A READING CUM PRACTICAL MANUAL ON

FAF 401 FORESTRY EXTENSION AND COMMUNICATION METHODS (1+1)

Course Teacher

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EXTENSION - DEFINITION - PRINCIPLES - PHILOSOPHY - OBJECTIVES

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.

What is Extension?

Extension is education and its purpose is to bring about desirable changes in the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the people.

Extension means to extend, to spread or to disseminate useful information and ideas to rural people outside the regularly organized schools and class rooms.

Extension education is education for rural people outside the regularly organized schools and class rooms for bring out social and culture development.

Actual use of the term extension organized in England in 1896 with a system of university education which was taken up first by Cambridge and Oxford University.

Later, by other education institutions in England and in other countries extension education was first used 1873 – Cambridge university to describe this particular educational innovation.

Definition

Engsminger, 1957 - Extension is education and that its purpose is to change attitude and practices of the people with whom the work is done.

The National Commission on Agriculture (1976) refers to extension as an out of school education and services for the members of the farm family and others directly or indirectly engaged in farm production, to enable them do adopt improved practices in production, management, conservation and marketing.

Watts (1984) - Extension is basically an educational function. It's job may vary considerably from country to country, but without exception, it will be expected to inform, advise and educate people in a practiced manner.

Bhatnagar and Desai (1987) - Extension is to bring the desirable changes in the behaviour – knowledge, skills, attitude, understanding, goals and confidence of the people through mutual learning.

Van den Ban and Hawkins (1988) - Extension involves the conscious use of communication of information to help people from sound opinions and make good decisions.

Leagans (1961) - Extension education as an applied science consisting of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioral sciences synthesized with useful technology in to a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focused on the problems of out of school education for adults and youth.

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

In the context of the present stage of its development;
Extension education is a science which deals with the creation transmission and application of knowledge designed to bring about planned changes in the behaviour complex of people with a view to help them live better by learning the ways of improving their vocations, enterprises and institutions.

The concept of extension education is used in educating people about agriculture, industry, home science, dairy, veterinary science or public health. As per specialization these branched of extension education are called agricultural extension industrial extension, home science extension, dairy extension, veterinary science extension or public health extension.

The modern concept of extension education as the means for achieving community development includes several facts and subject matter field of which agriculture is more important than the others. Hence "Agricultural Extension" may be defined as a special branch of extension which deals with the economic and social aspects of people engaged in or associated with agriculture.

Scope and importance

Scope: The scope of extension education includes all the activities directed towards the development of the rural people. The extension service must have dynamic programmes keeping pace with the constantly changing conditions.
The following nine areas indicate the scope of extension work in rural areas Kelsey and Hearne (1967).

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 development
9. Improving public affairs for all round development

The following statements will further, amplify the scope of extension

1. Extension is fundamentally a system of out of school education for adult and youths alike. It is a system where people are motivated through a proper

approach to help themselves by applying science in their daily lives in farming, home making and community living.
2. Extension is education for all village people
3. Extension is bringing about desirable changes in the knowledge attitudes and skills of people.
4. Extension is helping people to help themselves.
5. Extension is working with men and women, boys and girls to answer their felt needs and wants.
6. Extension is teaching people what to want (i.e. converting unfelt needs into felt needs) as well as how to work out ways to satisfying these wants and inspiring them to achieve their desires.
7. Extension is teaching through learning by doing and seeing is believing.
8. Extension is working in harmony with the culture of the people.
9. Extension is a two-way channel, it brings scientific information to village people and it also takes the problems of the village people to the scientific institutes for solution.
10. Extension is working together (in groups) to expand the welfare and happiness of the people with their own families their own village, their own country and the work.
11. Extension is living relationship between the village workers and the village people. Respect and trust for each other, sharing of joys and sorrows, results in friendship through which village extension work continues.
12. Extension is development of individuals in their day to day living, development of their leaders, their society and their world as a whole.
13. Extension is a continuous educational process in which both learner and teacher contribute and receive.

Importance

Extension uses democratic methods in educating the farmers. It respects the individuality of people in making their own decisions with the help of the extension worker. By this way the people grow in statue and self respect and are able to taken rational decisions. Extension innovations are of no use unless they are put to practical use. It is through extension that these new findings can reach the people speedily. Rural problems are numerous and are concerned with a large number of people spread over a large area. They can only be dealt with by an efficient extension agency meant for that purpose. The trained extension worker will understand the technology to be transferred among the farmers by studying their problems.

Philosophy, Principles and Objectives of Extension Education

The word "Philosophy" has a wide range of meanings. It was originally used to denote the love of wisdom or knowledge, theory or investigation of the principles or laws that regulate the universe and underlie all knowledge and reality.

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.

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.

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.

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 of Extension

Principles are generalized guidelines which from the basis for decision and action in a consistent way. The universal truth in extension which have been observed and found to hold good under varying condition sand circumstances are presented.

1. ***Principle of cultural difference***: Culture simply means social heritage. There is cultural difference between the extension agents and the farmers. Differences exist between groups of farmers also. The differences may be in their habits, customs, values, attitudes and way of life. Extension work, to be successful, must be carried out in harmony with the cultural pattern of the people.

2. ***Grass roots principle***: Extension Programme should start with local groups, local situations and local problems. It must fit to the local conditions. Extension work should start with where people are and what they have. Change should start from the existing situation.
3. ***Principle of indigenous knowledge***: People everywhere have indigenous knowledge systems which they have developed through generations of work experience and problem solving in their own specific situations. The indigenous knowledge systems encompass all aspects of life and people consider it essential for their survival.

   Instead of ignoring the indigenous knowledge systems as outdated, the extension agent should try to understand them and their ramifications in the life of the people, before processing to recommend something new to them.

4. ***Principle of interests and needs***: People's interests and people's needs are the starting points of extension work. To identify the real needs and interests of the people are challenging tasks. The extension agents should not pass on their own needs ands interests as those of the people. Extension work shall be successful only when it is based on the interests and needs of the people as they see them.

5. ***Principle of learning by doing***: Learning remains far from perfect, unless people get involved in actually doing the work. Learning by doing is most effective in changing people's behaviour. This develops confidence as it involves maximum number of sensory organs. People should learn what to do, why to do, how to do and with what result.

6. ***Principle of participation***: Most people of the village community should willingly cooperate and participate in identifying the problems, planning of projects for solving the problems and implementing the projects in getting the desired results. It has been the experience of many countries that people become dynamic if they take decisions concerning their own affairs, exercise responsibility for, and are helped to carry out projects in their own areas.

   The participation of the people is of fundamental importance for the success of an extension programme. People must share in developing and implementing the programme and feel that it is their own programme.

7. ***Family principle***: Family is the primary unit of society. The target for extension work should, therefore, be the family. That is, developing the family as a whole, economically and socially. Not only the farmers, the farm women and farm youth are also to be involved in extension programmes.

8. ***Principle of leadership***: Identifying different types of leaders and working through them is essential in extension. Local leaders are the custodians of local thought and action. The involvement of local leaders and legitimization by them are essential for the success of a programme.

   Leadership traits are to be developed in the people so that they of their own shall seek change from less desirable to more desirable situation. The leaders may be trained and developed to act as carriers of change in the villages.

9. ***Principle of adaptability***: Extension work and extension teaching methods must be flexible and adapted to suit the local conditions. This is necessary because the people, their situation, their resources and constraints vary from place to place and time to time.

10. ***Principle of satisfaction***: The end product of extension work should produce satisfying results for the people. Satisfying results reinforce learning and motivate people to seek further improvement.

11. ***Principle of evaluation*** : Evaluation prevents stagnation. There should be a continuous built-in method of finding out the extent to which the results obtained are in agreement with the objectives fixed earlier. Evaluation should indicate the gaps and steps to be taken for further improvement.

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.

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.

EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS - MEANING, DEFINITION AND FUNCTIONS

A method is a way of doing something, as orderly arrangement of a set of procedures. Thus it involves a sequence of progressive steps in an orderly and logical regularity in order to accomplish some task on purpose.

An extension teaching defined as a sequence of progressive steps, undertaken to create situations that are conducive to effective learning. The purpose of using an extension teaching method is to create opportunities to establish rapport over a subject matter between the communicator and learner(s), awaken interest, achieve comprehension and / or skills, provide persuasion, and even repetition, to motivate action on the part of the learner(s), in line with the objectives of the communicator.

It is that teaching methods and aids are one of the pivotal elements of learning situation for effective transfer of technology. Hence, it becomes inevitable for an extension worker to study the extension teaching methods.

As the blacksmith chooses proper accessories for his book, and as the carpenter takes necessary materials for his occupation so also the extension worker is expected to choose the suitable extension methods according to the programme, situation, availability of resources and time.

In practice, it is often felt that all the extension workers are unable to employ each and every method properly.

Definition

According to Leagans (1961) extension methods are the devices used to create situation in which communication can take place between the instructor and learner.

Meaning

It helps to communicate the ideas felt by the teacher and it aids to provide information that the learner may see, hear and do the things to be learnt. In total, this would provide an effective learning situation and promote learning at all the stages of the learning process.

Classification of Extension Teaching methods

One can get an idea regarding the ability of methods to perform various jobs from the different classification given here. Many bases can be used to classify the methods such as nature of the use, form of methods, learner's type, objective etc.

Classification according to use

(i) Individual contact

a) Farm and home visit (personal acquaintance)
b) Telephone calls (conversation)
c) Personal letters (amiable approach)
d) Result demonstration (proven results)

(ii) Group contact

a) Method demonstration
b) All types of gatherings (meetings)
c) Training courses
d) Tours
e) Result demonstration meetings

(iii) Mass contact

a) All the printed literature
b) New stories
c) Circular letters
d) Radio and Television
e) Exhibits
f) Posters, charts etc.,
g) Films and slides
h) Campaigns
i) Flash cards etc.,

SELECTION OF TEACHING METHODS AND FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SELECTION OF EXTENSION METHODS

Selection of methods is not an easy thing to select appropriate methods. There is no hard and fast rule for selection. In order to obtain effective result, the extension worker should

Procedure

(i) Choose the appropriate method
(ii) Decide a suitable combination of methods
(iii)Use them in a logical sequence so as to have repetition in a variety of ways

Factors influencing the Selection

(i) The Audience: People differ in their knowledge, attitudes and skills. These differences influence the teaching approaches.
For educated: Written
For uneducated: Personal contact

(ii) Size of the audience: The number of persons to be contacted will decide the method.

(iii) The teaching objective: The educational changes expected as stated in the teaching objective of the extension programme. For eg: Attitude change -Group discussion.

(iv) The subject matter: The nature of subject matter will decide the methods.

(v) The State of development of Extension organization: If the organization is new and yet to gain confidence of the people, the result demonstration will be selected.

(vi) Size of extension staff: The size of staff in relation to the clientele will also decide the extension method. Larger the number of staff, more the direct contacts.

(vii)Availability of media: The availability of media such as television, film, radio, newspaper etc., will also have the influence in selecting the method.

(viii) Relative cost: The cost involved to the method is also an important inhibition or facilitator in selection and use.

(ix) Extension worker's familiarity: The training of the extension worker for proper handling of the selected method. The teacher should know his own capabilities, while making selection.

(x) Needs, Problems and technological level of the people

(xi) The length of time: The length of time, the programme has been going in the area and the length of time the extension worker has at his disposal.

(xii) The significance of the programme

(xiii) General local conditions: Such as seasonal work, weather conditions, availability of meeting places, organizations and leadership.

INDIVIDUAL CONTACT METHODS

Individual contact

An individual contact is a direct, face-to-face contact by an extension worker with a farmer individually for a specific purpose, in his office, or on the farm or at home.

In Individual contact methods, contact is established with one person at a time. As such, the contact is generally at the personal level, intense and effective. It gives the extension worker an opportunity to provide guidance at the level of the individual farmer by taking into account the family resources, problems and potentials.

What is it?

Direct contact (Individual) is one, which is used for a specific purpose. The farm visit, home visit, office call and phone call are the examples of direct contact methods.

Why is it?

(1) To acquainted with and gain confidence
(3) To give courtesy call
(2) To get discuss individual and village problems
(4) To find out problems of which one is not aware
(5) To teach skill
(6) To get or give information
(7) To reinforce the information passed through other methods.

What to do?

Points to be borne, while employing

1. Should be made with definite purpose.
2. Punctuality and time should be borne in mind.
3. Schedule of visit should be worked out.

Points to be borne, while in contact with the clientele

1. Conversation should be on the point of interest.
2. Allow farmer to talk mostly
3. Speak, when he is willing to hear
4. Talk in terms of his interest
5. Speak cheerfully and slowly
6. Don't prolong arguments.

For what job

Used to (1) to teach skill
(2) create interest
(3) motivate to adopt innovation
(4) analyse the problem
(5) prepare them for action

Advantages

1) Good will may be developed
2) First hand knowledge of work situation may be gained
3) Interest towards extension work is stimulated.
4) Confidence upon extension worker is developed
5) Percentage of adoption is high.

Limitations

1) Comparatively costlier method
2) Less number of contacts only possible
3) Concentrated visit to a responsive farmer night develop prejudices against extension worker.

Farm and home visit

It is a face to face type of individual contact by the extension worker with the farmer and / or the members of his family on the latter's farm or home for one or more specific purposes are connected with extension.

Office call

It is a call made by a farmer or a group, on the extension worker at his office for obtaining information and/ or inputs other farm helps needed or making acquaintance with him.

Telephone call

It is a contact between extension worker and farmer over the telephone for one or more specific purposes connected with extension.

Personal letter

It is a personal and individual letter written by an extension worker to a farmer in connection with extension work.

Objectives

These individual methods can be used:

a) To develop good relationship with farmer and to gain the confidence.

b) To obtain and/ or give first hand information on matters relating to the development of the farm and home.]
c) To discuss the individual farm and farm problems
d) To identify the local leaders and demonstrators
e) teach the skills (except telephone calls)
f) to discuss and find out the unfelt needs and take suitable action.
g) To contact those farmers who could not be reached by other methods.
h) To promote good public relations with the extension agency.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFECTIVE INDIVIDUAL CONTACT

Greet the person properly and use common social courtesies. Try to develop sound and favorable relations. for this take some points in which the person is likely to be interested. In order to start discussion, begin the conversation with a question put I such a way that it cannot be answered by merely saying 'yes' or 'no'.

It is not necessary to tell person immediately and directly the purpose of visit. Even though that is main objective, it should be presented in such a way that it appears as beneficial for the farmer.

The extension worker should know every thing about the subject about which efforts are made. Respect the farmers view point with seriousness. Let him talk let him know that his views are important. A farm visit can be successful only when both the extension worker and the farmer are at ease with each other. Keep the visit short. But don't rush away without helping the farmer with answers to his questions.

Use the language and vocabulary of the farmer's family and common terms. Find some thing to praise. Take some printed matter to be handed over to the individual. Never talk down the farmers. Avoid writing the conversations in his presence. But immediately after the visit record what was planned, accomplished and special problems noted for follow-up action. Keep the promises by proper follow-up. Avoid arguments.

Leave the farm or home with genuine friendliness and appreciation.

PERSONAL LETTERS

It is a personal and individual letter written by the extension worker to a farmer in connection with extension work. In practice personal letters are used to answer enquiries from farmers regarding specific farm problems, supplies and services, etc. This method can also be used to seek farmer's co-operation in extension activities.

POINTS TO BE CONSIDERED IN USING THIS METHOD

i. A letter seeking for information should be answered promptly because the person writing letter has more interest in the matter and will like to receive information immediately. Remember the saying that "information delayed is information denied."
ii. One should have the empathy of placing oneself in the place of other and write the letters in useful way to the farmer.
iii. The writing should be:
    a) Complete, by giving all necessary information's.

b) Concise, with fewest words of clear, complete and courtesy nature.
c) Sentences should be clear enough to the receiver to understand correctly and especially not to misunderstand.
d) The figures etc., should be correct.
e) There should not be any spelling, grammatical and other mistakes.
f) The writing should be neat, free from over-writing, striking etc.
g) There should be easy readability.

ADVANTAGES

a) Individual problems can easily be solved.
b) Cheap method.
c) Useful to educated farmers.
d) To seek farmer's co-operation for extension work it is a good method.
e) Best method to reach farmers who could not be reached by other methods.
f) To develop good relations and confidence this is a best method.
g) Percentage of adoption is high
h) Extension worker get first hand information about rural problems.

LIMITATIONS

a) It is a time consuming method, considering more number of farmers.
b) Since majority of the farmers are illiterates this method has limited usage.
c) More beneficiaries can not be reached through this method, because it is for solving individual problems.
d) Indian farmers will not write normally to the extension workers excepting few innovators. Hence scope for the usage is limited.
e) Among the multivarious work to be attended by the extension workers it is difficult for him answer each and every individual problems.
f) Only few persons can be contacted.

OBSERVATION OR TRIAL PLOTS

This is the method by which suitability or otherwise of a new practice to a given locality under farmer's condition is determined. A new practice may mean

i. Introduction of a practice not existing hitherto (e.g.) introducing soybean
ii. Introduction of improvement over local practice (e.g.) double row planting, System Rice Intensification (SRI)
iii. Replacing an already established improved practice with a more improved new practice (e.g.) replacing the Ganga 5 and CoH 1 maize by the new CoH 2 variety.

The new practice explained above may be a variety, agronomic or plant protection measures, post harvest technologies or any other farm practices.

OBJECTIVES:

a) To study the suitability of a new practice to the given locality.
b) To built the confidence of the farmer as well as the extension worker

c) To avoid loss, if any, due to large scale adoption of the new practices.

POINTS TO BE CONSIDERED

a) Select progressive who have confidence in the extension and who can also afford to take the risk, if any
b) Select easily accessible road side plot, which is a representative of the tract
c) Very important point to be considered is that the farmer should be clearly informed that it is only a trial and not a demonstration and there is a chance for the failure
d) Effective supervision from the planting to recording the harvest is necessary
e) Accurate record should be maintained

ADVANTAGES

a) The new practices can be recommended after studying the suitability to the area. This will avoid the losses at large scale adoption.
b) It builds the farmer's and extension worker's confidence
c) For newer varieties seed materials will be available locally in the villages.
d) This is a good method for the innovators

LIMITATIONS

a) It consumes a lot of time and energy of the extension worker, because a new practice is under trial
b) It is difficult to find out such co-operative and innovative farmers who can take the risk at village level
c) Failure of the practice causes financial loss to the farmer
d) Some suitable and relatively advantageous practices may lose the large scale adoption, if the extension worker does not concentrate at the trial stage and prove the worthiness correctly.

