly scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, by transfer of improved technology developed by the agricultural universities, research institutes etc. The specific objectives of the lab to land programme, are to-

- i) Study and understand the background and resources of the selected farmers and landless agricultural labourers. To introduce low-cost relevant agricultural and allied technologies on their farms and homes for increasing their employment, production and income.
- ii) Assist the farmers to develop feasible farm plans keeping in view the availability of technologies, needs and resources of the farmers, and the resources which could be made available from external sources and agencies.
- iii) Guide and help the farmers in adopting improved technologies as per their farm plans, the demonstrate to them the economic viability of those technologies as well as methods of cultivation and farm management.
- iv) Organize training programmes and other extension activities, in relation to their adopted practices, and prepare them for active participation in agricultural development programmes of the State departments of agriculture.
- v) Make the farmers aware of the various opportunities and agencies which they could utilize to their economic advantage.
- vi) Develop functional relations and linkages with the scientists and institutions for future guidance, advisory services and help.
- vii) Utilize this project as a feedback mechanism for the agricultural scientists and extension functionaries.

There are 142 LLP centres with 1500 scientists working in them on part-time basis. The farm families adopted under this scheme receive support for a period of two years with follow up guidance atleast for one year. The scientists are permitted to spend Rs. 2000 per family in two years on critical inputs. This amount, though too small, has been a good motivation force for the farmers to listen and learn about the low cost technologies which would improve their production and income. This programme also brings the scientists in close interaction with the farmer and gives them first hand feedback to re-orient their research priorities to suit farmers' needs. Initially, this programme benefited 50,000 families of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers.

It is being implemented by the agricultural universities, ICAR institutes, State departments of agriculture and some selected voluntary organizations. No separate staff has been provided for the programme, and it is implemented by the existing extension staff of these organizations.

### **13. KRISHI VIGYAN KENDRA AND FARMERS TRAINING CENTRES**

#### **A. Krishi Vigyan Kendra (KVK –1974)**

KVK (or) Farm Science Centre was launched in 1974 as vocational training institution for farmers and field-level extension functionaries. It aimed to impact need-based and skill-oriented training to enhance agricultural production. Training course of each kendra should be tailored according to felt-needs and existing resources of particular area. Three fundamental principles of KVK are as follows:

- (i) Agricultural production is the prime-goal.
- (ii) Work experience is the main method of imparting training.
- (iii) Priority of training should be on the weaker section of the society.

The KVKs are now engaged with four major functions, as given below:

- (i) To organise long-term vocational training for rural youths for generating self-employment.
- (ii) To organise training of farmers and extension functionaries.
- (iii) To organise front-line demonstrations to generate production data and feedback.
- (iv) To collaborate with subject matter specialist of Agricultural Universities in on-farm testing, refining and documenting technologies.

KVKs are implemented through State Agricultural Universities, selected ICAR institutes, State Government, Colleges and Voluntary organisations. Each KVK has been provided with about a dozen scientific staff and equal number of supporting staff, all lead by training organiser (T.O.). The scientific staff belongs to science, home science and plant protection disciplines. KVKs are monitored and guided by zonal coordinating unit at zonal level. At the central level, the division of Agricultural Extension, headed by the Deputy Director General, is responsible for overall implementation of KVK scheme. The ICAR provides guidelines and conduct periodic supervision. KVK plans and executes its activities with help and guidance from local management committees. The KVK is provided with its own building, demonstration farms, equipment, vehicles, farmers hostels, staff quarters, etc. Each KVK is supposed to have 20 hectares of farm land for demonstration and practical training.

## **B. Farmers Training Centre (FTC)**

Farmers' training is non-formal instructional activity to equip farmers, housewives, village youths or fishermen to improve their abilities to produce better or take informed decision. There are a number of institutions engaged in the task like State Agricultural Universities, Departments of Agriculture, Voluntary organisations and input agencies. Besides, there are 131 farmers' training centres and about 189 Krishi Vigyan Kendras devoted exclusively for the training of farmers, farm women and school drop-outs. The priority has been given to disadvantaged i.e., small, marginal and landless labourers for training in location specific and economically viable technologies as they could not benefit from the new agricultural technologies. The success of farmers' training is limited largely because of failure of trainers to design practical need-based

and skill oriented courses. Two critical and inter-related components of training are content and the process geared to efficient delivery of relevant and effective training.

## **14.VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Voluntary organisation refers to non-profit organisations set up by a group of persons on voluntary basis to help people of a locality in self-reliant development in order to satisfy their needs.

Voluntary organisations must be representatives of the needs and aspirations of the people and should not expect to get in turn for the services rendered. It must also be free from external control. People's involvement in all the activities is essential. Ideally the emphasis should be on raising consciousness of the people and strengthening their capacities to solve their own problems. Voluntary organisations are most sought after for development due to their unique features as given below:

- i. Voluntary organisations exhibit high level of commitment for the cause.
- ii. There is a sense of innovativeness or eagerness to experiment with ideas and solve the problems.
- iii. Voluntary workers are enthusiastic about the work and pursue it into their last because of high level of motivation.
- iv. The organisations are usually free of complex procedure and can adapt their rules to suit local conditions.
- v. There is concern for humanity and its all-round development. Thus, the programmes are comprehensive.
- vi. As voluntary organisations are initiated by local people or those having concern, there is close contact with people.

### **Merits and Role of Voluntary Organisation in Rural Development**

The number of voluntary organisations is continuously on the rise. There are divergent views about the significance of voluntary organizations. The government recognised the value of V.Os. for entrusting them with the responsibilities of implementing certain programmes of rural development. It is now evident that the government organisations have certain limitations in complementing rural development programmes with the spirit of service and dedication. Paid, career-oriented personnel cannot be forced to work with emotions and attachments nor can the rules be stretched all on a sudden. Hence, keeping the strengths and weakness of government organisations in perspective, voluntary organisations have a definite role to play. They are in no way competing with each other, rather V.Os. will supplement the government agencies in many ways. Some of the functional areas suitable for intervention of V.Os. are given below.

**Information Dissemination:** The government programmes need to be communicated to the people in their language and from the people's perspectives. This task is often left to the lower level functionaries of the government. All the efforts of publicity through

various media do not always reach the intended beneficiaries. Information is power and V.Os can strengthen people with right information to one and all. In the similar way, genuine feedback about the benefits and reactions of people can be fed forward to the planner (objectives).

**Community Organisation and Mobilisation:** Due to close contact of V.Os. with the people, it is possible for them to organise self-help groups in the communities. They can generate local leadership and collect funds for common facilities. In fact, V.Os. are quite capable to play catalytic role in mobilisation of community to set up its own facilities and solve their own problems.

**Utilisation of Local Resources:** Identification, planning and effective use of local resources, skills and knowledge can help rural areas in big way. Unutilized resources can be turned into profitable enterprise through appropriate training and enterprise.

**To Set Ideals of Development Work:** V.Os. can show through their organisation work and technique live examples. V.Os. may like to concentrate their work on appropriate technology, team work and ways of living, which people can emulate by seeing. The permanent changes can be brought through such ideal work.

**Conscientisation of the Poor:** It is a common knowledge that no development can be brought unless people themselves begin to realize the problem. Such realization requires efforts to break the shackles of ignorance and vicious cycle of exploitation. It is here that V.Os. can play significant role. It requires confrontation with reality and powerful forces. It may upset the power structure of community. Thus, only genuinely committed V.Os. can dare to venture in this work.



The major development roles ascribed to NGOs are to act as:

- a) planner and implementation of development programmes
- b) mobiliser of local resources and initiative
- c) catalyst, enabler and innovator
- d) builder of self-reliant sustainable society
- e) mediator of people and government
- f) supporter and partner of government programmes in activating delivery system, implementing rural development programmes etc.
- g) agent to demystify technology and disseminate information
- h) factor of transformation, conscientisation and improvement of the poor.
- i) Facilitator of development education, training, professionalisation etc.

