ON LINE NOTES ON

RURAL SOCIOLOGY AND EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

AEX 101 (1+1) FOR FIRST YEAR B.Sc (Agri) STUDENTS

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SOCIOLOGY

Sociology, the youngest of the social sciences, focusses on the study of human behaviour in its entirety. It joined the family of social sciences when it was recognized that the other social sciences failed to fully explain man's social behaviour.

Auguste Comte (1789-1857) referred as the Father of sociology named the field of study from two words - the Greek "logos" and the Latin "socius" meaning companion. "Logus", indicates scientific study.

A. Sociology is science, not a social philosophy

A social philosophy is a system of ideas and values that tells people how to behave and lays down procedures, norms and rules of behaviour according to which people are expected to act. Sociology studies how people do behave without trying to influence how they should behave. It studies what is, not what should be.

B. Sociology is science, not socialism

Sociology is a science interested in systematic determination of facts concerning human behaviour; socialism is a political and economic movement. Sociology has "no axe to grind"; it takes no sides other than that of science.

C. Sociology is science, not social reform or social welfare

Sociology seeks knowledge about people and their behaviour. From its scientific investigations may emerge useful tools for effective work by social reform and welfare works, but it does not seek reform or welfare. Sociologists and rural sociologists may serve as consultants for rural community development and social reform or welfare programmes, but they present facts, analyse social situations, and give advice for action that may serve to facilitate achievement of objectives. Sociology is knowledge, not direct treatment. Its competence lies in building scientific knowledge within its field of study and in building principles about the phenomean of man's behaviour in interaction with other.

D. Sociology is one of the Social Sciences.

It is the youngest of the family and has several specialisations such as rural sociology, industrial sociology, and political sociology. In addition to sociology, some of the other social sciences are political science, economics, psychology, and cultural anthropology. All these social sciences study man in various aspects of his life.

E. Sociology is not based on general impressions and points of view derived from overall experience in working with people

It is a science based on empirical evidence from organised and verified facts.

Sociology is the scientific study of man's behaviour in relationship to other groups and individuals with which he interacts.

RURAL SOCIOLOGY

Rural Sociology is a specialized field of Sociology. Sociology is the scientific study of man's behaviour in relation with groups with whom he has reciprocal interaction. When this study focuses on man living in rural areas it is the field of Rural Sociology; the rural location of man's residence and its consequences being the distinction that demarcates this specialised field of sociology.

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

Scope and importance of Rural Sociology:

The purpose underlying the study of Rural Sociology is to develop greater understanding of the behaviour of rural people and rural society. Rural Sociology equips the student with tools of understanding that allows effective analysis of rural people in their relationships with others in rural society. Sociological knowledge or knowledge of the society in which he lives and of the people with whom he interacts is of considerable significance and value for anyone of any vocation or occupation.

The study of Sociology and Rural Sociology, helps the individual to understand himself and his own social nature, and his relation to other people in society. It also helps develop the scientific attitude of thinking critically and objectively with precision, and this attitude is valuable for any future occupation. To some extent, as with other sciences, it liberalises the individual frees him for truth, helps him choose wisely, and gives him insight into the ways of others.

The subject can provide beginning professional training for a future career as a rural sociologist.

Institution:

"An institution is an organized system of social relationships which embodies certain common values and procedures and meets certain basic needs of society(Horton, 1964).

"Social institutions are formal cultural structures devised to meet basic social needs"(Landis, 1955).

"An institution is a relatively permanent structure of social patterns of roles and relations that people enact in certain sanctioned and unified ways for the purpose of satisfying basic social needs (Fitcher, 1964).

Essential features of an Institution:

a) Institutions are structured and function as units identifiable from each other though not completely separable. Each institution is laden with values, prescribed roles and codes of conduct, some written in laws, but most unwritten and subconsciously exerting social pressure on members of society.

b) Patterns of behaviour grouped about central human needs and organised to direct behaviour towards the meeting of these needs. Institutions are therefore purposive having the satisfaction of social needs as a goal or objective.

c) Overall patterns or systems of behaviour which have persisted long enough to be considered relatively permanent. Change is implied but exists more within the overall structure of the institution, than in the institution itself.

SOCIALLY PRESCRIBED ROLES OF INSTITUTIONS.

1. Institutions involve formulation of distinctive kinds of roles and their fulfilment. Each institution is a structure of related roles which embodies common values in society.

2. These roles are interrelated and form a network of obligations and rights.

3. Through the functioning of the patterns of interrelated roles, the institution performs some important functions for society-be is physical sustenance of members through economic institutions, or maintenance of peace, law, order and protection through the Institution of Government.

4. Each member of society participates and plays a role in the network of roles that constitutes as institution in society. The basic institutions of society-religion, educational, government, economic and family-are such that no member of society can exist without participation in some way in them.

5. Society considers this system of roles and relationships so important as to protect and perpetuate it through legal enactment, religious sanctions or other forms of formal and/or informal pressures and sanctions.

Major Institutions in Rural Society:

A. The family

The family is the most multifunctional of all institutions in society, and is a system of organised relationships involving workable and dependable ways of meeting basic social needs. More specifically the family commonly fulfils the following tasks in society:

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

Within the basic institution of the family are secondary institutions such as engagement, marriage, courtship and relationships with the family into which marriage has taken place.

The specific ways in which these functions and tasks are carried out are defined by the culture of the society concerned, involving systems of social roles, norms of behaviour, and prescribed rules and regulations governing forms and procedures involved in these relationships.

The number of persons united in marriage may vary according to the system prevalent in the culture: monogamous (one man to one wife), polyandrous (one woman to more than one man), or polygamous (one man to more than one woman). Similarly, systems of mate selection, pre-marital relationship, courtship, engagement, and marriage exhibit wide variation all over the world.

The network of relationships revolving around cooperative forms of relationships between the sexes for reproduction, care, nurture and socialisation of children and other such functions of the family extends and operates within culturally defined patterns of behaviour, fulfilling carefully prescribed roles. As in the case of the other institutions, the families in India and in other parts of the world are in the midst of change, and many functions of the family have been transferred to other institutions in society. The family has tremendous influence on the individual, his behaviour and his actions for it moulds him from infancy and has significant influence on the development of his personality.

B. Religion

From antiquity, man has sought answers to questions concerning the mysteries of his own creation, his relationship to the supernatural, a satisfying philosophy of life, and life after

death. In his searching's he has built up a category of individuals who would devote their specific attention to these matters as possible intermediaries and religious guides, he has developed rituals and ceremonies for appeasement and propitiation of the supernatural; these rituals, based on beliefs, convictions, and the ceremonies, and symbols accompanying prescribed roles and prescribed patterns of behaviour together constitute religion. Most religions have

1. A set of beliefs regarding the ultimate power in the universe,
2. A set of belies regarding the ideal and proper pattern of behaviour.
3. A set of ceremonial ways of expressing these beliefs (Rose, 1964).

Each of the elements will vary in form, in observance, in the response they evoke from individuals, and in influence according to the culture concerned-together, these elements prescribe specific lines of action, attitudes, and values desirable under varying conditions according to which man is expected to behave.

Religion also provides a foundation for more of society. Hence, religious sanctions are sought desirable patterns of behaviour to persist in society in the form of mores. In doing so, violation of the pattern of behaviour then become violations against divine order. Thus, many taboos in various cultures have religious sanction.

A further function of religion is to provide a means whereby man can face the crises and vicissitudes of life with strength and fortitude.

The religious beliefs, forms of worship, objects of worship, rituals, ceremonies of the people of the world are varied and most numerous, but most are basic in the profound influence that they exercise on the behaviour of individuals, groups and society as whole in almost every aspect of life. Secondary institutions within the major institution of religion include rituals, forms of worship, and organised groups for propagating religions.

C. Government

Government administers the regulatory functions of law and order and maintains security in society. It provides both the means for regulating the behaviour of individuals within society in accordance with required norms, and protection from external aggression. In various cultures of the world government has tended to assume many functions of other institutions.

Forms or constitutions of government, and the procedure and manner of regulation depend on the accepted patterns of behaviour within a society. Such patterns may start from a government with supreme power vested in an individual or small group to a democratic system of government.

D. Economy or maintenance

Such institutions provide basic physical subsistence for society and meet basic needs for food, shelter, clothing and other necessities. Included are the economic institutions of production-agriculture, industry, and the distribution, exchange, and consumption of commodities, goods and services necessary for human survival. Secondary institutions included within the major economic institutions are credit and banking systems, adverting, cooperatives, etc., Means of livelihood show variety both in themselves and in associated functions and relationships not only in various parts of world but within societies.

E. Education

Educational institutions are those which seek to socialise individuals in society or introduce them in formal ways into their social and cultural world. Every new generation must be prepared and trained to play a role in society. This process of socialisation, commences informally at home and then formally in an institution of education. In some societies, part of the function of the institution of education is performed by the institutions of the family and of religion. Educational institutions have emerged from this background. In most societies the Government has assumed the function of providing education. Education as an institution in various parts of the world seeks to fulfil its functions of transmission of cultural heritage, social integration of society by moulding the individual to conform with norms, socialisation and personal development in various forms and in various ways that are socially acceptable and culturally defined. This major institution is of tremendous influence on the behaviour of rural people, their inter-relationships and the moulding of behaviour and personality of individuals and groups.

Formal Rural Institutions:

A. Village School

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

Gandhiji first gave thought to the decline of the role of the school teacher in the village community. He enunciated a new programme called basic education to rectify the defects in the educational system. Another movement, the community development programme, strengthened the forces realised by Gandhiji through basic education. Basic education prepared the child to become a full man, the creation of which is the goal of community development. In this context, the school has to assume a major responsibility in

the development of the community. The role formerly played by the school and the school teacher in the village community has now to be restored.

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

a) Cultural and community activities

b) Physical education activities and sports activities

c) Organising youth welfare activities

d) Literacy activities

e) Scouting, sevadal and other social welfare movements.

f) Conduct of exhibitions and campaigns

g) Organising school cooperatives

h) Organising museums and development of aesthetic sense

i) Organising tours and excursions

B. Service Cooperatives

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

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

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

1) Advancing loans for the purchase of farm requirements and other industrial and agricultural purposes.

2) Arranging the supply of farm requirements such as improved seeds, fertilisers, insecticides, implements, etc.

3) Providing storage and marketing for the agricultural produce of members.

4) Maintenance and supply of agricultural machinery like plant protection equipment, threshers, cane crushers, etc. to members on hire.

5) Supplying essential commodities like sugar, kerosene oil etc., to members.

6) Providing technical guidance to the members in matters of agriculture for increasing agricultural production.

7) Mobilising the savings of the people to meet the above-mentioned requirements.

There are certain voluntary organisations namely mahila mandals and youth clubs described below.

C. Mahila Mandals

The woman, in addition to her traditional responsibilities for the care of the family, also performs certain agricultural tasks, which are exclusively women's work. The care of buffalo, sheep, poultry and pigeons is entirely the responsibility of the housewife in many rural areas. The income she earns from the sale of butter, milk, eggs and other products helps to determine the food and the household items the family can afford. Efforts to raise the standard of village life or to increase the amount of animal protein available to the total population must teach the village women better agricultural and marketing practices.

The rural women need to be helped in spending the additional income in the interest of better health and a higher living standard. Such type of education should include better use of local foods, their preservation, storage and preparation, home improvements with special emphasis on sanitation, safety and comfort, childcare and simple home crafts. The education will also help in correcting inadequate and improper feeding, contamination of food and water, and improper care of sick persons. This education to the rural women should be given through mahila mandals. The mahila mandals are independent voluntary organisations of local women.

D. Youth Clubs

The training of young people in club work will prepare them for future responsibilities. These trained young farmers will grow up as scientific farmers, with responsibilities of helping their brethren to change their attitudes and to take up new practices in farming and living. Thus efforts should be made towards the development of young farmers by organising and encouraging the formation of young farmers' clubs . The organisation of these clubs and other activities among the village youth would act as a process for the training of future village leaders.

Organisation

Organisations are those classes "of human relationship structures wherein people purposefully associate in systematically arranged units to promote and achieve some common purposes or interests that are not specifically expressed in the institution. Each member has a formal status and role"(Anderson,1964).

An association also has been described as being an organised group (of people) formed in pursuit of some common interest with its own self-contained administrative structure and functionaries.

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

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

Essential characteristics of organisations

1. Clearly Defined Limits

Organisations may seek new goals to justify their existence and continuation over a long period of time.

Organisations may vary widely in purpose, being created to serve very different interests. The purpose is normally specified in the organisation's constitution and bylaws, which are legally registered in accordance with prevailing laws and practices.

If organisations are considered sufficiently important by society, they may become institutionalised with full social sanction. The cooperative movement in India began through the efforts of Sir Frederic Nicholson in 1904 as a small organisation seeking to extend effective credit facilities to farmers and later given legislative backing and endorsement through enactment of the Cooperative Societies Act of 1912.

2. Formal Membership, Status and Role

There are several aspects of membership in an organisation:

a) Membership is voluntary and motivated by specialised individual interest. In totalitarian societies, however, organisations are almost completely government sponsored or

sanctioned. Direction of these organisations is usually by government officials and membership is frequently compulsory. Organizations that are not under "government control" are tolerated only if the government feels that their operation is in keeping with government interests. Under such circumstances organisations can rarely be formed as spontaneous expression of the interests of people in society.

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

c) Membership grants certain rights, privileges and benefits, but also requires the performance of duties and the adherence to stipulated rules and regulations.

3. Self-contained Administrative Structure

Each organisation has its own administrative structure with role and functions clearly defined and prescribed.

4. Operative Principles, Procedures and Goals

Normally all organisations have a carefully stated constitution and by-laws, sometimes required by law, embodying objectives, rules, regulations and operational procedures. In addition, symbols such as badges, emblems, and uniforms may also be used to give the organisation a distinctive public identity and to unify it.

5. Provision for Control, Authority and Decision-Making

The rules and regulations of an organisation define authority, procedure for decision-making and measures for maintaining conduct and behaviour of members. For instance, a minimum attendance at meetings may be one requirement in some organisations for continued membership in the organisation.

6. Other Functions

a) An outlet for individual interests

An organisation enables a group of persons sharing a common interest in society to associate with one another, working together toward realisation of their interest.

b) A channel for purposeful action

In fulfiling its goal, an organisation may influence social decisions and effect or stimulate social change.

c) As a testing ground for new programmes

Because of their modest size and flexibility, organisations can test new programmes and projects for possible advantages over the status quo.

7. Creation stimulated by dissatisfactions and periods of crises

Individuals, recognising a lack of outlets to express interests, tend to join others who have similar interests. Often, individuals are excluded by restrictive requirements from participation in certain organisations and organise a club of their own.

The number of organisations increases with natural calamities and other conditions causing crises in society.

Classifications of Organisations

Organisations may be classified in several ways :

1. On the basis of political structure within which they are created

Voluntary organisations exist in non-totalitarian societies and arise as spontaneous expression of the interests of people in society.

2. On the basis of motives of participation

Individuals expect organisations either to provide them personal satisfaction and pleasure or to enable them to be of service to others. Thus, organisations may be classified into those that provide personal pleasure and satisfaction and service and civic clubs and associations.

3. On the basis of organisational operation

Organisations operate within varying degrees of secrecy. Only members know the purposes and activities of secret organisation. Between the two extremes are organisations with varying degrees of secrecy.

\4. On the basis of admission to membership

Three categories may be identified: (a) Inclusive - open to anyone, who is interested in the purposes of the organisation and meets its requirements, e.g., a recreational club. (b) Restricted - open to only those persons who possess predetermined qualifications that characterise the organisation and the individual, e.g., an association or club of radio engineers, agronomists, doctors or textile manufacturers. (c) Exclusive - admission is limited through selection by members of the organization.

Development of Organisations

The development and growth of organisations generally follows a pattern involving four stages:

1. Period of cultivation

During this period the special interest, which forms the nucleus around which the organisation is later established, is discussed and stimulated among interested persons. Further interest is cultivated and enthusiasm generated. Certain individuals may take initiative and leadership in this stage. Among such leaders may be promoters or those willing to take on the responsibility and role of establishing an entirely new organisation or introducing a unit of an organisation that is already established elsewhere.

2. Period of formation

When interest among people has been stimulated and cultivated sufficiently, a meeting of all interested persons is usually held to structure the organisation. At this meeting a temporary chairman, secretary and committees may be set up. During the period of formation, a series of meetings and deliberations will be held. Guidance may be sought from non-members. The results are the constitution, bylaws, plant of operation, definition of purposes, objectives, etc. of the organisation.

3. Period of normal functioning

During this period, the organisation operates in accordance with prescribed rules and regulations to achieve its purpose. Programme planning, periodic modification, maintenance of interest, and securing of maximum participation and involvement are characteristics of this stage.

4. Period of decline and passing

When an organisation no longer meets the interests, purpose and objectives for which it was created, the bond holding its members together weakens. The organisation may decide the achievement of its initial goal has been reached or is no longer a worthwhile purpose and dissolve itself, or, it may persist and survive by taking on new goals.

5. Participation in Organisation

In rural areas of developing countries the number of, and membership in organisations is increasing, fulfilling the rapidly expanding interests of individuals. Groups will undoubtedly continue to grow both in numbers and in influence on rural social structure and society. Studies of participation in various organisations can provide important insights into human behaviour of rural people.

Community

Sociologists have defined several components essential to the concept of the community:

1. A group of people

There can be no community without people who interact on the basis of mutual dependence and concern. In their interaction they come together to act so as of satisfy their needs in the chief concerns of life. This does not imply that a community consists of one social group, rather several mutually dependent groups of people who act together.

2. A continuous geographical area

Where communication facilities are elaborate, a much larger geographical area is involved than where such facilities are few. Thus, the size of a rural community in developing countries may be smaller than in more advanced western countries. Technological advances increasing communication most likely will aid an isolated, compact community to extend over a larger geographical area as its people interact frequently with other villages and areas surrounding their villages.

3. A sense of belonging or identification

People in a community have a strong sense of belonging to each other and to that particular geographical area.