Classification according to form

(i) Written

a) All the printed matters
b) Personal letters
c) Circular letters

(ii) Spoken

a) All types of gathering (meetings)
b) Farm and home visits
c) Office calls and telephone calls
d) Radio

(iii) Visuals

a) Result demonstration
b) Exhibits
c) Posters and charts
d) All other visual aids
e) Method demonstration
f) Meetings of result demonstration

g) Television
h) Meetings coupled with audio-visual aids
i) Film shows

Planning for the use of extension teaching methods in different situations

An extension worker can become efficient in the use of methods, he must know what methods are available, when to use a given method and become effective in using each.

However, normally no extension worker has the ability to use all methods with equal skill. Further, there is no one method that is best for all situations and objectives. In fact, no two situations are alike and hence for different method(s). It is also obvious that no one method can reach all the audience. To reach the audience effectively plans the extension teaching methods according to their level of understanding ability of the subjects.

Purpose

(i) Sustain the interest of the audience
(ii) Breaks the language barrier
(iii) Accuracy
(iv) Motivates the people
(v) Credibility building
(vi) Participation enhancement due to retention and better comprehension

Planning and use of Teaching methods

A proper perception and comprehension of the capabilities and limitations of extension methods is essential for their selection and efficient use. Improper choice and inefficient handling and manipulation may lead to the consequences detailed herewith.

(i) The benefit out of extension programme will not be accrued by the intended clientele.
(ii) There will be a considerable delay in modifying or changing the behavioral complex.
(iii) Innovations might not be accepted, since they lack proper presentation.
(iv) People might lose confidence in the future extension programme.
(v) Resources will be made fruitless (wasteful)
(vi) Execution of forthcoming programmes may become difficult for diffusion.

GROUP CONTACT METHODS

Those Extension teaching methods through which it is possible to interact with a small number of people with a single exposure or source, for the purpose of effecting behavioural changes, are called group contact methods. Approaching people in groups enables us to reach a relatively larger number of persons in a unit of time or exposure and also enables us to make use of group behaviour. i.e. mutual influencing of members behaviour. As a result, technology transfer can be achieved at an accelerated pace with group contact methods.

Points to be borne, while adopting group contact
Planning
1) Prepare for the discussion
2) Study the problem to be discussed
3) Give necessary reference material
4) Arrange a suitable meeting place for the group
5) See that all members are willing to participate

Selecting the time of meeting
1) Make the group feel comfortable. People can think better, if they are at ease.
2) Seat the group in a circle
3) Allow the group to speak about the problem
4) Discourage speech making. Limit each talk to two minutes. Stop the speech maker as tactfully as possible.
5) Make all the members take part in the discussion.
6) Guide the discussion group towards action. Lead the members to take decisions and to plan for action.
7) Lead the group to ask you for technical information and help.
8) Use visual methods in presenting facts.
9) Use sightseeing trips to find facts.

For a successful group contact
1.Recognize the common problem and becoming seriously concerned about it.
2.Finding the facts to solve the problem.
3.Analysing the facts.
4.Reaching a decision to take action.
5.Planning a joint course of action.
6.Doing the work. This is the step that builds confidence and enthusiasm.
7.Set target dates for the completion of the work.

METHOD DEMONSTRATION

DEFINITION

It is a relatively short time demonstration given before a group to show how to carry out an entirely new practice or an old practice in a better way.

It is not proving the worth of practice, but it tells the how to do it. It is not an experiment, but it is a teaching effort. Here the extension worker shows the step-by-step procedure of the practice. The farmers watch the process, listen to the oral explanation, and ask questions during or at the closure of the demonstration to clear up points about which there is uncertainty. To increase the farmers confidence in their ability, in the presence of the extension worker, as many farmer as possible repeat the demonstration.

This is the oldest form of teaching ling before the language was developed, men thought the children how to hunt, how to cultivate etc.

OBJECTIVES

a) To enable the people to acquire the new skills
b) To enable the people to improve the old skills
c) To give the confidence to the people that the particular recommended practice is a practicable proposition in their own situation.
d) To bring the research finding to the farmers
e) It upholds the principles of 'seeing is believing' and 'learning by doing'
f) To make the learners do things more efficiently

CONDUCTING THE DEMONSTRATION

1) **ANALYSE THE SITUATION** and determine the need. Decide the number of demonstration to be conducted. Select the site and the farmers. Explain the purpose of demonstration to the farmers.

2) PLAN THE DEMONSTRATION

Gather all in formations. Familiarize in the subject matter. Check the research findings. Identify the key points for emphasis. List out the required material and equipments. Decide the day of contact, and invite village leaders and farmers to witness the demonstration.

3) REHERASE THE DEMONSTRATION

Practice the demonstration until you are thorough with all the steps. Know exactly what you should say or do at each step. Make sure that the points will be clear from the audience point of view.

4) EXECUTE THE DEMONSTRATION

Explain how it is applicable for the local problems. Show the step by step operation. Use simple words. Make sure that all the audience can clearly see and hear. Emphasis the key points. Solicit question summarise. Then give opportunity for the learners to learn. Distribute the supplemental teaching materials such as leaflets, bulletins etc. get the names of he participants who propose the adopt. This would help for the follow-up.

5) FOLLOW-UP

Prepare a write-up about the demonstration for office record. Disseminate the demonstration details through press and AIR. Make a sample check to assess the extent of adoption. Visit the participant farmers' farm frequently to give necessary assistances.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFECTIVE CONTACT

a) Know the audience level of knowledge and literacy to plan the demonstration.
b) Know the resources available and do not have the ambitious plans

c) A poor demonstration is worse than none at all. Hence successfully conducting the demonstration is must
d) Do not try to show too much. Show the materials relevant to the selected key points
e) Consider the location which will be suitable for both farmers and VIPs
f) Keep the records, photos, slides, news write-up etc.

ADVANTAGES

a) Suited to teaching skills
b) The costly 'trial and error' procedure is eliminated
c) Builds confidence of the farmer over the technology and extension workers
d) Provides publicity materials
e) Low cost

LIMITATIONS

a) Suited only to the skills involving technologies
b) Needs a good show, failure is worse
c) Transporting the materials and equipments to the demonstration plot is difficult
d) Require a showmanship, which some extension worker do not possess.

RESULT DEMONSTRATION

DEFINITION

a) It is a demonstration conducted by a farmer, homemaker or other persons under direct supervision of an extension worker to prove worthyness of the recommended practice or combination of practices.

b) Result demonstration is a method of teaching through which results of a new practice are shown in comparison to the existing practice or control.

In other words:

It is a way of showing people the value or worth of an improved practice whose success has already been established at research stations. The new practice compared with the old one on the farmers' field. It deals with a single practice such as use of improved variety etc. it can also be used with concerning a series of related practices such as Japanese method of cultivation. In some cases it can include the entire farm in case of integrated farming. It is convincing because the farmer can learn by seeing and doing.

OBJECTIVES

a) To show the advantages, local applicability, and profitability of a new practice.
b) To establish the confidence on the farmers as well as extension worker.

TYPE OF RESULT DEMONSTRATIONS

a) **SHORT DURATION** – e.g. to show the worthyness of an insecticide, fungicide, weedicide etc.
b) **LONG DURATION** - e.g. from sowing up to harvest]
c) **SINGLE PRACTICE** - e.g. a new variety
d) **MORE PRACTICES**- e.g. complete package of practices.

CONDUCTING THE DEMONSTRATION

a) ANALYSE THE SITUATION:

Select the practice which needs more convincing because demonstrations are planned to encourage local farmers to adopt new practices which will increase their production and improve their standard of living. While studying the situation study the local problems and also analyse whether the farmers feel the need for the demonstration.

b) PLAN THE DEMONSTRATION:

While planning the demonstration define the objective. Which particular audience should learn? Discuss the plan with the concerned persons and make a detailed written plan. A detail of the actions required with the tentative dates and persons must be worked out.

c) SELECTION OF THE FARMER:

Selection of the demonstration farmer should be made in consultation with the other farmers, especially local leaders. Demonstrator should be selected from the communities in need of a local proof of the desirability of the practice but he should have the ability to conduct demonstration successfully and is respected by his neighbours. A responsible, co-operative and average farmer with a field where most of the villagers can go should be selected. Make sure that the soil, water and other conditions are typical of the area.

d) PREPARE THE PLAN WITH DEMONSTRATOR :

After selecting the farmer prepare a plan of action with him indicating why, how and when the work is to be done. He must be clearly told about the purpose, plan, benefits, time and cost involved and the part he is to play in it. A copy of the plan of action must also be given to the demonstrator. Extension worker must also help the demonstrator in procuring the necessary supplies.

e) CONDUCTING THE DEMONSTRATION

Before the demonstration make sure that all necessities are produced and present at the site. If the demonstration is carefully started, its chances of success are good. Extension worker should work with the demonstrator and other farmers to set up the demonstration. It must be ensured that all the work is being done as planned. Help the farmers in keeping the records.

f) SUPERVISION OF THE DEMONSTRATION

Extension worker should pay regular visit to the demonstration plot: on such visits the extension worker give specific suggestions, finish new information when needed, check progress and see the

succeeding steps are performed as planned. At the same time help the demonstrator to improve his farm, give him recognition and provide him opportunities to meet the scientists and the extension specialists. In this way the farmer will become more and more interested and will start acting as volunteer for extension work. Through the project keep accurate records of the dates, what have been done, the observation and results.

g) FINAL STAGE

The final stage is very important because it is the results which are going to prove the superiority of the new practice. Therefore the results must be carefully observed, measured and recoded in a way that will make the evidence as convincing as possible. The results must be measured or estimated in the presence of the leading farmers. Meetings and tours should be planned to show to the people the result obtained and to explain their significance.

h) FOLLOW UP

The results of the result demonstration must be brought to the people's attention through circular letters, articles published in the newspaper and magazines, radio, television, pictures, slides, charts etc. The impact of result demonstration is measured by number of people, who are persuaded to try the practice; therefore, it is essential to contact all those farmers who have shown keen interest in the results. They should be motivated for action by appeals to their basic human wants. The success of the neighbour will induce the others to obtain the similar benefits.

SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFECTIVE CONTROL

a) It is important to make proper selection of the practice farmers and the field.
b) It is better to conduct one god demonstration rather than a number of half – attempts, because unsuccessful demonstration may create strong unfavorable conditions for other extension activities.
c) Conduct the meeting at the site of demonstration so that other farmers would witness the progress and adopt the practices followed in the demonstration.
d) Avoid selecting the same farmer for several times
e) Give wide publicity to the results
f) Help the demonstrator farmer to keep the proper records
g) Fix sign boards to attract visitors
h) Encourage other farmers to adopt the same practice
i) The demonstration should be conducted correctly, in detailed and must be in sequence
j) It is better to conduct more that one demonstrating in the same village, on the same subject
k) Never try to discover new truths
l) The demonstration should be located by a well traveled road side or path.

ADVANTAGES

a) It gives extension worker an extra assurance that recommended practice is practicable and advantageous

b) Increase the confidence of farmers in extension worker and his recommendation.
c) Useful for introducing a new practice
d) Contributes to discover the local leader
e) Provides teaching material for further use by extension worker

LIMITATIONS

a) Requires a lot of time and preparation on the part of extension worker
b) A costly teaching method
c) Difficult to find good demonstrator who will help perfect records
d) Unfavorable weather and other factors may destroy the value
e) Few people see the demonstration at the stage when it is most convincing
f) Unsuccessful demonstration may undermine the prestige of extension and confidence.

BASIS FOR EFFECTIVE DEMONSTRATION

PEOPLE

- Retain 10 to 15 percent of what they read
- Remember about 20 to 25 percent of what they hear
- Retain 30 to 35 percent of what they have seen
- Remember 50 percent and more of that they have seen and heard
- Retain up to 90 percent of what is taught of they participate actively and if all the senses are involved.

MEETINGS

The term meeting includes all kinds of meeting held by extension workers. In size the meeting varies from small committee meeting to large special occasions meeting of melas or festivals attended by thousands. Geographically it varies district or state. They may be held periodically or sporadically.

CONDUCTING THE MEETING

The extension worker should plan for
a. select the topics
b. timing
c. place
d. worker and chair man
e. publicity
f. physical arrangements .

Planning is the first step. Subsequently he had to conduct the meeting following the procedures specified for each type of message.

The last step is follow up. It includes the summaries, preparing and sending press report, displays and evaluations.

TYPES OF MEETING.

a. LECTURE

This is the extensively used method. Lecture is the best method for presenting information to large number of persons in short period of time. Its weakness is that it is a one way communication method.

It has the advantage of large group communication; at the time of initiating new programmes to arose interest; for giving factual information's; to supplement other methods etc

Lecture is not affective for skill teaching; when group member's participation is needed; when problems are to be solved; etc

b. DEBATE

The common pattern is to have two terms, one representing positive or affirmative and the other negative side of the topic. There will be a term of speakers for each side. Each speaker is allowed a definite period of time.

The great danger in this method is that the debate may become highly antagonistic and in the interest of winning talkers may distort the information

c. SYMPOSIUM

This is a short series lectures; usually by 2 to 5 speakers. Each one speaks for a definite period of time, and presents a different phase and subdivision of the general topic. The topic should be large enough to permit more sub divisions. The subject may or may not be controversial. The speeches may be followed by a forum to facilitate mastery of information.

The main advantage of this method is two or more experts present the topic, favorably. Thus, it overcomes the antagonistic argument followed in debate.

d. PANEL

It is a informal conversation put on for the benefit of audience, by a small group of speakers, usually from 2 to 8. The speakers are selected based on their subject matter knowledge, experience etc. These members are seated in such a way that they can see each other and also face the audience.

The leader introduces the topic and put some questions.

There are **three types of panels**.

i) question-answer panel, in which the presentation is actually a series of questions the leader and the answer by members.

ii) set-speech panel, in which member deliver speeches;

iii) Conversational panel in, which members hold a conversation among themselves on the topic, with questions and comments going from one member to another.

The third type is more near to the definition of the panel than the other two.

Any topic is amenable for panel. The special advantage is the spontaneous conversation about some subject may have more interest than the lecture.

e**) FORUM:**

It is a discussion period that may follow any one of the above methods of presentation. Audiences ask questions and get their doubts clarified and also get additional information. This helps to understand the information correctly.

f**) BUZZ SESSIONS**:

With large groups when limited time is available for discussion this method is followed. The audience is divided into smaller units for a short period. The secretary for each group will record the discussions and present a report to entire audience, when they all assemble again.

g) **WORKSHOP:**

It is a long meeting from one day to several weeks, involving all participants. All participants will be involved in the discussions from the beginning. There must be considerable time for work. There must be summarizing and evaluation session at the closure. The workshop, as the name implies must produce something at the end a report, a publication, a visual or any other material.

h) **SEMINAR:**

It is one of the most important forms of group discussions. The discussion leader introduces the topic to be discussed. Members of the audience discuss the subject to which ready answers were not available. This method has the advantage of pooling together the opinions of a large member of persons.

I) CONFERENCE:

Pooling the experiences and opinions among a group of people who have special qualification in an area is called the conference.

J) INSTITUTE:

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

K) SYNDICATE STUDIES:

This follows the seminar method and focuses on any particular or problem. Resource men are utilized for this method. Group discussions, supplemented by the available literature, are the method. The report is brought out at the end. It may take a month time or more with 10 to 12 sittings.

L) BRAIN STORMING

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

FIELD TRIPS OR TOURS:

It is a method in which a group of interested farmers accompanied and guided by extension workers, goes on tour to see and gain first hand knowledge of improved practices in their natural setting. This visit may be to the research farms, demonstration plots, farms of progressive farmers, institutions, orchards etc/

PURPOSE OF TOUR:

a) To stimulate interest, conviction and action in respect of a specific purpose,
b) To impress the group about the feasibility and utility of a series of related practices
c) To help people to recognize problems, to develop interest, to generate discussions and to promote action
d) To see the results of new practice, operation of new tools and implements, and to see the accomplishments of other villages, college farms.

PROCEDURE:

a) Plan a trip on the dimensions of places, what to see and learn, necessary permissions, date, time, transport, size of group, food, accommodation, refreshments, instructions to the participants, advance visit, if possible etc.
b) Conduct the trip-prepare and give tour programme to the participants, active participation by entire group, question-answers, adhering to the schedule.
c) Record the trip with regard to the participants name and other details in order to facilitate fallow-up.
d) Follow-up made post- trip contact of the participants, arrangement for necessary supply and services, aim for desired action, recognition to successful members, publicity material building etc.

ADVANTAGES

a) Participants gain first hand knowledge of improved practices and are stimulated to action
b) Best suited to the 'show-me' type of people
c) Adoption percentage is high
d) Widens the vision of farmers
e) Caters to group psychology and leadership
f) It has the entertainment and sight seeing values
g) It provides first hand knowledge in natural setting

LIMITATION

a) It is the most expensive extension method
b) It involves time, transport and other number of preparations
c) It is difficult to fix up season and time suitable for all
d) There is a risk of accident
e) The recreational aspect may mask the educational aspect.

EXHIBITION

Fairs and festivals are usually taken advantage of, for arranging exhibition. There is difference between exhibition and displays. The exhibits are more of 3-dimensional materials, while displays are mostly 2-dimensional.

POINTS FOR ARRANGING EXHIBITION

a) Make the exhibits simple
b) Limit to one idea per section
c) Make it timely
d) Make it durable, if possible

e) Make it attractive
f) Label legibly and briefly
g) Arrange the exhibits to tell the story without any interpreter
h) Keep the exhibits at a height of not less than 2 feet and not more than 7 feet from the floor
i) Action exhibits attracts the attention
j) Distribute relevant literature
k) Give adequate publicity
l) Evaluate the effectiveness by the attendance, enquires requests

ADVANTAGES

a) Best method to teach illiterates
b) Most fit for festive occasions
c) Promotes good will towards the extension
d) It is als o for recreational purpose
e) Can create market for certain products

LIMITATIONS

a) Requires much preparation and investment
b) It can not be used frequently or widely
c) Can not lend itself to all topics
d) Normally extension exhibits are arranged in a routine manner, without specific teaching aim

CAMPAIGN

Campaign is an intending teaching activity undertaken at an opportune time for a brief period; focusing attention in a concentrated manner on a particular problem, with a view to stimulate the widest possible interest in a community, block or other geographical area.

Campaigns are launched only after a recommended practice has been found acceptable to the people. To increase the production to the possible extent Campaign are being conducted at Rabi and Kharif seasons. Campaign encourages emotional participation of large number of people and it develop a favorable psychological climate for quick and large scale adoption of improved practices.

HOW TO ORGANIZE THE CAMPAIGN?