Development is transformation and no government can transform a society. The current philosophy of development like equity, participation, gender equality, sustainability and empowerment cannot be incorporated in the process of prosperity by GO s or NGOs alone but by their combinations. With vast command over resources and all embracing power, government can do many things. Role of NGO is preparing the people for a change which is basically an advocacy role viz., development education incorporating self-sustainable development philosophy, form public opinion about government policies or social issues, conscientise for environmental problem, adult literacy, nutrition, sanitation, health, appropriate technology, family planning etc. and empower the poor to overcome psychological inhibitions and opposition of oppressors. As a development agency, role of NGOs turns controversial when it assumes that poverty is basically political and people have to be empowered to overcome the riddles of inequitable power relations. The difference in advocacy and activist role is only in practice. But difference between altruism and activism is not so thin. However NGOs are becoming more and more militant as development practitioners. They are looked as mobilisers, transformers and catalysts in society.

## **15.TRAINING FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

Training is a powerful tool in the hands of development professional to catalyse human resources. Training is a powerful tool in the hands of development professional to catalyse human resources. Extension education puts emphasis on developing the quality of life of people in rural areas by strengthening local leadership, self-reliance and effective use of indigenous resources. It is here that training can be of immerse help. Training of farmers, leaders and extension personnel is needed on continuous basis.

### **Training:**

Training means to educate a person so as to be fitted, qualified, proficient in doing some job. For an extension worker training includes education which aims at bringing a desirable change in the behaviour of trainee or learner. This change may be in his knowledge, skill, attitude, values, beliefs and understandings.

Training has been defined by Milton Hall as “the process of aiding an individual to gain effectiveness in his present or future work through the development of appropriate habits of thought and action, skills, knowledge and attitude.

### **Type of Training:**

According to different stages in the career span of extension personnel, there are mainly three types of training viz., pre-service, induction and in-service training.

#### ***Pre-service Training***

As the name indicates, this is a type of training conducted prior to entry in the job. Thus, this is a type of professional training which prepares a person for job. It includes university or college education after which a person is considered eligible for a job. There is direct link between the curriculum of pre-service training and nature of job to be performed.

#### ***Induction Training***

This is a training given to entrant soon after appointment in order to familiarise him with the philosophy of organisation, procedure of day-to-day work and code of conduct. This is quite practical and related with particular job position. Good induction training is helpful in reducing initial stress about performance and acquainting the incumbent with resources and skills required to perform effectively.

#### ***In-service Training***

It includes all types of training during the service span of a person in the organisation. It is aimed to fill specific gaps at different points of time in career. This covers refresher training, overseas training, training for acquiring professional qualification etc. In-service training should ideally be practical-focussed, research-based and need-based.

#### ***Higher training***

Higher training is becoming very popular now-a-days. It is provided as a sort of incentive for the good workers. It helps in professional development and improves the promotional chances. It is a long-duration training leading to some diploma or degree.

### **Difference between Training and Education**

Training and Education though look alike, often have both commonalities and differences.

EDUCATION		TRAINING
1.	Education is vertically focussed as it aims to prepare people for future roles.	It is meant to provide knowledge and skills which people can apply in job
2.	Contents/subject matter areas covered are broad in nature so that students can gain general understanding and skills to adapt in society or get absorbed in jobs.	Contents are focussed on the immediate needs at the work-place.
3.	Emphasise on development of attitude and knowledge. Skills are also imparted to some extent. Mainly concerned with personal development.	The aim of training is to provide job-skills to improve job performance.
4.	Focus is on general learning which has no immediate application	Aims at need based, problem centered and skill oriented learning for immediate practical application.
5.	Formal education is more rigid and structured.	Training is non-formal and flexible in nature.
6.	Learners are homogenous.	Heterogenous group.

### **Evaluation of training:**

Evaluation means assessment of value of merits of a programme. Evaluation can help in assessing gain in knowledge, skills or attitudes due to training. Reactions of participants can be known. Usefulness of methods and approaches used can be gauged. Above all, overall impact of training on work performance and production can be measured. Evaluation should be done soon before training begins, during the course of training and after the training is over. Pre-training evaluation helps in understanding level of participants at entry point. Observations and data collected during the process of training point out lacunae and merits in implementation of training. Post-training evaluation is meant to measure impact. There are many methods of evaluation viz, pre-post test, oral evaluation, structured observations and skill test, as discussed below.

#### ***Pre-post Tests***

In order to measure gain in knowledge due to training set of questions are prepared to be administered both before and after training is done. Similar test is provided both the time and results are compared.

#### ***Oral Evaluation***

In case the number of participants is not very large, it is easy to get reactions of people about different aspects of training. Trainer may begin with purpose of such exercise so as to stimulate participants to express their reactions. Good aspects, problems and suggestions for improvement of training can be discussed.

### ***Skill Test***

In case of skill training it is possible to design tests, exercises with scores allotted for every step of performance. The participants may be given exercises to complete within allotted time period. Experts can observe and judge them.

### ***Reaction Sheet***

Relevance of content and methods as well as extent of satisfaction of participants with training may be taken on quick participants reaction sheets. Simple statements may be formulated to encourage spontaneous expression of feeling about training. It is ideal to prepare evaluation report on training incorporating observatin and other data with suggestions for modifications.

## **16.HUMAN RELATIONS IN EXTENSION**

### **Human Resource Development (HRD)**

HRD can be defined as a planned and continuous effort by management to improve employee capacity levels and organisational performance through training, education and development programmes. Training includes those activities that are conducted to improve overall competence of an individual in a specific direction and beyond current job. Development involves learning opportunities aimed at individual growth but not restricted to a specific present or future job.

HRD is a process in which employees of an organization are continuously helped in planned manner to acquire and sharpen capabilities that are required to perform various functions.

Thus HRD is an approach to facilitate both developments of competencies and creation of environment conducive to stimulate and nature continuous growth of individuals and organisations.

### **The Concept of Management**

The term 'management' stems from the word 'manage' which , in turn, is derived from the French word menage meaning 'housekeeping'. In general usage, the word 'management' identifies a special group of people whose job it is to direct the effort and activities of other people toward common objectives.

Koontz (1971) defined management as the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized groups, the art of creating an environment in such an organized group where people can perform as individuals and yet cooperate toward attainment of group goals, the art of optimizing efficiency in effectively reaching goals.

The five basic functions which have historically formed the core of studying management are planning, decision making, organizing, directing and controlling.

### **Principles of Human Relations in Extension**

The following “Tools of the True Leader”, (in the words of Rogers and Olmsted) are suggestions for the practical applications of the principles of human relation to Extension supervision.

*The Extension Supervision should strive to:*

1. Follow a fact-finding approach to problems and to achieve an objective attitude toward the people under his supervision. By objectivity is meant the viewing of problems or events as external to the personalities involved. (Fact-finding approach does not mean ignoring the feeling or sentiments of the people).
2. Be constantly on guard against permitting his personal prejudice to influence his treatment of individuals under his supervision. The supervisor who knows when to be lenient and when to be firm has mastered an important characteristic of the “true” leader.
3. Have emotional control so that those feelings which are undesirable to the welfare of the group may be channeled to constructive ends.
4. Know that people are basically more alike than they are different. This knowledge helps him to understand the behaviour of those whom he supervises.
5. Recognize that each worker is different and has different ways of doing things. He should encourage all workers to be themselves. He should not try to impose work habits, style or tempo on his subordinates. He must have a “feel” for the behaviour of people.
6. Minimize authority. A true leader maximizes responsibility and minimizes authority. Supervision consists much less of giving orders than of seeking to secure agreement.
7. Give clear but general instructions. The closeness of supervision has an adverse effect on productivity and morale. The supervisor should tell subordinates clearly and concisely what is expected of them and then let them work out the details. Too much supervision develops mediocrity among workers.
8. Be sensitive to the opinions of others. He should think “with” rather than “for” the subordinates. Decision should originate at the work level and pass up through the line of communication. Approval by the supervisor should be ratification rather than an original decision. The supervisor should not create or originate all of the plans, but should function like a “true” leader who gets most of his ideas from his followers. He should be alert to suggestions from subordinates, seeking always to pick up ideas

from them. In turn, when he gives suggestions to workers, they should be so given that the worker may accept them as his own. This might be called “democracy” in supervision or “group participation” in management.