4. Common social values, norms, and other aspects of culture

Every community has a common set of social values which gives a hierarchy of items in the community. This may vary from one society and culture to another. The values are commonly shared along with other aspects of the culture among members of the community.

5. Common set of organisations and institutions

A community is in a large sense a self-contained group exhibiting a considerable sense of self-sufficiency. People in community come together to meet their chief needs through a common set of institutions and organisations. Community feeling is largely influenced by facilities available, for this affects contacts and interrelations with various people. These agencies, institutions and organisations are looked upon as "belonging" to the community and are woven into the fabric of inter-personal relationships.

6. Some common interests

While individual interests of members of a community may differ, always common interests unite the community and develop in it a sense of oneness. Often in times of crises this is its own preservation and community members unite to be of mutual assistance and

support in marked and significant ways according to the exigencies of the situation. During normal periods a community is characterised by sharing several common interests and working together to fulfil these interests and satisfy needs.

"Community" refers to groups of mutually dependent people, living in a more or less compact continuous geographical area, having a sense of belonging and sharing common values, norms, and some common interests, and acting collectively in an organised manner to satisfy their chief needs through a common set of organizations and institutions.

Groups

A group is a unit of two or more people in reciprocal interaction or communication with each other.

a) Groups always consist of at least two persons and can extend to many more. These two persons must be capable of mental response.

b) Groups do not form by mere plurality of numbers. Communication and interaction is essential.

c) While communication and interaction are essential, it must be reciprocal - two-way. One way communication does not constitute group interaction. People in a group must influence each other on the psychological plane, although the influence may not be equal. This communication need not be "face-to-face". Physical proximity is not a determining factor in group formation; rather reciprocal communication and interaction is.

d) Groups may be long-lived or of brief duration. They exist only as long as there is reciprocal psychological interaction. Groups cease to be groups when active relation between the minds of the two or more involved ceases.

e) Groups and group life are also to be found among non-human beings. Bees, termites, monkeys and apes exhibit evidence of organised group activity in various ways.

f) While common interest, shared values and norms may be important ingredients in many social groups all groups do not necessarily share these interests, values and norms. It is quite possible for two or more individuals with widely divergent interests, and cultural backgrounds to form a group.

g) The formation of groups may be based on various kinds of situations that cause people to unite. Classification of groups has been made in various ways; however, no classification has been found completely adequate in all respects.

Classifications based on kinds of situations in which people unit:

1. Physiological kinship and community of blood or origin from the same physical or mystical ancestors.

2. Marriage

3. Similarity in religious and magical beliefs and rites

4. Similarity in native language and mores.

5. Common possession and utilisation of land.

6. Territorial proximity.

7. Common responsibility (sometimes imposed by other groups) for the maintenance of order, payment of taxes, etc., and common acquisition of certain privileges.

8. Community of occupational interests

9. Community of various types of economic interests.

10. Subjection to the same lord.

11. Attachment, either free or compulsory to the same social institution or agency of social service and social control.

12. Common defence against a common enemy.

13. Mutual aid

14. General living, experiencing and acting together.

h) Various devices such as assimilation, conflict, accommodation-often referred to as social processes-are employed by some groups in adjusting to each other in inter-group relationships.

i) Two popular assumptions that relate to origins of groups and seek to explain the reason underlying their formation are erroneous and call for clarification. One is that man forms and functions in groups because of common interests and these interests are satisfied through group participation. Common interest may be the basis for formation of some groups and there may exist in society several "special interest groups" but all groups are not based on common interest nor do al of them originate from common interest. The second is that groups form by human "instinct" of gregariousness. This is not so. Man has no such "inherited instinct" but has through his experience from early infancy until death learned that his needs are met, and living outside of groups as a normal human being is considered by him impossible and unthinkable. His learned reaction in life is hence in terms of groups and it is this reaction that causes him to form groups to meet his needs.

Four major bases upon which people associate in group life have been identified, but they do not represent exclusive classifications and there is obvious overlapping of persons and membership of individuals in these groups :

1. Common ancestry.

2. Territory shared in common.

3. Similar body characteristics

4. Common interests

Within these, people may operate collectively as groups of various kinds, form institutions and organizations of various types to serve their purposes and satisfy needs. These institutions and organizations may from time to time and for varying periods operate as groups in society.

j) The group is an entity by itself, having its own qualities different from any or all of its member parts. A group cannot be understood by merely understanding the different qualities and characteristics of its members or by simply adding them together. The combined qualities of all participating members of the group give the group itself distinctive qualities and characteristics of behaviour as a group. When in group people behave in ways that are different from their behaviour as individuals. The interdependence of these component parts and the relationship between them give the group a structure and make it distinguishable as a unit.

Category and aggregation

The group is to be distinguished clearly from two other forms of human association or pluralities. An aggregation is 'a collectivity of persons who are held together in a physical sense other than intercommunication". (Cuber, 1968). It is possible for aggregation to operate as groups if interaction or inter-communication takes place. They are then groups and not aggregations during that period of time of reciprocal interaction.

A category is a number of persons who can be thought of as a unit, whether or not they are communicating or interacting with one another. (Cuber, 1968). All the men and all the women in a country form two different categories. Village people who can read and write form another category.

Relationships of persons are systematically arranged in respect to one another in some groups. The behaviour of the father in the family will be influenced by his role status and role expectations. Other informal groups are not patterned in this way; there is no hierarchy, no one assumes authority and the group operates on the basis of equality. An individual in society normally participates in a large number of groups of various kinds.

Group integration or cohesiveness

The following factors are identified as functional and relevant in serving as forces that effect cohesion or integration in-group.

1. Homogeneity of the group

Greater cohesiveness usually results from common interests or mutually desired satisfactions, shared values, similar characteristics, norms of behaviour and consensus on operational procedures, rules, etc. When members of a group come from different cultural backgrounds, the group becomes less homogeneous in nature and, consequently, group integration or cohesiveness is weak. Ethnocentrism within such a group tends to split the group rather than hold it together. On the other hand, when all members of the group share social norms of behaviour and conduct, integration is fostered.

2. Size of group

Smaller groups usually exhibit informal and more intimate personal relationships among its members than do groups with a larger membership.Intimate personal relationships are often referred to as primary relations and the more formal and contractual, secondary relations. Rural areas are usually characterised by primary relations-particularly among rural societies of developing countries.

3. Physical Mobility

With transfer of residence, individuals usually relate themselves to groups in their new area of residence and, because of daily relations which new groups, are drawn away physically and psychologically from the groups in which they previously participated.

4. Effectiveness of communication

Cohesiveness in a group is a function of the efficiency of communication among its members, bringing about conformity with group norms of behaviour and influencing attitudes so that they are in line with purposes of the group. When motivation of members of the group is high, members direct their efforts in such ways as to bring divergent attitudes into conformity with the rest of the group since they believe that uniformity of opinions and attitudes is vital to success. Thus effective communication within the group can serve to bring about greater cohesiveness in the group.

<div align="center">Classification of groups</div>

Major types of groups formed on the following attributes are

A. Groups based on the quality or type of relationships that exist within them.

1. **Primary and secondary groups:** Primary groups are characterised by intimate face-to-face associations and informal personal relationships, such as in the family and in-groups of close friends. Such groups have what sociologists call a: we-feeling-a strong feeling of belonging to the group on the part of members. A secondary group is characterised by few ties of sentiment, formality of contacts and impersonal relationships, such as may exist between farmer and the commission agent who sells his produce or the wholesale

merchant who buys his produce. In a primary group members are interested in one another as individuals. They share experiences, hopes, plans, and problems and fulfil their need for companionship. In a secondary group where impersonal, contractual and utilitarian relationships exist members are not concerned with other members as individuals but as individuals who function to fill particular roles. "Primary groups are relationship-directed, and secondary groups are goal-oriented". (Horton, 1964).

S.No	Primary Groups	Secondary Groups
a)	Small size-often less than 20 or 30 persons	Large size
b)	Personal and intimate relationships among members.	Impersonal and aloof relationships among members.
c)	Much face to face communication	Little face to face communication
d)	Permanency-members are together over a long period of time	Temporary-members spend relatively little time together
e)	Members are well acquainted and have a strong sense of loyalty or "we" feeling; a strong amount of group pressure is present	Members are not well-acquainted and anonymity prevails
f)	Informality is most common; the group usually does not have a name, officers or a regular meeting place	Formality prevails-group often has a name, officers, and a regular meeting place.
g)	Group decision are more traditional and non-rational (Rogers, 1960)	Group decision are more rational and the emphasis is on efficiency.

2. Formal and Informal Groups

The degree of formality or informality that exists in the group may be regarded as a continuum with formal groups at one end and informal groups at the other. It should be recognised that no group is 100% formal or 100% informal in its relationships although definite marked differences exist in the operation end of these two types of groups.

3. Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft

The concept of Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft was developed by the German sociologist, Ferdinand Tonnies (1957) to refer to the type the quality of relationships within the group and can be represented on a continuum. "The Gemeinschaft is a society in which most relationships are traditional or personal or often both". (Horton, 1964). An example is the old Zamindari or Talukdari System in India in which the Zamindar or landlord had his tenants who were personally known to him, to whom he had obligations. In Europe and some other countries is found a similar example in the feudal system with the feudal lord and his subjects. In such groups written documents, or contracts were not present, and the traditional pattern existed and was accepted by society.

The Gesellschaft is a society in which there is neither personal attachment nor the importance of traditional rights, obligations and duties. It is a society in which contract has replaced the Gemeinschaft characteristic of tradition. Relationships are based on bargaining and clearly defined written agreements. A Gesellschaft society flourishes in urban areas, and business organizations or associations of wholesalers are examples. Some of the chief characteristics of Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft relationships are compared in the summary below.

"Gemeinschaft Relationships	Gesellschaft Relationships
Personal	Impersonal
Informal	Formal
Traditional	Utilitarian
Sentimental	Realistic, "Hard Boiled"
General	Specialized"

Horton (1964)

B. Groups based on social class

The term Horizontal group is used to describe members who are alike in the status or position in the class system of society. Thus, all farmers, blacksmiths, and carpenters, would be members of their respective horizontal group in the village. In addition, those persons with like incomes, but different occupations, may belong to a horizontal group, if income level is closely related to prestige rating, which may not be true in some societies. Vertical groups are those groups that are composed of members from different social strata and whose membership cuts vertically across the "horizontal" groupings in society.

C. Groups based on size

Groups may vary and be placed on a continuum on the basis of number of members with the minimum number being the dyad or pair at one end at the other, the maximum who can interact and communicate with one another.

D. Groups based on personal feeling of belonging

An in-group is a group to which a person feels he belongs and with which he identifies strongly(my family, my clan). Other groups to which he feels he does not belong are his out-groups, for he is outside of them. The relationships in these groups, may be represented on a continuum with in-group at one end, out-group at the other, with intermediary group in between in which in-group and out-group feelings vary in degree.

E. Groups based on compulsion of participation

Participation in school may be compulsory for a child at the insistence of the state and/or parent. Membership and participation in certain groups may be as a result of social pressure or pressure from other members.

F. Reference groups

A reference group may be defined as "a group with which the individual feels identified, the norms and objectives of which he accepts"(Hartley, 1965). A reference group may therefore be any group-primary, formal, horizontal, or otherwise, and it strongly influences the individual's behaviour.

Social interaction

It is the "dynamic interplay of forces in which contact between persons and groups results in a modification of the attitudes and behaviour of the participants"(Sutherland, 1961). If man cannot satisfy certain needs by himself, formal organisations, institutions and bureaucracies may result. Interaction is, therefore, a fundamental process in any society, and the character of society is deeply influenced by the types of interaction that takes place within it. These interactions are in turn governed by societal norms in which social roles, status and values are involved. From the point of view of social interaction, site and location are unimportant. What is of consequence is the contact, awareness and reciprocal communication without which interaction cannot take place.

Aspects of social interaction

a) Social Contact

Without social contact, interaction is not possible. Physical contact has no social significance by itself. Social contact, exists when there is reciprocal response and "an inner adjustment of behaviour to the actions of others"(Sutherland, 1961).

b) Communication

Communication is essential to social interaction; without communication people cannot react to one another. Symbols may be in language, dress, banners, signs. A symbol is a summary of experience.

c) Social Structure

The context for social interaction is the structure of society. Such a structure involves social norms, roles, status, and values which determine behaviour during interaction or specify the "rules of the game".

Social interaction is the foundational process in society. It can take place only when social contacts take place between people; contacts are social only when there is

communication of meaning between people. Symbols are the medium for communication and summaries of experience, which provide a basis for common understanding of present situations. The context within which social interaction takes place is the social structure with its norms, roles, values which regulate human behaviour.

SOCIAL PROCESSES OR FORMS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

Social interaction may express itself in several types or forms as man interacts in different ways with others in society. Social interaction which assumes a repetitive pattern in a specific in a specific direction becomes a social process. Social processes then refer to "repetitive forms of behaviour which are commonly found in social life".

Major basic social processes

The major basic social processes are : a) Competition b) Cooperation c) Conflict d) Accommodation e) Assimilation. These processes are present in every society to varying degrees with varying emphasis placed on one or the other.

A. Cooperation

Cooperation means working together toward common objectives or goals. The word is derived from two Latin words-"co", meaning together and "operate", meaning to work. Thus where two or more individuals or groups work or act together jointly in pursuit of a common objective there is co-operation. The amount contributed to the interaction by each participant is not vital to understand cooperation as a social process. What is essential is that the relationship involves two or more who contribute toward the achievement of an objective.

Cooperation may be brought about by several motivating factors and by situations involving such factors. These are

i) Personal gain

Cooperative action is motivated largely by personal gains that would accrue through cooperative effort.

ii) Common purpose

Dedication to a common purpose may be another reason.

iii) Altruistic motives

Individuals and groups working together may be motivated by a genuine desire to help others in need. Thus village people may voluntarily collect funds and materials to help a family or group of families whose houses have been destroyed.

vi) Situational necessity

During emergencies, cooperative action is necessary. After a flood, and before measures for rescue and relief are implemented by non-village agencies, village people of all classes, creeds, etc., often organise themselves to remove women, children, livestock and belongings to higher ground.

v) Achievement of goals of greater values

If the welfare of the total village is involved, and the solution rests in cooperative action on the part of all the community this may occur.

Forms of Cooperation

1. Cooperation that results from loyalty or adherence to the same objective.
2. "Antagonistic Cooperation", often occurring in labour disputes when management and labour agree to discuss differences. Even with opposing objectives, both sides are mutually dependent on one another and hence realise the necessity of working out cooperatively a mutually acceptable arrangement.
3. Cooperation that results from mutual dependence. Interests may vary without antagonism, yet because the nature of social structure involving interdependence, cooperation in division of labour or exchange of services is unavoidable and becomes largely unconscious.
4. Cooperation that results from efforts to compete with others in order to achieve the goal before them. Individuals and groups may work cooperatively so that they have better prospects for success in competing with others for a common goal.
5. Cooperation that is enforced as a result of subordination. A conquered national usually has no alternative but to cooperate with the conquering power.

Other types of Cooperation

a) Primary cooperation

The group and individual fuse so that the group engulfs all or nearly all of the individual's life. Identification of individual, group and task to be performed are interlocked. Rewards are shared by the group as are tasks and assignments.

b) Secondary Cooperation

This is highly formalised and specialised and occupies only part of an individual's life. Attitudes tend to be more individualistic. Each person performs his assigned task and in doing so helps others to do the same so that fruits of cooperative efforts can be enjoyed separately.

c) Tertiary Cooperation

Tertiary cooperation is insecure because of latent conflict underlying it. Common means of achieving separate goals by two antagonistic parties are involved. Two antagonistic parties may cooperate to oppose a third. Once the party is defeated, their cooperation may cease

B. Competition

Competition is the social process or form of social interaction in which two or more individuals or groups strive against each other for the possession or use of some material or non-material good. The focus is primarily on the achievement of the objective desired by both and secondarily on each other. The goal or objective by its nature, quality or quantity may be such only one can achieve, or secure it, making the competition more intense.

Forms of Competition

1. Absolute and Relative Competition

Absolute competition exists when the goal is to be achieved by one competitor only at a time. There is hence only one person who can be elected President of a country.

2. Personal and Impersonal Competition

The focus of attention of each competitor is one other competitor whom he strives to eliminate as well as the goal. Such personal competition often approaches conflict with rather a narrow dividing line. Impersonal competition has no personal focus on individual rivals, striving instead to reach a goal rather than to defeat an opponent.

Functions of competition

Competition serves specific functions as an important social process and form of interaction in society. It constitutes one way in which limited commodities in society are allocated, along with such methods as distribution on basis of urgency or need or rationing on the basis of available supply and number of individuals involved. Competition also serves to mould the attitudes of competitors in a particular way. Normally unfriendly and unfavourable attitudes towards one another develop when individuals or groups compete. Cooperation tends to foster friendly attitudes. Competition serves as a means of maximum stimulation of individuals and groups. Provided it is culturally accepted and encouraged, competition can serve effectively to increase productivity in business, in industry and in agriculture.

Competition has limitations in its stimulative effect. People may decide not to operate on a competitive basis but by fixing work quotas, enforce promotion through seniority of service and use other means that enable them to avoid the rigours, tension and insecurity involved in completion. Others who regularly face defeat in competition may simply withdraw from it; although the frequent winner in compassion may be encouraged and stimulated, the process of competition has served to discourage the regular losers. Competition serves to stimulate in only some kinds of activity, where the quantity of output is of greater importance and the tasks are relatively routine and uncomplicated. In intellectual or technical tasks, cooperation seems to be more stimulating than competition. Personal competition tends to develop into conflict; to be a "good loser" is not always easy and intense competition can easily lead to conflict.

Culture and Competition

Culture plays an important role in determining the extent to which competition is fostered or discouraged, and societies vary in the extent to which competition is allowed to operate. The significance of competition in society is culturally defined and can be represented in a continuum.