1) First for the Campaign is to give awareness of the need for the Campaign. This awareness is given through the meetings.
2) Before planning the Campaign the purpose must be made clear. The Campaign should fulfill the need of the people.
3) The Campaign must be planned with regard to
    a) Consultation of local leaders and specialists
    b) Ensuring timely supply of men and materials
    c) Selection of a suitable time for launching the Campaign
    d) Giving the wide publicity about the Campaign in advance.
    e) Specifying the work to each service person and local leaders
4) Conducting the Campaign is the next step, after planning
    a) Campaign should be carried out as per plan
    b) Campaign conduct should be done with the help of local leaders.
    c) Failure should be avoided
5) The last step is follow-up
        a) By the discussion the reaction of farmers should be found out.
        b) The extent of adoption should be assessed

c) The reasons for failures should be found out
d) The success stories must be published
e) The local leaders must be properly recognized for their contributions

POINTS TO CONSIDERED FOR EFFECTIVENESS

a) The Campaign should be organized at the right time, before the commencement of the season.
b) Timely provision of inputs including loan.
c) If farmers are aware of the need the response would be better
d) Complete information, including how to use a better practice should be taught.
e) Any Campaign to be successful leading to adoption, there must be constant encouragement up to the adoption
f) Evaluation of the Campaign and correction for the new start would increase the number of beneficiaries

ADVANTAGES

a) Specially suited to stimulate mass scale adoption of an improved practice in the shortest time possible.
b) Campaign exploits the group psychology for introduction of new practices.
c) Successful Campaign create conducive atmosphere for popularizing other methods
d) Builds up community confidence
e) Best method for the technologies which needs the entire community's adoption

LIMITATION

a) Not suited to individual problems
b) Campaign would be successful only when all concerned co-operate
c) Not suitable to the complicated technologies
d) Requires adequate preparation

PUBLIC SPEAKING

There are five senses of learning. They are

A) Hearing

B) Seeing

C) Smelling

D) Tasting

E) Touching

Among these, seeing is the important sense, since it does not have any language variation. While seeing, the picture is recorded in the memory.

Speaking affects the sense of hearing. Speaking is meant for communication. Speech is a stimulus; stimulus is the one, which induces a reaction on the part of the receiver. For every stimulus there will be a response.

The purpose of speaking is to make the listeners understand, gain knowledge get persuaded to form or change the attitude to converse and finally getting action.

If all my possessions were taken away from me with one exception, I would choose the power of speech for by it. I would regain soon all the rest.

Benefits of Public Speech

- Begins individual qualities to the forefront.
- It develops a capacity for human relations.
- Ensures quicker social acceptability.
- Ensures greater conviction.
- Helps for better participation in organization.
- Creates self - confidence.
- Makes the mind methodical.
- Ensures clarity of thoughts.
- Helps to acquire qualities like enthusiasm and courage.
- Writing and speaking are the two eyes of extension workers.

Elements of speech

Audience, Content & Expression

Audience: Heterogeneous in nature in socio-economic, psychological and personal characters.

Content or message: Simple, acceptable and understandable.

Expression: Mannerism, factors, elements are included.

MANNERISM

Stage Mannerism

- Sit normally and calmly with normal posture.
- Sit coolly and in relaxed manner.
- Don’t talk with others in the stage.
- Acknowledge chairperson when you speak.
- Acknowledge the audience also.

Dress Mannerism

Dress should be neat and clean. Should be attractive.

Mike Mannerism

Speech produces sound waves. So, they are converted into electrical impulses and carried to amplifier, which increase it to many folds, which is taken to the speakers through speakers. It converts the electrical impulses into sound waves, which can be heard by ears.

The speaker should stand near the microphone. Check the audibility not by tapping it, not by blowing it, but by speaking few words, because the diaphragm will be spoiled.

Adjust the height to each person. It should be to the level of the mouth. Keep a minimum distance to 4-6". Don't bite the microphone. Don't stand far away. Talk to the microphone.

Don't hold the microphone and don't lift it. The speaker should not do anything not liked by the audience. While speaking to the microphone always maintain eye contact.

Gesture

The movements of the body parts are known as gestures. They help in effective communication. It should be spontaneous. The gesture should be used for showing the direction, size, shape, description, feeling intensity should synchronize with expression. Avoid gesticulation i.e., over use of gestures.

Advantages of Mannerism

- It conveys your interest in the audience.
- Establishes Rapport with your audience.
- Develops confidence in you.
- Prevents deviation of audience.
- Keeps the audience attentive.
- It develops your vocabulary

Procedure in delivering a speech

Prepare the speech outlets. Keep the audience in mind and follow the 4'p' system i.e., pulling of information, pruning of information, processing and presentation of information.

Arrange your talk introduction, body and conclusion.

Introduction:

Telling what you are going to tell.

Body:

Telling what you have promised to tell.

Conclusion:

- Telling what you have told.
- Rehearse your talk, but don't memorise
- Begin with a good and attractive lead
- Have a favorable attitude towards the audience and message
- Follow a logical sequence
- Be thoughtful to other speakers and take thread in your speech
- Give local and suitable examples
- Support your talk with adequate evidence
- Speak in your own normal style
- Coat relevant proverbs or quotations
- Add spice in your speech
- Introduce human element
- Touch upon recent happening
- Avoid nervousness and so self confidence
- Don't bluff the audience
- Understand the audience's feed back
- Avoid self-defeating statements
- Don't apologies unnecessarily
- Summaries at the end
- Arrange for photographs
- Conclude with grace in time i.e. with optimistic note and calling for action
- Plan, prepare, practice and present.

Evaluation methods

Score card for judging the talk is as below:

I. Personal (25)	
a) Appearance	---5
b) Friendly conversational approach	---5
c) Poise, confidence and enthusiasm	---5
d) Gestures, mannerisms, eye contact and humour	---5
e) Voice, delivery, style, fluency and pronunciation	---5
II. Presentation (35)	
a) Introduction and objectives	---5
b) Treatment, highlights, key points and examples	---10
c) Teaching aids carefully selected, arranged and used	---5
d) Summary and conclusion	---5
e) Questions and answers	---5
f) Maintaining interest	---5
III. Subject matter (40)	
a) Related to field situation	---5
b) Adequacy	---10
c) Systematic break –up	---7
d) Balanced coverage	---6
e) Problems well brought out and covered	---7
f) Latest information	---5
	100

Excellent	---85 - 100
Good	---70 – 84
Fair	---50 – 69
Needs improvement	---49 and less

FIELD TRIP

Field trip is a planned visit to a place where successful projects or programme are in operation. It is a planned visit to a place to see the improved practice in their natural setting.

Purpose

- It exposes the learners to various learning situations and also provides first hand contact with the people, places and things all a round them.
- It helps to listen and to observe others plan by direct experience.
- It gives opportunity to examine the crop, machine and other allied aspects in real situation.
- It creates curiosity among the learners to ask questions and evoke interest
- It provides real life opportunity to learn by seeing and to gain understanding directly
- It helps to evaluate the technology leading to adoption

Materials required

Transport facilities, route maps and other related items

Procedure

- Determine the specific aims of the trip.
- Select the organization and place which will best serve the purpose
- Receive permission from the authority to make the trip successful
- Make definite arrangement for date, time, number of persons and objectives of the trip
- Prepare guide sheet for each learner
- Check on location of rest room boarding facilities
- Check on transportation and give specific direction about where to meet
- Limit group to the maximum of ten numbers
- Make sure each learners knows what to observe
- Be punctual, arrive, depart at the said time
- Select persons who can communicate to others

Advantages

- To learn in the field
- To give direct experience with the people, places and things they are studying about

- To impress the group about the feasibility and utility of some related practices
- To help the learners to recognize problems, to develop interest, generate discussion and promote action
- To provide all sense experiences in order to bring in changes in behaviour

Limitation

- They are often costly.
- They should be made only after careful planning.
- Risk of accidents.
- Difficulties to fix up season and time.
- Bottleneck of transport, accommodation at halting places.
- Difficult to gather group.

Comparison of observation plot, Result demonstration and method demonstration

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

MASS CONTACTS METHODS

IMPORTANCE:

Spoken words are forgotten rapidly. To often refresh the farmer's memory there should be some method to remind him from time to time. About 35 percent of farm information loss was found in between extension worker and farmers. Therefore for effective communication written methods are useful. For that purpose the written materials are immensely helpful to the farmers. Thus, the written methods are uses in extension teaching to provide facts in such a manner that their attention is attracted, to make them understand, remember and finally to help them to take favorable decisions. Further the written communication reduces the loss of information during transit and in addition it covers large number of people with in the short time.

PURPOSE:

a) To communicate in short time.
b) TO communicate clearly without any distortion.
c) To reduce the transit loss.
d) To increase the credibility of information source.

PREPARING WRITTEN MATERIALS:

1. **PLANNING:**

Before preparing the material the timeliness of the information should be given importance. The relevant materials may be collected. They should be arranged in a logical sequence. The following questions should be raised by the extension workers at the time of planning.

a) Do the written material is timely and worthy?
b) Will it make the people better thinkers?
c) How the results will used by the farmers?
d) Are the materials appropriate for the intelligence and experience of the readers?
e) What are the sources of evidence?

WRITING

The writing should be with
-Accuracy/correct
-Brevity
-Clarity/clear
-Concise
-Consistent
-Avoid exaggeration

a) **TITLE:** It should be short and attractive with easy understanding, bringing the subject and creating interest among the readers.

b) **WORDS AND SENTENCES:** They should be very simple and short. Use the familiar words. One sentence should have one idea. The sentences should follow logically and read to the sentence that follows.

c) PARAGRAPHS: Paragraph is a group related ideas It should be short. Each Para should convey sub-idea of the main idea. There should be introduction, body and conclusion in the writing, excepting the news features which follows the pyramid structure of title, lead and body.

The introduction should be designed to attract the readers with simple and comprehensive nature.

The body should present or analyse the situation. The other factors to be considered are less statistics, emphasizing the key points, containing facts, satisfying needs, bringing out the merits and demerits, winning the confidence of the reader etc.

The summary should contain all facts that create awareness for action.

Finally the reader's view points must be kept in mind at all times.

EVALUATION

The written materials are evaluated based on the reader's feed back. The purpose of evaluation is to be assessing the effectiveness in terms of achieving the objects.

ADVANTAGES

a) It provides clear information on the subject.
b) To provide authentication of the information this is the best method.
C) To remember longer this is the best method.
d) This method helps to keep the facts for longer time.
e) Easy for retention and recall
f) The idea are presented clearly
g) Extension worker can reach large number of farmers in shorter time.
h) It can supplement the farm and home visit

Tips for writing for farmers

a) The writing should be in the spoken form, but the slangs should be removed and not too stylistic
b) Avoid other language words as far as possible
c) State the facts concerning the seriousness of the problem.
d) Suggest what the person can do to solve the problem.
e) Letter must be neat and appealing to the eye and free from errors.
f) Above all personalize the letter by using direct statements, personal references (you approval), action words, simple sentences and courteous conclusion.
g) The letter should be brief clear, have single idea or serve for a single purpose, have complete information and lead to action.

ADVANTAGES

In addition to the advantages of any publication the circular letter has the following special advantages.

a) Convey timely information to the individuals concerned.
b) Best method to make announcements to get the attendance.
c) Unlike other written form this method has the advantage of making more direct appeal.
d) Quick and cheap method of communication.
e) Personal touch arouses interest and makes the letter popular.

LIMITATIONS

a) Special equipments and clerical help is necessary.
b) Too frequency use may minimize the effectiveness.
c) Not suited to illiterate clientele.
d) In catering to the needs of a particular individual it will not be advantages as that of the personal letters.

LEAFLET (FLYER)

Single sheet of paper used to present information on only one topic in a concise manner and simple language

PREPARATION

a) The leaflet is prepared for the farmer. Therefore select a suitable topic based on farmers felt need.
b) There should be only one idea, technique or practice.
c) Collect all desirable, relevant points and select only the most essential.
d) Use short, simple and familiar words.
e) Remember the ABC of the journalism and write accurate, briefly and concisely.
f) Include if relevant pictures, illustrations in order to help the farmer understanding.
g) Refer to local situations wherever possible.
h) Give the sources for obtaining further information
i) EDIT the leaflets meticulously to eliminate extra words ,poor phrases ,difficult words
j) Personal sentences, short paragraphs, less technical terms illustrations etc are the desired characteristics of leaflet.

PRINTING

a) Attractiveness can be increased by increased by using different colour papers or inks and by illustrations or photographs.
b) The size of the leaflet preferred by the farmers is 4" x 8"
c) Farmers of lower literacy preferred 16 point letters and those studied above fifth studied liked 14 point letters.
d) Printing on pink or yellow paper was by the farmers.

FOLDER

Folder is a single piece of paper folded once or twice, when it is opened the material presented are in sequence.

PREPARATION

All the factors to be considered for the leaflet are to be considered for the folder also. In addition to that the following factors may also be considered.

a) After deciding topic, based on the farmers felt need, collect the relevant points. Arrange the facts collected in the logical order. Select the important points in 1-2-3 order (step-by step)
b) While writing the folder there need not be complete sentences or paragraphs. The ideas and sub-ideas can be listed one below the other without enlarging them into complete sentences or paragraphs.

c) Folder will most suit to give a 'how to do', package of practices to be followed to be followed in growing a crop, the steps to be followed in solving a farm or home problem, etc. The accurate and specific instructions are given.
d) While listening out the facts there should be logical and time sequence.
e) Folder need not complete as it complements the other methods. However the title, printing etc., should be attraction otherwise, even if the leaflet is the only reading material available it may not be read at all.
f) The writing should be in the village's language, with simple and one syllable words.

PRINTING

a) Make the folder attractive by using photograph, line drawings and various colour papers and inks.
b) 1:1.5 ratios is more important width to length ratio.
c) 4"x8" folder is found to be very attractive at the farmer's view point or make them it any convenient and attractive size.
d) Print the folder on heavier paper than the leaflet.
e) The front page of the folder is exclusively allotted for printing the design with title. Prepare a cover design with 2 or 3 colours

PAMPHLET

Pamphlet size varies from 12 to 24 pages or little more. The first cover page should be printed in two or three colours with some action pictures. Full information about the selected topic is presented in the pamphlet.

NEWS STORY /NEWS ARTICLE

News is any timely information that interests a number of persons.
What is new and hot is called news.
News is an accurate, unbiased account of the significant facts of a timely happening that is of interest to the readers. Any thing that makes people to talk about is news.
If a dog bites a man, it is not news.
If a man bites a dog, it is news.
The best news is that which has greatest for the greatest number of people.
News story attracts attention because it reports interesting day-to day events or something new, different or unusual.
News story is useful to develop farmer's interest; inform the general public; communicate new information; create favorable attitude; and report the other methods like demonstration meeting etc.

KINDS OF NEWS STORIES

No rigid classification is possible. For convenience it can be divided as before and after stories, experience and success stories, news development and subject matter.

CONTENT

a) The event in a news story has to be recent or give the feeling of regency.
b) Tells what is happening.
c) Straight news story contains who, what, where, why and how of an idea.

d) Inverted pyramid form of presentation is the way of writing.
e) It begins with specifics and ends with generalities.
f) It is written in third person.

POINTS TO BE CONSIDERED WHILE WRITING THE NEWS STORY

The goal of writing is to inform and not to impress the readers about your mastery of language. Hence make it simple.

a) Have the readers in mind from the movement you write.
b) Make the writing brief as you talk and in clear terms.
c) Use concrete words which create pictures in the reader's mind.
d) Use familiar and every day word.
e) Have one idea for each sentence.
g) Divide it into paragraphs.
h) The writing should be friendly should be friendly and interesting.]
i) Follow the inverted pyramid form of writing.
j) It tries to reach every one for general readership.
k) The news is to be fresh but not necessarily seasonable.
l) The news story stops after presenting the ideas or facts.

The writing follows the principle of inverted pyramid form.

The information's about the article are collected. They are arranged in the priority order, by most important point at the top and body is written by giving more details and minor details. Then the lead paragraph is written. It answers four 'W's and one 'H' (what , where and how) . Lead should be confined to the facts for telling reader the story's content. It is the abstract of the body or condensed form of the body.(e.g.) "The State Government has allotted Rs.50 lakhs for constructing the foundation stone here on Monday". There are many types of leads and the summary lead is commonly written. Lead may form one or two paragraphs. Then, the facts in the lead paragraph are condensed and the head-line written attractively briefly and clearly so that the attention of the reader is completed towards article.

The special characteristics of this writing are that, the same information will be repeated three times in the article viz., headline, lead and body.

FEATURE STORIES

The feature stories are published in the periodicals like weekly, monthly, quarterly etc.

POINTS TO BE REMEMBERED

a) It aims at particular segment of the public. The audience are highly educated and most of whom can expected to welcome ideas and sentences of some complexity. It is designed to limiting interest groups such as poultry farmers, dentists etc.
b) Feature story does not stop after presenting the facts as in news story. It goes beyond and explores the background; the birth and growth of ideas are events and provides a glance at the future also.
c) This article appears less frequently at least ones in a week. Thus there is more ties to dig into the issue or situation than the dailies or news stories. Consequently it brings the events into focus and interprets their meanings.
d) This is half way between the newspaper and book. Magazines exam a situation from distance and the book from the higher ground of historical perspectives.

e) The information given in feature article need not to be new. It can talk about some thing that happened last year or year before that, provided, it is of interest to the readers.
f) Seasonable information is given.
g) The writing can be either in first, second or third person be cause it bears the name of the author. Therefore there is a personal 'chat' with the reader. In this the writer has more freedom than other written methods.
h) Only unvarnished truths are published.
i) There should be enough material to write feature article.
j) Photographs fitting with the story may be published. It helps to draw attention of the readers.
k) Caption is given in the present tense. If the reference is about some past action, then give the caption in past tense.

ORGANISING YOUTH CLUB, FARMERS CLUB, MAHILA MANDAL

YOUTH CLUBS (YUVAK MANDALS)

Earlier than the formation of the Y. F. A in India, the rural youth programme was first organized in the twenties around. Sriniketan in West Bengal by the workers of the Visva Bharati. In 1953-54, experiments were initiated in certain parts of the country to organized rural youth on the pattern of 4-H Clubs in the United States of America. The planning research and Action Institute, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, initiated pilot youth club projects in Balia, Etawah and Saharanpur districts of Uttar Pradesh. Similar programmes were also started in some other states like the Punjab and Mysore. But, so far, the progress has been limited and rural youth activity has not taken deep roots in our village development programmes. The Ministry of Community Development and Co- operation has been making concerted efforts to organize rural youth clubs as an integrated part of the Block development activities all over the country, and emphasis is now being laid on the organization of rural youth in the training programme of Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas.