9. Learn what subordinates expect of him. He can then determine if it is possible for him to meet those expectations. A supervisor should never promise what he cannot deliver.
10. Provide leadership of a continuously helpful kind. He should deal with the human parts of the organization so that they all work at their individual and collective best.
11. Develop the abilities and skills of those under his supervision. He should help the worker to set his own goals for his own development and performance and to help him, periodically, to evaluate his progress toward goals. Sound leadership builds people.
12. Consider communication as one of the most important aspects of his job. He should recognise that it is a two-way process. He should inform workers about changes in work affecting them. He should discuss the “whys” of organizational policies with them and should make certain that each worker knows how well he is doing. He must keep management informed of significant development, which may have bearing upon organizational policy and of progress being made by the workers under him. The supervisor also has the obligation to communicate his ideas to workers, to the clientele group and to management in a clear and concise manner, to “create an atmosphere of acceptance”. He must recognise that no one can gain acceptance by a group unless he frequently communicates with that group on a personal basis. He must also be aware that an important aid to more effective communication is listening.
13. Have the capacity to grow himself and to develop leadership among those whom he supervises. He must learn and practice good human relations.

### **Implications of Human Relations in Extension**

An Extension worker has to work with people, and people have to be the focus of his attention. Therefore he has to have human feelings, be sensitive to human reactions of others, be understanding, sympathetic, humble and patient. These qualities, admittedly, are not possessed to a sufficient degree and widely enough by the personnel in our administration and this accounts for the administration's lack of responsiveness to the people's needs and aspirations. This weakness must be removed.

Recently India has launched on a programme of “democratic decentralization” popularly known as Panchayat Raj, with a view to involve the people in planning, executing and evaluating developmental programmes from the “grass roots”. The emphasis now in the matter of planning and executing extension programmes is on mutual consultation, consent and co-operation at different levels between the people and

the Gram –Sevak, between Gram-Sevaks and Extension Officers, between Extension Officers and the Block Development Officers as well as the District Agricultural Officers, and so on, both up and down the line. In such a context, if the professional leaders (personnel in the administration) at the various levels are to play their roles effectively; they should know and practice the principles and procedures of democracy, otherwise known as “human relations” in working with the people as well as in supervising the work of the subordinates.

## **17. ADMINISTRATION IN EXTENSION**

In extension administration two things are important. The first is the knowledge of administration, that can be developed by administrators. Such knowledge will make the administrators aware of some of the unanticipated consequences of their decisions. Secondly, the skill and the knowledge possessed by the administrators should be used by them in solving the problems of the organisation of which they are members. Unless this is brought in practice it will have no utility for the organisation.

### **Meaning**

Administration can be defined as the guidance, leadership and control of the efforts of a group of individuals towards some common goal. According to this definition the essence of administration is the ability of the administrator to plan large projects, weld together an organisation for its accomplishment, keep the organisation functioning smoothly and efficiently and achieve the agreed upon objectives well within the allotment of the personnel, time and resources available, and without doing all the work himself.

### **Scope**

The scope of administration can be expressed in terms of the functional elements indicated by the word POSDCORB. This word is made up of initials and indicates the following activities.

P – stands for planning, i.e., working out in broad outline the things to be done and the methods to be adopted for accomplishing the purpose in hand.

O – stands for organisation, i.e., building up the structure of authority through which the entire work to be done is arranged into well defined sub-divisions and coordination.

S – stands for staffing, i.e., appointing suitable persons to the various posts under the organisation and the whole of personnel management.

D – stands for directing, i.e., making decisions, issuing orders and instructions for the guidance of the staff.

CO – stands for coordination, i.e., interrelating various parts of the work and eliminating overlapping and conflict.

R – stands for reporting, i.e., keeping both the superiors and subordinates informed of what is going on, and arranging for the collection of such information through inspection, research and records.

B – stands for budgering, which is more concerned with the financial affairs of the organisation.

These POSDCORB activities are common to all fields of administration and therefore, are also applicable to the extension administration.

### **Basic Principle of Administration**

It is assumed that increased effectiveness of administration will occur when the principles of administration are followed. These principles are also called guidelines as they guide the administrators in the performance of their job.

#### ***1) Principle of Hierarchy***

The members of the organisation are arranged in a definite subordinate – superordinate hierarchy of line positions (e.g., classes I,II,III and IV). It is also known as the ‘scalar process’, wherein lines of positional authority and responsibility run upward and downward through several levels with a broad base at the bottom and a single head at the top in order to preserve the ‘unity of command’.

In the effective organisation each worker knows who is his supervisor and each supervisor knows whom he is expected to supervise. If a worker is subject to orders from several supervisors (as in the case of village development officer), he gets confused, inefficient and irresponsible. In this arrangement the authority of making vital decisions is entrusted with a specialised person located at the helm of the organisation.

#### ***2) Principle of Authority***

Effective administration will occur when the authority allocated to an individual or group of individuals is sufficient. The authority and the responsibility should be clearly defined and understood by all persons in the organisation. The different types of authorities are given in the following pages.

#### ***3) Principle of Responsibility with Matching Authority***

The individual should not be burdened only with responsibilities but should also be provided with matching authority. This is more important in a decentralised form of administration. Responsibility without authority is just like leaving an individual to fight with a tiger without a gun or weapon.



#### ***4) Principle of Span of Control***

Span of control is the number of subordinates one has to supervise. In general, the span of control is such as to permit as much decentralisation of decision-making as is needed. It helps in attaining quality decisions. It results in increased effectiveness and efficiency in attaining the organisational objectives. Some of the factors influencing the span of control include (a) the intensity and frequency of the need to see the chief, (b) the magnitude of their problems, (c) the age of the agency, (d) the professional competence and length of service to the staff, (e) the size of the agency, (f) the size of the geographic area in which the supervisor must operate, (g) the importance of the decisions which the supervisor must make, (h) the degree of control that must be exercised, and (I) the degree of repetitiveness of the work to be done.

#### ***5) Principle of Communication***

There should be a two-way channel of communication, both vertical and horizontal in the organisation. Communication ensures common understanding of organisational values and objectives. Clear and proper assignments of authority and functions are required for success in large operations. Employees want to know what is going on. Without a broad sharing of information and purpose, their morale will be low and the agency's task will be more difficult.

#### ***6) Principle of Organisational Structure***

The organisation can no longer remain fixed or static. Changes in basic objectives, in size of staff, in professional competency, adjustments in programme emphasis, in the nature of institutional relationships within which the organisation must operate will have to be made. Similarly the need for long range as well as short range planning of programmes, personnel and finances may require many adjustments in the form of the administrative organisational structure. In short the organisational structure should be subject to continuous adaptations as conditions warrant.

## **18. SUPERVISION AND COORDINATION IN EXTENSION**

Supervision may be defined as the art of directing the efforts or harnessing the energy of human beings to the attainment of organizational needs and objectives.

The purpose of extension supervision is not merely to check that the personnel do their work in a correct, timely manner, more important is the objective of assisting and guiding them to do their assigned tasks effectively. While keeping in mind the basic duties of all extension workers, supervisory staff should focus on the quality of the work and on ways to improve the effectiveness of individual staff, which, in turn, will benefit farmers and the extension service at large.

## **Principles of Supervision**

Principles of supervision applicable to Extension include the following:

1. Supervision is an essential part of administration, integral to it but not identical with it.
2. Supervision is a co-operative activity. It takes place through the shared ideas, efforts and experiences of all staff members. Co-operation provides opportunity for the growth of the supervisor as well as for the growth of the employee.
3. Supervision is ordinarily concerned with the co-operative improvement of the setting in which learning takes place. It seeks improved methods of teaching and creates a physical, social, psychological climate favourable to learning.
4. Planning is fundamental to supervision. It is co-operative in nature and orderly in procedure from the inception of an idea to the extension of a series of activities.
5. Supervision is creative, not prescriptive. It determines procedures in the light of the needs of each situation. It provides opportunity for originality and self-expression. It is scientific in its approach to problem solving.
6. Supervision substitutes leadership for authority. It is based on the democratic philosophy that respects individual differences and that assumes people are capable of growth. It stimulates initiative, self-reliance, and individual responsibility. Opportunities are provided for the co-operative formulation of policies, plans and goals.
7. There is an art to be learned for the successful practice of supervision. It is primarily the art of building creative human relationships.
8. Successful supervision is measured in terms of the qualitative growth of those being supervised.
9. Supervision provides for the establishment of Extension objectives and goals and a means for comprehensive and systematic evaluation of the Extension programme.