Culture may operate in many ways   as follows:

1. Culture determines the basic value system in society, clearly prescribing items that are desirable and have value and placing them in hierarchical order.
2. Culture will define the acceptable means or achieving or securing these values. To use competitive means may not be considered acceptable.
3. Culture defines who may   compete for achievement of a specific item of value. In societies where status in ascribed, participation in competition for various items of value may be restricted to certain groups, castes or classes.
4. Culture defines and enforces the rules and regulations for competitive effort. Competition operates within the framework and is seldom unrestrained. The rules and methods of enforcement will vary from culture to culture. Culturally defined rewards for achievement and punishment for violation will be employed in regulating competitive effort.

It is important to recognise that elements of both processes exist in the total pattern of social interaction in every society. None is entirely cooperative or completely competitive.

C. Conflict

Conflict refers to the struggle in which competing parties, attempting to reach a goal, strive to eliminate an opponent by making the other party ineffectual or by annihilation.

Victory is at the expense of the opposing party. Conflict has been defined as "the process of seeking to monopolise towards by eliminating or weakening the competitors"(Horton, 1964).

The difference between conflict and competition lies chiefly in the focus and manner of achieving the goal. In competition, the primary focus is the goal, and interaction is according to culturally defined rules of behaviour and procedure. In conflict, the focus is on the annihilation or incapacitation of the opponent, so that the way is cleared for achievement of the goal. Conflict and competition are sometimes difficult to distinguish, both being forms of rival behaviour.

D. Accommodation

Accommodation is "a process of developing temporary working agreements between conflicting individuals or groups"(Horton, 1964). It is a process of getting along despite differences. The conflicting parties arrange for alternatives to conflict to bring about termination of hostilities or conflicting relationships and to enable some form of cooperation. Commendation may be viewed both as a process of social interaction as well as the result of social interaction, and it is one of the important and inevitable outcomes of a social situation of competition or conflict. Accommodation, refers to "a permanent or temporary termination of rival parties to function together without open hostility at least in some respects"(Cuber, 1968).

Forms of Accommodation

Accommodation may be achieved in various ways and take several forms. The more important of these are briefly described below:

1. Compromise

In a compromise, each antagonistic party agrees to make concessions that allow them to reach an agreement. This "give and take" continues until all parties are satisfied. In sharp conflicts between farmers over farm field boundaries and encroachment, a compromise is frequently sought, and illustrations of compromise in labour-management disputes are numerous.

2. Conversion

One of the interacting parties accepts and adopts the views of the other. Conversion is frequently related to religious beliefs. Those who accept and adopt the religious beliefs and views of others are referred as converts.

3. Tolerance

Interacting parties agree to disagree. Each party holds its own position, but respects the fact that the other party has an opposing viewpoint. They "tolerate" each other, despite the

fact that the basic issue is not eliminated. Such a form of accommodation sometimes succeeds when compromise and conversion fail.

4. Arbitration

When contending parties do not settle differences among themselves, arbitration is frequently employed i.e., the problem is submitted to a mutually agreeable third party who acts as a mediator, capable of studying the issue objectively. This procedure is frequently followed in reaching a compromise, and arbitration and may serve as a prelude to compromise. The United Nations Organisation frequently serves in the role of arbitrator at an International level. Arbitration may be formal, such as in a court of law, and conflict may be terminated on the basis of the court decision. Informal arbitration using an objective person is usually sought.

5. Truce

A truce is an agreement to cease rival interaction for a definite or indefinite period of time. The purpose is usually to give both parties time to review the issue in the light of proposal or suggestions for settlement. Illustrations of the use of this form of accommodation are plentiful in various battles and wars. Settlement of issues is not implied in a truce; all it does is gives time for both parties to explore possibilities for such settlement and to discuss terms of peace. This form of accommodation is temporary, usually giving way to a more permanent form.

6. Subordination and super ordination

Subordination as a form of accommodation serves to structure relationships between a victor and the conquered at the end of conflict. Accommodation by subordination is effective under two conditions. The first condition is that the dominant party be so strong as to force the other to submit. This is seldom final accommodation, for the conquering party must be constantly prepared for rebellion from the conquered. The second condition under which subordination as a form of accommodation may be successful is that relationships of subordination be socially sanctioned as a part of the social structure and heritage of society.

Temporary subordination-superordination arrangements may in some cases operate as a form of accommodation. If one party achieves advantages which make its ultimate victory inevitable, an arrangement similar to compromise-differing in that it is clear to both parties that one party is dominant over the other-may be agreed upon. This form of accommodation is temporary and is an intermediary stage before issues are finally settled.

Displacement

Displacement involves termination of one conflict by replacing it with another. Deliberate use of displacement as a technique is a standard strategy adopted by dictators and to some extent known in democracies. Use of a "scapegoat" is a displacement technique;

E. Assimilation

Assimilation is referred as the fusing or blending process, whereby cultural differences tend to disappear and individuals and groups once dissimilar become similar. Assimilation implies complete merging of divergent cultural groups within a society and has been defined as a "process of mutual cultural diffusion through which persons and groups become culturally alike"(Horton, 1964).

Social change

Social change involves a change in the structure or function of societal forms. Social interaction, involving social processes in society, takes place in accordance with existing norms and values in organisations, institutions and other societal forms without alteration in these societal forms and within their framework. Social change, however, involves alteration in the structure and functioning of these forms.

Social change refers to changes in social structure and social relationships. Cultural change refers to changes in the culture of society. Culture is the pattern of learned behaviour including technology, and dimensions of science, both material and non-material.

Theories of social change

A. Theories of Causation

1. Geographic determinism
2. Biological determinism
3. Economic determinism
4. Cultural determinism

Theories that explain social change in terms of some feature or features of the natural environment constitute theories based on geographic determinism. Theories that explain social change on the basis of traits or characteristics of the human organism are referred to as biologic determinism. Included in such theories are those contained in doctrines of racial superiority and inferiority. Theories that consider economic factors such as production, demand and supply as the bases of social change are referred to as economic determinism. Cultural determinism refers to theories that seek to explain social changes as a result of some element or elements of cultural heritage.

B. Theories of Process

1. Linear theories conceive of social change as an unfolding line. The concept of evolution is the basic influence in the formulation of the linear theory.

2. Cyclic Theories stress the undulating character of social change. Each phase of the cycle emerges from the previous phase and gives birth to the next phase.

3. The trend model is another way of expressing the linear theory. Social change is characterised by an overall trend that exists in spite of minor fluctuations and variations. The trend of movement of society was described as transition Gemeinschaft to Gessellschaft or communal to associational society. The sacred traditional orientation of communal society in its trend gives way to associational society that is characterized by secularism, rationality and a more pragmatic approach.

People's Participation in Development Activities

" It is clear that high degree of voluntary participation and initiative is essential to the success of planning. Fundamentally, the problem of planning is how to induce people to participate and cooperate in remedying in all less satisfactory conditions that make a country under-developed". - Gunnar Myrdal.

We have experienced and experimented with various rural development programmes/strategies over a period of nearly four decades to eliminate poverty, social inequality and unemployment. But, as felt by the development experts, we could not reap the fullest benefits as contemplated. Many reasons could be attributed for this. By and large, the most attributable reason is "lack of people's participation" in developmental activities.

What does the term, "people' participation" exactly mean? In simpler terms, it means a role for the people in decision-making. According to Mishra and Sharma (1985), the term people's participation/involvement can better be understood as:

i)   Participation in decision-making

ii)   Participation in implementation of development programmes

iii)   Participation in monitoring and evaluation of development programmes

iv)   Participation in sharing the benefits of development.

Setty (1985) defined that people's participation refers to their total involvement with the development agencies in deciding the programmes and activities, fixing up of priorities, taking initiative and carrying out the projects as partners by the contributions of their ideas, interest, materials, money, labour and time.

Need for People's Participation

To achieve the following, we need to enlist people's participation in developmental activities:

1)   To develop a strong democracy at grass-root level.

ii)   To set priorities by the people themselves.

iii)   To create better conviction about the benefits of development programmes

iv)   To reduce the natural resistance from individuals.

v)   To inculcate the sense of responsibility and a feeling of oneness

vi)   To facilitate collective decision-making based on democratic values.

vii)   To get first hand information from the community.

viii)   To create a self-confidence among the villagers

ix)   To develop the personality of participants by way of real people's participation.

Factor affecting participation

This aspect has been viewed form three angles ie., form people side, official side and administrative side.

i) People side

a)   People considered the development programmes a Government's programme and not of theirs: People don't realise that the programmes are meant for their own upliftment. This was revealed by Chaturvedi and Mitra (1982) who studied about the citizenship participation in Community Development Programme (CDP) and Jaiswal *et al*. (1985) while studying about the people's participation in watershed management.

b)People gave importance to economic incentives and apparent benefits.

People consider the immediate results and not the long range effects of development porgrammes. Since our development programmes mostly emphasise the long term results, people do not participate as expected. This was stated in a recent study by Sen *et al.* (1985).

c) Lack of awareness of schemes

This is one of the most important factors that affected people's participation in many of the development programmes. This may be illustrated with the following studies: Reddy and Reddy (1974) who studied the people's image of community development and Panchayati Raj reported that most of the villagers were not sure as to whom the CDP was meant for and as to who was benefited from the Panchayati Raj. Surendran (1981) found only low to medium awareness of agricultural development programme among Todas. Menon *et al* (1983) stated that there was only 19.3% of beneficiaries under "Palmyrah Tappers Rehabilitation Scheme" aware about the scheme objectives. Jaiswal *et al.* (1985) reported that people were quite ignorant about the water shed management plan implemented in their area.

(ii) Official side

a) The officials were 'target oriented ' and shown little sensitivity to the social process and consequently the process of evoking community spirit and involving people were side tracked. It has been revealed by Chaturvedi and Mitra (1982) while studying about CDP.

b) High level of bureaucratization: The officials behaved as 'masters' and failed to project themselves as 'enablers' in the task of nation building.

c) Lack of extension orientation among the functionaries:

Due to this factor, the field level functionaries could not cope up with the expectations of people ie., they could not motivate the people, they are weak in

programme planning, they could not involve them effectively in the scheme and alike. This was also reported by Sen *et al.* (1985) while studying farm forestry in West Bengal.

d) Improper beneficiary identification

This is considered as one of the weakest aspects and because of which the benefits could not reach the right type of persons. Salunke (1980) and Lal (1980) while studying about Small Farmers' Development Agency beneficiaries remarked that many of the 'identified' small farmers were really not small farmers.

II. Administrative side

a) Inadequate resources

Chaturvedi and Mitra (1982) reported that the human and material resource were most inadequate. These resources are pre-requisites to successfully implement the scheme as expected and the lack of which in turn will result in poor participation of people.

b) No beneficiary education

The beneficiaries need to be educated towards the objectives of a development scheme so that they get prepared before launching the scheme. But, in many of the development schemes, such 'preparation' of people was lacking. This was reported by Menon *et al.* (1983) who studied about Drought Prone Area Programme.

In general, the important factor, 'Lack of social consciousness' and 'social responsibility' was highly lacking in the people as well as in officials which has considerably contributed for the lack of people's participation in developmental activities.

Suggestions to enlist people's participation
1. Development programmes must be attractive

To add "attraction" to any development programmes, it must be in line with the felt needs of the people. It must be designed in such a way so that the economic benefits or the immediate benefits are given due consideration. The technologies under the programme must possess "appropriateness" and they must be low-cost/no cost (non-monetary) technologies suited to the agro - economic conditions of different areas.

2. "Bottom-up" approach

With the technical guidance from the local level officials, and by involving local people, this approach may be implemented.

3. Conscientize the people about their duties and responsibilities and rights and privileges:

Community should be educated with regard to their duties and responsibilities and rights and privileges. Whenever a development scheme is introduced, they must get 'prepared' so as to reap the benefits from that scheme. Due to lack of this, to cite an example, the community toilet scheme was a failure. Still, the rural masses are unaware of their role in the social system and in a larger perspective, in the nation building process.

4. Make the implementing agency answerable to people

The implementing agency should realise that they are expected to answer the querries posed by the people. They must convincingly reply to the doubts of lay men.

5. Elicit the support of leaders

While working with groups, identification of potential leaders who influence certain groups is essential and their support need to be elicited.

6. Participatory monitoring

The people's representatives must be included in 'monitoring cells' constituted for effectively implementing any development scheme. While doing so, one must be doubly cautious about politicization of various issues.

7. Organise beneficiaries

If the beneficiaries of a development programme are organised into a viable institutional form, they can contribute for the successful implementation of a development programme.

8. Micro-level planning

With the people's representatives, mini-planning cells may be constituted at Taluk and district levels in order to encourage micro-level planning. For this, the existing District Rural Development Agencies may be strengthened by positioning suitable personnel with flair for field-level planning. In this context, it would be appropriate to mention the findings of Rajaram (1973) who found that the Panchayat Presidents were oriented towards panchayat revenue and accounts only and hence he suggested necessary orientation had to be given to them in planning and execution of development programmes.

9. Educate and motivate beneficiaries and executives towards scheme objectives

Since may extension scientists found the lack of awareness among beneficiaries of development schemes, it would be more appropriate of educational and motivational techniques are adopted for the beneficiaries before launching a programme. As suggested by National Commission of Agriculture (1976) and quoted by Somasundaram(1976), the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation techniques need to be adopted to achieve this. Equally, the executives of a development programme need orientation towards the programme so that they can have a right perception about their role to be played.

10. Strengthen infra-structural facilities

This will enhance the support for the scheme and beneficiaries will be impressed upon the positive effects of the scheme.

11. Evolve and implement complementary programmes

A package of services need to be offered to the beneficiaries through the collaborative efforts with different development departments.

12. Executives must be enablers and social therapists

Executives of development programmes should not behave as "bosses" and they must have right type of role perception as enablers and social therapists. For this, the executives must have a background knowledge of

a) Socio - economic status of beneficiaries

b) Nature of leadership available in the area

c) Social consciousness of the people

d) Political awareness of the people

13. Redesigning Panchayati Raj

It is high time that Panchayati Raj institutions need to be redesigned in the following manner so as to ensure the most effective participation of people.

a) Panchayats should coordinate with voluntary organisations – particularly the Youth and Women's organisations.

b) In order to ensure better participation of the members from the lower economic group, the number of reserved seats for scheduled castes and women needs to be increased. Such co-opted persons must be assigned with specific roles and their opinions need to be recorded and recognised. This would help them to avoid their idle presence.

c) Direct election of members is to be favoured. There should not be any dual membership which will help them to justify to their position as Panchayat President/ Chairman as the case may be.

d) Since youth, women and landless labourers constitute the target groups in any village, they must be inducted in cooperatives and panchayats. For this, the related laws may be amended.

14. "Direct" involvement of people

This is a radical thinking by Mishra (1985). He remarked that the so called "representatives" of people seldom represent the interests of masses and hence they favour the "direct" involvement of people. The "open assembly" still existing in the village set up may be a model for this type of strategy. But, under the existing social

system, this can only be a gradual process. The process can be accelerated only when the poor become conscious of their rights and privileges.

15. Civic education through National Adult Education Programme(NAEP)

Since NAEP is implemented as a massive programme from 1-5-86, the contents of NAEP may include civic education, citizenship responsibilities and related topics to make the people as fulfledged citizens.

16. Adopt persuasive communication/perception building techniques

As suggested by Chatterjee (1969), the psychological factors such as likes, dislikes, perceptions, memories, emotions etc. and forces acting upon the individual from outside such as threats, anticipation of rewards, requests, commands, expectation of success, fear of failure etc. are to be given due consideration which have a direct bearing on building right type of perceptions of development schemes and also the beneficiaries may be persuaded accordingly to take part in the development schemes.

17. No VIP centred/urban oriented programmes

The people should not have improper conviction that a particular scheme is meant for others such as Very Important Persons or urban dwellers. To alleviate such improper conviction, the executives of the scheme should make the people aware of all the scheme objectives and the long range effects.

18. Make the attitude of press to be positive

Prior to launching a development programme, the Project Officer concerned must convene a press meet to appraise about the objectives of scheme, the people's involvement, the benefits envisaged etc. so that the press can act as a medium to effectively enlist people's participation.

<p align="center">**SELF HELP GROUPS (SHG)**</p>

Institutions are made up of members and can be at local, community, group, regional, national or international level. In fact, they are present at these levels in today's world in different situations. The creation of sustainable organisations involves participatory approach to such initiatives. However, it is not sufficient per se. It is important to have an appropriate philosophy and approach to development since local people form quick and usually correct opinions about outsiders ' initiatives. Therefore, they should be partners in development rather than beneficiaries or target groups.

Self-help Group-Concept and Logic

A group can be defined as a self-identified set of persons with common interest. It is an "institutional framework for various individuals or households who have agreed to co-operate on a continuing basis to pursue one or more objectives. A self-help organisation is a membership organisation which implies that its risks, costs and benefits are shared among its members on an equitable basis and that its leadership and/or management are liable to be called to account by membership for their deeds". Therefore, self-help group can be defined as a set of persons with common interest and having interpersonal relations who agree to share risks and benefits through self-designed rules and reciprocity in behaviour. This implies that self-help group can be a formal or informal cooperative, a self-evolved group of non-government organisation promoted group.

Though there could be many levels of decision making for a particular activity, three of them-localities, communities, and groups should be considered local as they have face-to-face inter-personnel relationships in all of them which are more frequent and intense within groups. The fact that people know each other creates opportunities for collective action and mutual assistance and for mobilising and managing resources on a self-directed and self-sustaining basis.

The vitality of groups in any activity or sector depends in large part on the extent to which they meet the expectations of their members. Therefore, these groups are often vulnerable to the withdrawal of support, though they can grow and expand as long as they are able to attract membership contribution.

Theory and Practice of self-help

Though there are very few studies of self-help groups as such, the vast literature on theories of collective action does provide lots of insights into the organisation and working of these groups. There are: collective goods, organisational goods, individual profit, compensatory profit, functional identity, appropriate group size, and structural guarantees.

A collective good refers to a type of facility wherein it is impossible to exclude any member of group from its use, if one member uses it. Collective goods are defined with respect to specific groups, and to initiate a group action, it is important to identify a group for which the provision of a collective good is possible. However, a collective good must also be organisational good as it will not be available for use unless the potential beneficiaries organise themselves to procure it. Further, besides the individual profit which should be equal to the rate of return on investment required to motivate the establishment of an individual business in the same area where group action is proposed, an increment in pay-off is necessary, as compensatory profit for the transaction cost and the loss of individual discretion involved in joining a group. The functional identity of the collective goods in terms of equal distribution of benefits, appropriate size of the group depending on the purpose and duration of activity, and structural guarantees in terms of various administrative, financial and managerial mechanisms adopted by the group, are other conditions for group action.