OBJECTIVES

Broadly stated, the rural youth club programme aims to be a specialized educational enterprise for rural youth for providing them with opportunities for developing their physical, mental, Mara and social standards. The specific objectives for the objectives of the club activities are as follows;

1. Developing in rural youth the qualities of leadership.
2. Providing them with opportunities to build up their character and health.
3. Providing them with technical information about and practice in improved farming and home making, so that they may acquire the necessary skill and understanding in these fields and teach others what they have learnt.
4. Teaching them the value of research. And developing in them a scientific attitude towards the problems of the farm and the home.
5. Training them in co-operative and community action as a means of increasing personal accomplishments and of solving group problems by practicing co-operation with other in the Community.

Teaching them the dignity of labour

The technique of imparting training to rural youth is based on the principle of "learning by doing and earning while learning". To do members of the clubs undertake various individual and group sects according to their aptitude and ability, and extension workers them with constant guidance in their endeavor. The clubs convened with practical, economic activities designed to improve agricultural and rural development practices and also with the rural and recreational activities to raise the educational level of members and to foster a community spirit in the villages.

The village level worker undertakes the organization of these in the villages of his circle. The Extension wings of Agricultural veterinary colleges as well as Gram Sevaks Training Centres wide necessary guidance and help to selected youth clubs in the try of these institutions.

Guidelines

The following are some general guides which should be kept in while organizing a rural youth club.

1. Make informal contacts with village leaders and parents of the first basic step which a rural club organizer should take contact village leaders and parents of village youth, individually be groups. Then he should discuss the broad objectives of the programme with them and obtain their consent to start a club in the club will be a successfully if the constant of village leaders has been obtained before it is initiated. Parents and local should be often invited for discussion and should be associated developing future club programme, even after the clubs had functioning. This is very essential for the healthy functioning club. The absence of suitable local leadership sometimes ducted one of the greatest handicaps in the promotion of club. The youth club organizer should give serious consideration the local leaders interested in the programme. Similarly, the village school teacher should also be approached. He can make valuable and positive contribution to the organization and functioning of the club.

2. Selecting youth interested and willing to join the club. We the leaders and parents have agreed to the formation of a youth and discussion with them, individually or in groups, the organization of a club and the possibility of their joining it. A meeting of those who are willing to join the club may then be held to explain in detail the objective of the club and the programme to be undertaken.

3. Associate potential voluntary leaders to guide and assist in the youth programme. At this stage, it is essential that some potential leaders of the village are associated with the programme to guide and assist in the club activities. The access of the club programme to a very great extent depends on the initiative and lead voluntary leaders give to youngsters in club activities.

4. Organize meetings of youth and initiate educational programmes with the aid of films, filmstrips, flannel graphs, etc., In the initial stages, contacts with the youth should be maintained through youth club meetings and group discussions. In these meetings, the youth club members should be given a broad understanding of the economic and socio- recreational projects through films, filmstrips flannel graphs, puppet shows, folk songs, one-act plays and other visual aids.

5. Initiate Sports and Cultural Programmes. In the early stages of organizing youth club activity, complex projects should not normally be assigned to youth club members, and the club programme should generally be started with cultural and sports activities. This will provide a common meeting place and give an opportunity to the members to understand other economic projects which they can take up on an individual or group basis.

6. Select Projects and organize a training programme of the club members and voluntary leaders. When a common understanding about the aims and objectives of the youth club has been reached and the villages' youth have started taking part in club games, sports and recreational activities, suitable training programmes any then be arranged for them and the local leaders, on the projects which they intend to undertake. Such training is very essential to make them skilled and interested in the activity.

7. Assist club members in planning projects and keeping records. Club members must be helped in planning the projects. They wish to take up as part of the club work. Extension Officers of agriculture, animal husbandry, and other subject matter specialists at the Block level should guide and help each member in planning his programme. In the earlier stages, the specialists should create confidence in the club members by pointing out the economic advantages that could be had by undertaking individual and group projects. Members may then willingly extend the club activity to other spheres on their own.

Simple methods should be devised to maintain records of the club work done by each member. A consolidated account of these records; if convenient, any also be maintained by the secretary of the club. This will provide an opportunity to the members to exchange experiences and to learn about the progress of other individuals.

8. Evaluate the projects. Evaluation of the projects with simple methods should be done at every stage to apprise the club members of the progress they are making. Simple proforma may be worked out by the Block staff in agreement with the members of the club for undertaking evaluation work.

FARMER ORGANIZATIONS

Types of Organizations

Farmer organizations can be grouped into two types: one is the community-based and resource-orientated organization; the other is the commodity-based and market-orientated organization.

Community-Based, Resource-Orientated Farmer Organizations. This type could be a village-level cooperative or association dealing with inputs needed by the members, the resource owners, to enhance the productivity of their businesses based on land, water, or animals. These organizations are generally small, have well-defined geographical areas, and are predominantly concerned about inputs. However, the client group is highly diversified in terms of crops and commodities.

There are many primary-level agricultural cooperatives in the developing world, but the majority of them have been financially vulnerable and ineffective. Strategies have been developed to strengthen these organizations (see the section on how to strengthen existing farmer organizations). This group of organizations can generate income from the sale of inputs and outputs. The income can then be put back into the organization by spending it on extension, data generation, business planning, and administration. It is essential to have professional and honest management with constant monitoring and periodic rounds of evaluation (Gupta, 1989).

Commodity-Based, Market-Orientated Farmer Organizations. These organizations specialize in a single commodity and opt for value-added products which have expanded markets. They are designated as output-dominated organizations. Not specific to any single community, they can obtain members from among the regional growers of that commodity who are interested in investing some share capital to acquire the most recent processing technology and professional manpower. These FOs are generally not small and have to operate in a competitive environment. Research, input supply, extension, credit, collection of produce, processing, and marketing are all integrated to maximize the returns on the investments of the members who invested in the collective enterprise. Several successful cases are found in India, such as Anand Milk and other dairy FOs.

The rate of success of these organizations is determined by their capacity to arrange for major investments and a continuous flow of raw materials. This requires the competent and convincing management of both enterprise-related and member-related aspects. The profits generated are used to provide supplementary and supportive services at reduced cost to encourage members to use them. To do this requires a high calibre of representative and enlightened leadership from among the grower members. It is a challenging and demanding task to conceive, design, build, and nurture this type of FO.

VEWs can consult and work with other governmental agencies and nongovernmental organizations. However, each farmer organization will need to define its own BASE (basic activity sustaining the enterprise). In India, or for that matter in many developing countries, there is tremendous potential for expansion of commodity-based FOs. One rule of thumb suggests that any commodity which accounts for more than 50 percent of the costs of the raw material can be considered for value-added processing by a farmer organization (V. R. Gaikwad, personal communication, 1994).

Issues Influencing Participation in FOs

The following issues will influence the extent of participation:

· The degree of the farmer's dependence on the outputs of the organized activity.

· The degree of certainty of the availability of the outputs.

· The extent to which the outputs will be available only as a result of collective action.

· The extent to which the rewards associated with the collective action will be distributed equitably.

· The extent of availability of rewards within a reasonable time frame.

· The extent to which the rewards are commensurate with the costs associated with continued participation (Shingi & Bluhm, 1987).

Steps in establishing farmer organizations

Some of the principles and steps for social action models, community organizations, and management are used in designing the simplified step-wise approach in establishing FOs (Chamala, 1990). Care needs to be taken in selecting a person or a group of people who will take the lead in establishing community-based or commodity-based farmer organizations. This person - from another FO or government or other organization, such as a village extension worker - needs to be acquainted with and convinced of how the FO can be used to increase the income of small producers. In the following steps, the term VEW will be used to refer to the person or group of people selected to establish the FO.

Step 1. Understanding the Village Community

VEWs should enter the community with an open mind and understand the community structure. They must understand the community power structure,

problems, and opportunities for development. Walking around and talking to key people can help ease their entry into the community. VEWs should also develop an under-standing of the entire community, including the poor and marginal farmers and women.

Step 2. Identifying Potential Leaders in the Community

The usual tendency is for the VEWs to talk to formal leaders and commercial sections of the community. By using the sociometry method (see Box 1 for details on the methodology), they can identify potential leaders. However, it is also important to be sensitive to the leadership structures operating in that culture and to the knowledge and skills needed to be a successful leader of a farmer organization.

In some cultures, it is wise to search for and contact middle-aged leaders of the area who are not too young or too old. Preferably, they should come from better-off families, have social status and respect, and be from farming households. Case studies of leaders who have established farmer organizations show that these leaders initially made considerable sacrifices, experienced financial losses, and had to be supported by their families. These leaders also had to struggle and negotiate with bankers, bureaucrats, politicians, critics, and others including their own farmer members (Seetharaman & Shingi, 1992). This family background and grooming helps these leaders to deal with situations which they will have to face with confidence and without being cowed. Leadership of an FO is not a job for a sincere but ordinary farmer.

Box 1. Sociometry.

Ask a few people informally the following questions:

1. I am new to the village. Could you tell me three names of leaders of the village? (These are positional leaders who are currently holding leadership positions.) Write down their names or remember them and write them down later.

Positional Leaders

.....
.....
.....

2. Name three leaders whose opinions or ideas on agriculture have influence on their friends and community leaders. (Make sure to get these names from each section of the society: the larger, medium, and small farmers because opinion leaders exist in each socioeconomic strata of the community.)

Opinion Leaders

Higher .....
Medium .....
Lower or poorer .....

Step 3. Talking to the Identified Leaders and Seeking Cooperation from Other Agencies

VEWs might talk to these leaders on general agricultural development and get ideas and information on FOs in the village. They might also seek cooperation from government agencies and especially from NGOs (if there are any in the area) to help establish FOs and support them in achieving success.

Does the community have a farmer organization? If not, is there a need for such an organization? If the community has an FO, what is its structure and history of performance. How could the FO play a role in village or community development? VEWs can canvass for ideas from the community and add their own ideas on the need for and the role of FOs in the entire process of broad-based agricultural development. They can explain how FOs in other communities helped them in development. It is important to provide facts and figures to convince potential leaders of the possibilities and approaches for increasing the income of a sizeable number of farmers and for contributing to the economic development of the region. Good FO leaders might also receive political advantages through satisfied farmers and people living in the region. The leaders' support should be secured and key people encouraged to consult among themselves about the pros and cons of forming FOs in the community.

Box 2. Steps in Developing an Organizational Structure.

The core group leaders' main goal is to understand the appropriate organizational structure, composition, and working rules for the efficient management of their farmer organization.

Stage 1. Leaders should secure the relevant guidelines of other FOs and study them carefully. An FO can be initiated by the government or by farmers and the community. If it is government initiated, the leaders should obtain copies of guidelines and rules. If it is community initiated, they should talk to other FOs and get their guidelines and constitution. The core group should study them carefully and discuss how they can fit into their community needs.

Stage 2. Leaders should then draw up a tentative organizational structure and working rules for their farmer organization. They should consider various models or types of organizations that serve their special needs for agricultural development and discuss them with other experienced leaders from that village or neighbouring villages. The structure should serve the functions. Are subgroups needed to achieve each task?

Step 4. Helping Local Leaders to Call Community Meetings.

VEWs can help enthusiastic local leaders to call for community meetings. Sometimes more than one meeting may be needed to discuss the need for and the role of FOs in agricultural development. FO leaders from neighbouring villages can be invited to speak at these meetings. Farmer-to-farmer information exchange helps them. Sometimes smaller meetings can be held for low-resource (small and marginal) farmers and minority groups. They may prefer having a separate FO to serve their specific needs. There is no harm in having more than one FO in a village.

It is important that producers from all sectors in the village participate in these meetings because the success of an enterprise-based FO depends on the volume of raw material procured from member producers. Every small or big producer contributes to this volume. The volume itself is more important than the socioeconomic status of the supplier.

Prospective members need to be convinced that everyone benefits in proportion to his or her contributions, not just the big farmers, as is widely perceived.

Step 5. Nominating Core Group Leaders to Develop or Establish the FO

From the community meetings, core group leaders are elected or nominated to design the FO with further community consultation. In some cultures, however, this approach may lead to the appointment of leaders who are unable to cope with the complexities of a farmer organization, as mentioned in step 2. If leaders are elected or nominated, VEWs should consider the issues raised in step 2 when assessing each candidate for election or nomination.

In situations where it is more appropriate to appoint a leader, the search for a suitable person is critical and requires time and patience. It is also critical that the selected leader be involved in the search for a potential agro-based enterprise to act as a BASE (basic activity sustaining the enterprise) for economic development. This process requires time, patience, and interactive and intellectual inputs. The VEW can help the appointed FO leader in this process.

Step 6. Developing an Organizational Structure for the FO

The VEW can help the core group of leaders in developing an organizational structure for their farmer organization. In the past, the "blueprint" approach was taken without understanding the function that the FOs structure plays in its performance. Group discussions help to highlight the need for careful planning. See Box 2 for details.

The structure should serve the organization's functions and goals. Understanding various types of FOs is useful. Should they be commodity-based organizations, cooperatives, partnerships, groups, or syndicates? Should they be multipurpose? Should there be one FO for the entire village or several to cater to the needs of special-interest groups (low-resource farmers, women, craftsmen, small businesses, and the like)? Should they have subgroups and an advisory committee? It is the farmers' organization, so they must go through the process explained in Box 2 and design it carefully by describing roles, responsibilities, rewards, and punishments for the people who perform tasks in the FO. At this stage, the VEW should, as far as possible, play a passive role because the leaders are the ones who are building the FO. NGOs also may share their experience and help leaders to develop an organizational structure.

Several less exacting chores also need to be taken care of at this stage. These include locating premises and negotiating for land, money, technology, personnel, construction, and infrastructure services such as power lines and telephones (if available).

Step 7. Developing the FO's Management through Education and Action Learning

An essential part of community empowerment is to help educate the leaders and members in management principles covering planning, implementing, and monitoring their projects and programmes. The following empowerment methods may be useful:

· *Educating.* Organize formal and informal learning activities.

· *Leading.* Help the leaders to lead and to learn from their actions by reflection as a team.

· *Mentoring and supporting.* Help the members initially by mentoring or supporting them in their planning and implementation stages.

· *Providing.* Obtain the services of other stake holders, FOs, and VEWs in providing various services to nurture the FO in the early stages of development.

· *Structuring.* Help the FO to structure its meetings and various participative planning activities and to learn from their experience through reflection.

· *Actualizing.* Help them to reflect on the process of managing their FO. Learning by doing can help them in self-actualization.(For more details on empowerment, see Vogt and Murrell (1990).

Step 8. Gearing up for Action

In this step, FOs examine their action plans, and task groups are set up to mobilize human and financial resources. Understanding the participative action management (PAM) planning process is useful (for details see Chamala, 1995a). A detailed six-stage PAM planning cycle (Figure 1) can help FO leaders in designing an inclusive and participative planning process. This is the stage to start considering the timing, scale, and content of the extension and research input of the FO.

Step 9. Implementing Selected Projects

In this step, the village extension worker can help the FO leaders implement the projects they have chosen.

The following process may be useful:

· Start implementing the selected project(s).

· Secure resources and allocate tasks.

· Develop a calendar of activities to achieve the goal.

· Develop monitoring processes for reflecting on events and activities regularly, either formally or informally.

· Ask committee members to meet to discuss actions periodically and report to general members regularly to keep them informed and involved.

Step 10. Monitoring and Evaluating the FO's Progress

Usually evaluation is done annually to meet formal requirements. But VEWs can encourage FOs to reflect on their activities more frequently so that they learn and improve their management skills. They need to watch for people who want to take over the FOs for their self-interest. It is important to take action against any negative influences. These monitoring or reflection processes help strengthen FOs and avoid self-defeating problems. Learning organizations are created through collective reflection and openness on financial and the other managerial matters (Senge, 1990).

The success of the farmer organization can be evaluated by measuring the increase in the members' productivity, the increase in their net income, and the net reduction in the cost of cultivation due to bulk purchases of inputs by the organization. It is essential to conduct monitoring and periodic evaluations.

How to strengthen existing FOs

Many farmer organizations that go through a high activity phase become inactive or defunct over a period of time. This is a normal process for many groups or FOs. VEWs can help the community to understand the reasons and causes for decline.

By reviewing the literature on groups and management, Chamala (1995b) identified twenty-six factors that factors, (2) service agency factors, (3) community factors, and (4) other external factors.

VEWs need to understand the factors that influence group or organization effectiveness or success (see details in Box 3). Many FOs have failed because of corruption, mismanagement, conflict, and lack of clear goals. It is important that VEWs understand these forces that influence their functioning. Several steps are suggested below to revive or revitalize existing FOs.

Box 3. Factors Influencing Community Group Effectiveness.

Group (FO) Internal Factors. At least ten factors are identified under this category:

1. Group composition
2. Group structure and size
3. Group atmosphere
4. Cohesion
5. Group standards and norms
6. Leadership styles
7. Balance between group maintenance needs, individual needs, and task needs
8. Level "group think" characteristics in the group
9. Development phase of the group
10. Group culture: empowering or controlling or a balance

Service Agency Factors. Government and nongovernment agencies can influence the effectiveness:

11. Technical capabilities of extension staff

12. Staff's "people skills" in managing groups

13. Staff attitudes and commitment to groups

14. Types of planning methods used: directive or participative, top-down or bottom-up, or balance of methods to maximize participation

15. Means or ends distinction: some groups are formed as means for development, while others are formed to harvest government subsidies. A group could get help, but it needs to mobilize its resources too.

16. Support for field extension officers

Community Factors. Groups and organizations are part of the community in which they exist. Hence the community influences a group's success.

Step 1. Understanding the Village Community and Gaining Their Trust

This step is similar to step 1 for establishing farmer organizations. The key factor here is for the VEW to gain the community's trust in order to help them develop.

Step 2. Talking to Leaders about Why FOs Are Less Active

Getting the multiple perspectives of identified leaders in the community informally is the next step. Putting pieces of the jigsaw puzzle together to understand why FOs are inactive requires diplomatic and detecting skills. The historical perspective of the FOs and various local factors that influenced their inaction must be obtained. The factors influencing community group effectiveness (Box 3) can be used as a guideline by selecting the relevant factors and ignoring the irrelevant ones.

Step 3. Seeking Ideas on Strengthening and Revitalizing Community FOs

Again, VEWs can talk to key leaders and seek their ideas on how to strengthen or revitalize the existing FOs or how to create new ones. It is the community's organization for their development, so the leaders' opinions and support should be obtained.