## **Approaches in Supervision**

The techniques / approaches of supervision include:

- a) An understanding of others point of view.
- b) Training;
- c) Work plans – step by step detailing of what every employee is expected to do;
- d) Written procedures and instructions;
- e) Staff meeting.

It should be remembered that all the above aspects are identified separately for study but in every day practice they are so interrelated as to constitute a kind of multiple instrument that the administrator applies as though it were a single owner, only changing the emphasis a little here and there to meet the requirements of particular situation.

## Qualities of a good supervisor

1. *THOROUGHNESS*: especially thoroughness in those things which, to the less successful seemed small and unimportant.
2. *FAIRNESS*: It is the only basis upon which lasting success in supervising people can be achieved.
3. *INITIATIVE*: means simply the capacity for assuming responsibility and for carrying a job to completion. It also means the ability to carry through an undertaking without detailed guidance. The supervisor with initiative must be able to think and plan for himself. He must be able to sense change in situations and must be able to grasp opportunities as they develop.
4. *TACT* is probably not so much what one says or what one does but rather the manner in which one says or does it. The influence of a tactful suggestion is often far greater than the impact of a bluntly worded order.
5. *ENTHUSIASM* must be built on a firm foundation. It must combine interest, knowledge and a desire for achievement.
6. *EMOTIONAL CONTROL* – Through control the supervisor minimizes the likelihood of saying the untactful thing and committing the unfair act.
7. *INTELLIGENCE* is the inherent ability of the individual to think clearly and rapidly. However, many extremely intelligent men and women make poor supervisors. Good supervision seems to result when the supervisor possesses a blend of other qualities which rest on a bedrock of intelligence.
8. *INTEGRITY* is the moral facet of leadership. It is knowing what is the right thing to do and doing it. It is the quality which makes impossible double crossing, undercutting, backbiting, and misrepresentation.
9. *LOYALTY* is fidelity, or constancy. It is belief in the job and in each task undertaken. It is faith in and respect for the programme or organization represented. It is trust in the capabilities of the people being supervised.
10. An intimate *KNOWLEDGE OF THE WORK* to be done by the subordinate is extremely important to the immediate supervisor.
11. To be *FLEXIBLE AND ADAPTABLE* the supervisor must be able to put himself in the situation of others.
12. *VISION* means simply the ability to look into the future and to anticipate events before they occur. It means foresight and the ability to predict developing situations with reasonable accuracy, and to lay plans to meet these situations when they arise.

13. To exercise *GOOD JUDGEMENT* means to make wise decisions, to draw conclusions that are generally sound, and to withhold opinions until all of the facts are available. It also means practising consistency in the decision making process.
14. The *PHYSICAL VITALITY* demanded by the job of the Extension supervisor is so great that it seems doubtful if a sickly or lethargic person could keep pace with the demands.
15. To possess *BROAD KNOWLEDGE AND INTERESTS* means to be well informed, to have good general training and perhaps most important of all, intellectual curiosity. The supervisor, to be successful in his job as well as to be a successful human being must have interests beyond those of his speciality.
16. The supervisor who is always prepared for an emergency has the quality of *RESOURCEFULNESS*. In its most common form the resourceful person is one who can devise several alternative ways of solving a problem.
17. The *CO-OPERATIVE* supervisor seeks from and extends to other assistance in carrying out plans. He invites advice, discussion, and joint decision-making.
18. A supervisor who possesses *COMMON SENSE* recognizes the practical aspects of all situations. He is willing to compromise, within the limits of Extension regulations and his own sense of loyalty, integrity and fair play.
19. Appreciation of other people's feelings and points of view is what is meant by *HUMANENESS*. The good supervisor understands the point of view of his subordinates recognizes why they feel as they do, listens to them no matter how trivial the matter may seem and, in turn, pays them the compliment of asking their advice.
20. *ABILITY TO TEACH* is important to the Extension Supervisor as a large part of every supervisor's work is teaching.
21. *LANGUAGE FACILITY* means the ability to express one's self clearly, forcefully, and without hesitation.

### **Coordination – The Essence of Management**

Co-ordination is concerned with synchronising and unifying the actions of a group of people. Mooney and Railey define co-ordination as the orderly arrangement of group effort to provide unity of action in pursuit of a common purpose.

#### **Meaning**

Its aim is to secure cooperation and team work among the employees engaged in the work of the organisation. Negatively, it is the removal of conflicts, working at cross-

purposes, and overlapping and includes within itself all other principles which are subordinate to it and through which it operates.

### **Role of Coordination**

Coordination is required because the members of any large organisation, when left to themselves, have a tendency to drift away in different directions, thus giving rise to conflicts. The causes of conflicts may be:

1. Due to ignorance of one another's activities which may result in duplication of work.
2. There is a tendency among workers in charge of different functions to attach so much importance to their own work as to be unmindful of the needs of others, and thus make encroachments on the latter's sphere. They refuse to see their particular charge as the part of a large whole to which it must be duly subordinate.
3. Greed for power and importance, which the heads of some organisations have.

Co-ordination is the overall managerial function of correlating and integrating the diverse goals, strategic policies, roles of and relationships between organizational members, diverse activities and efforts of people within, resource allocations and conversion processes and so on - such that the organisation function as an orderly, rational, purposeful and harmonious system. The need for co-ordination arises due to the diverse and differentiated nature of organisational activities and efforts. Co-ordination aims at unification and integration of activities and results in a systematic manner to ensure organisational stability, continuity, consistency, predictability and planned performances. Since organisations are man-made systems, they are unlikely to function and perform as expected without conscious managerial action in the form of coordination. In a sense, co-ordination is not merely one of the functions of management but is the essence of management. The management process-planning, organising, staffing direction and control is an exercise in co-ordination.

## **19. PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Participatory approaches such as Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) etc., whether through observations or through participation, attempted to understand the problems of resource poor farmers and improve quality of information collected on them by overcoming the deficiencies of conventional survey method. These approaches incorporated flexibility of methods and elements of peoples' participation in different measures in order to reflect field-level realities.

RRA is an appropriate methodology for evaluating, diagnosing and identifying rural situations, by a multidisciplinary team, particularly when quick action is called for gaining an initial orientation in a project region, for analysing a special problem, for resolving conflict; or for focussing on certain issues and monitoring and evaluation.

RRA is a way of organising people for collecting and analysing information within a short time span. It can be defined as any systematic process of investigation to

acquire new information in order to draw and validate inferences, hypothesis, observations and conclusions in a limited period of time.

### **Application of RRA**

RRA is used to collect data relatively quickly, with an aim to improve the planning, execution and the evaluation of interventions taking place in a community. Some of the specific purposes of RRA are (Nyamwaya, 1993).

- To generate research hypothesis
- To investigate in detail, findings generated through surveys or any other research methods.
- To evaluate projects or any development programmes.
- To collect baseline qualitative data useful for programme planning
- To improve the design of surveys
- To identify the issues that may require further investigation.
- To develop new technologies, and
- To identify any issue that may need any further investigation.

It is important to note that RRA is people-centred in the sense that the techniques used for data collection also facilitate the respondent's participation.

### **Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)**

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is a field-based methodology that enables multidisciplinary team to join with village leaders to gather data, rank village needs and priorities and thereby help mobilise rural communities to participate in preparing and implementing village resource management plans.

### **Scope of RRA and PRA**

The common areas of application of participatory approaches are as follows:

- Management of natural resources (Soil and Water conservation, agro-forestry, fishery, etc.)
- Agriculture (field crops & animal husbandry).
- Health and nutrition (basic health care and food security programmes, drinking water supply)
- Village level and district level planning.
- Institution and policy analysis.