The major reasons for the failure of group action in credit societies are the absence of lack of functional identity of the credit resources offered, rules and regulations, small group-size and structural guarantees. On the other hand, in marketing cooperatives, the conditions of functional identity, collective good and organisational good were much easier to meet as shown by the milk cooperatives in Gujarat. In this case, the provision of the market power available equally to all the members and at the same rate, constitutes a collective and organisational good which provides functional identity for all to build up their profits in a specific area of production. Here, the important condition is that a certain number of milk producers must agree to sell milk only to the cooperative and should look after the routine business of cooperative by themselves.

Though collective good and functional identity are identified as very important conditions for group action, the other conditions are also important for a sustainable group action.

Self Help Groups in Indian Agribusiness

In India, a lot has been written about the self-help groups and actions in credit sector wherein the groups start as saving and thrift collectivities and later on tend to utilise these resources for economic and social activities. However, the prevalence and performance of self-help in agribusiness sectors has not been documented and analysed adequately. It is only very recently that a few studies have been carried out in these fields, especially in the informal sector. The recent focus on these groups is also due to the fact that the development agencies are increasingly adopting this form of organisation in their programmes.

A NABARD study concluded that major features which help groups work and sustain are; socio-economic homogeneity of the group, small size, functionality, participation, voluntary mode, non-political nature, and above all the similarities of the needs and problems of group members. However, they all prefer to remain small and informal. Since 1992, NABARD has incorporated these learning out comes into its programmes for self-help groups and now recommends groups with membership of 10-25 depending on the nature of the activity/project and level of participation, and democratic and homogenous nature.

Self-help groups are easy to evolve and panacea for all ills of rural society. It is only that they, if evolved, are the most suitable organisations for doing development in rural areas as they are based on local norms and needs. Co-operation in a more formal sense can emerge from such experiences of informal co-operation; it can rarely generate this experience. Therefore, in the environment of expanding markets and diminishing states, what is required is 'assisted self help groups' which represents a pump priming approach to mobilising local resources in a positive way with external funds and technical assistance offered on acceptable matching basis.

Certain pointers to promote SHGs are furnished below:

1. Helping SHGs through formal agencies
2. Building up of developmental linkages through legal recognition of SHGs
3. Devising mechanisms of helping them without imposing negative external effects

4.   Identifying measures to sustain the SHGs in the absence of promoting institutions.

GROUP DYNAMICS

The functioning of group is considered as "dynamic" and not "static" and hence this field has been given more importance in the recent times and hence much emphasis is placed on group approaches, community approaches, group structure and group process. Kurt Lewin introduced the term 'Group dynamics'. The person who specialises in the field of Group dynamics is designated as 'Group dynamicist'. The contents for the Group dynamics are actually derived from the subject areas of Sociology, Psychology and Social Psychology.

The knowledge about the various issues related to Group dynamics would be more useful for management studies. For perfecting the role performance of supervisors/managers in any organisation, one has to acquaint with the conceptual bases underlining Group dynamics . Group dynamics places emphasis upon interpersonal relations ie., social interaction of individuals in group and among the different groups.

The word 'dynamics' comes from Greek word, 'dynamics' meaning "force". Hence, Group dynamics refers to the study of forces operating within a group (Keith Davis, 1978).

The behaviour of the individual influences the behaviour of the other individuals in the group and conversely the behaviour of the other individuals influences the behaviour of the given individual. This is group dynamics. Group dynamics indicates the adjustive changes, which are occurring in the group as a whole as a result of the changes which are occurring in any part of the group.

Group dynamics refers to the social process by which people interact face to face in small group.

The concept of 'Group dynamics' is viewed in the following manner :

1. Group dynamics is viewed from the perceptive of the internal nature of groups i.e., how they form and structured, the process and how they affect the individual members, the other groups and organisations.

2. Group dynamics describes how a group should be organised and conducted. Democratic leadership, member participation and overall co-operation are emphasised in this context as the three techniques to be adopted for the successful conduct of a group.

3. Group dynamics consists of a set of techniques viz., Role play, Brain storming, Buzz group, Group therapy, Sensitivity training, Transactional analysis etc., to bring out the desired change of behaviour among the group members.

Before actually getting into the details of the plausible hypotheses about 'Groups', it would be interesting to study the various kinds of definitions proposed by different authors which have certain underlying principles as core or theme issues to have a conception about the term 'Group'. They are detailed below citing the respective author(s) **i). Smith (1948)**

A social group may be defined as a unit consisting of a plural number of separate organisms to have a collective perception of their unity and who have the ability to act and/or are acting in an unitary manner towards their environment.

ii). Bales (1950)

A Group is defined as any number of persons engaged in interaction with one another in a single face to face meeting or a series of meeting in which each member receives some impressions or perceptions of each other members.

iii). Cattel (1951)

A Group is a collection of organisms in which the existence of all is necessary to the satisfaction of certain individual needs.

iv). Bonner (1959)

A Group refers to the people in interaction with one another and it is this interaction process that distinguishes the group from an aggregate

v). Bass (1960)

A Group is a collection of individuals whose existence as collection contributes in rewarding to the individual's needs.

vi). Mills (1967)

A small group is one in which the units composed of two or more persons who come into contact for a purpose and who consider the contact meaningful

vii). Mc David and Harari (1968)

A Group is an organised system of two or more individuals who are inter- related so that the system performs some function, has a standard set of role relationship among its members and has a set of norms that regulate the functions of the group and each of its members.

viii). Cartwright and Zander (1968)

A Group is a collection of individuals who have relations to one another that make them interdependent to some significant degree.

ix). Stephen P.Robbins (1976)

A Group consists of two or more people interacting and interdependent who come together to achieve particular goals.

x). Marvin E.Shaw (1977)

A Group has two or more persons who are interacting with one another in such manner that each person influences and is influenced by each other person.

Hypotheses about individuals and Groups :

The following plausible hypotheses and their implications about individuals and groups postulated by Marvin E.Shaw (1977) which have a bearing on Group dynamics need understanding by the extension professionals :

Hypothesis: I - The mere presence of others increases the motivation level of a performing individual.

Implication: The presence of others shall produce effects similar to those produced by increased motivation. The individual may not be of progressive in attitude, but the group can influence the individual i.e, the group can act as a motivational force to bring up the individual.

Hypothesis: II - Group judgements are superior to individual judgements on tasks that involve random error.

Implication: The average of several individual judgements is likely to be accurate as a group judgement. Group judgement is far better than individual judgement because the group can avoid errors, mistakes etc as the members have closer interactions.

Hypothesis: III - Groups usually produce more and better solutions to problems than do individuals working alone.

Implication: Groups should be utilised with accuracy when quality of the solution is the solution is the primary concern.

Hypothesis: IV - Groups usually require more time to complete a task than do individuals working alone especially when time is measured so objectively.

Implication: If one is concerned primarily on cost or efficiency, individuals are better than groups in the solution of problems.

Hypothesis: V - Groups learn faster than individuals

Implication: It bears important implications for teaching and learning activities. This leads to an assumption that group discussion or group interaction foster a faster learning.

Hypothesis: VI - Decisions made after group discussion are usually more risky than decisions made by average individuals.

Implication: Group members are venturesome in nature and hence the decisions by a group may be more risky. If the decisions are vested with individuals, he/she will think of all the related issues avoiding the possible risk factors and arrive at a decision

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SMALL GROUP TECHNIQUES

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Small group techniques are the means or methods used in-group situation to bring about group act. There are time-tested techniques like lecture, debate, forum, dialogue, symposium, brain storming, etc through which group actions may be accomplished.

I. Lecture

It is normally used in formal situations. It requires thorough preparation on the part of the person who delivers the lecture.

Dynamic characteristics of lecture method:

1. As an extremely formal technique, the lecture permits only one-way communication.
2. It allows for complete and detailed communication without no interruptions.
3. It is a very rapid method of conveying information to a group.
4. Control of audience is rigid since it is entirely in the hands of the speaker.
5. It is an abstract form of group interaction and hence calls for a high degree of competence from speakers and high level of audience co-operation.
6. Group members and leaders can put little control over content and approach.
7. It is difficult to measure the effect of speech on the group in an objective way.

Purposes:

1. To present information in a formal and direct manner.
2. To supply expert information on a particular topic.
3. To identify the problems / problem areas in a given situation.
4. To explore the facts of the problem.
5. To explore one or several solutions to a problem
6. To have additional reading.
7. To inspire the group.
8. To direct/entertain the group by using skilled/experienced people
9. To share the experience of another person.

How to use this method:

1. Have clearly in mind the objectives of the meeting and prepare the lecture accordingly.
2. Consider the other alternative means that may be used to accomplish the objective. It also depends on audience nature.

3. Provide a situation in which group members are physically comfortable.

4. Inform the speaker of the topic and make him to feel at ease in the speaking situation.

5. Avail the support of audio visual equipments.

How to organise subject matter:

1. **Chronological arrangement -** Introductory lectures, are amenable for this type of arrangement.

2. **Logical arrangement -** Step by step approach. The abstract subject may consist concepts and principles. The lecturer should process the information from simple ideas to complex ones.

3. **Structural arrangement -** The lecturer may start either from lower unit or higher unit in the approved hierarchy.

4. **Arrangement according to importance:** This is called psychological approach. The information may be presented by arranging the points according to their importance .

5. **Arrangement according to contrast:** Contrasting facts can be an effective way of learning and it leaves a strong impression about the good effects of a particular information.

How a lecture should be delivered:

1. Don't write the entire lecture and read out the contents.

2. Look at your audience from time to time to get a personal approach.

3. Don't follow a rigid type of lecture.

4. Avoid nervous type of lecturing.

Cautions:

1. Do not over use this method.

2. The lecture is inferior to symposium for bringing out the divergent views up on the subject.

3. It is not so effective in moving a group towards consensus or action.

4. It is inferior to panel discussion in order to bring about a resolution of differences of opinion among groups.

5. It is inferior to role play in getting group members to get the point of view of others in a controversial situation.

6. The major defect is that it is the easiest way out for the speaker who has formal responsibility for group meeting.

7. The technique demands high level of competence on the part of speakers.

8. The group should be a responsive one and should have urge to learn from the lecture

II. DIALOGUE

Dialogue is a discussion carried on in front of a group by two knowledgeable persons capable of thoughtful communicative discourse on specific subjects.

It is less formal than lecture or panel discussion and has many unique dynamics or advantages of its own.

Dynamic characteristics of dialogue:

1. It can be very informal and conversational.

2. It allows direct and easy communication of information and points of view.

3. It allows for mutual support and sharing of responsibility between two persons.

4. It allows for interpersonal stimulation.

5. It aids unskilled speakers in presenting their ideas.

6. It usually create great interest among other persons in the group.

7. It is simple in form and easy to plan and carry out.

8. It allows for clarification, logic validation and consistency as the discussion develops and permits expression of two points of views.

Purposes: This method may be chosen:

1. To present facts, opinions, views in an informal conversational manner.

2. To create interest in a subject.

3. To focus attention on an issue or problem.

4. To explore in detail different points of view or obtain agreement on different points of view.

5. To create a desire and motivation for reflective thinking.

6. To rapidly set a frame work for thought and discussion and give basic facts preparatory to general group discussion.

How to use this method:

1. Select a timely and significant topic with which at least 2 group members are familiar.
2. Select dialogue team members. They should be able to work in team, share leadership, guide conversation, interact, summarise and provide needed transition.

3. Decide on the person to introduce the dialogue and to take responsibility for answering questions after the dialogue and to lead the discussion.

Responsibilities of the participants in a dialogue:

The participants should

1. Arrange a meeting before the presentation at which an agreement should be reached on

   a) The frame work for discussion
   b) How the subject will be introduced and how the framework for discussion is set.
   c) Tentative timing for major points
   d) Responsibilities for summarising and integrating the points.

2. Arrange the physical setting so that all members can see, hear and feel the dialogue situation.

3. Fulfill the designated roles objectively and without over emotional involvement

4. Assist the chairman in clarifying questions and summarisation.

Cautions:

1. The topic should be one in which the group is interested.

2. Keep the discussion at a level that can be understood by the group.

3. Do not develop the discussion too rapidly.

4. Avoid making speeches; and reading written materials.

5. Share the responsibility; if not the dialogue may end up as interview or a series of lengthy speeches.

6. Although the major interaction is between the dialogue participants, they should not get so enamoured with each other and their ideas that they may forget they must communicate to the other group members.

III. SYMPOSIUM

Symposium is a group of talks, speeches or lectures presented by several individuals on various phases of a single subject problem. The identified problem must have effective components amenable for the sessions.

A moderator often controls time and subject matter. Properly used, the talk should not exceed 20 minutes and the total time should not exceed one hour. In a symposium, the audience may or may not participate.

Dynamic characteristics of symposium:

1. Symposium is relatively a formal method and comparatively easy to organise.
2. It allows for systematic and relatively complete expression of ideas in an uninterrupted fashion.
3. Complex subject problems may readily be divided into logical component parts.
4. Structuring of presentation is obtained by pre-symposium agreement among participants.
5. There should be a minimum of duplication and time allotment should lead to precise and logical presentation
6. Control of subject and time can be done by pre-agreement
7. There is a minimum interaction between the participants.

Purposes: This method may be chosen

1. To present basic information ie., facts or points of view of a particular subject problem
2. To present a relatively complete and systematic expression of ideas without interruption.
a) to break down a relatively complex problem on the basis of
b) its logical component parts
c) different points of view (or) special interests
3. Alternatively proposed solutions and their consequences
4. To bring together and focus different points of view within a logical, more generalised frame work or content.

Symposium has a moderator/chairman and speakers

Duties of Moderator / Chairman: -

1. He should meet the symposium speakers well before the meeting and secure agreement on logical arrangement

2. Outline the areas to be covered and get an agreement on sequence and time allowances

3. He should meet them immediately before the meeting to review the above points

4. At the meeting, he should give the general setting of the problem and point out its significance, describe the sequence of each speaker and set out the atmosphere for listening and thinking by the group.

5. Inform the group of the procedure to be followed including the role of speakers and role of the group during and after the symposium.

6. Introduce each speakers in detail as his turn comes and establish the qualification of speakers to speak on the subject. This makes an impression over the audience.

7. Perform additional functions depending on what procedure has been set up to follow including summarising or follow up techniques such as

   a) give each speaker a specific time for a short statement of clarification

   b) allow each speaker to ask a few questions of any of the other speakers.

   c) Involve the audience in direct questioning from the floor.

Duties of speakers:

1. They should attend the "planning meetings" organized by the moderator.

2. They should prepare concise well organised presentations that can be given within the time allotted.

3. Present the prepared material clearly and concisely in the allotted time.

Cautions:

1. Care must be taken in choosing the subject and breaking it into meaningful and manageable component parts.

2. Careful selection is important in naming the moderator and the speakers.

3. Unbiased members who can approach the subject logically and present it without over emotional involvement should be selected.

4. The moderator is just not a speech maker but interpreter of speeches in the right time. He should be able to treat it properly.

5. In planning, limit the time of speeches and set a method for enforcing the time limitations.

6. While logical, precise presentations are the key to good symposium, the intent of the larger group must be stimulated and maintained if the symposium is to fulfill it objective.

III. Debate

Debate is a series of lectures for and against on a given topic by knowledgeable persons. The normal pattern is to have two teams on affirmative and negative side of the issue. The number of persons on both the sides should be equal. Each team will have a leader supported by his team members and there will be a chairman or moderator who presides over the discussion.

Dynamic characteristics of Debate:

1. It can be easily organised at short notice.

2. It helps to attract the attention of audience and hold it to the end.

3. Topics with reference to felt needs may be identified so as to enthuse the audience throughout the debate.

4. Audience are instigated to think seriously and analyse by the proceedings of the debate.

5. The range of the topic as well as the time can be prefixed on agreement.

6. It enables the participants to have a complete and unreserved expression of their ideas.

Purposes: This method is useful when

1. Topics of controversial nature is dealt with.

2. Formality of presentation is not an impediment to the group's listening and understanding.

3. When the group needs to be exposed to the pros and cons of the topic or decision.

4. When the participants have the capacity to present their side in a meaningful and interesting manner.

5. When there is a necessity to communicate different points of view in a larger group where total involvement is not possible.

6. Group members have only low level participation so as to stimulate their thought and action.

7. There is favourable atmosphere in the group to accept ideas presented by logical arguments of the participants.

Duties of the Moderator / Chairman:

1. The chairman should meet the participants and get the sequence of appearance and time allowances.

2. Inform the group of the procedure to be followed including the role of the participants and the group.

3. The chairman should introduce the leaders and participants to establish their competence on the topic identified.

4. After the delivery of speech by each participant the chairman should give a summary drawing the attention of people on salient features covered.

5. Chairman should throw a friendly challenge to the next speaker to disprove the previous speaker's points thereby increasing the anxiety of group to listen more carefully over the issues to be covered.

6. He should make arrangements by intimating the time prescribed for each participant without exceeding the limit.

7. The chairman should deliver an unbiased judgment, which should be logically acceptable, however, appreciating the laudable points of the conquered side also.

Tips for preparation of a good Debate:

1. A good and interesting introduction. It may start with a story, good joke, a striking statement or citation, strong questions, etc relevant to the topic.

2. Give live examples to make the speech interesting

3. Include the details which are specific, familiar, unusual, humorous and controversial so that the debate is charged with vitality.

4. Initiate efforts to refer to the negative sides of the previous speaker and assist your points of view with reliable facts and examples.

5. Be sincere, courageous and express your views on support of your side without hesitation in a strong and persuasive manner

6. End up with impressive conclusion made up of the formal summary and a direct appeal to look the audience to your side within the allotted time.