Step 4. Encouraging Local Leaders to Call Community Meetings

The VEW can help the leaders in setting up a community meeting to strengthen FOs or to form a new one.

The VEW can unobtrusively provide the format and make suggestions on how to conduct meetings and how to strengthen FOs.

Step 5. Establishing a Core Group of Leaders to Draft a Proposal

A core group of leaders or a steering committee will further deliberate, using the suggestions made by the members to design and develop a strategy to strengthen or revive the farmer organization.

Step 6. Getting Comments on and Community Endorsement of the Strategy

Leaders should be careful not to let the meetings and the community mood for "head hunting" or "apportioning the blame for the FO's inefficiency" to take control.

It is necessary to guide the community in a positive direction to develop working strategies. Several methods are available, such as SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats) analysis, prioritizing, and action-planning methods. See Chamala and Mortiss (1990) and Carman and Keith (1994) for techniques on participative planning and community consultation.

Useful procedures are outlined in steps 7 to 10 in the section on establishing farmer organizations. It is important to help the community to understand that it is in everybody's interest to strengthen FOs with win-win strategies. Helping them to see beyond petty politics and personal jealousies and to develop inclusive principles for development is one of the main roles for extension personnel. Acquiring facilitation skills is important.

Policy issues in establishing and strengthening farmer organizations

Several macro-level policy issues influence the establishment of farmer organizations. Some were discussed earlier, but two issues need clarification and discussion (see also Korten, 1989; Esman & Uphoff, 1984; Burkey, 1993; Garforth, 1993).

Increased Demand for Services

Will strong farmer organizations create more demand for services, and if so, how can this issue be resolved? Some policy makers believe that strong farmer organizations could create more demand on research and extension. This is partly true, but if the overall policy framework emphasizes empowerment, self-help, or user-pay systems, then more local resources could be mobilized and help increase

the correct way of using current natural resources on a sustainable basis. Several low-resource farmer groups working with other stakeholders like banks, agribusiness, NGOs, private consultants, and religious and philanthropic agencies will bring more resources to the development process. Retired professional teachers, nurses, and agricultural scientists could be encouraged to work as volunteers with FOs. In many developed countries, volunteers are a major force in providing services to the community.

Competition for Services

Will organized low-resource farmers compete for extension services with the existing commercial farm sector, and if so, how can this issue be resolved? In principle, farmer organizations with full empowerment reduce the pressure on "routine extension" activities, which take up a lot of the VEW's time. For example, "Landcare" groups in Australia and some successful FOs in Malaysia, the Philippine, Thailand, India, and Africa are helping other farmer groups or farmer organizations to be effective not for egalitarian or welfare reasons, but because they see that the commercial sector is dependent on low-resource farmers or upland farmers in solving their salting, erosion, water quality, and pest and weed management problems. Ecologically, the commercial sector is dependent on resource-poor or other minority tribes and groups for their survival. Just as in farmer-to-farmer extension methods, VEWs should help link the commercial sector with the low-resource farm sector so that win-win projects can be developed.

Similarly, the commercial sector needs peace and prosperity to avoid social unrest and to stop thefts and other problems. VEWs can play a positive role in developing a common or shared vision for sustainable development. Again, several techniques like future research, problem census, and SWOT analysis will help develop a shared vision for the commercial sector as well as the low-resource farming sector or minority groups. Collective action is crucial for survival and sustainable development.

Community organization is essential for rural development. One should not take a blueprint approach, but rather a learning-process approach within an action-learning framework.

MAHILA MANDALS

Mahila Mandalas are voluntary service organizations which work for the betterment of the women in the villages of India. These rural women are interested in working together with the help of Gram Sevikas, Mukhya Sevikas, Supervisor, and Program Officer.

This comes under the ministry of Women and Child Development and is in the custody of the state government. These women work for the betterment of other women and children who need Nutrition education, family welfare, food storage and help them also in immunization of children, small saving accounts of women, provision of bathrooms, smokeless chulhas, women crafts centre, and balwadis.

Registered Mahila Mandals have representatives across all sections of the society and they can have an executive committee upto 5 members. The government pays them an amount for the training of upto 5 members of each new mandal and also pays for the basic equipments and stationery etc.

The Objectives of these Mahila mandalas are

1. To make women self reliant and conscious of their human and constitutional rights and to put pressure on the state for fulfilling its obligation towards its people.

2. To nurture women's physical and emotional health.

3. To provide vocational training and credit facilities to women for self-employment.

4. To create a sustainable and humane mode of development through people's active involvement in rural Maharashtra.

5. To create a progressive space in society for all its deprived people, and to specifically resist casteism, sexism, religious chauvinism and homophobia.

6. To work towards the elimination of discrimination, inequality, intolerance and violence - both, within and outside the home.

7. To work towards the creation of a society based on equality, freedom, democracy, diversity and peace.

In short, the Government has started these programs to improve the life of rural women who do not have education and are illiterate. If the women are educated their life and their children will also improve and through that our country.

Details of Promotion and Strengthening of Mahila Mandals

Particulars	**Description**
Name of the Scheme	Promotion and Strengthening of Mahila Mandals
Sponsored by	State Government
Ministry/Department	Women and Child Development Department
Description	The Mahila Mandals are voluntary organizations of rural women, interested in working together with the help of Gram Sevikas, Mukhya Sevikas, Supervisor, and Programme Officer. The Mahila Mandals do work for the promotion of Nutrition education, family welfare, food storage, immunization of children, small saving accounts of women, provision of bathrooms, smokeless chulhas, women crafts centre, and balwadis etc. The registered Mahila Mandals have representative of all classes of society, and have their own executive committee. The women and Child Development Department provide grants for the training of upto 5 members of each Mahila Mandals. For basic equipments and Stationery etc., cash grant of Rs. 1500 is paid to newly registered Mahila Mandals. After two years of getting the first grant, the Mahila Mandal can be given a second matching grant of Rs. 750 for starting some income generating activities. The schemes, namely Mahila Mandal Sammelan, Inter State Study Tour of Mahila Mandals, Incentive Awards to Mahila Mandal have been clubbed under the scheme promotion and strengthening of Mahila Mandal. An amount of Rs. 12,00,000 is required for the year 2005-2006 under the scheme for giving grant-in-aid to Mahila Mandals.
Beneficiaries	Women,
Benefits	
Benefit Type	Material,
Eligibility criteria	Registered Mahila Mandals
How to Avail	Contact Women and Child development, Haryana Office.
Validity of the Scheme	
Introduced On	01 / 01 / 2007
Valid Upto	01 / 01 / 2012

http://www.india.gov.in/govt/viewscheme.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Teaching consists of a number of ideas, facts and concepts all existing in the mind of the teacher as a series of images, which he must transfer to the minds of the learners. The process can best be understood if we reduce it to the simplest possible terms and imagine an unusual teaching situation in which no visual aids are used.

Under this circumstance the teacher analyses his subject to decide what points are to be presented. He illustrates these messages into words. The audience listens to these words and develops images into words. The audience listens to these words and develops images. The teacher checks whether the learner has developed the indented mental pictures.

It is very difficult to convey accurate images by means of words alone. Hence the extension teacher aids such as black-board, charts, models, motion pictures and other devices for the purpose of facilitating understanding by means of visualization process.

An audio-visual aid is any device that assists the teacher in transmitting to a learner the facts, skills, attitude, knowledge, understanding and appreciation.

IMPORTANCE OF AIDS

Visual presentation can hold a fascination for the masses that no other medium can rival. In some programmes the visual media are considered almost imperative, especially in early stages of the extension programmes. The aids when properly used in the teaching learning situation they can accomplish the following;

a) Aids help in drawing the attention of the people.
b) Words alone may not be able to clear the ideas, but aids help the audience in understanding the same.
c) They make learning more interesting and increase the retention of the knowledge
d) Aids develop a continuity of thoughts, because of better organization of the message.
e) They provide opportunity for efficient, depth and variety of learning.
f) They contribute to growth of meaning and provide a sense of authority to the message.
g) Visual aids overcome the language barrier.
h) Aids multiply the efforts of the teacher and enable his message reach large number of people
i) Aids act as remainders
j) Stimulate thinking and motive action
k) Saves time, because learning is easier and faster.

Definitions

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

In common usage, some forms or educational aids are loosely called audio – visual materials. Some of these are specifically visual, some audio, and a few are true audio- visual media as illustrated in the classification given below. Strictly speaking, no extension medium is complete without talk in some form at some stage. It must be remembered that audio- visual aids can only supplement the teacher but can never supplant him.

Purpose

Audio – Visual aids are used to improve teaching i.e., to increase the concreteness, clarity and effectiveness of the ideas and skills being transferred. They enable the audience to look listen and learn (by doing0; to learn faster, to learn more, to learn thoroughly and to remember longer.

Classification of audio-visual aids
According to Evolution

First – generation media: Handmade charts, graphs, exhibits, models, hand – written material etc.

Second – generation media: Handmade printed illustrated are likely to be introduced.

Third – generation media: Photographs, slides, film-strips, films, recordings, radio, tele-lectures etc.,

Fourth – generation media: Television, programmed instruction, language laboratories electronic digital computers.

According to senses involved
AUDIO AIDS

1. Radio 2. recordings, (a) tape (b) disc, (c) Wire (3) Sound commentaries including public address equipment.

Visual aids

1. Non – projected: (a) Models, Specimens. (flannel graphs. (c) Flash cards (d) Photographs (e) Illustrations (f) Charts (g) posters 9h) Chalk Board (i) Bulletin Board.
2. projected: (a) Slides (b) Filmstrips (c) Silent Films or motion pictures (d) Illustrations etc., projected through epidiascope or opaque projector, overhead projector etc.
3. others : (a) Exhibits (b) Demonstrations (c) Literature.

Audio – visual aids

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

A. Display Type; eg., Posters, Bulletin Boards, Models, Exhibits etc.,
B. Presentation Type : eg: Flash cards, Pull charts, Striptease charts, Slides and Filmstrips etc., with running commentary.

3. According to contribution to learning

Figure 3 shows the "cone of experience' devised by Edgar Dale in explaining the inter relationships of the various types of audio- visual materials, as well as their individual "position " in the learning process.

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

(a) Direct, purposeful experience: It is the unabridged version of life itself, with three elements – directness, purposefulness, and responsibility for the outcome. E.g. making a piece of furniture, ploughing, cultivating any crop etc.

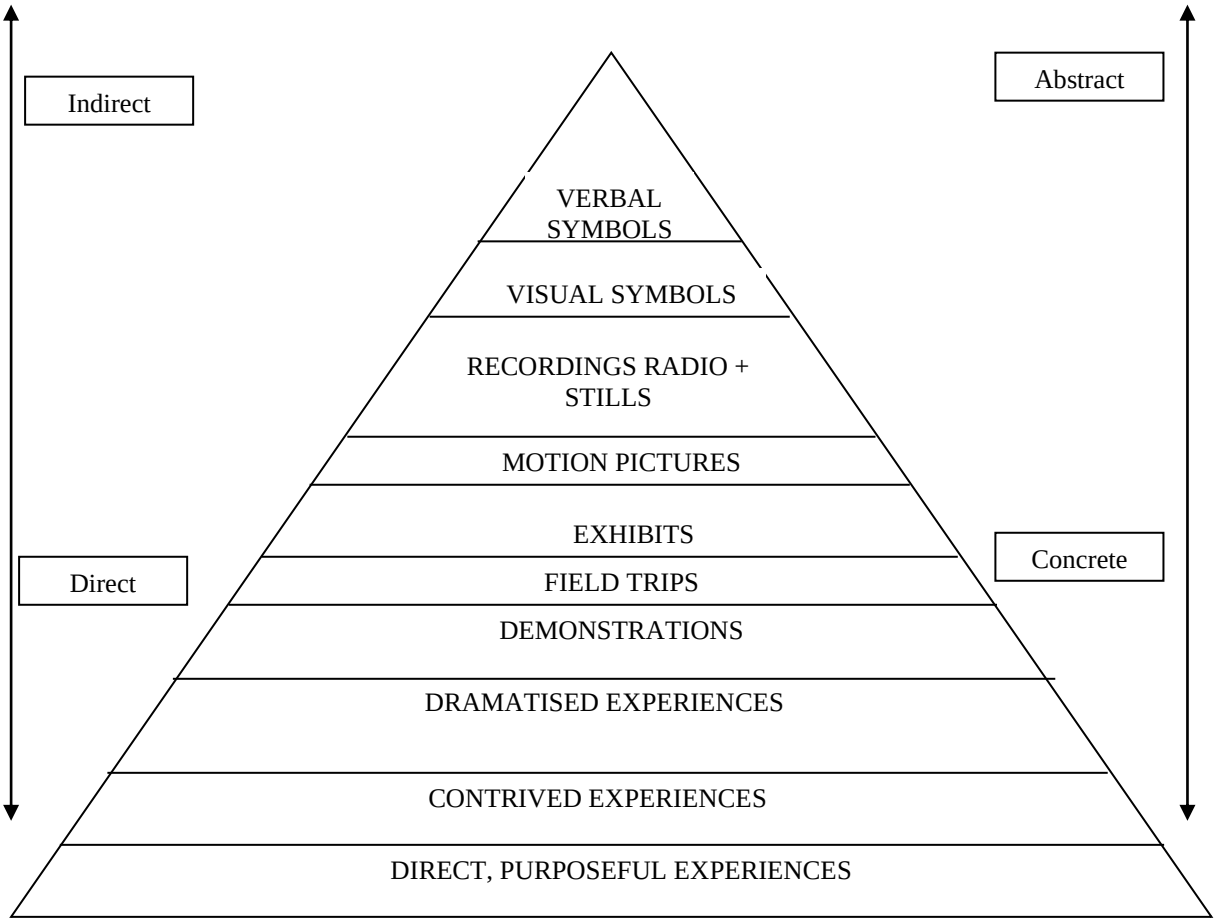

Figure. The cone of experience (Types of audio visual Aids)

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

(c) Dramatized Experiences: i.e., participating in a reconstructed experience, e.g., dramas,. Puppet shows.

(d). Demonstrations: Practical experience, learning by doing.

(e). Field Trips: Exposing the farmers to field reality.

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

(g). Motion Picture:

i. Television

ii. Motion pictures of Films – Silent pictures or combination of sight and sound.

(h). Recordings, Radio + Stills

i. Radio –

ii. Recordings - on disc, tape, or wire.

iii. Still pictures;

a. Non-projected (for individual use) e.g., Photographs, illustrations.
b. Projected (for group use) – e.g., photographs and illustrations *used in opaque projectory) slides, filmstrips.

(i) Visual Symbols: e.g., flat maps, chalkboards, sketches, cartoons, posters, diagrams, charts, graphs, bulletin boards, flash cards, flannel graphs.

(j) Visual Symbols: designations that bear no physical resemblance to the objects or ideas for which they stand. These are used together with every other material on the "cone of experience"

These are a few of the several ways in which audio- visual aids can be classified. Each classification has merits and demerits. Some are easy to compress while others are more systematic from the learning – teaching process. Further, use of many of these teaching aids depends on several pieces of audio- visual equipment, overhead projector, video cassette player, radio set, television set, chalk board, bulletin boards, projection screens etc.

Factors influencing selection of audio – visual aids

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

(a). The teaching objective – i.e., the type of behavior change you want to bring about – gaining information, or changing attitudes, or learning some skill.
(b). The nature of subject matter being taught.
(c). The nature of audience – age level, education al level interest, experience, knowledge of the subject, intelligence.
(d). The size of audience: e.g., Flash cards can be used for a small audience only motion picture, for a large audience.

(e). Relative cost of the various aids – Effective aids need not necessarily be expensive.
(f). The teacher – i. extension worker's familiarity with and skill in using the several aids (ii). his originality and skill in selection, preparation and use of aids.
(g). The availability – An effective extension worker makes use of indigenous materials, when the teaching aid he would like to use, is not available.

TYPES OF AIDS

All the aids can be classified into three categories according to the sense being used. These categories are:

a) AUDIO – AIDS:
The instructional device which can be heard only, (e.g.) tape-recordings, radio, gramophone records, public address system etc.

b) VISUAL AIDS
The aids which can be seen only, (e.g.) photographs, posters, charts, models, flannel, flash card, bulletin board, slides, film, strip, etc.

c) AUDIO – VISUAL AIDS
The aids which can be heard as well as seen, (e.g.) sound films, television, video-tapes, drama and puppet show, etc.

Another type of two way of classification is as follows
a) **DISPLAY TYPE**: (e.g.) posters, bulletin board, models, exhibition, etc.
b) **PRESENTATION TYPE**: flash cards, charts, slides, filmstrip etc. with running commentary.

SELECTION OF A.V. AIDS

When an extension work uses teaching aids he needs more planning and preparation, than when he only talks. But his additional labour is always rewarded with more effective learning on the part of his audience. It should be born in mind that aids are not instructional in themselves. They are no substitute for the teacher, but in reality this aids only help the instructor. In short, these aids are supplementary devices by which the teacher through the utilization of more than one sensory channel helps to clarify and correlate accurate concepts, interpretations and appreciations.

The following points would help the extension worker to select appropriate A.V. aids.

a) Select the best aid or combination of aids to meet the specific objective
b) The aid should no be foreign to the learner's environment. The effective extension workers make use of indigenous materials.
c) The aid should be appropriate to the age, intelligence, sex, education, experience etc.
d) The aid should not be too old or damaged.
e) Too many aids should not be used unnecessarily.
f) Simple aids, if equally effective, should be preferred to expensive aids. Effective aids need not necessarily be expensive.
g) Aid should help learners to make better thinker and critical-minded.
h) An aid should help learners to improve human relations
i) Selected aid should be worth the time, expense and effort involved

j) A teacher should know his own capabilities while making selection
k) The nature of subject matter being taught
l) The size of the audience should also be considered while selecting the aids.

THE EFFECTIVE USE OF A.V. AIDS

I. PLANNING

a) Know clearly the objective of presentation
b) Plan well in advance. This helps to anticipate problems and avoid them.
c) Anticipate size of audience as closely as possible and make sure the aids are visible and / or audible to entire audience
d) Plan for the use of a variety of audience in order to hold the attention of the audience.
e) Determine the appropriate timing for the presentations

II. PREPARATION

a) Rehearse the preparation for smooth presentation
b) Select a convenient meeting place
c) Anticipate need for special lighting and total darkness and be prepared for the both, at the right time.
d) Make sure that all equipments are in good working condition before starting meeting.
e) Arrange the aids in sequence and have them within easy reach
f) Keep aids out of sight until actually required for use

III. PRESENTATION

a) Motivate the audience and stress the key points
b) Present the aids at right movement and in proper sequence
c) Display only one aid at a time
d) Remove all unrelated materials
e) Stand beside the aid, not in front of it
f) Speak the facing the audience and not in aids

IV. EVALUATION

a) At the end of the programme evaluate by application and discussion
b) Undertake follow-up studies and observe results

LIMITATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUALS

a) Learners may sometimes mistaken or distorted impressions, unless audio-visuals are supplemented with required explanations.
b) Teacher may narrow down his teaching only to the few big ideas, not giving the complete picture of a subject.
c) Some teachers misunderstand that they have very little work, when they use these aids.