### **Importance of Participatory approaches**

Development is a process of transformation of the quality of life of individuals. Development, in short, is an exercise in betterment of quality of life. It focuses on the nature of life. 'Development' can be meaningful only through the participation of the clientele in the programme.

There is a vast-gap existing between rural perceptions and perceptions of those development professionals from the 'top' involved in planning and implementation of rural development programmes. The development planners assess their needs and priorities on the basis of their perceptions that are generally at variance with rural development, the beliefs, attitudes and values of the rural people involved remain under-perceived, under-valued and simplified. There is also a tendency at the top to generalise and not notice rural variations by space, time, gender, age and ethnic groups.

In the context of rural development and individual well-being, the issue is how rural perceptions can be revealed and understood so as to:

- a) take account of indigenous knowledge system.
- b) Incorporate rural diversity
- c) Make rural communities involved in the pursuit of well being and
- d) Make professionals task more worthwhile and rewarding in the process of collecting, analysing and using rural information base for development.

These facts can be understood very well through the use of participatory approaches for data collection such as PRA and RRA.

- then let them work out the details. Too much supervision develops mediocrity among workers.
- Be sensitive to the opinions of others. He should think "with" rather than "for" the subordinates. Decision should originate at the work level and pass up through the line of communication. Approval by the supervisor should be ratification rather than an original decision. The supervisor should not create or originate all of the plans, but should function like a "true" leader who gets most of his ideas from his followers. He should be alert to suggestions from subordinates, seeking always to pick up ideas from them. In turn, when he gives suggestions to workers, they should be so given that the worker may accept them as his own. This might be called "democracy" in supervision or "group participation:" in management.
- Learn what subordinates expect of him. He can then determine if it is possible for him to meet those expectations. A supervisor should never promise what he cannot deliver.
- Provide leadership of a continuously helpful kind. He should deal with the human parts of the organization so that they all work at their individual and collective best.
- Develop the abilities and skills of those under his supervision. He should help the worker to set his own goals for his own development and performance and to help him, periodically, to evaluate his progress toward those goals. Sound leadership builds people.

- Consider communication as one of the most important aspects of his job. He should recognise that it is a two-way process. He should inform workers about changes in work affecting them. He should discuss the “whys” of organizational policies with them and should make certain that each worker knows how well he is doing. He must also keep management informed of significant development, which may have bearing upon organizational policy and of progress being made by the workers under him. The supervisor also has the obligation to communicate his ideas to workers, to the clientele group and to management in a clear and concise manner, to “create an atmosphere of acceptance”. He must recognise that no one can gain acceptance by a group unless he frequently communicates with that group on a personal basis. He must also be aware that an important aid to more effective communication is listening.
- Have the capacity to grow himself and to develop leadership among those whom he supervises. He must learn and practice good human relations.

### **Implications of Human Relations in Extension**

An Extension worker has to work with people, and people have to be the focus of his attention. Therefore he has to have human feelings, be sensitive to human reactions of others, be understanding, sympathetic, humble and patient. These qualities, admittedly, are not possessed to a sufficient degree and widely enough by the personnel in our administration and this accounts for the administration’s lack of responsiveness to the people’s needs and aspirations. This weakness must be removed.

Recently India has launched on a programme of “democratic decentralisation” popularly known as Panchayat Raj, with a view to involve the people in planning, executing and evaluating developmental programmes from the “grass roots”. The emphasis now in the matter of planning and executing extension programme is on mutual consultation, consent and co-operation at different levels between the people and the Gram-Sevak, between Gram Sevaks and Extension officers, between Extension Officers and the Block Development Officers as well as the District Agricultural Officers, and so on, both up and down the line. In such a context, if the professional leaders (personnel in the administration) at the various levels are to play their roles effectively; they should know and practice the principles and procedures of democracy, otherwise known as “human relations” in working with the people as well as in supervising the work of the subordinates.

## **20. PROGRAMMED PLANNING IN EXTENSION**

### **Definition**

Programme is an overall, long ranged schedule or broad outline of things that need to be done and methods of doing them.



Plan is usually an annual schedule of work. It answers the questions of what, why, when, where and by whom and how the work is to be done?

Programme planning is a continuous series of activities leading to the development of a definite plan of action to accomplish particular objectives.

Extension programme is a statement of situation, objective, problems and solutions. It is relatively permanent but requires constant revision. It forms the basis for extension plans.

Project is a single item of the annual plan containing the method and solution of single selected problem.

### **Nature of programme planning**

The programme planning process in extension has some characteristics. These are—

- (i) *Programme planning is an educational process and involves both teaching and learning.* It teaches skills to the people in finding, analyzing, deliberating and focussing problems. It teaches facts i.e., gives more knowledge to the people. It changes the attitude of the people towards the planning process,.
- (ii) *Programme planning is an unifying and integrating process:* Through the process of identifying problems, establishing priorities, establishing objectives and goals, and providing continuity and evaluation, people get a total picture of where they are, what they shall do and where they are likely to reach.
- (iii) *Programme planning is a coordinating process:* It requires coordination of the efforts and activities between officials and non-officials, between institutions and organizations, between men and materials, and the like.
- (iv) *Programme planning is an evaluating process:* Evaluating of accomplishment is not the only criterion. It also provides for evaluation of the programme planning process and organization.

### **Scope of Programme planning**

The following roles of programme planning in the process of development indicates its scope.

- (a) Helps in discovering and planning the ways for action.
- (b) Gives meaning and system to actions.
- (c) Prepares the basis for a course of future action.
- (d) Facilitates decision making for the future.
- (e) Singless out most significant needs.
- (f) Identifies the gap between the present situation and the desired situation.
- (g) Assists in formulation of objectives.
- (h) Promotes active involvement of local leaders.

## Principles of Programme Planning

Extension programme planning has certain principles which hold good irrespective of the nature of the clientele and the enterprises they may be pursuing. The principles are as follows.

1. *Extension programmes should be based on an analyses of the past experiences, present situation and future needs.* For programme building, adequate information about the people and their situation have to be collected. The present situation is to be analyzed and interpreted on the basis of past-experiences, which may be good or bad, encouraging or discouraging. This shall help in arriving at the future needs. In doing so, the local people should be selected and clearly stated.
2. *Extension Programmes should have clear and significant objectives which could satisfy important needs of the people.* The ultimate objective of programme building is to satisfy the needs of the people. For this purpose, significant objectives pertaining to important needs of the people should be selected and clearly stated.
3. *Extension programmes should fix up priority on the basis of available resources and time.* The rural people, particularly in the developing countries, have a multitude of problems. All problems cannot be taken up at a time for solution, because of the limitations of trained personnel; availability of funds, facilities and other resources. Time is also a limiting factor as both the people and the funding agencies cannot wait for an indefinite period of time to get the results. Considering all these parameters it is essential to fix up priorities in the programme.
4. *Extension programmes should clearly indicate the availability and utilization of resources.* An extension programme should clearly state wherefrom the funds, facilities, supplies and the needed man-power shall be available and how they shall be utilized. This shall make the programme practical and workable.
5. *Extension programmes should have a general agreement at various levels.* Programmes prepared at the various levels such as village, district, State and national levels should conform to each other and shall not work at cross purposes. Similarly, the extension programme of a particular department should not be in conflict or contradiction with the extension programme of another department.
6. *Extension programmes should involve people at the local level.* Extension programmes are implemented at the local level. Local should, therefore, be involved all through, from programmed formulation to programme implementation.
7. *Extension programmes should involve relevant institutions and organizations.* Extension programmes cannot be implemented in isolation. It requires the support of many institutions and organizations. The programme should broadly indicate the institutions and organizations to be involved and for what purpose.

8. *Extension programme should have definite plan of work.* The plan of work may be separately drawn up or incorporated in the programme. The programme should at least broadly indicate how it will be executed. Unless the plan of work is drawn up, the programme remains a theoretical exercise.
9. *Extension programmes should provide for evaluation of results and reconsideration of the programme.* Extension programme is not a static outline of activities. The programme should make provision for periodical monitoring and evaluation of results to judge its progress. On the basis of the findings of evaluation, the programme should be suitably modified to facilitate its reaching the objective within the stipulated period of time.
10. *Extension programmes should provide for equitable distribution of the benefits amongst the members of the community.* It has been found that, in a community generally the resource-rich persons benefit more in comparison, to the resource-poor, from the implementation of extension programmes. As this may generate social disparity and social tensions, the planning of extension programmes should give adequate emphasis on the weaker sections of the community.