Cautions:

1. The range of subject should not be out of the purview of and interest of the group.

2. Emotional debate may become highly antagonistic and lead to conflict between groups.

3. Motive to win a debate may lead to distortion of information leading to ignoring the primary need of the audience.

4. It is useful only under certain purposes and under certain conditions.

5. The moderator and participants should be knowledgeable and should not be over enthusiastic and carried away by emotions.

V. PANEL DISCUSSION

A group of speaker's usually 2-8 participants as panelist in a supposedly informal conversation on a topic for the benefit of listeners constitute the panel discussion.

It may be described as an informal committee discussion overheard by an audience. The form of discussion is conversational (i.e.) no speeches by members or by moderator should be permitted. A leader as a moderator or chairman introduces the speakers to the audience and encourages less talkative by administering effective questions.

Types of panel discussion:

i) Chairman - member panel:

This is also otherwise called Question - Answer panel. The presentation of the panel is actually a series of questions by the chairman and answers by the members of the panel.

ii) Set - speech panel

This is the pre-arranged panel. After the chairman introduces the topic, each one makes a prepared speech. When the last member made the speech, the panel is turned into a forum.

iii) Conversational Panel

After the members are introduced and topics communicated, the panel members hold a conversation on the topic with the questions and comments going from one member to another. From time to time, the chairman may throw out the questions or remarks to help the conversation.

Dynamic characteristics:

1. The atmosphere of the panel discussion may be informal or at times formal also.

2. It can expose and focus on different points of view, facts, attitudes and a subject problem.

3. It allows for maximum interaction and inter-stimulation between panel members.

4. It often increases the interest of the audience with the specific subject because of active and dramatic presentation of subject matter.

5. It is a useful method of defining points of agreement, areas of disagreement and of approaching consensus.

6. It divides responsibility among the panel members by arranging prior meetings

PURPOSES: This method might be chosen

1. To increase an informal atmosphere for communication in the group

2. To identify the problems and issues to be considered and to explore them

3. To give the audience an understanding of the component parts of the problem

4. To get different facts and points of view brought into a discussion framework

5. To weight the advantages and disadvantages of the course of action

6. To motivate the larger group for the constructive thought and the action

7. To determine the areas of agreement and discuss the issue - bases and strive for consensus

8. To force a group for enabling them to join in the problem- sowing process

Components of panel discussion

1. Chairman / Moderator

2. Panel members

3. Audience/Group members

Role Expectations of

a. Chairman

1. The chairman should select the panel members with utmost care.

2. The chairman should identify the people who are interested in the problem, have facts and opinions, represent different views and he/she must have had the required experiences.

3. The chairman should plan the meeting and should do the required physical arrangements.

4. The chairman should introduce the panel members to the audience.

5. The chairman should open the discussion with a relevant statement that will immediately focus the attention of the audience.

6. The chairman should ask the reflective thought provoking questions.

7. The chairman should probe for points of disagreement for leading the discussion.

8. The Chairman should present an effective summary that may lead for action.

Panel members

1. The panel members should prepare material and organise thoughts so cogently

2. The panel member should set an example of careful, reflective and rational thinking.

3. They should listen thoughtfully to the comments of other members and strive to get new points.

4. The panel members should watch for a right moment or occasion to present his/her view points.

5. The panel members should keep the atmosphere informal and conversational.

6. The panel members should contribute to the discussion by respecting other's views.

C. Group members

1. The group should have clear in mind the objectives of the meeting

2. The group should make sure that the topic selected be timely and significant.

3. The group can also play an effective role by selecting the chairman moderator who is unbiased, who can think rapidly and who effect reflective questions and finally summarise well.

Cautions

1. The success of this technique depends on the moderator and the panel members.

2. The discussion must not be monopolised and by one or two members.

3. The planning is an absolute necessity for the successful performance of this technique.

4. Allow enough time. Panels shorter than 30 minutes may not be a successful one.

5. The panel discussion should be concluded while the general interest of the group is high.

VI. ROLE PLAY

Learner involvement is a critical factor in successful teaching. People learn more effectively not by being taught in conventional way but a in participating mode. Role play encourages active involvement of learners. It combines effective learning with an enjoyable experience.

Basic descriptions

1. Participants act out a situation involving human interaction

2. Participants act freely rather than from a script.

3. There will be observers who do not portray any roles.

4. Feedback is provided through follow - up discussion.

Steps in conducting role play
1. **Prepare the class/settings for the experience by familiarising them with a problem situation they can relate to.**

2. **Discuss the situation and help the class to see the nature of the problem.**

3. Orient the class on role playing technique and define their roles.

4. Request for voluntary participation and select persons for the roles.

5. Give the participants a short preparation time.

6. Prepare the observers to the subject area, nature of problem/issue and the current happenings.

7. Execute the role play in the identified place

8. Conduct a follow up discussion involving both participants and observers.

9. Repeat the role play if class is still interesting.

Outcomes of role play

1. It provides opportunity to examine various roles in situations that speaks of reality

2. It gives insight into the roles a person who plays in real life and how effectively one plays those roles.

3. It illustrates principles related to the subject matter.

4. It expands participants empathy

5. It demonstrates in advance how students trainees would probably react under some real situations.

VII. BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a specialised form of discussion method that can be used in a training situation. It is potentially an active teaching mode but its efficiency depends on what we do and skill of the participants in arranging and conducting it. Brainstorming refers to the rapid generation of ideas, initially not critical and evaluated about a topic or concern in a given period. The poured in information is later sorted, synthesised and discussed. It helps to identify problems.

Many trainers believe that brainstorming means a random and unstructured way of generating ideas and solutions. This is far from the truth. Brainstorming is certainly not a straightforward method of decision - making or problem solving. At the heart of this method is the principle that as ideas or solutions are proposed, comments and evaluation are suspended until the time this step is completed and the group is ready to move on to the next step of analysis. It is also based on the premise that it is not good to shoot down an idea or proposal without properly considering its merits and demerits in an unbiased manner. Another posit on which this method is based is the principle of synergy. It is possible to generate more ideas collectively than the sum of the ideas that would be produced individually.

i) Objectives of the method

In the context of a training programme, this method may have any of the following objectives:

1) Generating a wide range of solutions or options in solving a problem, addressing an issue/situation or in taking a decision, thus stimulating creativity in the group.

2) Developing a positive attitude among the participants by encouraging them to listen carefully to others, suspend judgement and outright rejection of their ideas, and refrain from negative comments without going into their merits and demerits.

3) Encouraging shy and reluctant participants to share their ideas and views without the fear of getting an immediate negative reaction from other colleagues. The members can become open about their thoughts and viewpoints.

4) Promoting attitudes that will help the participants work more effectively in groups.

ii) Steps in Organising a Brainstorming Session

Learning in this exercise occurs because participants discipline their inputs to the discussion. Control occurs through instructions and through the discussion leader. The following are the steps in organising the session :

a) Generation of ideas

The starting point is to generate a large number of ideas within a short span of time. Thus, there is a comparatively greater emphasis on quantity and encouraging members to think and be creative in generating new ideas, proposals or options. Quality or merit is assessed later lest it should inhibit or even stifle the process of generation of ideas. It is the task of the discussion leader to ensure that this basic principle is not violated. No discussion should be permitted, except to clarify a thought or statement. It is likely that some of the ideas put forward by the members may be totally outlandish. But sometimes a sound solution may emerge from proposals that, at the outset, may appear to be impractical or inappropriate. These ideas may be further worked upon by the group and refined to make them more relevant, in line with the criteria set out by the group and acceptable to it.

b) Amending ideas

The discussion leader can intervene if the ideas expressed need to be amended through elaboration, editing or consolidation. He / She also has the task to assist those who are not in a position to appropriately articulate their views. If certain ideas are repeated, the

discussion leader can bring this to the attention of the participant and ask for another option. The leader should, however, avoid any analysis at this stage. The leader should also ensure that ideas expressed earlier should not be opposed or repudiated.

c) Posting all the ideas on a Flip chart

It will be helpful to post all the ideas generated through this exercise on a flip chart. This will reinforce the contributions of those that have contributed earlier and serve as a point of reference and an encouragement for those who follow.

d) Analysing ideas

Once all the ideas are posted, the discussion leader should proceed to analyse them, going in chronological order. It is necessary that until this step, the discussion leader should make it clear that judgement is suspended and the merits and demerits are not expressed. The analysis takes place in light of the objectives of the exercise and the criteria set by the group. All factors, which could have any bearing on the final decision of the group, should be duly considered.

e) Action Planning

The group is now ready to plan action on the basis of the decision arrived at through consensus and at this stage it outlines steps to implement the decision.

Opinion leadership :

Opinion leadership is the degree to which an individual is able to influence informally other individuals' attitudes or overt behaviour in a desired way with relative frequency.

There are two categories of opinion leaders :

1. Polymorphism

It is the degree to which an individual acts as an opinion leader for a variety of topics.

2. Monomorphism

It is the tendency for an individual to act as an opinion leader for only a single topic.

Generalizations about the characteristics of opinion leaders (Rogers, 1983) :

1.   Opinion leaders have -

a)   greater exposure to mass media

b)   greater change agent contact

c)   greater social participation

d)   higher socio-economic status

2.   Opinion leaders are more cosmoploite and more innovative

3.   When a social system's norms favor change, opinion leaders are more innovative; but when the norms do not favour change, opinion leaders are not especially innovative.

LEADERSHIP IDENTIFICATION USING PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL(PRA) TECHNIQUES

Properly identified leaders would perform the leadership roles efficiently and hence they may serve as "second-line change agents". Hence, proper and scientific means of identifying them becomes imperative. This initial phase may be considered as a pre-condition because the rightly identified individuals as leaders would alone contribute for the better performance of any development strategy.

The methodologies experimented across the countries which rely more on "participatory mode" as illustrated in the Gate Keeper Series of International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), London have been noted to elucidate the conceptual bases of such techniques. Besides these, the traditional methods such as Sociometry, workshop method, self-designating techniques etc., have also been covered to present the information holistically.

1. Sociogram

It is a diagram consisting of circles representing persons in a group, with lines drawn indicating which people choose (accept) each other and which people did not choose (reject) each other.

2. Sociometry

It is a technique for describing social relationship that exist between individuals in a group. It attempts to describe attraction or repulsion between individuals by asking them to indicate whom they would choose or reject in various situations.

This is concerned primarily with obtaining choices on interpersonal relations, such as with whom one would like to work, play, etc., or to whom one would go for advice on farming or other problems. It attempts to describe social phenomena in quantitative terms. It may be used in selecting both professional and lay leaders, but a greater use of it is made in the latter case.

It is necessary that the persons involved in a sociometric test know one another. It is also to be emphasised that the grouping of individuals upon the basis of sociometric tests is in terms of choices relative to specific situations. The tests are not designed to measure a vague factor called popularity. In a sense, the persons chosen by several others popular, but it is popularity or acceptance in terms of specific activities. Sociograms for the same individuals will mainfest differences when the choices are in relation to different activities.

This method is very useful to the Extension Workers in finding out the 'natural' or 'local' or 'informal' leaders in the villages, who are the influential persons that help in the introduction and popularisation of new improved practices in their communities or neighbourhoods. An extension worker goes into a given area and asks the farmers to indicate whom they ordinarily consult for advice on farming in which the extension worker wants to introduce some improvement. Usually after a few interviews, it becomes apparent which farmer is the influential person or 'natural' leader.

3. The Workshop Method

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

4. Key Informants

In a community may be asked to indicate opinion leaders in that area. This is cost - saving and time saving when compared to the sociometric methods.

5. The Self-designating Technique

It consists of asking a respondent a series of questions to determine the degree to which he perceives himself to be an opinion leader. The success of this method depends upon the frankness of a person to express his true feelings.

Innovative methods of leader selection

The present era in the field of extension emphasises much on 'Participation". It has been realised that whatever is to be implemented for people are to be formulated by them only. The external agency can only play the role of facilitator. So it is time for paradigm shift in leader selection methods also. Participatory methods will indeed hold good in the process of leader selection. Because, through participatory methods it is people's leader, on whom they believe, comes up as leader.

The compendium of participatory technique with the proven track record also includes techniques for leader selection also. As such, as there is no separate and exclusive techniques available under PRA for leader selection. But there are many a methods which the facilitator can very well use for leader identification. During the use of these methods, either the natural leader will rise and the facilitator will get enough information which can lead him to identify the leader.

The methods/techniques are detailed below :

1. Direct observation

The facilitator should keep a keen eye on the gathered group throughout the process. It is sure that the natural/opinion leader will make him self-prominent unknowingly or knowingly by means of his inherent leadership qualities.

This method will especially come to aid when group works are given. By observation the facilitator can find person who will dominate in the group. He will also come forward to represent the ideas and expressions of the group. Such persons will very well be the opinion

leaders of the village and hence can be absorbed into the extension activity as a mediator of change agency.

2. Oral History

The process of oral history is nothing but a detailed and informal discussion with elders and resource persons of the village. This is one of the most informative methods. During this process, a comprehensive picture of the village will come to fore, including the existing patterns of leadership.

The very objective of this process is to understand the community's history, attitudes, values etc., on a time line. Naturally during the process the persons who are in the forefront will be highlighted and thus gets projected as the opinion leaders.

This tool can be practised with just a tape recorder in 1-3 hours. The community elders are to be contacted, preferably during the evening hours when they are free and in a relaxed mood. A slow and meaningful conversation should be developed leading to the revelation of the needed information.

3. Rating scales

It is a method which is most specific in its orientation towards leadership, More than a method to find the leaders, it is rather one to measure their efficiency. Here, the leaders are represented in the public and their efficiency in terms of popularity is measured by correlating them to series of stars (any structure) arranged in descending order of their size.

The operationalisation of this tool takes 1-2 hours with community members as the audience. Three to five big stars/ convenient materials that can represent a continuum and cards showing the leaders are required.

The stars are to be placed on the ground. The cards which depict the leaders are to be shown. A discussion is to be initiated on the leadership efficiency of the person. A consensus reached and the picture placed under appropriate star which indicate his comparative efficiency.

The best advantage of this method is that it is so simple and accurate. Any symbolic pictorial scales can be used. Hence it aids in bringing out exact and needed information even from illiterates.

4. Understanding decision making process

This is also a method for identifying and evaluating leaders in addition it will encourage and stimulate the community to understand the decision making process. Here also the leaders depicted in terms of cards which are evaluated in terms of different activities.

This method is a quick one as it is completed in 1-1½ hours. Hence 'large cards' depicting the leaders are displayed and 'smaller cards' showing different activities are passed out to the gathered community members. A discussion is developed to reach a consensus as to which leader is most efficient for each activity.

5. Women's Confidence Method

This carves a niche for itself as it is a "self designating method". This method is extremely useful to bring out the women leadership in the village. Here, the principle used is that the person with highest degree of self confidence will raise above others to establish her views and ideas.

This method will take only 30-45 minutes to bring out the hidden women leaders. Here the cards showing various degree of confidence like, "a shy woman", "a woman who just participates", "a bold woman who expresses her feelings in the public" are put on display and gathered members are asked to vote on pictures which reflect their own. This process is repeated for different qualities. Finally the woman who is having inborn leadership qualities will unknowingly project herself as the leader.

6. Open-ended snakes and ladder method

It is a curious at the same time funny method. It is one of those indirect methods as it helps the facilitator to identify leader during the process through observation.

The underlying principle of this method is that leader will be the most knowledgeable person. The actual aim of this method is to analyse the level of knowledge of the community on a particular aspects. During the process, the most knowledgeable person of the group will

take control of the group and will bring forth the ideas by creating a consensus in the group. So, naturally as the game proceeds the cognizant person will raise to the occasion and he can be selected as a leader.

The basic purpose of this method is to identify leaders through observation and to assist communities and health workers in analyzing the level of local health information and whether health education programme are effective. This process will tentatively take 1-2 hours to complete. The audience are primarily community members but this tool can also be usefully adopted for trainers, project staff and field workers.

Large chart of snake and ladders with no directions on it has to be preferred. Dice, pebbles or other markers are to be used as game pieces. At least twenty culturally appropriate cards showing health and unhealthy hygiene practices may be kept ready. Cards can include washing hands, visiting health clinic, using a latrine, using a well, flies on food, dumping garbage sweeping etc. Each card must fit within the size of the squares on the snakes and ladders chart.

Snakes and ladders can be played either by teams or individually. Players who land on snakes go to the bottom of the snake; players who land on ladders rise to the top of the ladder. The object of the game is to reach the top of the chart first. The game generates excitement as well as learning as teams coach their dice roller on which card to pick.

This can be conducted with children and adults; rules can be varied and made more or less complex. Participants can be encouraged to make their own rules. This exercise can be conducted in the following way :

Place the chart of snakes and ladders on a table or on the ground visible and accessible to all participants. Place all the cards outside the board and divide the participants into two groups. Just as in the regular snakes and ladders game, this game is played with the role of a dice. The difference comes when a team lands on a square. As the dice is rolled, move the appropriate spaces along the board. When a team lands on the head of a snake, the team has to correctly identify a card depicting an unhealthy practice to avoid going down the snake. If a team lands at the bottom of a ladder, the team has to identify a healthy practice

before it can climb the ladder. Because the game involves an active choice or selection of a card, it is no longer merely a game of chance or receiving health message with time. People arrange cards and add new cards as appropriate.

7. Sequence interviews

It is a chain of interview conducted at a stretch taking lead from one interview to conduct other. During this process, leader is identified by series of enquiries leading to the opinion leader in a process similar that of sociometry.

8. Local Researchers and Village analysts

It is a participatory incarnation of "key information method". Here the knowledgeable persons in the village who critically analyse the village situation and develops their own ideas and views about the happenings. This is very easy as the person will be coming forward voluntarily to help the researcher during PRA process and these persons can very well be used as pointers to the village opinion leader.

9. Key probes

It is a variant of the methods described previously here. The researcher puts forth precise questions so as to bring desired answers. It is the quickest of all the method but may not be able to provide sufficient information.

Participation is heart and soul of the extension process. It is the most effective to bring out the local leaders as it is not the researcher who finds out the leader but the people who pushes forth their leader. As we can rightly put it, it is the development of the people through participation by the people through operations by the facilitators. The development efforts may be reshaped in the appropriate lines when executed with the active participation of properly identified leaders through the proven techniques.