ELECTRONIC MEDIA - RADIO, TELEVISION AND VIDEO

RADIO

What is it?

It is a medium for mass communication; a tool for giving information and entertainment.

Purposes

a. To reach large number of people quickly and inexpensively.
b. To reach people not reached by other means.
c. To stimulate participation in extension through all other media.
d. To build enthusiasm and maintain interest.

Procedure or Technique

a. Determine its place in the teaching plan.
b. Be clear about the purpose of your broadcast.
c. Keep the interests and needs of the audience in view.
d. Select topics of current interest.
e. Time the broadcast to synchronize with the farmers' leisure hours.
f. Decide what treatment to give – straight talk, interview, panel, drams etc.,
g. For writing the script, follow the principles given for writing news articles.
h. Encourage people to listen to rural programmes.
i. Encourage them to write to the broadcasting stations about their like, need and opinions.
j. Encourage talented local people to participate in broadcasting.

Advantages

a. Can reach more people more quickly than any other means of communication.
b. Specially suited to give emergency and timely information
c. Relatively cheap.
d. Reaches many who read little or none at all.
e. Researches people who are unable to attend extension meetings.
f. Builds interest in other extension media.
g. Possible to do other things while listening.

Limitations

a. Limited number of broadcasting stations.
b. Not within reach of all farmers.
c. Recommendations may not apply to individual needs.
d. No tuning back if not understood.
e. Frequently loses out in competition with entertainment.
f. Difficult to check on results.

Script for radio

Radio is considered to be the best and the most effective means of communication for rural audience in our country. Radio, broadcasting has become almost a part of daily life. Radio as a media has great potential for creating awareness among farming population about new agricultural technology changing attitudes, stimulating the listeners and motivating them to adopt.

Principles

Vohra (1986) who has been producing farm radio programmes for over 25 years has given the following general principles and for writing the script for farm radio programmes.

a. Writing for radio is an art to be learned it is writing in spoken form. It should be easily absorbed by the listener. The listener must understand the conversation.

b. Simplicity is essential. In normal speech we use simple rather than complicated words and sentences.

c. Repetition of the key ideas is essential.

d. Avoid use of statistics.

e. Careful planning is essential

f. Maintain continuity of narration in writing a script.

Modes of presentation

a. Straight talk
b. Interview
c. Discussion
d. Conversation
e. Feature
f. Quiz
g. Question and Answers
h. Farm News
i. Farm school on AIR
j. Music
k. Drama
i. Folk Arts
m. Announcements
n. Magazine Programme.

Script is it necessary

Script writing is an essential part of the broad casting. The script helps in putting your ideas in a logical sequence and will keep you informed what the listening audience is to be communicated or in other words what the message is.

Parts of an effective script

a. The first part should be designed to attract the attention of the listeners towards the subject proper.
b. The second part may analyze the present situation, laying special emphasis on the problem encounter based on local needs.
c. The third part may give out facts about the recommended practice and it merits over the previous practices and try to win the confidence of the listener.
d. The fourth section may deal with an appeal to action.

e. Finally the script may end with a summarization of all the different practices.

Writing the Script
Before Writing

a. Determine the purpose first, the objective should be clear.
b. Know the type of listeners to be formed also keep in mind the probable activity which they might be performing while listening.
c. While selecting your subject ensure that it is relevant, had based suitable to agro-climatic condition, suitable to season on and reliable.
d. Decide the mode of presentation.
e. Collect all the possible related authentic for writing.
f. Be sure to include supporting facts and illustration
g. Process the information by identifying the main points.

While writing
r

a. Remember that it is writing for the ear only.
b. Avoid academic style. Avoid jaw breaking words.
c. Prefer to use local information and experience of farmers.
d. Keep listener view point in mind of all times.
e. Make listener realize importance of the Programme.
f. Be direct and personal.
g. Use statistics sparingly.
h. Be humorous
i. Time your script. Ideal speed of presentation is 125 – 160 word s per minute.
j. Repeat important details underline the words to be emphasized
k. Quote authoritative source, wherever necessary.
l. Don't cover many topics.
m. Cut down the use of hissing or the z words.
n. Mark the points where you are to catch breath.
o. Arrest attention: First 30 seconds are Crucial. You are dealing with a free and hot creative audience.
p. Hold attention: Hold the attention continuously through writing words, local example appeal to emotions, keep material for this read.
q. Run down information point by point.
r. Fire imagination by presenting a picture of the situation likely emerge, after the listener talks the suggestion action.

Before delivery

Before delivering the talk rehearse it properly. If possible, record it on a tape recorder and listen it by putting yourself in the position of a listener.

While delivering

Before delivering the talk rehearse it properly. If possible, record it on a tape recorder and listen it by putting yourself in the position of a listener.

While delivering

a. Let your copy typed in double or triple space and use only one side of the page.
b. Punctuate your copy for easy delivery

c. End the page with complete sentence.
d. Be information
e. Be sincere in your expression
f. Do not talk down to listeners.

TELEVISION

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

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

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

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

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

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

Entertainment First.

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

Agricultural television will pose number of questions that need to be answered before programmes are formulated. There are no ready made solutions available. We can draw but very little upon the experience of other countries, as the answers have to suit our conditions. Continuous experimentation is the only way of arriving. It is usual to identify the factors involved in television programmes for farmers. Among these factors, timing, frequency and length, format or design, content and the treatment used for putting the content across are the most important ones.

Timing

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

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

Frequency and length:

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

Format

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

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

Content

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

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

Treatment

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

Need for Rehearsals

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

WRITING VIDEOS SCRIPT

Writing for video or for that matter any other medium is a quality which differs from person to person. Since it is an art, no set principles can be given. Nevertheless, there are certain universal principles in preparing video scripts and formats. The National Broadcasting corporation (NBC) of the USA uses type written lines running to full width of the page, whereas Central Broadcasting Service (CBS) has video direction ((Cues) on the left of the page, and audio – direction and narration on the right. Video and audio cues in both are written in capital letters, narration in caps and lower case. The CBS style, however, is widely used and is also easier to follow.

Guidelines for script writing

Script writing for a video programme is an art which can be learnt. As such no principles can be enunciated for that but, some guidelines which are given below may help:

a. The Script should synchronize with the kinds of audience and due care should take of age – group, socio – cultural background, psychological profile, interests, attitudes, needs, homogeneity or heterogeneity etc.,

b. The title of script should be short, attractive and direct.
c. The script should be clear, precise, objective and brief.
d. For holding attention local examples, visuals and sound effect should be used.
e. The sentence composition should be simple, clear, short and direct, but colourful.
f. There should be proper sequence of script contents.
g. There should be one idea showing immediacy in a script.
h. The ideas should be feasible and practicable
i. The information contained should be genuine and factual.
j. The script should involve and address the audience directly through a personalized message and ensure impact, through the use of words like 'you' and 'we'
k. Recapitulating and underlining stress points should be used.
l. Repeat the ideas to improve retentivity.
m. The speed of presentation should be between 125 – 160 words per minute.
n. Avoid pausing by completing paragraph at the end of each page.
o. Do not forget to give page numbers.
p. The information in the script should have humor and light – hearted tone to maintain interest of the audience.
q. There should be balancing of vision and sound.
r. The script should be flexible to suit the audience and yet put across ideas clearly and meaningfully, keep in mind of time, space and resources.
s. Summarize the script with appropriate visual presentations.

These guidelines of video script writing are not complete, but important in their application in letter and spirit to produce a quality script which is the backbone of a quality video production.

Procedure for script writing

Procedure for writing a video script on a theme already selected and the resource material identified will include the following;

1. Selection of stimulus:
   (a). Cognitive Domain (for apprehending, knowing or perceiving)
   (b). Affective Domain (related to interest, attitude and values pertaining to emotional aspects rather than thinking.

2. Decision about mode of presentation
   (a). Straight talk (b). Demonstration
   (c). Dialogue (d). Interview
   (e). Panel discussion (f). Puppets
   (g). Animation (h). Combination of the above.

3. Decision about the format of contents
   (a). Introduction
   (b). Body
   (c). Conclusion

4. Decision about the type and timing of visual shots
    (a). Close – up (CU)
    (b). Medium sot (MS)
    (c). Medium close – shot (MCS)
    (d). Mid long shot (MLS)
    (e). Extra close – up (XCU)
    (f). Extreme close – up
    (g). Point of view (POV)
    (h). Zoom in / out
    (i). Dolly in / out
    (j). Panning left / right
    (k). Fade in / out
    (l). Dissolve / lap dissolve
    (m). Crane shot
    (n). High / low angle shot
    (o). Master shot
    (p). Aerial shot
    (q). Establishing shot (Wide)
    (r) Reverse / false reverse shot
    (s). Front / rear projection
    (t). Jump out
    (u). Moving / Walking shot
    (v). Reaction shot
    (w). Trucking
    (x) Still shot
    (y) Super imposition
    (z). Wide shot

5. Decision about the type of sound and narration
    (a). Blend or Mix
    (b). Composite
    (c). Tubby / Hard (Echo)
    (d). Natural
    (e). Sound dissolve
    (f). Under
    (g). Over
    (h). Fade
6. Decision about the graphics
7. Decision about the shooting scripts
    (a). Studio based interview, discussion etc.,
    (b). Outdoor shooting/film based shooting (field based documentaries)
    (c). Combination of a studio and outdoor shooting based / studio –cum – film based.

8. Decision about lighting
    (a). Back light (Spot light to separate subject from set)
    (b). Cameo / limbo, (pool of light to eliminate set)
    (c). Fill – a soft light to lighten shadows.
    (d). Ellipsoidal spot (like light for giving shadow)
    (e). Set light – to reveal only the set
    (f). Silourette background lit to show subjects form
    (g). Scoop – broads with no beam.
    (h). Hair light / back light

Specimen of scripts

Normally, it is prepared on 8.5" x 11" sheet of paper divided in half with the vertical. On right hand side the audio side (Speakers text) and on left or video side is a small miscellaneous column for penciling special notes. For fast sequence shots set up column is added.

Shooting script

Topic …….
Duration …….
Scripted by …….
Producer …….

Sl. No sequence	Shot. No. and duration	Shot description	Description of script Narration	Sound effect

MODERN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Use of modern information technology

Information is an important resource in modern agriculture. The development of computers and improvements in telecommunication offer farmers many new opportunities to obtain technical and economic information quickly and use in effectively for the decision-making. The modern farmer is a business man who tries to grow right crops and animals in the most profitable way. The amount of information a farmer can and should use for his management decision is increase rapidly.

Previously the mass media gave generalized advice to farmers, but with modern information technology extension can provide for each farm and farmer without visiting the farm personally. The following are few modern information technology flows.

1. VIEW DATA:

This transmits the information from a central computer by telephone line to the screen of a home television set or a computer. The amount of information the system can store is limited only by the capacity of its computer. The farmer interacts with the central computer containing the data base. He can request the computer to make certain calculation by combining information from the data base with information from his own farm. For example he can calculate results he can expect from using different production techniques, or the income he can except from selling livestock of a certain weight at a particular market.

Farmers would found difficult to find the information they require, partly because they are not always quite clear which information they need for their decisions. Further more it will be expensive to use.

2. TELE TEXT

It is a system somewhat like view data in which printed information is broadcast through television rather than transmitted through a telephone line. It has no interactive capacity and it has a very much smaller data base.

3. MICRO – COMPUTERS

Through micro – computer on the farm, the farmer can process accounts and data from his farm production. Many extension agents in industrialized countries now have micro – computers and can make similar calculations for farmers.

4. NET WORK SYSTEM:

Net work system in which view data is connected with the micro - computers of the farmer or extension agent. This makes it possible to use data or a computer programmes from view data in the micro – computers or to process data from the farm in the view data mainframe computer which can accommodate more complicated models than a micro – computers. These net work systems become important in relations between farmers and the suppliers and customers. They can also be used for extension information when they have been installed for that reason.

Following are some examples of the ways in which information technology is used to improve farmer's decision making.

EXAMPLE-A:

Dairy farmers have to decide how much and which kind of concentrates to gives as a supplement to the roughages their cows receive. Their decision depends on the amount of milk cows give, the quality and quantity of rough-ages, the age, stage of pregnancy of the cow, etc. These data are entered in the farmer's micro-computers. Each cow is connected with the computer through a small radio transmitter. This identifies the cow as it approaches the machine which dispenses the concentrates. The computer then calculates the appropriate ration and signals the machine which dispenses the measured amount of feed to the cow in her stall. This system ensures that fewer concentrates are consumed because each cow receives only as much as she in a series of small amounts which she uses efficiently to produce more milk.

EXAMPLE B:

A farmer has to decide which wheat variety to grow and when to sow it, without knowing what the rainfall pattern will be this year. The model include random variation in the recorded rainfall pattern of his district as well as the agronomic characteristics of the wheat plant. In minutes he can stimulate twenty different years

using the computer model to predict the yield each year. This means the farmer can learn quickly from the accumulated experience with out the danger of losing money if he makes the wrong decision. Some stimulation models incorporate farmers' observation of weather conditions and the extent to which their crop is infested with various insects and diseases and make recommendations for the use of pesticides based on these data.

When farmers use this information technology the role of extension agents changes. For example, in pest control the extension worker used to tell farmers which pesticide they should use. With this information now readily available from a computer the worker now has the opportunity to teach farmers the basic principles of epidemiology on which computers model is based. The extension worker can help the farmer in teaching the following:

a) how to select a computer and a computer system.
b) Which data he has to collect and record on his farm to use with computer programme.
c) How to collect this data, for example, how to recognize the infection rate of different wheat diseases.
d) To select the information he needs for his decision making, and
e) How to intercept correctly the information he receives.

TRANSFER OF TECHNOLOGY (TOT)

Transfer of Technology (TOT) is a systematic process of making farmers 'aware' of a new technological components or system, then creating farmer's interest in the new technology, so that they can 'evaluate' it within their own farming system and their own agro economic conditions.

In transferring new end science - based technology to farmers, extension systems use mass media in the early stages to create farmers' awareness and interest. When farmers become interested in a new technology, they may need more specific in-depth knowledge about the technology, so that they can learn how to use it and to evaluate its expected costs and anticipated benefits.

At this stage, group methods, including meeting, demonstrations and field days are typically used. These methods are supplemented with in-depth brochures that farmers can take home so that they will know how to incorporate the new technology into their farming system. In general, most information about new technology (indigenous science based) travels from farmer to farmer through word of web of mouth informally.

Importance and major components

Technology transfer begins at the research system. The processes of taking technology, mature technologies generated by the research system into the extension system and on to farmers are a vital component of the technology transfer process.

Regular communication between researchers and extension agencies can help to ensure the successful transfer of new agricultural technologies, to end-user, the farmer communication with researchers is vital for extension agencies to acquire appropriate technical information that will enable them to help farmers.

This communication channel enables extension agents to retain information on new and improved agricultural technologies to their clientele. A well planned and directed communication effort, bring together researchers and extension agencies, can ensure that there is a timely movement of necessary technical information into the extension system and on to the farmers and other users.

A research extension communication channel benefits not only the work of extension agencies but can help to improve the work of researchers as well. Effective communication between research and extension agencies will help

researchers to better understand the current practices, problems, social conditions and technological needs of farmers. This communication can result in the establishment of priorities ensuring that more appropriate and cost effective research programmes are followed.

Over the years, several campaign models for technology transfer activities have been designed. But an effective model should be

Participatory: Involving research, extension and communication experts in the formulation, application and evaluation of the communication process.

Integrative: Combining researchers, extension agents and communication specialist in a continuous interactive process of strategy developments.

Practical: Focusing on 'real' problems in farmer's fields and using local resources to solve the problems. In agriculture technology transfer, extension workers and farmers are main target groups to which we have to supply agricultural information and new technologies for the agricultural development.

Before supplying agricultural information and new technologies, a survey should be made to find out the problems and constraints of the extension workers and farmers in the adoption of latest agricultural technologies.

COMMUNICATION, SCOPE AND IMPORTANCE

Definition: According to (i) Paul Leagans, it is a process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feeling of impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the message. (ii) Howland, it is the force by which an individual communicator transmits stimuli to modify the behaviour of other individuals.

E.g. Extension worker influencing the farmers, to make them to orient towards positive attitude to adopt new technologies.

Meaning

(i) Process of social interaction (i.e.) in communication selection, two of more individuals interacts.

(ii) It apparently influences the ideas, attitude, knowledge and behaviour of each other.

(iii) In a face-to-face situation, it is not a mere exchange of information, but something more, apart, because in such a situation along with information, gestures, expressions, language, the manner of expression and for all produce impact.

Some kind of change occurs as a result of interaction.

The change may be visible in terms of knowledge and behavioural change.

E.g. Adoption of technology or practice of agriculture.

Scope of communication

(i) **Oral:** An average man spends 70 % of his precious time on communicating verbally and spends 10 to 11 hrs/day on oral communication and sends our ideas for other's perception.

(ii) **Non-verbal:** Through symbols like gesture, facial expressions, movement of arts, raising eyebrows, rolling eyes, starring look, stern look etc., would make communication effective.

(iii) Communication can be made possible in different ways, levels and reasons.

E.g.: An extension worker reads the letters - written communication received or else. Communicate his subordinates through message slip about his work.

(a) An extension worker speaks to farmer in a meeting - spoken communication.

(b) He addresses a gathering - A group communication will persist there.

(c) He contemplates for the next month's programme (Introspect)- A self-communication.

(iv) Communication in employment - provides opportunities to get employment accessibility in journalism, advertising, filmmaking, public relations, televisions, television programme co-ordinator and audio-visual counselor.

(v) Communication industry - Opinion seekers, attitude researchers and marketing researchers etc., play their roles in communication.

(vi) Communication in management - In any management sector, everything is done only by means of effective communication between superior-subordinate, superior-employees at lower levels, labourers, experts,

skilled workers. As administration grow, even the machine operator spends more time in manipulating symbols.

(vii) Communication removes the time lag - Communication has an inbuilt snowball that makes the message reach its audience instantly without any delay. What occurs today may be obsolete tomorrow. Hence, the day to day development can be diffused immediately without any lag and gets introduced among the mass.