### **Objectives of Programme Planning:**

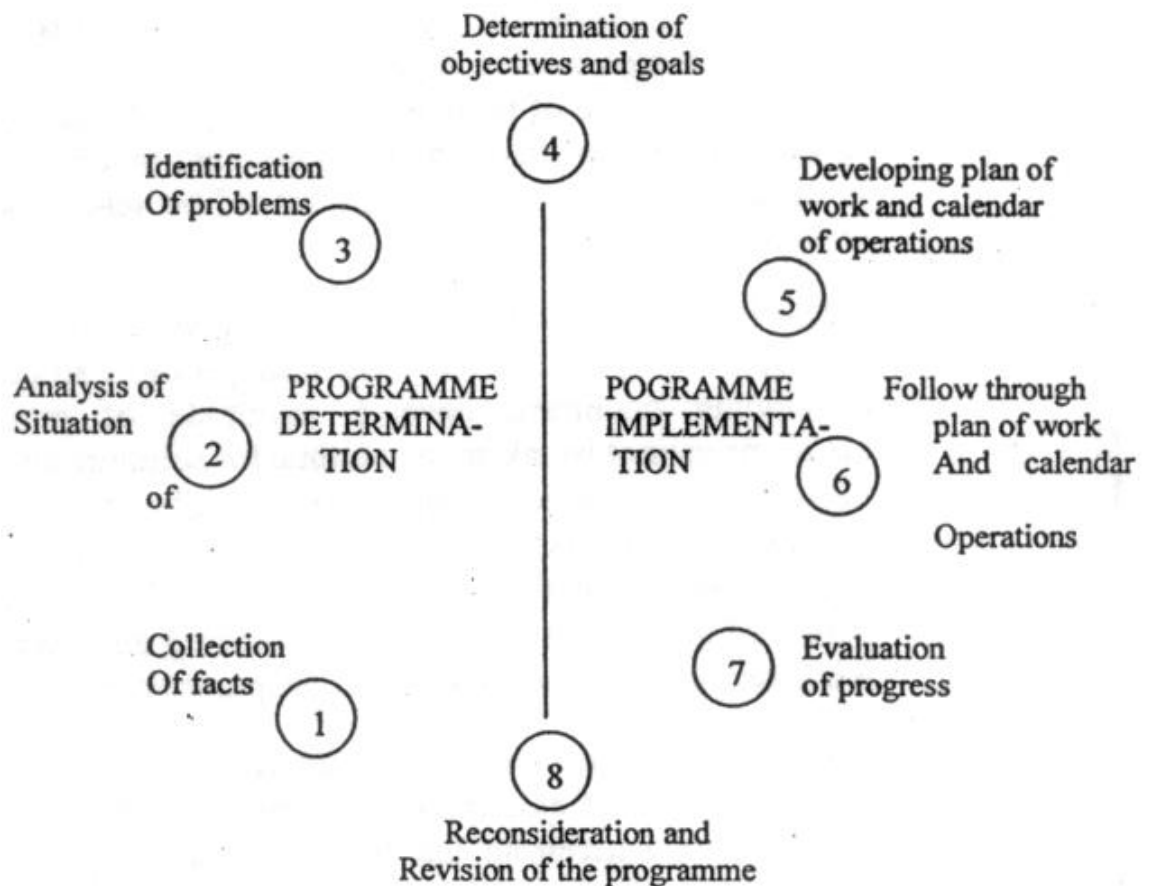
The general objective of having an extension programme is to influence people to make changes in their way of life and in making a living. The extension programme are useful for the following reasons:

- 1) To ensure careful consideration of what is to be done and why.
- 2) To furnish a guide against which new proposals are to be judged.
- 3) To present in written form a statement for public use.
- 4) To establish objectives with which progress can be measured and evaluated.
- 5) To have a means of choosing the important from the incidental problems and the permanent from the temporary changes.
- 6) To present mistaking the means for the end and to develop both felt and unfelt needs.
- 7) To give continuity during changes of personnel.
- 8) To aid in the development of leadership
- 9) To avoid waste of time and money and promote general efficiency.
- 10) To coordinate the efforts of the different people working for rural development.

### **Steps in Programme Planning:**

The extension programme planning process is illustrated as follows. There are 8 steps which form a continuous cycle of programme building and implementation in extension. The first four steps are grouped under programme determination while the remaining four are grouped under programme implementation. These steps should not be overlooked while preparing and implementing any programme. After every step the activities such as evaluation, decision making, planning and action need to be carried out. The steps are discussed with examples.

1. *Collection of facts.* It is the starting point of programme planning process. Pertinent data may be collected from the available records and by survey of the area with the help of schedule developed for the purpose. Informations relating to the principle, their enterprises, levels of technology, facilities and constraints, values etc., relevant to programme building may be collected. Informations may also be collected from Panchayats, Cooperatives and other organizations working in the area. Collection of lengthy and time consuming data may be avoided unless essential, as in many cases these are not properly analyzed or utilized, and may lead to wastage of time.



The programme planning process is explained with an example. There is a village where the farmers are poor and something is to be done to improve their economic condition. We conduct a survey of the village and collect information on the number of farm families, their occupations, land-use pattern, utilization of water resources, facilities for marketing, availability of inputs and credit, their attitude towards various enterprises, the strength of extension service in the area etc. We also collect relevant informations from the panchayats and other organizations working in the area.

2. *Analysis of situation.* The data and information collected are then analyzed in an unbiased way, keeping in view the feelings expressed by the client system. This shall help in understanding the situation in its proper perspective.
3. *Identification of problems.* A correct analysis and interpretation of the data shall help us in correctly identifying the problems. There may be many problems, but only the urgent and significant ones which may be solved with the available resources and within the limits of time, should only be selected. Selection of a large number of problems which can not be properly managed may lead to a failure of the programme and generate frustration among the people.

In the present example, after analysis of the data and relevant informations with the local people, three most important problems are identified, which need immediate solution. They are, for example, low levels of income, employment and nutrition in the farm families.

4. *Determination of objectives and goals.* The objectives are then determined on the basis of the significant needs identified. The objectives should be direct and stated in clear terms. In the present example, the objectives then become to increase the levels of income, employment and nutrition of the farm families in the village.

To make the objectives realistic and actionable, there is need to state them in terms of specific goals. In the determination of goals it may be necessary to again go through the data and informations analyzed; to find out what could actually be done in the existing situation, with the available resources and time, which will be compatible and with which the people shall cooperate. It is necessary to discuss with the local people and local institutions, which shall also legitimize the whole programme planning process.

In the example, it is found that the village has a number of ponds with ample water throughout the year. They were used mainly for domestic purposes and not for irrigation as the fields were away. There appeared to be a good scope of introducing the technology of duck-cum-fish-farming in the village. The goals were then finalized after checking up cultural compatibility with the farmers, technical compatibility with the scientists and financial compatibility with the banks and Govt. departments . The goals were set up as follows-

- (a) to raise the yield of fish to 4000 Kg/ha/year by resorting to composite fish culture in about one-third of the ponds in the first year and covering all the ponds in a period of three years.
- (b) To introduce Khaki Campbell duck rearing in about one-fourth of the ponds in the first year and covering all the ponds in a period of four years, to obtain 240 eggs per female bird per year.

The generation of additional income and employment, and the availability of additional protein food for the participating farm families per year were calculated and found to be satisfactory both by the farmers and the extension worker.

The Panchayat was informed of the programmes to which it agreed.

*5. Developing plan of work and calender of operations.* The plan of work should be in written form and shall indicate who shall do what job i.e. what the cahange agent system and the client system shall do; which institutions, organizations, service departments shall be involved; what will be the financial requirements and how they shall be met; what arrangements shall be made for marketing of the produce, training of the farmers and so on. The plan should have all the essential details and no important point should be left out.