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AS APPLIED TO EXTENSION EDUCATION

Educational Psychology

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

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

Psychology explains the how of human development as related to learning; education attempts to provide what of learning; educational psychology is concerned with the why and when of learning.

Educational Psychology

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

1. The extent to which the factors of heredity and environment contribute to learning.

2. The nature of the learning process.

3. The educational significances of individual differences in rate and limit of learning.

4. The inner change that occur during learning.

5. The relation of teaching procedures to learning outcomes.

6. The most effective techniques for evaluating progress in learning.

7. The relative effect upon an individual of formal learning as compared with incidental or informal learning experiences.

8. To value the scientific attitude towards education and

9. The psychological impact upon learners' attitude of sociological conditions.

Educational Psychology in Extension Education

1. Educational psychology studies the limitations and qualities of individuals-physical capacity, intelligence, aptitude, interests, etc. which play a major role in one's learning.

2. It helps in improving teaching and learning. This branch helps in formulating training programmes for improving the skill of teachers and methods for organising good learning situations.

3. It helps have better education through evolution of syllabi for different level of education, preparation of different text books, development of examination patterns, etc.

4. It attempts to discover the source of knowledge, belief, customs and to trace the development of thinking and reasoning so as to find the kind of environmental stimulation that produces certain type of activity.

5. It will help extension workers to find causes of prejudices, the habit of sticking to old practices and ways of doing things, the doubts and lack of confidence and factors affecting motivation.

6. It also helps them to know the emotions and feelings of farmers, how villagers or farmers learn new practices and what type of approaches be adopted and teaching aids be used.

Social Psychology

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

i)   When one individual meets another individual, there is reaction. Each individual affects the other individual with whom he comes into contact and do they affect in turn

ii)   Individual may be reacting to group

iii) As a counterpart of the above situation there will be reaction of a group of individuals to a single individual

iv)   There is reaction of one group of individuals to another group of individuals.

Social psychology studies the characteristics of all these four forms of social behaviour. Social psychology studies the individual and not the group itself in relation to his fellow men.

Definition of Social Psychology

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

Social psychology in Extension Education

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

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

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

From the above description, it can be realised that this discipline is the borderland between the two branches of knowledge - sociology and psychology.

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

In order to make the readers to realise, understand and appreciate the application of certain concepts to the field of Extension Education, such important concepts are identified and elaborated in the succeeding pages:

HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

Behaviour

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

Psychology studies mental behaviour. All activities or behaviour patterns could be fitted into stimulus - response mechanism.

Basic principles of behaviour

Sensations

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

Examples: Visual sensation - related to eyes

Auditory sensation - related to ears.

ATTENTION AND PERCEPTION

Attention

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

Shifting of attention

Attention shifts from one thing to another very rapidly. We can attend to a thing continuously for a few seconds. Continuous attention means continuity with plenty of shifting. Now and then attention will be diverted but will be immediately brought back. The eyes do not steadily gaze at anything for any length of time beyond a few seconds. Such shifts occur mostly because of the fatigue affecting the sense receptors. Shifting of attention is also referred to as fluctuation of attention.

Span of attention

Span of attention means how many letters or digits that we can see at a single glance. How many figures or letters can one notice in one act of attention? This can be determined by the use of an apparatus called the **'Tachistoscope'.** There are individual differences but usually 4 or 5 numbers or letters can be attended to at a single glance. The registration plate of a motor car contains usually only for 4 figures. Serial numbering will go up to 9999, but not 10,000. This is because when a car runs fast the traffic constable will not ordinarily be able to take note of more than 4 numbers.

Perception

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

Characteristics of perception

1. *Perception shifts***:** Just like attention perception also shifts. As we attend to one part of the stimulus we perceive that part and then as attention passes on to another part we perceive that part.

2. *Perception is a grouping and combining response***:** We put several stimuli together and make a joint response to it. When we perceive the face of a friend there are several stimuli coming to us from different parts of his face eyes, ears, nose etc. We put them all together and understand it as a totality.

3. *Figure has advantage over background in perception***:** There are no gaps in nature and the human mind also hates gaps. It tends to fill in gaps and perceive things as having a definite form.

4. *Perception is an isolating response***:** We perceive the thing we select for out attention and do not perceive the things that are not attended to.

5. Perception follows the '*Law of Reduced cues'***:** Applied to perception, the law of reduced cues means that as we become more and more acquainted with an object, the signs by which we can perceive it become less and less till at last, a fraction of the original sign is enough for us to recognise that object.

Determinants of perception

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

1. ***The sense organs*:** Perception depends upon sense impression and upon the number, structure and function of the available sense organs. For example, if colours are not developed in the retina there cannot be perception of colour. Similarly absence of certain taste buds will lime one's taste perception.

2. ***Brain function*:** Perception depends on the nature of the brain function. This gives us various frames of reference against which perception is made. Certain relations such as bigger and smaller, lighter and heavier, above and below etc., are all perceived because of the function of the brain.

3. ***Past experience*:** Perception also depends on one's past experience. The few light sensations that come from a ship are interpreted as a ship because of our past experience. We are able to supplement a number of characteristics that are not sensed at the particular moment. Past experience may also influence perception in the form of creating various kinds of prejudices and assumptions regarding the object perceived.

4. ***Set or attitude*:** Perception also depends very much on one's set or attitude. This is the subjective conditions.

5. ***Organic conditions*:** One's organic condition will also influence his perception. The individual who is starving from hunger will easily perceive the stable objects. One's motive also determines his perception.

Errors of perception

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

a. Illusions

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

b. Hallucinations

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

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

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

TEACHING - LEARNING PROCESS

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

ATTENTION

INTEREST

DESIRE

CONVICTION

ACTION

SATISFACTION

Attention

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

Interest

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

Desire

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

Conviction

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

Action

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

Satisfaction

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

The above six steps are often blended in with each other and lose their clear cut identity.

Principles of Teaching

i)   The learner should subscribe to and understand the purpose of the course.

ii)   The student should want to learn.

iii)   The teacher should keep friendly and informal relationship with learner.

iv)   The physical condition should be favourable and appropriate to the learning.

v)   The teacher should involve the learners so that they participate and accept some responsibility for the learning process.

vi)   The teacher should make use of the learner's experiences.

vii)   The teacher should prepare well for the class, should keep his teaching aids handy and should be enthusiastic about teaching it.

viii) The method of instruction should be varied and appropriate.

ix) The teacher should change his notes with the availability of new knowledge on the topic of subject.

Learning

Definition

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

"Learning is the process of progressive behaviour adaptation."

Learning Experience

Definition

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

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

Learning Situation

Definition

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

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

SIMPLE MODEL OF THE TRAINING PROCESS.

| INDEPENDENT VARIABLES | INTERVENING VARIABLE | DEPENDENT VARIABLE |

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

I.   Instructor Should

a)   Have clear objective.

b)   Know the subject matter and have it well organized.

c)   Be enthusiastic and interested in the subject.

d)   Be able to communicate with learners.

e)   Be democratic in his leadership.

f)   Allow student participation, ask for it.

g)   Be prepared, be prompt, be friendly, be courteous.

h)   Use a teaching plan.

i)   Speak so that all can hear.

j)   Set a good example of a good leader and teacher.

k)   Be skilled in the use of teaching materials and equipments.

2.   Learner should

a)   Have need for information.

b)   Be interested

c)   Be capable of learning.

d)   Use the information gained.

3.   Subject Matter or Content

a)   Pertinent to learner's needs.

b)   Applicable to real life situations.

c)   Taught at intellectual level of learners.

d)   Well organised and logically presented.

e)   Presented clearly.

f)   Challenging, satisfying and significant to the learners.

g)   Fits into overall objectives.

4.   Physical Facilities

a)   Free from outside distractions.

b)   Temperature as comfortable as possible.

c)   Well lighted.

d)   Adequate space for the group.

e)   Furniture comfortable and well-arranged.

5.   Teaching equipment and supplies

a)   Meet the needs of effectivity.

b)   Readily available.

c)   Each item used skillfully.

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

Transfer of training

One of the problems in the psychology that has been experimentally studied is the possibility of the skill attained in learning one task, helping the learning of another task. Mastering one skill may make it easier to learn another, one influences the other. This influence may be of two kinds. It may be positive in that the first learning process facilities the second one. It may negative, in as much as one learning activity may interfere with subsequent learning activity and retard the progress of the later. The negative transfer is commonly called 'habit interference'.

Many experiments have shown that what is actually transferred is the technique of dealing with the problem; it is actually an application of a principle already learned to new situations.

PERSONALITY

Concept of Personality

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

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

1. Material self (his body, clothes, family property etc.)

2. Social self (his home, club, office, church etc.)

3. Spiritual self (his ability to argue and discriminate, consciousness, moral sensitivities.

Definition for the term "Personality"

Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment.

Personality Traits

Traits may be regarded as a dimension of personality. For example, dominance-submission is a trait that a person may show in any degree. A trait is a description of human behaviour. The traits of a person describe his personality. One's traits and the ways they are patterned make his different from other persons. In identifying a defining traits, psychology has made considerable progress toward a specific and objective understanding of personality.

Personality is unique. This uniqueness is the result of the difference in the traits of different individuals and in the dynamic organisation of the traits. Some of the traits are ascendant, cheerful-glommy, friendly-hostile etc.

Personality Types

Introverts will react negatively to situations, withdraw from the society, inwardly, selective. The introvert withdraws from the active participation in the objective world and he is interested in his inner world of thought and fantasy. He will not move freely with others. He will not express out his feelings and inner desires. He is sensitive to criticism, magnifies his failures and occupied with self-criticism.

Extroverts are opposite to introverts. Extroverts react positively and outwardly expressive. An extrovert is supposed to be thick skinned and relatively sensitive to criticism, spontaneous in his emotional expression, impersonal in argument, neither deeply affected by failures nor much occupied with self analysis of self-criticism.

Motivation

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

Needs which motivate Human Beings

i) Organic needs or physiological motives

Man is constructed in such a way that he requires certain things in order that he may keep living. He is also so constituted that these needs initiate activity that will eventually satisfy them. These are all basic organic needs which demand periodic or continued satisfaction. These needs are called appetites.

Examples: breathing air; appetite of thirst, appetite for sleep or rest etc.

ii) Wants

People have unique personal wants.

Examples: Likes and dislikes for specific food; play etc.,

iii) Emotions as motives

Under the influence of fear, anger etc., people may do many things that they would not do normally.

Examples: Parents use fear to direct the behaviour of children. Organisations use fear to produce a desired form of behaviour.

iv) Feelings and attitudes as motives

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

v) Social motives

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

vi) Others

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

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

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

Functions of motivation

i) Motives encourage a learner in his learning activities.

 (E.g.) Prizes, Medals

ii) Motives act as selectors of the type of activity in while the person desire to engage.

  (E.g.) Selection of courses

iii) Motives direct and regulate behaviour.

  (E.g.) Discipline in school etc.

Significance of motivation

Motivation is concerned with the arousal of interest in learning. This forms the basis for learning. Therefore, the teacher has to find the right type of stimuli in the individuals that

will produce satisfaction in order that the interest of the learner shall be maintained long enough to master definite ideas or subject matter.

Value aspects of motivations

a) Intrinsic values : These are what a learner does for the sake of engaging in the activity itself. This is to be desired in learning and is more immediate.

b) Extrinsic values : These are when an incentive or goal is artificially introduced into a situation to cause it to accelerate activity.

Techniques of motivation

1) Need based approach

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

2) Training to set a realistic level of aspirations

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

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

 3) Participation

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

4) Use of audio visuals

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

Classification of Needs

i). The desire for security : Economic, social, psychological and spiritual security. Man wants protection for his physical being food, clothing and shelter. It may also mean an adequate reserve of wealth to secure more material things in the future. The wish for security

may also be satisfied by spiritual beliefs. In fact, in history whole cultures have put emphasis on security.

ii). The desire for affection or response : Companionship gregariousness, and social mindedness, the need for a feeling of belonging.

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

iv). The desire for new experience : adventure, new interests, new ideas, new friends and new ways of doing things. Some people primarily want the thrill of something new, something different.

v. Organic needs : Organic needs like sex, hunger and thirstiness are also very important for human beings.

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

Importance of motivation in Extension

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

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

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

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

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

ATTITUDE

Attitudes are important determinants of behaviour. If we are to change the people, we must change the emotional components. **Attitude i**s a mental and neutral state of readiness organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects with which it is related.

Measuring attitudes

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

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

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

Attitude change

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

1. By obtaining new information from other people and mass media, resulting in changes in cognitive component of a person's attitudes.

2. Attitudes may change through direct experience.

3. Attitudes may change through legislation.

4. Since person's attitudes are anchored in his membership group and reference groups, one way to change the attitude is to modify one or the other.

5. Attitude change differs with reference to the situation also.

Educational Technology in Relation to Extension Education

Educational Technology

Technology refers to the techniques as also the technical contrivances. A systematic way of applying the techniques to achieve an objective is as important as the use of technical equipment for the same. Techniques are reckoned as the software and the equipment as the hardware of technology. Technology results in new designs and devices as also new ideas and processes. Each new physical device is accompanied by a new set of procedures and techniques.The 'hard' component (physical device) may be differentiated from the 'soft' component (methodologies) for the purpose of study.

Education, the act or process of acquiring and imparting knowledge, is crucial to the development of a learner with a view to his/her participation in the transformation of the world for a better tomorrow. Learning and understanding are basic to the definition of education.

Educational technology usually thought of even more than the sum of the following two interpretations:

1. Technology *in* education

2. Technology *of* education.

TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION + TECHNOLOGY OF EDUCATION
Hardware + Software
EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY
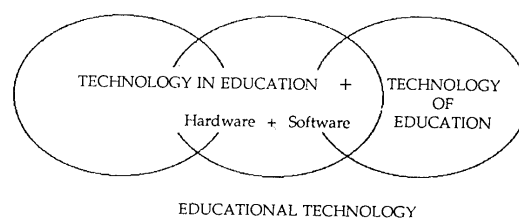
Early developments referred to the role of technology in education which signify the use of audiovisual equipment, i.e., hardware in educational processes. Later developments recognise the concept of technology of education, i.e., techniques and methodologies of the teaching-learning process. This is indeed the software aspect of education technology. The origin of software is closely associated with the courseware, i.e., instructional design and development of a subject.

Use of technology in education results in increased effectiveness of the educational process. Use of technology in training results in increased productivity through enhanced human capability.

As explained by the Council for Educational Technology, UK, "Educational Technology is the development, application and evaluation of systems, techniques and aids to improve the process of human learning".

National Centre for Programmed Learning, UK defined "Educational Technology is the application of scientific knowledge about learning, and the conditions of learning, to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching and training. In the absence of scientifically established principles, educational technology implements techniques of empirical testing to improve learning situations".

Educational technology is a systematic way, a process or an application of the scientific knowledge, to improve the efficiency of the process of learning and instruction.

Educational technology includes both technology in education and technology of education. i.e Hard ware and Soft ware.

Development of Educational Technology

The subject of educational technology has developed over three aspects after the Second World War :
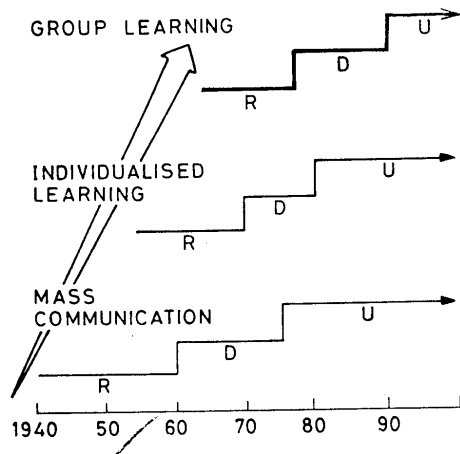
Mass Communication,

Individual Learning, and

Group Learning Strategies.

According to Elton, each of these aspects has passed through the following three phases Research (R), Development (D),and Use (U)

This is shown schematically in Fig

Elton's Model for Development

Educational Technology vs Audiovisual Aids

There is often a confusion in the minds of the beginners about the terms. Educational technology is a vast subject concerned with the application of scientific knowledge about learning and conditions of learning in order to improve the effectiveness of teaching, learning and evaluation. Audiovisuals are merely the aids or resources, i.e., materials which are employed to improve the quality of the message.

Audiovisuals are a part of a subject of Educational Technology as shown in Fig.
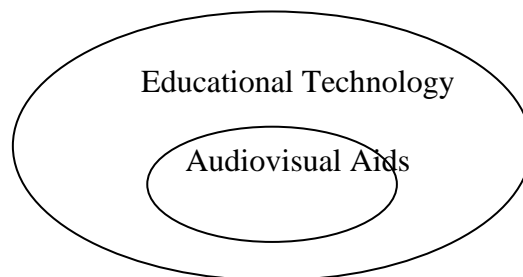
Fig -- Audiovisual Aids as a Subset of Educational Technology

Educational Technology vs Audiovisual Aids

| *Audiovisual Aids*	*Educational Technology*
i) Audiovisual aids are physical objects.	Educational technology is a vast subject
ii) Audiovisuals consist of print matter projected and electronics resources such as slides, video and computers.	The subject of educational technology encompasses learning psychology, communication and advances in science

	and technology.
iii) Audiovisuals are material products which may be used or misused	Educational technology connotes processes and products of instructional design.
iv) Audiovisuals improve the quality of the message; they impart audio and visual dimensions to it.	Educational technology aims at improving all aspects of communication, i.e., encoding, message, channel, barriers, decoding, retention and application.
v) Audiovisual aids exist without regard to group dynamics and individual differences.	Educational technology deals with the processes of implementing methods and resources with regard to group dynamics and individual differences.
vi) Audiovisuals are products of technology alone. They are technical gadgets.	Educational technology is a great deal more than technology; it is based on psychology, social anthropology, etc.
vii) Audiovisuals stand alone. These are unrelated articles.	Educational technology is a system with a number of interconnected and interdependent components.
viii) Audiovisual aids are different for different topics and subjects. They fit in a curriculum.	Educational technology principles are applicable to all topics and subjects and hence basic to all curriculum development.