Importance of Communication in Extension work

(1) Communication establishes a favourable climate in which development can take place.

E.g: All mass media and personal channels give upto date and updated information, so that mass audience are enabled to get acquainted with recent technologies, information to be utilized.

This media accessibility facilitates a proper exchange of information, ideas etc.

(2) Communication has a multiplier effect. It brings synergy in its process of communication in the sense, a sort of reinforcement of ideas due to various convergent forces.

(i) Print media effectively communicates the recent technologies to the needy clientele.

(ii) Spoken communication cautions the farmers about weather forecast, seasonal warnings, irrigation methods etc.

(iii) Geographical information system and computer aided network are advanced systems of communication that would ensure soil type of varied zones.

(3) Communication raises and aspirations of the people.

E.g. Communication skill of extension worker to a greater extent would convince and create trustworthiness about the HYV's, genotypes, tissue culture, biotechnology etc.

They kindle the minds of the farmers to think of advanced technologies and to apply it for their betterment and thus fulfilling their aspirations of becoming a higher socio-economic category.

(4) Communication is essential for all activities.

E.g. To inform people, to instruct people

To persuade and convince for acceptance of idea

To educate the people

To entertain the audience etc.,

(5) Communication is essential for good leadership

One, if wanted to succeed, he should communicate clearly, concisely and unambiguously. His message should not be fallacious (misleading). He can guide people in a desired, direction to achieve the goals and objectives. In that way, it is essential quality need to be possessed by a successful leader.

ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION - IMPORTANCE OF ELEMENTS

I. (a). The four basic elements in the communication process.

(i) Source: To say the person whose ideas or meanings to be transferred to another person.

(ii) Second element is the receiver, namely the person to whom the ideas or meanings are to be transferred.

(iii) Thirdly, there must be a message that can be transferred from the source to the receiver.

(iv) Finally, message should have to travel through a channel or medium in order to make the passage from source to the receiver.

The six steps or stages in the process require a little more explanation.

II. (a) **Creation**: The person who is the communication source conceives an idea, which he wants to transit to someone else. Be clear and determine the message, you would communicate. A poorly conceived idea almost certainly results in poor communication.

(b) **Encoding**: Meanings and ideas are structures of mind. They cannot be seen or heard or felt. If converted into symbols or words, it can be seen and heard. Words are Symbols that stands for meaning. In case, suitable symbol is not available, he can use a gesture or guidance. Moreover, appropriate symbol or word with suitable gesture would facilitate better understanding.

(c) **Transmission**: An idea has been encoded into symbols is called as message. A message is simply an encoded idea. Messages have to be either spoken (or) written and displayed.

1) Who is trying to communicate?
2) How long is the message?
3) What is a physical distance?
4) What technical means are available to the source?

All the first three stages are within the control of the communication source.

(d) **Reception**: Transmitted through appropriate channel. Message received depend upon the environment conditions under which the message is sent.

Secondly, on the state of mind and readiness of the receiver to receive it .

Environmental condition affects reception:

E.g. (1) Poor lighting conditions.

(2) Receiver's tiredness.

(3) Degree of congruence between message sent and message received.

(4) Environment has direct bearing on fidelity. Fidelity means, which and how many of the receiver's five senses are activated to receive the message.

(e) **Decoding**: Encoded message must now be decoded by receiver in order to comprehend its meaning. One cannot decode a message whose symbols one does not recognize.

A more serious situation arises when the receiver believes he has understood the message, whereas, in fact the source intended it to convey a different meaning. The result in this case is misunderstanding.

In such a situation, greater care must be taken in encoding messages and transmitting them. It is probably impossible to avoid this misunderstandings, but atleast it can be minimized.

(f) **Assimilation**: This is the final stage. In order to make, sense of the decoded message, to understand it, the receiver, must relate and interpret it to what he already knows and assimilate it with the total information available to him. Without such assimilation, the decided message remains meaningless.

III. To summarise: The communication process involves four basic elements and six stages:

a) The source
b) The message
c) The channel
d) The receiver

The six stages of the process are

a) Creation
b) Encoding
c) Transmission
d) Reception
e) Decoding
f) Assimilation

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION - CHARACTERISTICS OF EACH ELEMENT

There are normally 4 elements present in the communication model. They are

(i) Source
(ii) Message
(iii) Channel
(iv) Receiver

In the recent modified model, audience response is also included, which is otherwise called as feedback … Feedback is important in giving the opinion or suggestions for improvement to be made by using appropriate channel relevant and feasible to the needs of the receiver.

Characteristics of Good Communicator

The qualities of a source should be

(i) Innovative in his ideas
(ii) Should have greater exposure to mass media sources
(iii) Cosmopolitan in nature
(iv) Access to social participation to a greater extent
(v) Interested in audiences betterment and welfare
(vi) Interested in message (subject matter) and ensure its helpfulness to people
(vii) Aware of the communication channels with more intactness
(viii) Capable enough with professional abilities
(ix) Able to plan for judging the merit of the results
(x) Skilled to select treat, express the messages (verbal and written)
(xi) Capable to gathering evidence of results

In toto, a good communicator is supposed to visit villages and listen to the people's views, needs, problems etc.

Characteristics of a good message

A good message should be

(i) In line with the objective to be attained
(ii) Clear understandable by the audience

(iii) In line with mental, social, economic and physical capabilities of the audience

(iv) Significant - economically, socially or aesthetically to the needs, interests and values of the audience.

(v) Specific- no irrelevance (or) misleading material

(vi) Simple - cover only one point at a time

(vii) Accurate - scientifically sound, factual and current

(viii) Supported by factual material covering both sides of the argument

(ix) Appropriate to the channels selected

(x) Appealing and attractive to the audience

(xi) Applicable - can apply recommendations to one's own particular situation

(xii) Adequate - combining principles and practices in effective proportion

(xiii) Manageable - can be handled by the communicator and within the limits of time.

Characteristics of channel

Certain characteristics of channels are identified and are delineated below.

(i) It specifies the direction of message flow

(ii) It gives the message accuracy. Low (in interpersonal) and high (in mass media)

(iii) It selects the recipient depending upon the channel

(iv) It produces feedback to the sender of the message

(v) It overcomes the selectivity process

(vi) It is capable of bringing desirable effects as the part of the audience

Characteristics of audience (receiver)

(i) Active participation increases learning

(ii) A good predictor of communication behaviour as educational level

(iii) Individual tends to select that which is most accessible

(iv) Lack of attention affects communication

(v) Receiver is liable to misinterpret and misperceive the message

(vi) Research re-emphasises the influence of personality differences on response

(vii) Most of them jump to conclusions
(viii) Most of them incline to closed minds
(ix) Most persons listen to only to words than to the meaning.

Characteristics of feedback (Audience response)

(i) Response is a function of the whole personality
(ii) Misperception is a continuous problem
(iii) Influential groups are involved in message response
(iv) Mass communication intensifies propaganda conflicts
(v) Much available information is imperfectly absorbed
(vi) Lack of primary experience affects communication
(vii) Communication builds on existing attitudes
(viii) Mass communication increases the commonality of experience
(ix) Communication devices have the ability for thought control
(x) Induced action and social interaction might affect communication effects
(xi) Books, Newspapers, Magazines, Leaflets have effects like instrumental, prestige, reinforcement, enriched aesthetic experience and respite
(xii) Cultural values and the social organization are determinants of communication.

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION - ARISTOTLE'S MODEL, BERLO'S MODEL AND PAUL LEAGAN'S MODEL

Definition: Model is a simplified graphic presentation of ideas.

Aristotle's model

Three elements are necessary in the communication process.

1. Speaker : The person who speaks
2. Speech : The speech that he produces
3. Audience : The person who listens

In the rhetoric, Aristotle (384 - 322 BC) provides the first basic persuasive communication model. He said that we have to look at three communication ingredients: namely, the speaker, the subject and the audience. He meant that each of these elements is necessary to communicate and that we can organize our study of communication process under the three headings.

(i) the person who speaks

(ii) the speech that he produces and

(iii) the person who listens.

Traditionally the creation of significant things to say by the source has been treated as rhetoric invention. In classical antiquity, a speaker was taught that five processes were involved in the study of communication, namely invention, organization, language memory and delivery. Message preparation, according to Aristotle, involved invention (finding material to be included in the message), arrangement (organizing the material some persuasive manner), language (or) style (to fit the speaker and the audience), memory and delivery (the practice of actual presentation). Invention was the most important to many rhetoricians, since the discovery of ideas was central to the whole process and all other elements seemed to emanate from it. Indeed, Aristotle uses 'discovery of the available means of persuasion' as his definition of the whole art of persuasive communication. Another implication of Aristotle's conception of rhetoric is that persuasion is contingent upon the impression that a speaker creates or maintains. By and large Aristotle and later rhetorical theorists were interested in the ability to communicate effectively.

Merit

Many of our earlier communication models bear the imprint of Aristotle's model, although several new key concepts have been added.

One of the greatest faults in Aristotle's theory was his view of persuasion as a one way process flowing from the communicator to the receiver. He did not include in his writings the role that the communication encoder is responsible for taking the ideas of the source and putting them into a code, expressing the source's purpose in the form a message. This requires a third ingredient, an encoder. The communication encoder is responsible for taking the ideas of the source and putting them into a code, expressing the source's purpose in the form of a message.

The fourth ingredient needed in a communication act is a channel. A channel is a medium, a carrier of message. It is correct to say that message can exist only in some channel. However, the choice of a channel is an important factor in the effectiveness of communication. When we talk, somebody must listen. When we write, somebody must read. The person(s) at the other end can be called the communication receiver(s), the target of communication. Just as the source needs on encoder to translate his purpose in a code, the receiver needs a decoder to translate feedback can play in influencing the speaker.

- Invention
- Organization
- Language
- Memory
- Delivery

Berlo's model of communication

Berlo (1960) model is one of the most widely used and is based on an impressive background of behavioural theory and research. As a result, it has exercised a far-reaching influence on communication research in the social sciences.

According to this model, all human communication has some source. Given a source with ideas, needs, intensions, information and a purpose for communicating a second ingredient is necessary for communicating. The purpose of the source has to be expressed in the form of a message. This requires a third ingredient, an encoder in their structure, elements, content, code and treatment. Berlo emphasizes that this model is far from static and needs feedback between source and receiver and the receiver becomes a source. Once again, this is a linear model of communication with emphasis on the communicator. As stated earlier, this model has had a far-reaching influence on communication literature.

Paul Leagans (1963)

It has the following elements:

1. Communicator
2. Message
3. Channel
4. Treatment of message
5. Audience
6. Audience response

Paul Leagan's model of communication

Leagans (1961) defined Communication as a process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings impressions, in ways that each gains a clear understanding of the meaning, intent and use of the message.

According to him, successful communication in extension education requires a skilled communicator sending a useful message through a proper channel, effectively treated to an appropriate audience, that responds as desired. Thus the key elements involved in this is to translate his purpose message to express purpose in a code, the receiver needs a decoder to retranslate, to decode the message and to put into a form that the receiver can use. So, according to Berlo(1960), the ingredients in a communication process include

- the communication source
- the encoder
- the message
- the channel
- the decoder
- the communication receiver.

Merit

In this model, communication is seen as a continuous process in which noise is reduced by a process called feedback. As stated earlier, this model includes four elements - source, message, channel and receiver. It is fairly explicit about the elements involved in each. In sources, we find that the source's communication skills, attitudes, knowledge and social and cultural systems are the important variables. The receiver has the same variables. Channels include seeing, hearing, touching, smelling and testing and messages are varied model are

(i) Communicator

(ii) Message (or) content

(iii) Channels of communication

(iv) Treatment of message

(v) The audience

(vi) Audience response

Leagan's emphasis on treatment of message and audience response comes from his background in extension education. According to him, the extension educator derives from his knowledge of technology and extension processes, the principles and content from which he synthesizes a system of communication to achieve

educational objectives: he should continue to communicate, repeat, motivate, persuade, until the desired response occurs on the part of the receiver(s).

Westley and Maclean's Model

This model was formed in 1976 by Westley and MacLean. This model says about two contexts, **interpersonal** and **mass communication**. And the point of difference between interpersonal and mass communication is the **feedback**. In interpersonal, the feedback is direct and fast. In the mass, the feedback is indirect and slow.

There is 5 parts in this model on interpersonal communication: **object orientation**, **messages**, **source**, **receiver**, and **feedback**. Source (A) see object or some activities in their environment (X) and create a message about that think (X') which sent to receiver (B). In that turn, the receiver will send a feedback about message to the source.

In mass communication this model have another parts, it's called **gate keeper** (C) or **opinion leader** which receive the message (X') from source of mass media (A) or by seeing object orientation (X1, X2) in his environment. And then, the gate keeper is creating their own messages (X")which sent to a receiver (B). So, the filter process is formed.

There is some important concept from this model: feed back, the differences and similarity between interpersonal and mass communication, and opinion leader which become an important thing in mass communication. This model is also separated purposive and non purposive messages.

The advantages are that

- it can account for different modes of communication, i.e, it accounts for both interpersonal and mass media oriented communication.
- It accounts for feedbacks.
- It is a predictive, heuristic model of communication and is very descriptive.
- It isolates the different dimensions of the communication process.
- This model also accounts for non-binary interactions. This means that it will hold good even for communications involving more than two sources.

The only disadvantage is that despite its descriptive nature, this model is two dimensional and can't account for typical communication events that involve a broader context and a wider range of communication messages. However, there are limitations to almost all models of communication and Westley and MacLean have provided a pretty comprehensive model as far as the working of a typical media organization or institute is concerned.

FEEDBACK-TYPES, FACTORS AFFECTING AUDIENCE RESPONSE

Feedback

If a communication source decodes the message that he encodes, if the message is put back to his system, we have feedback. In other words, action-reaction independence in communication is referred as feedback. The sender can use the reaction of the receiver as a check of his own effectiveness and a guide to his own future action.

When a source receives feedback that is rewarding, he continues to produce some kind of message. If he gets non-rewarding feedback

(a) he eventually will change.

(b) it concerns with to and fro communication. This return process is called feedback.

(c) It serves to control and correct the signals end go forward,

(d) it also serves to realign all the signals within the network in relation to one another,

(e) feedback is an error correcting mechanism that would overcome noise,

(f) we often overlook the strength and power of feedback.

We fail to realize the extent to which the receiver affects communicator.

In case of mass media, drastic changes are made as a result of the feedback obtained in the form of opinion polls, attitude surveys etc.

(g) Communication research bears testimony that learner's perceive better gain, more knowledge and retention longer when personal communication permits maximum feedback. (1) The source has an opportunity to change his message on the spot as a result of the feedback, he gets. It can be concluded that gain in knowledge is directly proportional to the amount of feedback.

(i) Understanding Vs knowledge

Communication must promote understanding than laying of facts alone to the receiver. It will remove all the barriers that intervene between the sender and receiver.

(ii) Acceptance Vs rejection

Mental acceptance precedes the physical action. If human mind doesn't believe, it will not accept leading to rejection of ideas.

(iii) Remembering Vs forgetting

When changes for an action are not readily available, it may be forgotten. So, transmission of right message, at right time to the appropriate audience is often on integral factor in effective communication.

(iv) Mental Vs physical action

Changes in the mind always precede change in action. So feedback is essential to remove the mental barrier.

(v) Right Vs wrong

The intent of communication is to promote desirable action by an audience. For a variety of reasons, people might fail to behave precisely, inspite of their understandability and acceptance.

ADOPTION - DEFINITION, DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADOPTION AND DIFFUSION, STAGES AND INFORMATION SOURCES

Definition

Diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system.

Meaning

It is a special and significant type of communication in that the messages are dealing only the novel ideas generated in the laboratory to be spread among a larger number of social systems. It is the newness of the idea in the message content of communication that adds diffusion its special trait and importance.

Difference between diffusion and communication

	Diffusion		Communication
1	It is special types of communication	1	It is process of exchange of ideas between two persons
2	It may cause more uncertainty	2	Uncertainty is less
3	Diffusion always focuses on social change	3	Communication just informs and does not focus a social change
4	It always concerns both the planned and spontaneous spread of new ideas	4	It doesn't concern so

5	It involves several channels cycles to get the information across	5	It involves only one channel or means to make the information across the audience
6	It takes long time to get the technology spread among the social system	6	It takes shortest time to reach a larger number of audience

Elements of Diffusion process, stages in farm practice and acceptance

Elements of Diffusion

1. Innovation
2. Channels
3. Overtime
4. Members of the social system

Innovation

It is an idea, which is new one supposed to be adopted by the intended clientele.

It may not always hold objectivity due to lapse of time since its discovery.

Channel

It is the means or transmission lines through which the innovation is communicated to reach its audience.

Overtime

It is the time period in which an innovation takes its own pace to spread. It may be faster or moderate or slower based on the innovation's importance.

Members of the social system

It is the degree to which an innovation reaches a significant group of individuals to accept and adopt the new idea being implemented.

While high cost farm equipments may be difficult to be trailed in small parts.

The element time while distinguishes diffusion from other types of communication.

1. Innovation: It is an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual.

Attributes / Characteristics of Innovation

Innovation should have the following characteristics, so as to be perceived new by an individual. They are

(i) **Relative advantage:** is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes. This may be measured in terms of economic outcome, but often social prestige factors, convenience and satisfaction.

(ii) **Compatibility** is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experience and needs of the receivers. An idea that is not compatible with the prevalent values and norms of the social system will not be adopted as rapidly as an innovation that is compatible.

(iii) **Complexity** is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as difficult to understand and use. Some innovations are readily understood by most members of the social system; others are not and will be adopted more slowly.

(iv) **Trialability** is the degree to which an innovation may be experimented on a limited basis.

(v) **Observability** is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others.

2. Channels: Channel is the means by which the message gets from the source to the receiver. Channels are the physical bridges between the source and receiver. If the source wishes to inform the innovation to receiver, mass media channels are the most rapid and efficient, especially to the large audience. On the other hand source wish to bring favourable attitude towards the innovation an interpersonal channel is more effective.

3. Time: It is an important consideration in the process of diffusion. Time is the key to diffusion research. It involves three dimensions.

(i) By the innovation decision process an individual passes from first knowledge of the innovation through its adoption or rejection.

(ii) It depends on the innovativeness of the individual that is the relative earliness-lateness with which an individual adopts an innovation when compared with other members of his social system.

(iii) Rate of adoption in a social system, usually measured as the number of members of the system that adopt the innovation in a given time period.

4. Social system:

A social system is defined as a collectivity of units, which are functionally differentiated and engaged in joint problem solving with respect to a common goal. The members of units of a social system may be individuals, informal groups, complex organizations, or sub systems.