The calendar of operations shall be prepared on the basis of the plan of work and shall specify when a particular work shall be done, preferably mentioning date and time; how much quantify of different inputs, including credit shall be required and when they must be made available; when, where and for how many days the farmers shall be trained, who are the specialists to be involved in training and preparing the handouts, when the publications shall be ready for distribution etc. That is, the calender of operations shall specifically state how and when all the significant activities shall be performed. This should be atleast for one season or for a period of one year. In that case, they may be termed as 'seasonal plan' or 'annual plan'.

In the example, the plan of work and calender of opertions shall be developed for composite fish culture and duck rearing on the basis of scientific recommendations. In view of the integrated operation of two different technologies, belonging to two different disciplines of fishery and livestock, some special care need to be taken in developing the plan of work and calendar of operations. Some advance planning and action is also needed for critical inputs like mohua oilcake, desired number and species of fish fries and day old female ducklings, as these are most probably to be pronounced from outside.

*6. Follow through plan of work and calendar of operations.* This is not a routine type of work as many people may think. Training of farmers, communication of information, conducting method demonstrations, making regular visits and monitoring are some of the important functions the extension worker shall perform at this stage. The work shall include solving unforeseen problems and taking corrective steps where needed. The performance of the extension worker and the organizational support he receives at this stage may make the difference between success or failure of a programme. Obtaining feedback information as to what is happening to the farmers after introduction of new technology is extremely important at this stage.

In the present context, composite fish culture and rearing of Khaki Campbell ducks are new items of technology, and the extension worker shall ensure that all the recommendations are known and precisely applied under expert supervision. It is important at this stage to know how the farmers are responding to the new technologies, what are their reactions, and what problems they are facing in putting the recommendations into practice.

*7. Evaluation of progress.* Evaluation is the process of determining the extent to which we have been able to attain our objectives. All programmes must have an in-built system of evaluation to know how well the work is done. It should be a continuous process not only to measure the end result but also ensure that all the steps are correctly followed. Evaluation may be formal or informal, depending on the importance of the programme and also on the availability of trained man-power, funds, facilities and time. Programme evaluation involves the following three essential steps-

- (a) Setting up of some standards or criteria in relation to the objectives
- (b) Collection of information
- (c) Making the judgement, and drawing some unbiased and valid conclusions.

In the example, evaluation furnishes reply to the following questions.

- (a) Have the targets in respect of farmers to be covered and yield levels to be reached in fish production and duck farming been achieved?
- (b) Have the targets in respect of income and employment generation, and availability of protein food for the farm families been accomplished?

In case there have been shorfalls, evaluation indicates the degree of shortfalls, and pinpoints why it has been so, and what should be done to remove the deficiencies.

*8. Reconsideration and revision of the programme.* On the basis of the results of evaluation, the programmes should be reconsidered, and revised if needed. This reconsideration should be done not only with the participants; but also with the scientists, administrators in extension organization and local bodies like panchayats etc.

Reconsideration shall help in making necessary corrections and modifications in the programme. In reconsideration, emphasis should be on the removal of technical defects if any, and how to obtain more cooperation and involvement of the participants and various organizations. The purpose of such an exercise is to make the extension programme more effective, so that it can attain the objectives and bring satisfaction to the people within the limits of time.

The crucial point in the success of programme planning is proper blending of local experience with relevant results of research. The direct and indirect consequences of the technological innovations must be recognized in planning and implementation of technological change.

### **Importance of Programme Planning**

Some of the factors of low productivity belong to the natural factors and their change is not physically possible eg., soil quality, climate, natural resources of water and irrigation etc. But there are other factors which should be improved upon through planned attempts and make the agricultural sector more productive. These latter belong to density of population, accumulation of capital, techniques of production, credit, marketing etc.

India has been struggling hard for economic development for several years even before Independence, but it found it difficult to get out of stagnation, particularly because there was no planning effort organised by British Government. Now after independence there was a growing realisation that if social and economic strategies were properly coordinated and integrated, their effects would be mutually reinforcing and their contribution to total development would be correspondingly enlarged.

To increase production to maximum possible extent so as to achieve higher level of national income and per capital, income, to create more and more employment opportunities, to reduce inequalities of income and wealth and establish an even economic power and to provide social-justice, etc. These and such others brings the need and importance of planning

## **21.EVALUATION IN EXTENSION EDUCATION**

Evaluation is derived from Latin word 'Valeo' which means 'to value'. Evaluation means judging the value of something. Extension evaluation is the process of determining how well the desired behavioural changes have taken place or are taking place as a result of extension educational effort.

### **Three Important Elements of Evaluation Process**

1. Observation or collecting some information.
2. Applying some standards or criteria to our observations.



3. Finally, forming some judgement, drawing some conclusions or making some decisions.

### **Steps in an evaluation plan**

The following 5 simple questions in evaluation indicate the 5 main steps in the process.

1. What information do you want to get and why?
2. Where, when and how will you get the information?
3. Who will collect the information?
4. How will it be analysed?
5. What does it mean?

The above 5 questions can be expanded into an evaluation outline as follows giving the steps as constituting a plan of action.

### **An Evaluation Outline**

#### **1. Need for the Evaluation:**

- a) What Extension project, problem, activity, job, method or situation do you want to evaluate?
- b) Why evaluate it?
- c) How can the results of the evaluation be used in your extension work?

#### **2. Purpose of the Evaluation:**

- a) Is the evaluation, (I) an analysis of a situation, or (ii) an evaluation of teaching objectives?
- b) What questions should be answered by the evaluation?

#### **3. Questions to be Answered by the Evaluation:**

- a) If analysis of a situation, clarify the kinds of information needed to answer the questions.
- b) If an evaluation of teaching, clarify the teaching objectives. Analyse the teaching plan.
  - i) Review what has been taught.
  - ii) How it was taught, and to whom
  - iii) Changes in behaviour expected as a result of the teaching.

#### **4. Sources of the Information:**

- a) People – farmers, homemakers, local leaders, club members, non-members, extension workers, etc.

- i) Do you need a sample of these people.
  - ii) How will you draw a sample?
- b) Recorded information – reports, census etc.

## **5. Collecting the Information:**

- a) How? Interviews, mailed questionnaires, observations, etc.
- b) By whom? Person making the evaluation, extension personnel, local leaders, etc.

## **6. Selecting or Constructing a Record form:**

- a) Kind of form: questionnaires, interview forms, tests, observation sheets, rating scales, check lists, score cards, anecdotal records etc., to be used.
- b) Data about:
  - i) The situation to be studied.
  - ii) Evidence or progress toward the teaching objectives, or
  - iii) “Face data” to be collected.
- c) Formulation of questions or statements.
- d) Physical set-up of the record form.
- e) Pretesting and revisions.

## **7. Analysis and Tabulation of the Data for use:**

- a) Classification and sorting of data to answer question in Step 2b.
- b) Work tables needed.
- c) Coding of free-answer questions.
- d) Method of tabulation.
- e) Sorts and suborts to bring out relationships.

## **8. Interpreting, Reporting and Applying in the Findings:**

- a) Preparation of tables, charts, and graphs.
- b) Summary of findings.
- c) Applications to extension work.

## **Key to evaluate Extension work**

There are 6 keys to evaluate an extension work. They are

1. **Statement of objectives:** State the objectives of an activity to be evaluated in terms of behaviour changes in the people who are to do the learning.  
e.g., - Farmers to learn which crop variety is best adapted to their soils.

2. **Source of evidence:** Only those people whom you try to reach can provide proof of your success or failure.  
e.g., - Those grape growers who attended the pruning demonstration meeting.
3. **Representative Sample:** Those persons who actually provide the evidence of success must be representative of all whom you tried to approach.  
  
e.g., - for reliable sample: Every 'n th' name from list of grape growers attending the demonstration. See that each selected farmer answers the questionnaire.
4. **Appropriate methods:** The methods of obtaining evidence must be appropriate to the kinds of information being collected.  
  
e.g., Behaviour change to evaluate: Youth to learn to be more interested in his community. Recorded observations of what he does in his community before and after the teaching.
5. **Reliable questions:** Word questions carefully so as to obtain reliable, unbiased data  
e.g., When asking questions about a tour. Did you see any new methods of rice cultivation during the tour?  
  