Educational Technology Components:

In terms of systems approach, educational technology may be viewed as a system
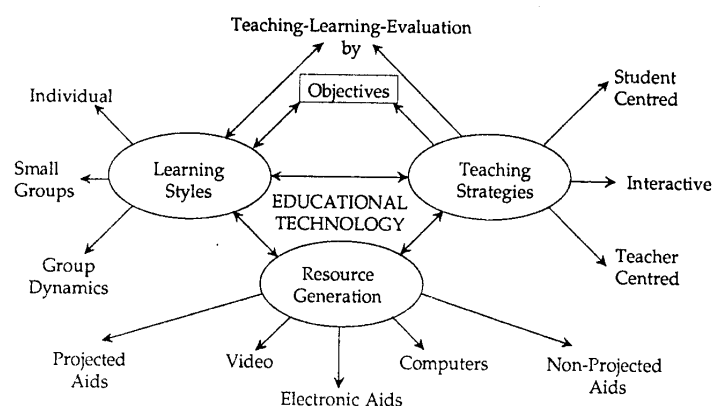
with a number of subsystems and components or elements as shown in

Fig.   Components of Educational Technology

Dealing with the interacting subsystems or components of the educational technology system is referred to as the systems approach in dealing with institutional problems and developmental issues. It brings into focus the process and the product orientation of educational technology. The process concept directs our attention to the components of needs assessment, goal analysis, task analysis, curriculum design, selection of instructional delivery systems, production and utilisation of media as also the formative and summative evaluation. The product orientation of educational technology makes reference to the audiovisual devices and hardware. The total system consists of interacting processes and products employed for the desired educational goals. The systems approach helps us to identify the effectiveness and the weak points of subsystems and hence the means through which instructional systems can operate at optimum efficiencies.

ANDRAGOGIC PRINICIPLES IN EXTENSION EDUCATION

The teaching-learning process is one of the most delicate, significant and complex of all social processes. This is so because the role of education is to change the way people think and act. This statement has got implications both in formal and non-formal contexts. Basically, the two key terms *viz.,* 'teaching' and 'learning' may be defined as follows:

Teaching is the process of providing situations in which learning takes place.

Learning is the process of progressive behaviour adaptation.

Kimble and Garmazy (1963) defined that Learning is relatively a permanent change in a behavioural tendency and is the result of reinforced practice. The reinforced practice is the cause of learning. This 'concept of learning' is illustrated below:

Fig . The concept of learning

It would be meaningful if the following characteristics of learning are fully understood to proceed ahead, to study the andragogic principles.

Characteristics of learning

i   Learning is growth like and continuous

ii   Learning should be purposeful

iii   Learning involves appropriate activity by the learners

iv   Learning must be challenging and satisfying

v   Learning must result in functional understanding

vi   Learning ability varies widely among individuals

vii   Learning in general is a gradual process, usually requiring several exposures every time.

viii   Learning capacity remains significantly high throughout normal adult life

ix   Learning and teaching is an intentional process on the part of both the instructor and learner.

The realisation of the characteristics that distinguish the adults from younger learners is a must for educators by which they can fully understand that these characteristics demand the use of andragogic rather than pedagogical strategies.

These characteristics include:

1.   A changing self-concept which by adulthood has become increasingly self directed.

2.   Accumulated experience which makes the adult learner an increasingly rich resource for learning.

3.   Adults' readiness to learn what they need to know and to engage in education.

4.   An adult preference for a problem centered approach to learning.

Knowles (1970) defined 'andragogy' as the art and science of helping adults learn.

Mazirow (1981) defined it as an organised and sustained effort to assist adults to learn in a way that enhances their capability to function as self-directed, learners.

Basic assumptions of andragogy

1.   Human beings are social beings, which means that their nature derives from their interaction or transactions within their social and historical context.

2. An adult person who is thinking, learning and critically reflecting is a more adequate social being.

3. The potential for continuing development of thought, feeling and self during adulthood entails qualitative change in thinking and thought structures

4. Creative and critical thinking rather than the uncritical reception of others' thinking is preferred because these modes of thinking foster the full development of the adult.

5. Creative and critical thinking are more appropriately fostered by a combination of group and individual self-directed learning.

6. A combining re-integration of the cognitive and the affective domains is an essential ingredient for effective adult learning

7. Knowledge can be seen as both an open system and a closed system (when it is seen as an open system, it is something to which the learner can add or which can be altered by critical thought; when it is perceived as a closed system, it is something which can be used by the learner to solve problems or to create new systems

8. Learning involves thinking, discovery, enquiry, critical reflection and creative response

9. Education is not about transmission, but rather it is about selection, synthesis, discovery and dialogue

Salient Features of Adult Learning

Non-Prescriptive

A non-prescriptive attitude is a basic requirement for the initiation of the adult learning process. It is important that all members of the peer learning group acknowledge the need for this attitude and are preferred to work towards it.

Issue-centered

The learning group may problematise the prescribed content by turning it into or relating it to significant issues, questions or problems,

Problem-posing and knowledge creation

When questions, problems and issues are the focus of study, knowledge gained or understanding enhanced is a creative venture for the learners.

Praxis

Praxis is required if new answers to problems are to result in already states of thought. A willingness to alternative way of thinking is also a basic requirement of the adult learning process.

Continuous negotiation

It involves continual making of small decisions about content and process

Shared individual and group responsibility for learning

The group members must share an equal responsibility for their own learning and for the learning of others.

Valuing process as part of learning

Valuing process means that group members acknowledge group process as an important vehicle for learning and development.

Dialogue

In the process of dialogue, listening is essential and involves hearing what other are saying and responding to others' ideas, thoughts and feelings. It requires a questioning attitude towards existing knowledge and a genuine curiosity towards all that is being communicated within the group.

Equality amongst group members

A sharing of power even when unequal power relationships or status exists outside the group.

Openness, trust, care and commitment amongst all group members for each other and for the processes of dialogue in which they are involved.

Mutual respect amongst all group members for the ideas, thoughts and feelings of one another.

Integrated thinking and learning

It is desired that the integrated thinking and learning must take place in the individual and in the groups.

Implications for adult education

Knowles (1968) draws out the following five implications from the notion of self-concept for adult education :

i)   a climate of adultness should be created - physical arrangement of place, avoiding regimentation etc.

ii)   who diagnoses what the adult should learn-adults should be involved in the diagnosis of their own learning needs.

iii)   planning process in which all the concerned should be involved.

iv)   adults should be involved in the actual process of their own learning (using teachers as a resource).

v)   at the end of the learning experience, they should be involved in a process of reassessing the remaining groups.

Predicators of learning effort

While studying the factors contributed for the learning effort in training programmes, Biswas (1998) proposed a model which is presented below.
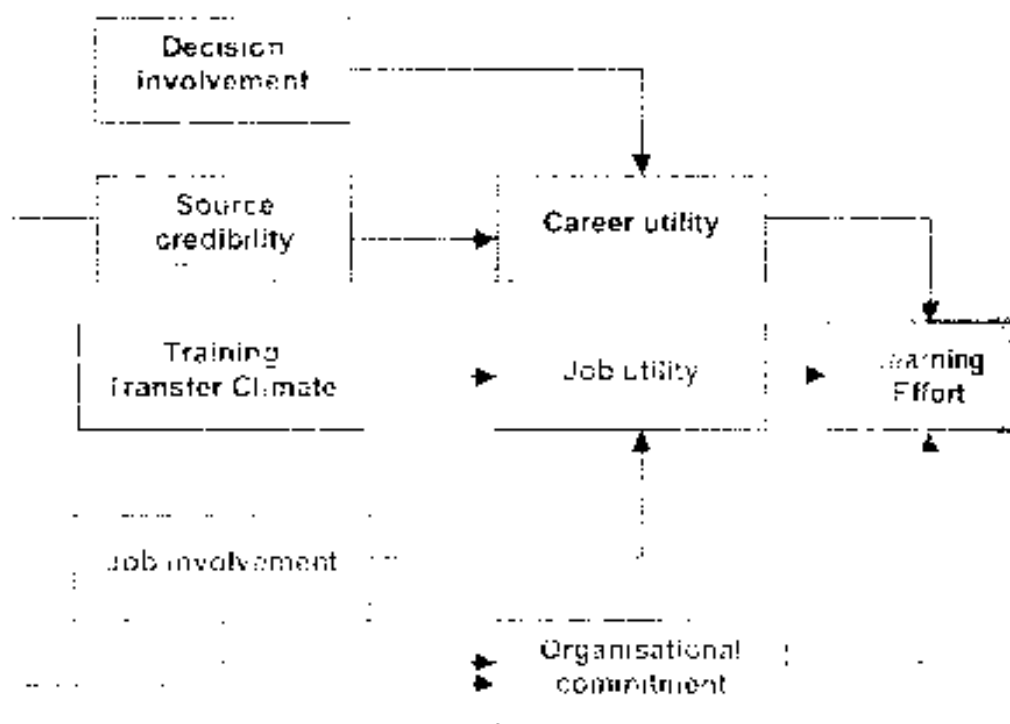

Fig 2. Model of Learning Effort in Training Programmes

Fig   . Model of Learning Effect in Training Programmes

The model is an extension of the Clark, Dobbins and Ladd (1993) model of training motivation. This model proposed that learning effort is a direct function of the extent to which the trainee believes that the training will result in either job utility (higher job performance and less job stress etc.) or Career utility (promotion opportunities, acquiring skills, etc.) and organisational commitment.
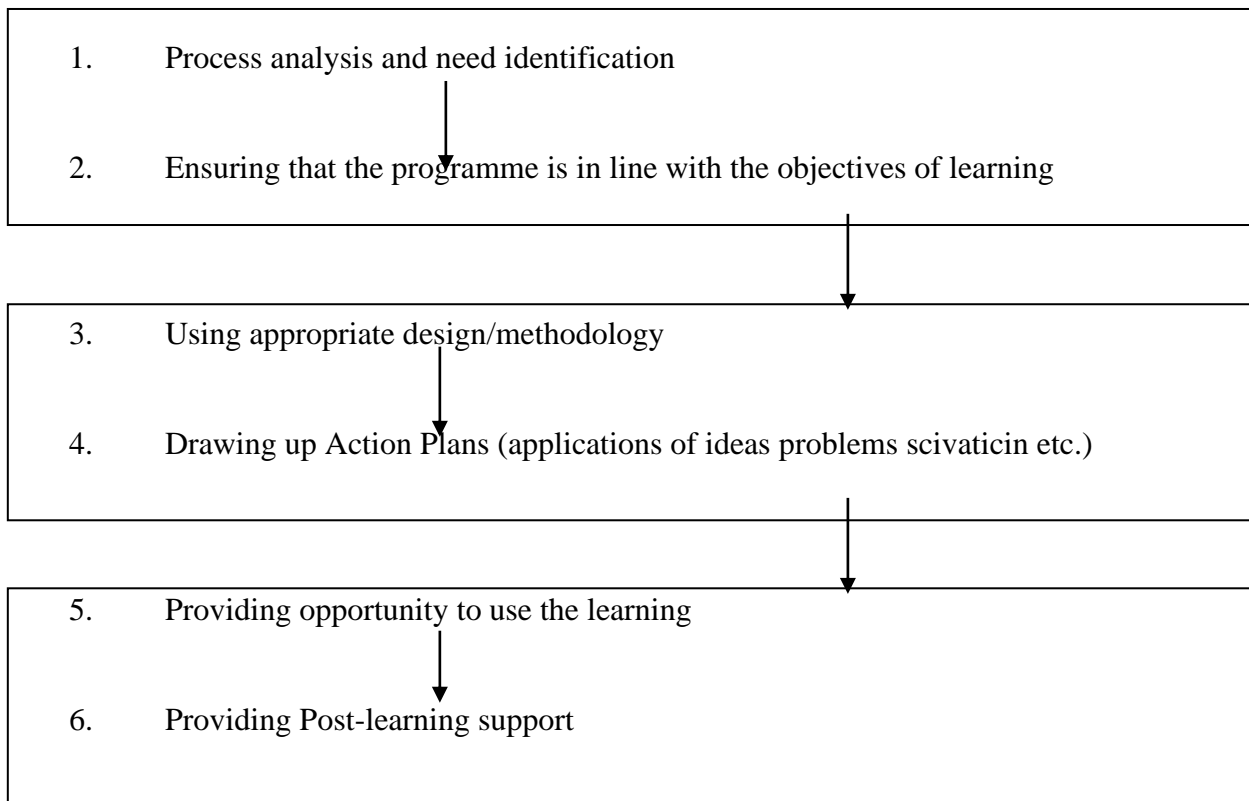
This model has got greater implications to train farm students. The learning effort by them would be greatly fostered if the job utility and career utility are kept into consideration while planning and executing any educational activity. Related to this, organisational commitment by which they may be affiliated or attached to the orgnaisation concerned may also be focussed while preparing them for their placement which would also enable them for acquiring the required levels of learning effort.

Transfer of learning or application of learning to the job is a critical measure of the effectiveness of any educational programme. The effectiveness of the programme depends on ensuring that the participants "learn" the required knowledge, skills and attitudes as also that they "apply" their learning on their jobs on return to their work place. The teacher (trainer), learner (trainee) and the organisation are the partners in this process.

Transfer of learning can occur only if the trainee
a)   knows how to apply the learning in the work situation i.e., translating the concepts into practice.
b)   wants to apply the learning i.e., motivation to learn and applying the learned concepts.
c)   is actually able to apply the learning at the work place i.e., the trainee gets the opportunity and support to apply the learning.

The process of enhancing transfer of learning can be viewed as a six-stage model as illustrated below.

| 1. | Process analysis and need identification |
| 2. | Ensuring that the programme is in line with the objectives of learning |

| 3. | Using appropriate design/methodology |
| 4. | Drawing up Action Plans (applications of ideas problems scivaticin etc.) |

| 5. | Providing opportunity to use the learning |
| 6. | Providing Post-learning support |

Research for participation in learning activity

1. Desire for knowledge
2. To meet personal/self-development goals
3. To meet occupational goals
4. To meet social/community goals
5. To comply with external expectations/formal requirements/urging of others
6. To meet economic need
7. For role development

Reasons for non-participation in learning process

1. Lack of information
2. Situational barriers
   - Poor time management, more family responsibilities, work load, less financial resources etc.,
3. Institutional barriers
   - Minimum allocation of funds by the organisations
4. Dispositional barriers reluctance to engage in education may have more to do with attitudes, perceptions and expectations.

This has more bearing on

- perception of inappropriateness and lack of relevance
- hostility towards the institution/system
- lack of confidence in one's ability to learn
- lack of a future perspective

Learning difficulties of adult learners

It is by experience any teacher would have been exposed to a variety of learning difficulties faced by the students. Some of the major difficulties with practical considerations to solve them are enumerated below :

a) Lack of understanding the given task

Ask the student to repeat what he/she believes the task is to be. If the student repeats your own statements, check that the message is really understood.

b) Unsuitable environment to the task

Provide the required physical environment (lab and library facilities, land, labour, inputs to conduct trials etc.) needed to perform the task.

c) Physical impairments of students

Assess their health standards and accordingly assign the task

d) Inadequate time for the task

Allow time for explorations, mistakes and critical reflections. Review the individual student performance.

e) Difficulty level of the task

The task may be simplified or amended to better suit the student's capabilities or the student may be paired with some one who have complementary skills.

f) Inhibiting others' performance by individuals in a group

Identify quick learners and slow learners and accordingly they may be grouped.

g) Nature of a student who is afraid of failure in front of peers

By setting individual targets, stressing process rather than the outcomes and helping students to develop cooperative skills, it is possible to avoid this difficulty.

h) Negative attitude of the students towards the teacher

Reviewing and revising the attitudinal setting of both students and teachers.

i) Lack of status for the course

Ascertain that the students perceive sufficient status for your course in the overall curriculum of the Institution.

j) Student's overestimation of his/her ability

Identify whether the student is caught in a trap of overestimating his/her ability. The student may be focussed on his/her mistakes, areas of ignorance and the important instructions he/she is missing etc., so that he/she may adapt to the environment.

Strategies to help adults for effective learning

1. Share something of value with your adult learners.
2. Concretely indicate your cooperative intentions to help adults learn.
3. To the extent possible, reflect the language, perspective and attitudes of your adult learners.
4. When issuing assignments, give your rationale for the stipulations.
5. Allow for introductions.
6. Eliminate or minimise any negative conditions that surround the subject.

Ensure successful learning through the following means :

a) In addition to main instructional techniques, have a number of alternatives as below :

i) Group study procedures

ii) Other suggested text books

iii) Workshop sessions

iv) Audio visual methods

v)   Tutorial help

b)   Set clear standards of mastery and excellence

c)   Avoid inter-learner competition

d)   Break down courses into smaller units of learning

e)   Frequently use formative evaluation

7.   Make the first experience with the subject as positive as possible.

8.   Positively confront the possible erroneous beliefs, expectations and assumptions that may underline a negative learner attitude.

9.   Associate the learner with other learners who are enthusiastic about the subject.

10.   Promote the learners' personal control of context of learning

11.   Help learners to attribute their success to their ability of their effort.

12.   Help learners to understand that effort and persistence can overcome their failures.

13.   Make the learning goal as clear as possible.

14.   Make the criteria of evaluation as clear as possible

15.   Use models similar to the learners to demonstrate expected learning

16.   Announce the expected amount of time needed for study and practice for successful learning

17.   Use goal-setting methods

18.   Use contracting methods.

Tips to Encourage the learner

a)   Give recognition for real effort

b)   Minimize mistake while the learner is struggling

c)   Emphasize learning from mistakes

d)   For each learning task, demonstrate a confident and realistic expectancy that the learner will learn.

e)   Show faith in the adults capacity as a learner

f)   Work with the learner at the beginning of difficult task

g)   Reinforce the "process" of learning

To conclude, the recent realisation and significance attributed to the issues of adult learning worldwide provide new vistas to all the educationists with an aim to strengthen the teaching-learning process. This poses newer challenges to teachers, learners and educational administrators as the task of transforming principles into practices lie in their hands..