Extension worker should remember that diffusion going to occur within a social system. The social system constitutes a set of boundary within which

innovations diffuse. In this section we shall deal with the following. How the social structure affects diffusion, the effects on traditional and modern norms on diffusion, roles of opinion leaders and change agents types of innovation-decisions. All these issues on social system considerably hinder the diffusion.

Adoption Process stages in Farm Practice and Acceptance

In any farm practice or innovation each individual passes out from 5 stages in short is called **AIETA**, i.e., Awareness, Interest, Evaluation, Trial and Adoption.

Awareness stage: The individual learns of existence of the new idea but lacks information about it.

Interest stage: The individual develops interest in the innovation and seeks additional information about it.

Evaluation stage: The individual makes mentioned application of the new idea to his present anticipated future situation and decides whether or not to try it.

Trial stage: The individual actually applies new idea on a small scale in order to determine its utility in his situation.

Adoption stage: The individual uses the new idea i.e., continuously on a full scale.

Adoption may be continued adoption, discontinuance i.e., Replacement or Disenchantment discontinuance.

Replacement: It is a decision to cease using an idea in order to adopt a better idea, which supersedes it.

Disenchantment: It is a decision to cease using an idea as a result of dissatisfaction with it performance.

Acceptance: It is the favourable reception and approval by the individual /group in the social system. In other words, it is an act of accepting innovations or new idea, objects or being accepted. Acceptance is the ultimate successful end point of the innovation.

Difference between Adoption and Diffusion:

Diffusion

1. Diffusion is the process of communicating the new idea into the members of social system.
2. Diffusion occurs among the units in a social system.
3. Diffusion is the initiating factor for a change.
4. Diffusion is carried out by extension worker, opinion leader, change agents.
5. Innovation, channels, time and social systems are the elements in the diffusion process.

Adoption

1. Adoption is a decision to make full use of a new idea as the best course of action available.
2. Adoption takes place within the mind of an individual.
3. Adoption is the end point indicator for a change.
4. Adoption is carried out only by the members of pre-social system.
5. Awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption are the elements in adoption process.

INNOVATIVENESS AND ADOPTER CATEGORIES

Innovativeness

Innovativeness is the degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of his social system.

Adopter Categories

All individual in a social system do not adopt an innovation at the same time. Rather, they adopt in an ordered time sequence, and they may be classified into adopter categories on the basis of when they first begin using a new idea.

The adoption of an innovation over time follows a normal, bell – shaped curve when plotted over time on frequency basis. If the cumulative number of adopters is plotted, it results in an S-shapted curve. The S-shped curve rises slowly at first when there are few adopters in a time period, accelerates to a maximum when about half of the individuals in the system have adopted, and then increases at a gradually slower rate as the few remaining individuals finally adopt (fig.9)

The distribution of adopters over time closely approaches normality, and may be explained by the statistical concept of normal curve. The distribution of the adopters may be partitioned into five adopter categories by using the mean(x) and standard deviation. The area lying to the left of the mean time of adoption minus two standard deviations includes 2.5 percent of the who are the first to adopt an innovation and are known as innovators. The next 13.5 percent between the mean minus one standard deviation and the mean minus two standard deviation to adopt the new idea are called as early adopters. The next 34 percent of adopters between the mean of adoption and minus the standard deviation are known as early majority. Between the mean and one standard deviation to the right of the mean are located the next 34% to adopt the new idea the late majority. The last 16 percent to the right of mean plus one standard deviation are the last to adopt the innovation, the laggards. The five adopter categories are conceptualized as ideal types and are presented in Fig. 10.

Characteristics of Adopter categories

Innovators: Venturesome

Observers have noted that venturesome is almost an obsession with innovators. They are eager to try new ideas. This interest leads them out of a local circle of peers and into more cosmopolite social relationships. Communication patterns and friendships among a clique of innovators are common, even though the geographical distance between the innovators may be great. Being an innovator has several prerequisites. These include control of substantial financial resources to absorb the possible loss due to an unprofitable innovation and the ability to understand and apply complex technical knowledge.

The salient value of the innovator is venturesome. He desires the hazardous, the rash, the daring, and the risky. The innovator also must be willing to accept an occasional setback when one of the new ideas he adopts proves unsuccessful.

These are the first people to adopt a new idea, much ahead of other people. They are very few in number, probably not more than one or two in a community.

Characteristics

a. Have larger farms.
b. High net worth and risk capital.
c. Willing to take risks.
d. Usually not past middle age
e. Generally well educated
f. Have respect and prestige in progressive communities but not in conservative type of communities
g. Mentally alert and actively seeking new ideas.
h. Their sphere of influence and activity often goes beyond the community boundaries.
i. They have many formal and informal contacts outside the immediate locality.
j. They often bypass the local extension worker in getting information from the origination sources and may learn about new things even before he does. They sometimes manage to get samples of seeds or chemicals even before they are released for public use.
k. They subscribe to many farm magazines and specialized publications.
l. Other farmers may watch the innovators and know what they are doing but the innovators are not generally named by other farmers as "neighbors and friends' to whom they go for information.

Early Adopter: Respectable

Early adopters are a more integrated part of the local social system than innovators. Whereas innovators are cosmopolites, early adopters are localities. This adopters look to early adopters for advice and information about the innovation. The early adopter is considered by many as " the man to check with" before using a new idea. This adopter category is generally sought by change agents to be a local missionary for speeding the diffusion process. Because early adopters are not too far ahead of the average individual in innovativeness, they serve as a role model for many other members of a social system. The early adopter is respected by his peers. He is the embodiment of successful and discrete use of new ideas. And the early adopter knows that he must continue to earn this esteem of his colleagues if his position in the social structure is to be maintained.

Characteristics

a. Younger than those who have a slower adoption rate but not necessarily younger than the innovators.
b. They are not the persons who test the untried ideas but they are quickest to use tried ideas in their own situations.
c. Have large farms.
d. Higher education than those who adopt more slowly.
e. High income.
f. They participate more in the formal activities of the community
g. They also participate more in government programmes.
h. This group usually furnishes a disproportionate amount of the formal leadership (elected positions in the community)
i. They read papers and farm journals and receive more bulletins than people who adopt later.
j. They may be regarded as community adoption.

Early majority: Deliberate (local adoption leaders0

The early majority adopt new ideas just before the average member of a social system. The early majority interact frequently with their peers, but leadership

positions are rarely held by them. The early majorities unique positions between the very early and relatively late to adopt makes them an important link in the diffusion process.

The early majority may deliberate for some time before completely adopting a new idea. Their innovation – decision is relatively longer than that of the innovator and the early adopter. "Be not the last to lay the old aside, not the first by which the new is tried'. Might be the motto of the early majority. They follow with deliberate willingness in adopting innovations, but seldom lead.

Characteristics

a. Slightly above average in age, education and farming experience.
b. They take a few more farm journals and bulletin than the average.
c. They have medium high social and economic status.
d. Less active in formal groups than early adopters but more active than those adopting later.
e. In many cases, they are not formal leaders in the associate.
f. They also attend extension meeting and farm demonstrations.
g. They are most likely to be informal leaders, but not holders of elected positions.
h. Have more limited resources than early adopters and innovations and so cannot afford to made hasty or poor decisions.
i. They associate mainly with people of their own community.
j. They value highly the opinions their neighbours and friends hold about them.
k. They are mostly mentioned as "neighbours and friends" from whom the majority of farmers seek information.

Late Majority: Skeptical

The late majority adopt new ideas just after the average member of a social system Adoption may be both an economic necessity and the answer to increasing social pressures. Innovations are approached with a skeptical and cautious air, and the late majority do not adopt until most other in their social system have done so. The weight of system norms must definitely favour the innovation before the late majorities are convinced. They can be persuaded of the utility of new ideas, but the pressure of peers if necessary to motivate adoption.

Characteristics

a. Those in this group have less education and are older than the early majority.
b. They form the major part of formal organizational membership, although they participate less in such formal groups.
c. They take fewer leadership roles than the early adopters.
d. They take and read fewer papers, magazines and bulletines, than the early majority.
e. They do not participate in as many activities outside the community as do people who adopt earlier.

Laggards: Traditional

Laggards are the lasts to adopt an innovations. They posses almost no opinion leadership. They are the most locality in their outlook of all adopter categories, many are near isolates. The point of reference for the laggard is the past. Decisions are usually made in term of what has been done in previous generations.

This individual interacts primarily with others who have traditional values. When laggards finally adopt an innovation, it may already have been superseded by another more recent idea which the innovations are already using. Laggards tend to be frankly suspicious of innovations, innovators and change agents. Their tradition direction slows the innovation decision process to a crawl. Adoption lags far behind knowledge of the idea. Alienation from a too-fast moving world is apparent in such of the laggards outlook. While most individuals in a social system are looking to the road of change ahead, the laggard has his attention fixed on the near-view mirror.

Characteristics

- **a.** Least education
- **b.** Oldest.
- **c.** Participate least in formal organizations, cooperatives and government programmes.
- **d.** They hardly read farm magazines and bulletins.

A composite picture of the adopter categories given by Rogers is reproduced in Table 4.

Composite picture of adapter categories

Adopter Category	Salient Values	Personal Characteristics	Communication Behavior	Social Relationships
Innovators	"Venturesome" willing to accept risks	Youngest age; highest social status; largest, and most specialized operations, wealthy	Close contact with scientific information sources; interaction with other innovators; relatively greatest use of impersonal sources.	Some opinion leader ship; very cosmopolite
Early adopters	"Reasonable", regarded by any others in the social system as a role model.	High social status; large and specialized operations.	Greatest contact with local change agents.	Greatest opinion leadership of any category in most social systems; very locality.
Early majority	"Deliberate", Willing to consider innovations only after peers have adopted.	Above average social status; average – sized operation.	Considerable contact with change agents and early adopters.	Some opinion leadership
Late majority	"Skeptical", overwhelming pressure from peers needed before adoption occurs	Below average social status; small operation; little specialization, low income	Secure ideas from peers who are mainly late majority or early majority; less use of mass media.	Little opinion leadership
Laggards	"Traditional" , oriented to the past	Little specialization; lowest social status smallest operation; lowest income; oldest.	Neighbours, friends and relatives with similar values are main information source.	Very little opinion leadership; semi-isolates.

FACTORS RELATED TO ADOPTION OF PRACTICES

1. **Social factors:** Community standards and social relationships provide the general framework where in the process of change occurs, and they account for the difference between one community (or group) and another.

(I). Social values: In some groups and communities people place a higher value upon material gains and money than they do in others. In some other groups, changes in farming are encouraged and expected; prestige is placed of new ideas and techniques. In others, more value is placed upon tradition and little freedom is allowed for the individual to deviate from the group's pattern in adopting innovations.

In the adoption of new practices goes country to the establishes customs and traditions of the people, the innovator may be ridiculed or lose prestige.

The extent to which changes are adopted depends on the values and expectations of the group and upon the extent to which individual is expected to conform. Where there is greater emphasis on maintaining traditions and values rooted in the past, change occurs more slowly. On the other hand, where emphasis is upon individualism and personal success, changes occurs more rapidly.

(2) Local Leadership: The acceptance of change is also influenced by the nature of the leadership and control in the group or community. In some communities, none would accept a new idea, unless and until one man (the leader) in the community is sold on the idea. Once sold, he would influence all farmers in the community to accept it. In such situations it is important to identify and uses such influential leaders. The influence of informal leaders is likely to be greater where neighbor, kindship and community ties are the strongest.

(3) Social contacts: The nature and extents of social contact within and outside the community is important in the diffusion of new ideas and techniques, as indicated below;

a. **Nature of social contacts:** The presence of organizations whose objectives includes the promotion of changes will aid directly and indirectly in the diffusion process. On the other hand, where social contacts are primarily thought kindship. Visiting and informal activities, there may be greater resistance to change.

b. **Extent of social contact:** The extent to which social contacts are confined to the immediate locality is a factor. The broader the social orientation of the people, the more likely they are, to accept new ideas. Only a few individuals may have such outside contacts, but they may be in a position to influence their neighbours. Local orientation on the part of the majority is not necessary a limiting factor in the diffusion of new ideas, so long as a few leaders have outside contacts.

c. **Social distance:** The social distance associated with wide status differences are also a factor in the diffusion of farm information through inter – personal channels. For example, tenant farmers in some areas may not get ideas from the large farm owners because of their lack of contact. Also small – scale

farmers may fail to communicate with large – scale farmers. Rigid class structure impairs inter- class communication of ideas.

II. Personal factors; Why some people adopt new ideas and practices more quickly than others relates in part to the individual himself.

(i) Age: Elderly farmers seem to be somewhat less inclined to adopt new practices than younger ones.
(ii) **Education:** More than eight years schooling is almost always associated with higher adoption rates than lesser amounts.
(iii) **Psychological characteristics :**
- **a.** Exposure to reliable sources of farm information may create a state of rationality, which in turn predisposes an individual to the adoption of new practices.
- **b.** A mentally flexible person has higher adoption rates than one with mental rigidity.
- **c.** Some people are found to be more prone to change than others.

(4). Values and attitudes (cultural characteristics)

a. Values found to be positively related to farm practices adoption rates are: a desire by farmers and their wives for a high school or college education for their children high emphasis on science and material comfort and also wide contacts within and beyond the community.

b. A high emphasis on traditionalism, isolationism, and security (e.g., owing farm of free of debt) has been found to be negatively associated with adoption of improved practices.

III. Situational factors: Reasons why farm prairies more quickly at one time than another relate to the situation in which they find themselves when alternative courses of action become known.

1. **The nature of the practice:** The speed with which take place is partly dependent on the nature of practice itself.

(A). Complexity: Generally speaking, the more complex a practice and the more change it requires in the existing operations, the more slowly it will be adopted.

The following classification of practices in terms of their complexity roughly represents the decreasing order of speed with which acceptance may be expected to occur.

a. A simple change: A change in materials and equipment only without a change in techniques or operations (e.g., new variety of seed0.
b. Improved practice: Change in existing operation with or with – out a change in materials or equipment (e.g., change in rotation of crops).
c. Innovation: Change involving new techniques or operations (e.g., contour cropping)
d. Change in total enterprise: e.g., from crop to livestock farming.

(B). Cost: Those practices which cost little seem to be adopted more rapidly than those which are more expensive.

(C). Net Returns: Those practices which yield, the greatest marginal returns per rupee invested, and in the shortest time seem to be adopted most readily.

(D). Compatibility: Is the degree to which an innovation is consistent with existing values and past experiences of the adopters. An idea that is not compatible with the cultural norms of a social system will not be adopted so rapidly as an idea that is compatible e.g., the lack of compatibility of the beef.

(E). Divisibility: (Trialability) : is the degree to which the results of an innovation may be tried on a limited basis. New ideas that can be tried on a small scale or on the installment plan will generally be adopted more rapidly innovations that are not divisible e.g., new seeds or fertilizers can be tried on a small scale, but new machinery or a thing like cow- dung gas plant cannot be so tried.

(F). Communicability (Observability). Is the degree to which the results of an innovation may be to others. The results of some practices are easily observed e.g., application of nitrogenous fertilizer to plants, while the results of some innovations are not easily observed (e.g., pre-treatment of seeds, or soil conservation measures)

1. **Farm income:** High farm income nearly always is associated with high adoption levels.
2. **Size of farm:** Size of farm is nearly always positively related to the adoption of new farm practices.
3. **Tenure status:** Adoption scores are usually higher for owner cultivators than for tenant cultivators.
4. **Sources of farm information used:**
   The number of sources used or the number of contacts with information sources is positively related to adoption rates.
   A high positive correlation is particularly evident with the use of such sources as Government agencies.
   High dependence on relatives and friends as sources of information is usually negatively associated with the adoption of new farm practices.
5. **Level of living:** Since successful farm practice adoption is instrumental in providing the means for supporting a higher level of living, a positive correlation between the two would be expected and is generally found.

Rank order of Information Sources (in U.S.A.) (By stages in the adoption process)

Awareness	**Interest**	**Evaluation**
Knows about it lacks details	Develops Interest, gathers general information and facts.	Mental trial, application to personal situation.
1. Mass media (Radio, News-papers magazines)	Mass media	Neighbors, Friends
2. Neighbors, Friends	Neighbors, friends	Govt. Agencies
3.Govt.Agencies	Govt.Agencies	Salesmen, dealers.
4. Salesmen, Dealers	Salesmen, Dealers	Mass media.

Trail	**Adoption**
Small – scale Experimental use	Large scale continued use, satisfaction
1. Neighbours, friends	1. Neighbours, friends
2. Govt. Agencies	2. Govt. Agencies
3. Salesmen, Dealers.	3. Mass media.
4. Mass media.	4. Salesmen, Dealers.

- Personal experience is the most important factor in continued use of an idea.

According to Singh (1965) the stages of are adoption are dynamic and not static. The same five stages occur with all the respondents and all the practices. Sequence is not always the same. Sometimes one stage appears more than once. In some cases some stages are so short as to be imperceptible, and in other cases some stage seem to be skipped. There are no clear cut differences and sometimes the whole process is capsuled and looks like a unit act. The schemes of stages according to him are –

Table . Adoption Stages and information Sources (in India)

Adoption stages		Important media or sources
1. Need: This is a stage when an individual whishes to change his existing practices.		Village level change agent and to some extent mass media.
2. Awareness: The individual just comes to know about an innovation without knowing the details of it.		Village level change agent, mass media and other farmers.
3. Interest: he makes an attempt to know more about the innovation		Formal sources as extension agency, and other – farmers.
4. Deliberation: This is a stage of deliberation and mental evaluation.		Informal personal sources including family members.
5. Trail: An individual uses an innovation in part or sometimes in full.		No communication for simple substitutive practices. For complex or new practices, change agent and fellow farmers.
6. Evaluation: The individual evaluates the performance of the innovation.		Fellow farmers and neighbors.
7. Adoption: It is decision to use the practices on continued basis.		Self – experience gained at the trial stage.

Note: In all stages of the adoption process, the complexity of the ideas is related to be choice of information sources. The more complex the idea, the greater is the tendency to rely on Government agencies (Change agents)

Limitations

a. It implies that the process always ends in adoption decision, where as in reality, rejection may also be a likely outcome. Therefore, a term more general than 'adoption process' is needed that allows for either adoption or rejection.

b. The five stages do not always occur in the specified order and some of them may be skipped, especially the trial stage.

c. Evaluation actually occurs thought the process, rather than just at one the five stages.

d. The process seldom ends with adoption, as further information seeking may occur to confirm or reinforce the decision, or the individual may later switch from adoption to rejection (discontinuance).