Yes / No.  
  
If yes, what were they?
6. **Plan to use results:** Decide how you will analyse and use your evaluation results before evaluation is done.
  - a) Is the percentage of adoption ( as found by evaluation) high, low expected or unexpected?
  - b) What have I done or not done to make it high, or keep it so low?
  - c) What other factors are related to it?
  - d) How should I change my methods or programme or bring about a different kind or different amount of change?

## Degrees of Evaluation

The degrees of evaluation may be classified as two broad types: Formal evaluation and Informal evaluation. Informal evaluation is casual, every-day evaluation and involves mental assessments on the basis of simple observations or facts. This type of evaluation may, however, be biased. Formal evaluation may be defined as a process of systematic appraisal by which the worth, value or meaning of something is determined. This something may be a programme, a method used in carrying on extension work or a situation such as a community, a book or even a larger area. The degrees are:

Casual every day evaluations	Self- checking evaluations	Do-it- yourself evaluations	Extension studies	Scientific Research
1	2	3	4	5
Informal			Formal	

1. Casual every-day evaluation: We make value judgements everyday ( A good meal; best show I ever saw; one of the worst speeches I ever heard). Simple observations are important for somethings, but have their limitation. We must be careful to distinguish what is actually present from what we think we see.

The following are some of the limitations of this type of evaluations:

- i) personal ideas used instead of standard measurements.
  - ii) Institution and personal bias cannot be eliminated.
  - iii) No systematic plan for arriving at conclusions.
  - iv) May have only part of the information.
2. Self –Checking evaluations; make conscious attempt to apply principles of evaluation; eg., checking on ordinary observations, talking with others, getting other people’s judgements
  3. Do-it-yourself evaluation: These involves more careful planning, apply principles of evaluation and are more systematically done. They usually require surveys, or score cards.
  4. Extension studies: More complex, Use more scientific approach.
  5. Scientific research: Experimental studies, scientifically carried out to determine cause-and-effect relationships. Must be
    - i) **Factual (or valid):** Measure what you think you are measuring
    - ii) **Analytical:** Analyse the relationships of various factors.
    - iii) **Reliable:** Sample representative of population; consistency of results.
    - iv) **Objective:** Free of bias-others get similar results.
    - v) **Impartial:** Approach with an open mind and spirit of enquiry.

## **Methods of Evaluation:**

There are 4 common methods of evaluation.

1. Formative evaluation – This attempts to identify and remedy short comings during the developmental state of a programme.
2. Summative evaluation - It assesses the worth of the final version when it is offered as an alternative to other programme.

In the past, the emphasis has been on summative evaluations that were conducted after the completion of the programme to assess the accomplishments and whether intended objectives were achieved. Nowadays, more and more attention is being paid to formative evaluations that are conducted before programme completion, more particularly, during programme implementation. Such evaluations provide early feedback on programme weakness, which can then be used to modify or adjust the remaining stages of a programme.

3. On-going evaluation: is an action-oriented analysing of project effects and impacts, compared to anticipations, to be carried out during implementation.
4. Ex-post evaluation: would resume this effect several years after completion of the investment, to review comprehensively the experience and impact of a project as a basis for future policy formulation and project design.

## **Tools for Evaluation:**

Most of the extension programmes are educational in nature. In addition to the physical achievements in the programme, importance is attached to the attainment of the educational objectives. Some of the devices used for measuring the progress towards the educational objective are given here.

- a) Value scales are used to determine the value of people or place or things and to show what people think is important, e.g., religious value, economic value, scientific value, etc.
- b) Attitude scales show how people feel towards things. These may be for or against feeling towards certain problems e.g., child marriage, family planning, etc.
- c) Opinion polls are held to know the opinions of the people on certain issues. It may be in simple 'yes' or 'no' form or free answer questions, e.g., surveys to know the voting behaviour of the people in election.
- d) Knowledge and comprehension tests are used for finding out whether a person understands or can apply certain acquired knowledge in a given situation, e.g., knowledge about paddy cultivation.
- e) Interest checks are used to find out the interests of the people in different activities or programmes, e.g., interest in family planning programme.
- f) Skill or performance rating are used to determine the amount of skill attainment by the people, e.g., skill in driving a tractor.

- g) Adoption of practices is for finding out the extent to which the improved practices are being used by the people, e.g., studying the adoption of practices in wheat.
- h) Case history technique is used for studying in detail one unit of the population, e.g., case study of a progressive farmer or a youth club.

The devices stated here are used in collecting information for evaluation. In these devices most of the information is asked through questions. The mechanical construction and the appearance of the questionnaire are important. The questions should be short, clear and concise and placed in logical order. Ample space should be provided for all written answers. After collecting the data it is necessary to summarise it to give a picture of the project. The data may be tabulated and interpreted properly. It should be prepared in the form of a written report for the use of all concerned.

## **M & E of Agricultural Development Programmes**

### **Appraisal, Monitoring and Evaluation**

A distinction is commonly made between the three activities of appraisal, monitoring and evaluation.

In development terminologies, appraisal is usually taken to mean a critical examination of a proposal of a programme or project normally before the latter is approved for implementation and funding.

Monitoring can be broadly defined as frequent largely routinewise collection and analysis of and reporting on information about the performance of the work in a programme or project, comparison of this with the project plans or programme and connected discussions about the proposals for any corrective action. Thus monitoring aims at meeting information requirements for current programme and project management.

Monitoring primarily issues of finance and quality pertaining to inputs and outputs as well as actors and time use in implementation. It should also encompass same current assessment of direct results (effects) and may cursorily address additional issues which may possible be analysed more thoroughly in some subsequent evaluation.

Evaluation is a more thorough examination, at specified points in time, of programmes or projects or parts of them, usually with emphasis on impacts and additionally commonly on efficiency, effectiveness, relevance, replicability and sustainability.

Monitoring	Evaluation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Continuous. It starts and ends with project</li> <li>• Required for immediate use for mid course correction.</li> <li>• Done by implementing personnel.</li> <li>• Symptomatic, early warning system.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One short operation usually after completion or mid-way of the project of the project implementation.</li> <li>• Used for future planning (learning process)</li> <li>• Usually done by outside agency</li> <li>• Diagnostic</li> </ul>

## **Methodology to evaluate an Agricultural Development Programme**

### **Steps in Evaluation**

The following chronological steps are part of the system of programme evaluation:

1. Realisation of the need for, and usefulness of evaluation by the planning and the administrative agencies.
2. Setting up of an agency for independent evaluation if there is none;
3. Selection of programmes for evaluation of the internal and the independent types by relevant agencies;
4. Recognition of the problem areas needing study of different types;
5. Entrusting the job to appropriate agencies.
6. Final selection of evaluation topics by the valuation agency;
7. Working out by details of the methods of study by the evaluation agency;
8. Presenting the results of the study – from forum and frequency;
9. Consideration of the findings and their acceptance;
10. Taking steps to implement the suggestions; and
11. Following up the adoption of suggestions and their results.

In what follows, the main hurdles to be cleared and points to be decided at each of these steps are enumerated along with some of the relevant issues needing consideration.

The indicators to measure the impact of a programme would be the following:

- a) How do people feel towards a particular programme;
- b) Is there a ready response for or against a programme and why;
- c) Do the people understand the programme so well as to keep it going;
- d) Have the skills and techniques sought to be imparted caught on to such a degree as to be retained even without official help.
- e) Is the response to improved practices only because of financial inducements or has the message gone home fully;

- f) How far have local leaders and institutions understood the programme and are they willing and able to carry on the programme by themselves;

The methods of evaluation would consist of the following stages:

- a) Assessing the general impact of the scheme as indicated by improvement in the levels of production employment, socio-economic condition of the people, increased marketing, etc. While assessing this aspect it would have to be seen whether the scale of achievement expected has been attained.
- b) Determining whether the methods of implementation have any deficiencies and if so how these can be corrected;
- c) Determining whether the premises on which the programme was started were justified or whether the very content of the programme needs change; and
- d) Determining whether is avoidable expenditure in relation to results.