RURAL LEADERSHIP AND ITS ROLE IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT:

In the case of mankind the leadership manifests whenever men assemble in a group, either voluntarily or by the demand of their duties. In modern complex societies the leadership assumes many forms. Rural people need leaders to guide, direct and channelise its functions.

Leader

a) Leader is any individual whose behaviour stimulates action in some group. He says, a leader would be an individual in a group, who in some situations, has the right to influence and stimulate the behaviour of other members.

b)   Leaders are persons who are selected by the people because of their special interests or fitness to work on some phases of the local programmes.- Garg (1961).

c)   Leader is a person who is clearly distinguished from other individuals in power, status, vision and such traits of character as inteligence, integrity, courage, wisdom and judgement.   -   Chitambar (1973).

d)   Leader is a person who has been spontaneously considered or chosen as being influential.   -   Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985).

Leadership

1.   It is the process whereby an individual directs, guides and influences the thought, feeling and behaviour of the other human beings.

2.   Leadership is a complex phenomenon of a group life in which different types of individuals carry out a Varity of leadership functions depending upon both the qualities possessed by different group members and the scientific needs of the group at a given time.   -   Chitambar (1973)

3.   Leadership is the process of influencing the behaviour of the individual in a given situation.   -   Dahama and Bhatnagar (1985).

4. Leadership is an effort to direct the behaviour of others towards a particular end. - Birendrakumar and Hansra (2000).

Need for Leadership:

Man cannot live alone. He has the 'social' nature within him that attracts him towards grouping. Human beings are atoms which cannot exist alone but must form molecules. Then only the ultimate product can be obtained. Man is a social being and social group requires guidance. Guidance is to be given by leaders.

The pattern of rural leadership reflects a transition from individual to collective, from the hereditary to elective and from prescriptive to functional type of leadership. The change-over is not a sudden but a gradual process.

The traditional village leaders are either undertaking new functions and adjusting themselves with the emerging patterns or are being replaced after being rendered ineffective. The new forces are specifically affective in changing the composition of rural leadership as regards the factors of age, caste, income and education at village level.

Now the villagers have readily accepted the active leadership of the middle and younger age groups. The backward castes have come to dominate the panchayats as well as other institutes at village level.

Contribution of rural leaders to extension service:

1. The number of extension teachers can be increased and make learning possible to greater number of people.
2. The extension worker's time will be used productively.
3. Leadership developed through extension strengthens work on other community activities.

4.   Leaders speak in the language of the local people and therefore are often better understood by the people.

5.   Leader training produces self-confidence and helps people to do things for themselves and results in satisfaction to the leader and to all the people.

6.   Leaders can help to analyse local problems as a basis for programme development.

7.   Local leader is available for frequent personal consultation.

8.   Prestige and personal following of the local leader increases the likelihood of new practices being adopted.

        In extension work, the group has to accept the responsibility for thinking through problems and making its own decisions and securing satisfaction. The most important single factor in this process is the quality of leadership.

<center>**Qualities and functions of leaders**</center>

The function of extension worker is to create in village people a desire for improvement and willingness to work for its achievement. However the extension worker as an outsider cannot provide the leadership which is necessary to bring about this changed outlook. His function is to guide not to lead. Leadership is a single factor that determines the success or failure of a programme. All village groups both formal and those formally organised function through recognised group leaders. Leaders are the persons who are selected by the people because of their special interest and fitness to work on some phase of local programmes. To be an effective leader, persons who want to become a leader or who is taking the role of leadership should have certain qualities and he should perform certain functions

Qualities of leaders:

1.   Physical and Nervous energy

Almost every study of the secret of the successful leader has agreed that the possession of a generous and unusual endowment of physical and nervous energy is essential to personal ascendency. A person who rise in a mass of men will have definitely a greater vigour of body and mind than the others. The ability to persevere in the face of discouragement and disappointment and possession of courage to face strong opposition are both qualities which mark successful leaders.

2.   Sense of purpose and direction

This quality which is clearly prominent in every good leader is a strongly developed sense of a dominant purpose and direction. The leader is one who knows with greater than average strength of conviction what he wants to get done and where he wants to go. Purposefulness to be effective requires that the aims sought are 1) definite 2) readily communicable to others 3) potentially attractive others. 4) vigorously, persistently and enthusiastically sustained by the leader.

3. Enthusiasm

Good leaders are enthusiastic. They are in their measure possessed caught up instruments of a cause or power, which uses them. They feel themselves commanded by a power and strength, which they in turn command.

4. Friendliness and affection

The friendly attitude is the influencing attitude and the affection is a positive motivating force over the conduct of those upon whom it is poured out. The leader especially in a large and significant project has the opportunity no less than privilege of summoning people's friendliness and desire to be affectionate.

5. Integrity

Integrity originally means wholeness. The leader who can attain within him a unity or wholeness of drive and outlook will possess integrity. The acquiring of this quality is thus no little thing, and the process requires no minor adjustment. It is a major problem of the whole life philosophy and character of the individual.

6. Technical mastery

The leader should have a command over the technical areas, skill in conference techniques, proficiency in delivering information to others etc. This may be acquired by experience and proper exposures through training.

7. Decisiveness

The leader by his complete immersion in the facts of his situation is frequently able to give a wise decision. The real leader will stand ready courageously to pay the price of seeing his decisions through without the disruptive tactics of planning for his own errors.

8. Intelligence

It is mostly an innate character. Intelligence is the ability to appraise situations readily to see their significance in the total setting of present and past experience and to get cues as to the likely line of action.

9. Teaching skill

A good leader is a good teacher. His role is like the teacher's in helping followers through experiences which brings a changed mind and motive.

10.   Faith

Leader must cherish the firm conviction that the effort is worthwhile. The important thing is that it should enable the followers to emerge out of doubt into confidence.

Functions of Leaders:

1.   An executive: The leader has to be able to assign duties to people and to see to the execution of a job where it be.

2.   A planner: The leader starts with a very nebulous situation, which he/she has to clarify and see it as something concerned so that the programme can be followed.

3.   A policy maker: The leader must be involved in stating the policies, which will guide the group.

4.   An expert: The leader must possess superior knowledge and competence than others.

5.   A representative: The leader stands for the group to the outside world; the leader is a sort of a symbol or spokesman for the group.

6.   A regulator: Whenever internal relations among the members of the group get a little shaky, unpleasant, conflicting and soon the leader must be able to get them straightened up before it is too late. The leader must be able to put the group back into shape.

7.   A rewarder: The leader must also give out rewards and punishments whenever required so that everybody keeps on giving his/her best performance without feeling disgruntled or without feeling like walking away.

**8.   **He must be able to assume responsibility for the whole group.

9.   An ideologist: The leader has to impart an ideology to the group so as to give it consistency and the proper frame of reference.

10.   The father figure: The leader must be at least in part a sort of symbol people can look up to in moments of crisis.

To put it more precisely applying to the field realities, a leader is expected to:

1)   help village people to have successful experience in working together through their own village organisations in improving all phases of village life including agriculture, health, education, housing, family living, infra structure creation etc.

2)   teach people to understand village problems and their causes through extension education.

3)   encourage and help village people to take intelligent decisions to solve their problems through educational methods.

4)   help village people gain experience in working together through village organisations.

5)   help them learn to adopt new practices that will solve the problems.

6)   educate village people to want to improve their status and living standards.

7)   teach by demonstration how new practices can be applied to village conditions.

8)   help the village people understand that in free democratic country all the people are free citizens and all have an equal responsibility to contribute towards the building of the country.

Approaches and Theories of Leadership:

1. Trait Approach:

It is believed that people were born with certain traits of excellence and only the "great" people possessed them. A person who possesses certain traits of excellence becomes the leader of the group.

The theories based on this developed were called "great man" theories because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political and military leaders.

Many authors gave various traits for a leader. Among them, some of the important traits for a leader are.

a) Intelligence:

It is positively related to leadership. Having strong verbal ability, perceptual ability and reasoning appears to make one a better leader.

The important thing is that the leader's intellectual ability should not vary too much from that of his/her subordinates. Leaders with higher abilities may have difficulty in communicating because their ideas are too advanced to be accepted by their followers.

b) Self confidence:

It is the ability to be certain about one's competencies and skills. It includes self-esteem and self-assurance and the belief that one can make a difference. Self-confidence allows the leader to feel assured that his or her attempts to influence are appropriate and right.

c) Determination

It refers to the desire to get the job done. Individuals with determination have the capacity to persevere in the face of obstacles.

d) Integrity

Integrity is the quality of honesty and trustworthiness. Leaders with integrity will inspire confidence in followers / others because they can be trusted to do what they say they are going to do. Basically, integrity makes a leader believable and worthy of our trust.

e) Sociability

Sociability refers to a leader's initiation to seek out pleasant social relationships. Leaders who show sociability are friendly, outgoing, courteous, tactful and diplomatic. They are sensitive to other's needs and show concern for their well being.

It is best suited for managers recruitment to any organisation. The assumption behind is that selecting the "right" people will increase organizational effectiveness.

2. Style Approach:

It mainly emphasises the "behaviour" of the leader. It focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act. Style approach expanded the study of leadership to include actions of leaders toward subordinates in various contents. Style approach determines that leadership is comprised of essentially two general kinds of behaviours viz;

i)   Task behaviours and
ii)   Relationship behaviours.

Task behaviours facilitate goal accomplishment. The leader helps group members to achieve their objectives.

Relationship behaviours help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other and with the situation in which they find themselves.

The central purpose   of the style approach is to explain how leaders combining these two kinds of behaviours to influence subordinates in their efforts to reach a goal.

3. Situational Approach :

One of the most widely recognised approaches to leadership is the situational approach. It was developed by Heresey & Blanchard (1969). It mainly focuses on leadership "in situations".

The basic premise of this approach is that different situations demand different kinds of leadership. From this perspective, to be an effective leader requires that an individual adapts his or her style to the demands of different situations.

The dynamics of situational leadership are best understood by "Situational Leadership II (SLII) Model" which was given by Blanchard and Blanchard *et al* (1985). It divides situational approach into 2 parts viz;

a) Leadership style

b) Development level of subordinates.

a) **Leadership   style :**

It refers to the behaviour pattern of an individual who attempts to influence others.

It includes both directive (task) behaviours and supportive (relationship) behaviours.

Directive behaviours assist group members in goal accomplishment through giving directions. It involves one-way communication.

Supportive behaviours help group members feel comfortable about themselves, their co-workers and the solution. It involves two-way communication.

Leadership styles can be classified further into four distinct categories of directive and supportive behaviours.

Style 1 (S_1) - Directing approach:

It is high directive - low supportive style. It focuses communication on goal achievement and spends a smaller amount of time using supportive behaviours.

Style 2 (S_2) - coaching approach:

It is high directive - high supportive style. It focuses communication on both goal achievement and maintenance of subordinates socio emotional needs.

Style 3 (S_3) - supporting approach:

It is high supportive - low directive style. It does not focus exclusively on goals but use supportive behaviours that bring out the employees' skills around the task to be accomplished.

Style 4 (S_4) - Delegating approach:

In this approach the leader offers less task input and output and social support, facilitating employess' confidence and motivation with reference to the task.

b)   Development levels of subordinates:

Development level refers to the degree to which subordinates have the competence and commitment necessary to accomplish a given task or activity.

The subordinates can be classified into 4 categories viz;

D_1 , D_2 , D_3 and D_4.

D_1 - Low in competence and high in commitment.

They are new to a task and do not know exactly how to do it but they are excited about the challenge of it.

D_2 - some competence but low commitment.

They have started to learn a job but they also have lost some of their initial motivation about the task.

D_3 - moderate - high competence but may lack commitment.

They have essentially developed the skills for the job but they are uncertain as to whether they can accomplish the task by themselves.

D_4 - high degree of competence and high degree of commitment

They have the skills to do the task and the motivation to get it accomplished.

There is a one - to - one relationship between the development level of subordinates and the leadership's style. i.e., S_1 for D_1, S_2 for D_2, S_3 for D_3 and S_4 for D_4.

So, for leaders to be effective, it is essential that they diagnose where subordinates are on the developmental continuum and adapt their leadership styles so they directly match their style to the development level of subordinates.

4. Transformational approach:

One of the current approaches to leadership that has been the focus of much research since the early 1980 is the transformational approach. It is part of "the new leadership" paradigm.

This approach consists of 3 forms of leadership. They are :

i) Transformational leadership

ii) Transactional leadership

iii) Non- transactional (or) Laissez- faire leadership.

i) Transformational leadership:

The term "transformational leadership" was first coined by Downton.

Transformational leadership refers to the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential

Transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. It is concerned with values, ethics, standards and long-term goals. It involves assessing followers motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. It is a process that subsumes charismatic and visionary leadership.

ii) Transactional leadership:

It refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the exchange that occur between leaders and their followers. Transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates nor focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with subordinates to advance their own as well as their subordinate's agenda.

iii) Non-transactional (or) Laissez-Faire leadership:

It is called "hands - off - let - things - ride" approach. This leader abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feed back, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs. There is no exchange with followers or any attempt to help them grow.

Theories of leadership

1. Contingency theory :

Fiedler's contingency theory is most widely recognised theory.

Contingency theory is a " leader - match" theory, which means it tries to match leaders to appropriate situations. It is called "contingency" because it suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. To understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand the situations in which they lead. Effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting.

Contingency theory is concerned with styles and situations. It provides the framework for effectively matching the leaders and the situations. These issues are explained below:

i) Leadership styles :

Within the framework of contingency theory, leadership styles are described as task-motivated or relationship motivated.

Task motivated leaders are concerned primarily with reaching a goal, whereas relationship-motivated leaders are concerned with developing close inter-personal relations.

ii) Situational variables :

Contingency theory suggests that situations can be characterised by assessing three factors:-

a) Leader- member relations

b) Task structure

c) Position of power.

a)   Leader-Member relations:

It refers to the group atmosphere and to the degree of confidence, loyalty and attraction that followers feel for their leader.

If group atmosphere is positive and subordinates trust, like, and get along with their leader, the leader-member relations are defined as good; on the other hand, if the atmosphere is unfriendly and friction exists within the group, the leader-member relations are defined as poor.

b)   Task structure :

It refers to the degree to which the requirements of a task are clear and spelled out. Tasks that are completely structured tend to give more control to the leader, whereas vague and unclear tasks lessen the leader's control and influence.

c)   Position of power:

It refers to the amount of authority a leader has to reward or to punish followers. It includes the legitimate power individuals acquire as a result of the position they hold in organisations.

These 3 situational factors together detemine the "favourableness" of various situations in organisations.   Contingency theory states that if leader's style is a good match for the situation in which he works, he will be good at the job; if his style does not match the situation, he will most likely fail.

2. Path - Goal theory

Path - goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals. The stated goal of this leadership theory is to enhance member performance and member satisfaction by focusing on member motivation.

Path-goal theory emphasizes the relationship between the leader's style and the characterstics of the subordinates and the work setting.

This theory is designed to explain how leaders can help subordinates along the path to their goals by selecting specific behaviours that are best suited to subordinates' needs and to the situation in which subordinates are working. By choosing the appropriate style, leaders increase subordinates' expectations for success and satisfaction.

3. Team leadership theory :

Leadership in organizational groups or work teams has become one of the most popular and rapidly growing areas of leadership theory.

Team :

It is an organizational group composed of members who are interdependent, who share common goals, and who must co-ordinate their activities to accomplish these goals. Team leadership theory mainly focusses on what makes team effective or what constitutes team excellence.

This approach is practical in that it is built around and focusses on group outcomes and productivity ie., effectiveness. In theoretical it takes into account the complexity of team work by focusing on the many structural, individual, contextual and process factors that contribute to team effectiveness.

This approach demonstrates the role of leadership in designing and coaching teams to achieve effectiveness. So the leader possesses special responsibility for functioning in a manner that will help the group achieve effectiveness.

Team leadership mainly focuses the leader in bringing group effectiveness to achieve the goals. So it is necessary to understand the factors, which are responsible for bringing group effectiveness.

Larson and Lafasto (1989) demonstrated that regardless of type of team, there are 8 characteristics regularly associated with team excellence. They are

i)   Clear, elevating goal :

Team goals need to be very clear and to be involving or motivating so that members believe it to be worthwhile and important.

ii)   Results - driven structure :

Teams need to find the best structure to accomplish their goals. Team or work groups have different work content with which they deal. Groups with appropriate structures can meet the needs of the group as well as accomplish team goals.

iii)   Competent team members :

Groups should be composed of the right number and mix of members to accomplish all the tasks of the group. In addition, members need to be provided with sufficient information, education and training to become or to remain competent team members. As a total group, the members need to possess the requisite technical competence to accomplish the team's goals. Members also need to be personally competent in interpersonal skills or team work.

iv)   Unified commitment :

Excellent teams have developed a sense of unity or identification. Such team spirit can frequently be developed by involving members in all aspects of the process.

v)   Collaborative climate :

Trust based on honesty, openness, consistency and respect seems to be essential for building a collaborative climate in which members can stay problem-focussed, be open with one another, listen to each other, feel free to take risks and be waiting to compensate for each other.

vi)   Standards of excellence:

It is especially important that the organizational context or the team itself sets up normative standards of excellence so that members will feel a pressure to perform at their highest levels. The standards need to be clear and concrete, and all team members need to be required to perform to standard. If such standards are not in place, members might become lazy and not bother to perform at their highest levels.

vii)   External support and recognition :

Teams that are supported by external sources by being given the resources needed to do their jobs, by being recognized for team accomplishments, and by providing reward collectively to team member performance rather than individual achievement can achieve excellence.

viii)   Principle leadership :

Effective team leaders serve as coaches to help the team members work interdependently. They can help with team effort by assisting in building unified commitment, by motivating team members and by reducing the problems of co-ordination. Leaders can help the team's knowledge and skills by avoiding the focus on individual efforts and can assist in developing shared expertise.

Effective team leaders possess a personal commitment to the team's goal and give members autonomy to unleash their talents when possible.

The main function of leader as per team leadership theory is that he should bring the group (or) team effectiveness by considering all the factors which are responsible for group effectiveness and according them only he has to work (or) function.